

Investigating the Effect of Corrective Feedback on Second Language Pragmatics: Face-to-Face vs. Technology-Mediated Communication

By
Marziyeh Yousefi

B.A., Shiraz Azad University, 2000

M.A., Alzahra University, 2002

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of the Requirements for the Degree of
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Supervisory Committee

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Supervisory Committee

Dr. Hossein Nassaji, Department of Linguistics, University of Victoria
Supervisor

Dr. John Archibald, Department of Linguistics, University of Victoria
Departmental Member

Dr. Ulf Schuetze, Department of Germanic and Slavic Studies, University of Victoria
Outside member

Abstract

Pragmatics “focuses on how people perform, interpret, and respond to language functions in a social context” (Taguchi, 2012, p.1), and therefore its development is key to the development of language competence. Pragmatics entails both linguistic knowledge to perform language functions (pragmalinguistics) and knowledge about the appropriateness of linguistic forms in a given social context (sociopragmatics) (Thomas, 1983). The acquisition of this skill has been shown to be one of the most difficult and latest acquired aspects of L2 learning (Bardovi-Harlig & Vellenga, 2012), and in this context, corrective feedback (information about the accuracy of learners’ output), has been considered to be essential to the mastery of this knowledge. This study attempted to answer whether corrective feedback on L2 request and refusal forms provided through Face-to-Face (FF) or through Technology-Mediated (TM) modes can lead to an improvement in the learners’ performance in comprehension and production.

Forty-four ELL students in three parallel intact classes were chosen to participate in the study. A Role-play test was used to collect production data and a multiple-choice discourse completion test was used to gather comprehension data. A mixed-model Analysis of Variance was conducted to examine the main and interaction effects of the treatment (corrective feedback), delivery mode (FF and TM), speech act type (request and refusal), and time (pre-test, post-test, and delayed post-test).

The results demonstrated that CF led to improved performance in L2 pragmatics. Significant effects for corrective feedback were clear for both pragmatic comprehension and production, and there was no difference between comprehension and production improvement. Furthermore, the results showed that both FF and TM corrective feedback were effective

modalities for improving pragmatic production while only TM delivery was effective in comprehending the target speech acts. The findings of the present study also suggest that CF effects were durable both in production and comprehension. The possibility of the effects of type of speech acts in influencing CF effects was generally rejected as CF improved comprehending and producing both speech acts significantly. In summary, the findings of the study generally support the application of CF and technology to the acquisition of second language pragmatic ability.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Supervisory Committee	ii
Abstract	iii
Table of Contents	v
List of Tables	viii
List of Figures	ix
Acknowledgements	xi
Dedication	xiii

CHAPTER ONE: INTRODUCTION

1.0 Introduction	1
1.1 Background and Purpose of the Study	1
1.2 Rationale of the Study	9
1.3 Statement of the Problem	10
1.4 Significance of the Study	10
1.5 Definitions of Terms in the Study	12
1.6 Outline of the Dissertation	16
1.7 Summary	17

CHAPTER TWO: LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction	19
2.1 Pragmatics	19
2.2 Pragmatic Competence	20
2.3 Theoretical Frameworks	25
2.3.1 Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis	25
2.3.2 Long's Interaction Hypothesis	29
2.3.3 Speech Act Theory	31
2.3.4 Conversation Principle of Cooperation	34
2.3.5 Politeness Theory	36
2.4 Request and Refusal as Speech Acts	39
2.5 Data Elicitation Tools in L2 Pragmatics	46
2.5.1 Comprehension Test: Multiple-Choice Discourse Completion Test (MDCT)	47
2.5.2 Production Test: Role-Play Test (RP)	50
2.6 A Review of Literature on L2 Pragmatics Research	52
2.7 Corrective Feedback	59
2.8 Technology and Language Instruction	78
2.9 Research Questions	87
2.10 Chapter Summary	94

CHAPTER THREE: RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction	95
------------------------	----

3.1 Overall Design	95
3.2 Participants	96
3.3 Instructional Materials	101
3.4 Data Collection Instruments.....	105
3.4.1 Comprehension test: Multiple-choice Discourse Completion Test (MDCT)	105
3.4.2 Production Test: Oral Role-play Test (RP).....	109
3.5 Pilot Study	113
3.6 Treatment Procedure	117
3.7 Data Collection Procedure	126
3.8 Scoring Procedures of MDCT and RP.....	128
3.9 Summary	134

CHAPTER FOUR: RESULTS

4.0 Introduction.....	136
4.1 Normality Test	137
4.2 Statistical Analyses Used in the Study.....	138
4.2.1 Mixed-Model ANOVA.....	140
4.2.2 One-Way ANOVA.....	143
4.2.3 Effect Size	143
4.3 Research Question 1: The Overall Effect Corrective Feedback	144
4.3.1 CF Effects: Production Results	145
4.3.2 CF Effects: Comprehension Results	148
4.4 Research Question 2: The Differential Effects of Corrective Feedback on	151
Comprehension vs. Production.....	151
4.5 Research Question 3: Delivery Mode of Corrective Feedback: The Comparison.....	152
Between Face-to-Face and Technology-Mediated Groups.....	152
4.5.1 Delivery Mode: Production Results	153
4.5.2 Delivery Mode: Comprehension Results	153
4.6 Research Question 4: The Type of Speech Act and Corrective Feedback Effects	154
4.6.1 Request and Refusals: Production Results.....	154
4.6.2 Requests and Refusals: Comprehension Results	159
4.7 Research Question 5: The Retention of Corrective Feedback Effects in	164
Comprehension and Production.....	164
4.7.1 Retention of CF Effects: Production Results	164
4.7.2 Retention of CF Effects: Comprehension Results	165
4.8 Summary.....	168

CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

5.0 Introduction.....	170
5.1 The Overall Effect of Corrective Feedback	171
5.2 The Differential Effects of Corrective Feedback on Comprehension and Production	174
5.3 Delivery Mode of Corrective Feedback.....	175
5.4 The Type of Speech Act and Corrective Feedback Effects	180

5.5 The Retention of Corrective Feedback Effects in Comprehension and Production ...	183
5.6 Summary of Questions and Findings	186
5.7 Theoretical Contributions	187
5.8 Pedagogical Implications	190
5.8.1 Enhancing Opportunities for Interaction and Corrective Feedback in the Classroom.....	190
5.8.2 Applying Technology in Pragmatics Instruction	194
5.9 Limitations and Recommendations for Future Research	196
5.10 Concluding Thoughts.....	204
REFERENCES	205
APPENDIX A: PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM	236
APPENDIX B: BACKGROUND QUESTIONNAIRE.....	240
APPENDIX C: TEACHER’S COPY	242
APPENDIX D: HAND OUT 1	245
APPENDIX E: HAND OUT 2	247
APPENDIX F: WORKSHEET 1	248
APPENDIX G: WORKSHEET 2	249
APPENDIX H: ROLE-PLAY CARDS	250
APPENDIX I: PRE-TEST	253
APPENDIX J: IMMEDIATE POST-TEST.....	260
APPENDIX K: DELAYED POST-TEST	267
APPENDIX L: ROLE-PLAY RATING MANUAL AND RUBRICS	274
APPENDIX M: ROLE-PLAY RATING SHEET	278

List of Tables

Table 2.1 Types of act: Locutionary, illocutionary, and perlocutionary	33
Table 2.2 Grice's (1975) Conversational Maxims	35
Table 2.3 Request strategies	41
Table 2.4 Classification of refusals	43
Table 3.1 CLB and CEFR side-by-side comparison.....	98
Table 3.2 Groups sample size	101
Table 3.3 Pearson Correlation Inter-rater reliability results in the RP test.....	112
Table 3.4 Instructional Procedures for FF and TM, and Control Group	125
Table 4.1 Normality tests on MDCT and RP tests.....	138
Table 4.2 Descriptive statistics: Means of 3 groups in pre-test	139
Table 4.3 One-Way Analysis of Variance of Production Pre-test	139
Table 4.4 Kruskal-Wallis Analysis of Variance of Comprehension Pre-test	139
Table 4.5 Group Means of the Production Scores through Three Times	145
Table 4.6 Mauchly's Test of Sphericity (production).....	145
Table 4.7 Mixed-model ANOVA tests of CF; main and interaction effects in production	146
Table 4.8 One-Way Analysis of Variance of Production scores in Immediate and Delayed Post-test.....	147
Table 4.9 Group Means of the Comprehension Scores through Three Times.....	148
Table 4.10 Mauchly's Test of Sphericity (comprehension).....	149
Table 4.11 Mixed-model ANOVA tests of CF; main and interaction effects in comprehension	149
Table 4.12 One-Way Analysis of Variance of Comprehension scores in Immediate and Delayed Post-test.....	150
Table 4.13 Mixed-model ANOVA tests of speech act type; main and interaction effects in production	154
Table 4.14 One-way ANOVA on the speech acts in production.....	156
Table 4.15 Mixed ANOVA, main and interaction effects related to speech act type in comprehension	159
Table 4.16 One-way ANOVA on requests and refusals in comprehension	161
Table 4.17 Multiple pairwise comparisons in production scores	165
Table 4.18 Multiple pairwise comparisons in comprehension scores	166
Table 4.19 Summary of Research Questions and Findings	168
Table 5.1 Summary of findings	170

List of Figures and Pictures

Figure 2.1 Bachman's communicative competence model	21
Figure 2.2 General pragmatics, pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics.....	23
Figure 2.3 CF types.....	60
Figure 2.4 Type and subtypes of interactional feedback	62
Figure 3.1 Study design	95
Figure 3.2 The research design as proposed initially and used in the pilot study.....	114
Figure 3.3 Research design of the main study	117
Figure 3.4 Data collection procedure	127
Figure 4.1 Comprehension and production of the three groups over the three time points...	152
Figure 4.2 Speech acts of request and refusal in RP measure (production)	156
Figure 4.3 Speech acts of request and refusal in MDCT measure (comprehension).....	160
Figure 4.4 Interaction of time by speech act type by group.....	163
Figure 4.5 The three groups performance on the RP pre-test and the two post-tests	167
Figure 4.6 The three groups performance on the MDCT pre-test and the two post-tests.....	167
Picture 3.1 Group video & voice call in WeChat	120
Picture 3.2 Screenshot of teacher's mobile screen giving feedback to a pair in TM group	120

The following acronyms are used throughout the dissertation, listed here for easy reference:

L1 - Native Language of the learner(s)

L2- Second Language

NSs - Native Speakers of a Language

NNSs - Non-Native Speakers of a Language

DCT - Discourse Completion Task

MDCT - Multiple-Choice Discourse Completion Task

RP-Role-Play

ESL - English as a Second Language

CF- Corrective Feedback

FF- Face-to-Face

TM-Technology-Mediated

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Dedications

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CHAPTER ONE- INTRODUCTION

1.0 Introduction

The present study aims at investigating the effects of corrective feedback (CF) on the comprehension and production of English speech acts of requests and refusals. The purpose of the study is to test the effects of corrective feedback using Face-to-Face (FF) classroom and Technology-Mediated (TM) delivery modes under the assumption that interaction and noticing pave the way for L2 acquisition (Long, 1996; Schmidt, 1993). This chapter provides an introduction and the background to the entire study. The background information includes the current problem, the rationale, and the significance of the study. The definitions of terms used in the present study will be presented next. Finally, the outline of the thesis and a summary are briefly described.

1.1 Background and Purpose of the Study

Through globalization the worldwide demand for effective communication in the English language has increased. Adopting a communicative approach to language pedagogy has placed more emphasis on achieving the functional component of the L2 along with its linguistic component. In order to become a fully competent speaker in another language, we must have not only linguistic knowledge but also learn the rules of proper communication, such as how to speak appropriately in a situation or understand another person's intention. "Pragmatics, a subject within linguistics, focuses on how people perform, interpret, and respond to language functions in a social context" (Taguchi, 2012, p.1). Levinson (1983) defines pragmatics as "the study of language use" (p.5). Related to pragmatics are speech acts, which are the actions that speakers can perform with language. For example, language is used to make requests, give

compliments, make complaints, and accept invitations among other things (Loewen, 2015). An often-used example of a pragmatic phenomenon is when someone says “it’s cold,” while in the context of a window being open, and even perhaps looking meaningfully at the person closest to the window. This sentence might intend the meaning of a polite request to please close the window (Culpeper, Mackey, & Taguchi, 2018, p. 25).

The present study is located in classroom research on second language (L2) pragmatics, which is the interface of pragmatics, second language acquisition and educational research. Kasper and Schmidt (1996) originally defined L2 pragmatics as the “the study of the development and use of strategies for linguistic action by nonnative speakers” (p.150).

L2 pragmatics also investigates how pragmatic competence “may be affected by instruction or developed “in the wild” (e.g., study abroad, workplace, and immigration contexts)” (González-Lloret, 2019, p.114).

The development of pragmatic competence implies developing both the linguistic structure of pragmatics (pragmalinguistics) and contextual features of pragmatics (sociopragmatics) (Thomas, 1983). According to Taguchi (2012, p.1), “pragmalinguistics refers to the linguistic forms available to perform language functions, while sociopragmatics refers to the appropriateness of the linguistic forms in a given social context”. Learners need to learn a range of linguistic forms to perform language functions (e.g., learn English modals to perform requests), but at the same time, they need to understand the sociocultural norms and rules that govern the usage of these forms (e.g., what to say to request something from a certain person). If L2 learners fail in any of the above aspects of pragmatic ability, a communication failure may occur (Taguchi, 2012). An example of pragmalinguistic failure given by Thomas (1983, p. 101) happened in Russian ESL classrooms. The teacher asked learners during reading activities, ‘X,

would you like to read?' to which learners repeatedly responded '*no, I wouldn't*'. The author explains that learners failed to recognize that the teacher was making a request. Thus, they did not mean to be rude; they thought, instead, that their preferences were being consulted.

Moreover, according to Thomas (1983), pragmatic failure could occur either as a result of learners misunderstanding what a speaker of a TL says, or when learners produce inappropriate expressions that don't meet the TL pragmatics or cultural norms. Therefore, when it comes to teaching or measuring learners' pragmatic ability, "both comprehension and production should be equally important" (Yamashita, 2008, p. 203). While there are studies examining either pragmatic comprehension (e.g., Taguchi, 2007, 2008, 2011) or pragmatic production (e.g., Bardovi-Harlig, 2009, 2014), there are few studies that compare the effect of instruction on both comprehension and production. This comparison and inclusion of both skills gives a more comprehensive picture of learners' pragmatic competence.

The acquisition of L2 pragmatics is considered to be one of the most difficult and latest acquired aspects of L2 learning (Bardovi-Harlig & Vellenga, 2012). The lack of L2 pragmatic skill is often viewed not as a linguistic deficit when the pragmatic rules are broken, but as a character trait-the speaker is rude, arrogant, pushy, et cetera (Nguyen, 2013). Thus, as Loewen points out, "Learners' L2 pragmatics errors outside of the classroom may have larger social consequences than errors in other linguistic areas" (p. 128). According to Kim (2014), "If pragmatic competence is vital, not only to successful communication, but also to successful integration to the target culture and community, then it is also vital that English teachers help their learners develop this important feature of language competence" (p. 32).

Including pragmatics in L2 instruction is necessary because according to Schmidt (1993), "simple exposure to the target language is insufficient-pragmatic functions and relevant

contextual factors are often not salient to learners and so not likely to be noticed even after prolonged exposure” (cited in Kasper & Rose, 2001, p. 237). Thus, in addition to opportunities for meaning-focused communication, learners also need opportunities for attention to pragmatic form. Along this line of thinking, Long (1991) proposed Focus on Form (FonF) approach to L2 learning. According to Long and Robinson (1998), FonF “consists of an occasional shift of attention to linguistic code features – by the teacher and/or one or more students – triggered by perceived problems with comprehension or production” (p. 23). Focus on Form can be accomplished in various ways. One way to direct learners’ attention to L2 pragmatics features is through providing interactional feedback. Nassaji, (2015) defines interactional feedback as “feedback generated implicitly or explicitly through negotiation and modification processes that occur during interaction to deal with communication or linguistic problems” (p. 536). He further discusses that interactional feedback integrates attention to form and attention to meaning in a communicative context because it is a response to learner errors during meaning-focused interaction. More specifically, this study employs a relatively explicit type of interactional feedback, i.e. corrective recast and defines it as a type of interactional feedback that is designed to be implicit enough so as not to alter communication, and yet salient enough so as to be potentially effective (Nassaji & Fotos, 2011).

Another reason to use this FonF approach was the lack of research on corrective feedback in the area of L2 pragmatics. While the effects of corrective feedback on L2 grammatical development has been widely examined (e.g., Ammar & Spada, 2006; Doughty & Varela, 1998; Ellis 2009; Li 2010; Lyster & Saito 2010; Lyster et al. 2013; Russell & Spada 2006; Sheen 2010a), studies on the role of feedback in teaching L2 pragmatics have been neglected. According to Nguyen, Pham and Pham (2017 p. 46), “since much focus-on-form literature

addresses L2 grammatical development, more research is needed in the area of L2 pragmatic development”.

Focus-on-form instruction can be delivered through different modalities such as Face-to-Face (FF) and Technology-Mediated (TM) modes. The importance of TM learning is evident especially when Face-to-Face learning is not possible. For instance, during the COVID-19 pandemic in 2019-2020, many educational institutions around the world had to abruptly and comprehensively utilize technology in support of remote learning, distance education and online learning. As schools across the world temporarily closed to help contain the spread of the virus, educators around the world turned to remote learning as a way to keep their various-level students engaged. Meanwhile, technology is playing a key role to facilitate learning and TM learning is gradually becoming a “new normal” for education.

In language learning, there is a growing body of research on the role of technology including computer-mediated communication or CMC (Chapelle & Jamieson, 2008; Plonsky & Ziegler, 2016). In CMC, computers are a means through which teachers communicate with learners, learners communicate with one another and learners may even communicate with native speakers (telecollaboration). In CMC environments, non-native speakers can communicate with NSs or with each other, and the instructor can be present or not. Such communication takes place through variations in the following elements: timing (synchronous or asynchronous), number and patterning of participants (one-to-one, one-to-many, or many-to-many), and medium (text, voice, or video). In addition, the physical properties of the device may offer a significant variable, such as the difference between email on a computer and text messaging on a mobile phone (Hubbard, 2020).

Various forms of technology can be applied to instructional settings such as audio/video materials (e.g., videos on YouTube, video CDs with textbooks) and various forms of online applications (e.g., email, forums, blogs, fandoms, Duolingo). Computer-mediated communication tools (CMC) can be in the form of asynchronous text-based communication such as Email and course management systems like Blackboard (www.blackboard.com), and Moodle (www.moodle.org). CMC can also be in real time with synchronous text, or chat, as well as synchronous audio and video communication. Some examples include video-conferencing tools such as Skype (<http://www.skype.com>) and Google hangouts (<https://hangouts.google.com/>). Another area for CMC is the virtual world, like Second Life (www.secondlife.com; <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=mdkz59vfn3g>). In virtual worlds students have avatars that can move in a 3D environment and interact with other avatars. CMC tools have been gaining increasing attention in the research literature (González-Lloret, 2019). However, as Belz (2007) argues:

Although these phenomena have prompted intense study in a wide variety of other disciplines, including communication theory, cultural studies, education, linguistics, and sociology.... few studies have appeared that address the roles of (CMC) in particular in the development of L2 pragmatic competence. (p. 46)

In light of the positive effects of technology in other language learning areas “such as studies of vocabulary acquisition and grammatical development” (González-Lloret, 2019, p. 113), the present study integrates technology as a delivery system of pragmatic instruction to ESL learners. More specifically, this study applies (one-to-one) learner-to-learner interaction for performing the target speech acts in role-play tasks as well as three-way interaction between two learners and the teacher (learner-learner-teacher) for receiving corrective feedback during role-

play tasks (see 2.8 and 3.6 for more details). These effects will be compared to the traditional FF classrooms to provide ESL educators with potential benefits of each mode. This study examines the strength of the connection between L2 pragmatic instruction and technology by measuring the differences between the effects of two modes of corrective feedback; Technology-Mediated (TM) and traditional classroom Face-to-Face (FF) feedback on the development of two English speech acts of requests and refusals.

The inclusion of technology in this study has two main objectives. First, it seeks to add to the body of empirical CMC research surrounding the effects of the use of CMC as an instructional tool. Second, it aims to demonstrate how different types of modalities (FF and TM) in delivering corrective recast can best be used as effective tools for L2 pragmatic instruction.

The pragmatic features used in this study are the speech acts of *request* and *refusal* (see section 2.2.4 for a detailed discussion). The reason for choosing these two speech acts as target structures is to distinguish corrective feedback effects on different speech act types. This can help explore whether the relative complexity of pragmatic features can influence learning. Research findings on how complex and simple rules respond to instruction and feedback are mixed (Nassaji, 2015). For example, while some studies have shown that feedback may be more effective for simple rules (Williams & Evans, 1998), others have found that feedback might be equally effective for both simple and complex rules (Housen et al., 2005; Robinson, 1996). Also, in a meta-analysis, Spada and Tomita (2010) found no relationship between rule complexity and effectiveness of feedback. Such discrepancies in research findings and the lack of such research in the area of L2 pragmatics motivates this study to further examine if the benefits of corrective feedback vary depending on the type of the speech act targeted. Although there are disagreements in the literature on how simple and complex structures can be conceptualized

(Spada & Tomita, 2010), this study defines complexity in terms of the number of acts to make an appropriate speech act structure. In L2 pragmatics, while requests can be expressed with a single direct or indirect statement or question, appropriate refusals usually consist of a number of acts which require multiple strategies. Refusals can be seen as a series of: (1) pre-refusal strategies (i.e. strategies that prepare the addressee for an upcoming refusal), (2) main refusal strategies (i.e. head act that expresses the refusal), and (3) post-refusal strategies (i.e. strategies that follow the head act to justify, mitigate, or conclude the refusal response). The following examples demonstrate request and refusal speech acts and the number of acts needed to make them polite and appropriate.

Example 1 *Polite request in American English* (Tytar, 2015, p. 6)

John (1), close the window, please (2). I am terribly cold (3).

Example 2 *Polite refusal in American English* (Eslami, 2010, p. 236)

Bethany: Do you wanna see a movie tomorrow?

Judy: Uhm (1), I'd love to (2). Sorry (3), but I have to study for an exam tomorrow (4). Next week maybe? (5)

A more detailed explanation and discussion on English requests and refusals is presented in the next chapter (section 2.2.4).

The two theoretical foundations of the present study are the noticing hypothesis (Schmidt, 1993), and the interaction hypothesis (Long, 1996). The concept of noticing has been used both in the literature on the language acquisition theory and also frequently in the literature on corrective feedback. As Nassaji (2015) mentions, "In the former, it has been used as a necessary process in language acquisition. In the latter, it has been used as a reason for why errors need to be corrected" (p.11). Noticing hypothesis states that "L2 learners' attention to

linguistic form is a necessary condition for development” (Culpeper et al., 2018, p.15). Thus, based on Schmidt’s claim, input leads to acquisition only if learners notice the input. This theoretical claim has been tested in a number of studies of L2 pragmatics (e.g., Belz & Kinginger, 2003; Fordyce, 2014). While the noticing hypothesis emphasizes the role of attention, “interaction approaches highlight the role of corrective feedback in the process of L2 pragmatic development” (Culpeper et al., 2018, p. 16). According to Swain and Lapkin (1995), language learning takes place while learners engage in conversational interaction, receive feedback, and struggle to reformulate and make their output comprehensible to their interlocutors. The key constructs of conversational interaction research include input, output, and corrective feedback through interaction (Gass & Mackey, 2006a). More details on the theoretical framework of the study are presented in chapter two (section 2.4).

1.2 The Rationale for the Study

There are two main rationales for the present study. The first is that while instructional effects on L2 pragmatics have been investigated widely (e.g., Bardovi-Harlig, 2001; Félix-Brasdefer, 2008a; Kasper & Rose, 2001; Koike & Pearson, 2005; Martinez-Flor et al., 2003; Rose 2005), the effect of providing corrective feedback in this domain remains rather unexplored. As a result, while the benefit of explicit instruction has been documented in previous research (e.g. see Jeon & Kaya, 2006; Rose, 2005; Takahashi, 2010; Takimoto, 2012), it remains little known how different types of feedback impact L2 pragmatics learning. From another perspective, although there is a wealth of research on the effect of different types of feedback in the areas of grammar, lexis and phonology, (See Nassaji, 2015; Nassaji & Kartchava, 2017 for a synthesis on recent works on corrective feedback in L2 teaching and learning), the effect of different types of feedback on interlanguage pragmatic development has been explored far less.

This study brings both areas of corrective feedback and L2 pragmatic together to contribute to both fields.

The second rationale for the study is that most of the research on pragmatics has been either in Face-to-Face (FF) or Technology-Mediated communication (TM) modes. Very few studies have compared the effect of corrective feedback on pragmatics across the two modes. Such comparisons are important as they can indicate which mode may be more conducive to language learning (Rouhshad, Wigglesworth & Storch, 2016).

The current study, therefore, aims to fill the research gap by investigating the impact which FF and TM feedback modes have on the development of two pragmatic targets in English by ESL learners which is accomplished through a pre-test, post-test and delayed post-test design.

1.3 Statement of the Purpose

The purpose of this study is to investigate the effect of corrective feedback on pragmatics across the two modes of TM and FF to determine which is more effective. This provides the opportunity to explore not only efficacy of CF in a different domain (L2 pragmatics), but also to examine the potential differences between recasts delivered in TM vs. FF modes. The pragmatic features used in this study are English request and refusal forms.

1.4 Significance of the Study

The goal of this study is to contribute to the existing literature on pedagogical intervention in the development of ESL learners' pragmatic competence. Applicability of the findings from this investigation will be extended to both theoretical and pedagogical contexts. In regard to research, the present study will add another dimension to instruction of pragmatics by employing recasting as a focus-on-form condition. Although the role of CF in the development of formal aspects of language has been widely investigated (e.g., Ellis, 2009; Mackey & Goo,

2007; Nassaji, 2011a; Panova & Lyster, 2002; Sheen, 2007), little research has addressed the influence of CF in the pragmatic development of language learners. This study addresses the limitations of the previous studies and provides several contributions to the theoretical understanding of the role of CF in L2 pragmatics.

Moreover, the present study will examine if FF and TM feedback methods can be used effectively in the instruction of pragmatic competence. The retention effect will also be checked so as to investigate the durability of the feedback effect in instructional L2 pragmatic studies.

Furthermore, the two speech act types of request and refusal will be investigated in order to find out if the benefits of corrective feedback may vary depending on the type of speech act targeted. In the area of L2 pragmatics research, there is very limited effort in understanding the interaction between pragmatic targets and instructional effects. There are only a few studies that taught multiple pragmatic targets to a single group of learners, or assessed learning on multiple aspects of pragmatic competence and they have revealed mixed intervention effects across targets (e.g., Bouton, 1994; Johnson & deHaan, 2013; Liddicoat & Crozet, 2001; Sykes, 2009, 2013). There are other studies that taught more than one pragmatic feature, but they did not report findings separately (Cunningham & Vyatkina 2012; Eslami & Eslami-Rasekh 2008; Louw et al., 2010). The targeting of two categories of speech act in the present study represents an effort to understand whether different pragmatic forms respond differently to the CF treatment.

Findings from speech act studies can be an invaluable source for second language teachers and developers of teaching materials (Bardovi-Harlig, 1996). “It has been observed that teaching these pragmatic aspects of language can minimize intercultural communication breakdowns and help reduce cultural stereotyping” (Morkus, 2009, p. 2).

Concerning its application, this study has implications for ESL educators in the areas of teaching, assessment and syllabus design. The results of this study will further our understanding of the effectiveness of implementing pragmatics instruction and feedback in ESL learning environments. It will also help us determine the impact of Face-to-Face and Technology-Mediated delivery systems on learners' pragmatic development. These results will be helpful to curriculum designers in developing teaching materials and tasks for practicing typical expressions or patterns of learning English speech acts. Furthermore, the findings will also enable ESL teacher training institutions to equip prospective ESL teachers with necessary strategies to provide feedback that will best facilitate L2 pragmatic development.

1.5 Definitions of Terms in the Study

The present study focuses on feedback effects on ESL learners of how to use English request and refusals appropriately. The feedback modes are Face-to-Face and Technology-Mediated which are commonly used in previous studies. The treatment effects are measured by testing learners' comprehension and production of English requests and refusals before and after treatment. The key term for the treatment in this study is corrective recast which is a type of corrective feedback. Other related terms are effects, English requests and refusals, appropriateness, Face-to-Face, Technology-Mediated, pragmatic comprehension and production. These terms are used in different sections of the study, and some of them may be defined in detail in the main body of the thesis. However, they are listed alphabetically here with brief definitions for ease of reference:

Appropriateness

In their glossary, Culpeper et al. (2018) define appropriateness as “social oughts concerning what should happen according to authoritative standards of behavior *and/or* common social habits in a

particular context” (P. 203). In this study, appropriateness is operationalized as the appropriateness of using English requests and refusals and contains four aspects: correct expressions, quality of information, strategies choices and level of formality. These aspects are discussed in 3.7 in more details. The terms appropriacy and appropriateness are used interchangeably throughout this study.

Corrective Feedback (CF)

CF is “a type of feedback provided to L2 learners on their language use” (Culpeper et al. 2018, p. 203). This study adopts a complex type of oral corrective feedback, i.e., “corrective recast” (Doughty & Valera, 1998). Corrective recast has an explicit corrective stage to make erroneous forms more salient for the learners to focus on. In this type of CF, a recast is combined with other techniques such as an interrogative repetition, clarification request, and meta-linguistic information. The timing of this complex feedback is immediately after the erroneous form is produced by the learners. The specific feedback procedures employed in this study are further discussed in chapter two (2.5).

Effect

Effect refers to outcomes or results produced by an action or a cause. In the present study, the effect of treatment is used with and is defined as the achievements of FF or TM corrective recasts in pragmatic development of English requests and refusals. The achievements can be represented by the scores of a multiple-choice comprehension test and a role-play production test including learning or teaching effects after the treatment and the retention of appropriate English requests and refusals within three weeks after treatment.

English Refusals

A refusal is a speech act by which a speaker “denies to engage in an action proposed by the

interlocutor” (Chen, Ye & Zhang, 1995, p. 121). Most relevant to the present study is the finding that, people from different cultures find it challenging to produce negative responses to invitations, suggestions, offers, or requests, as the refusal may cause conflict with the interlocutor’s communicational purposes (Siebold & Busch, 2015). Therefore, refusals have been considered as face-threatening speech acts and as such they are generally performed through indirect strategies such as mitigation or long sequences of negotiation or “face-saving maneuvers” (Uso-Juan, 2013, p. 66). This study particularly focuses on refusal (to request) as a more complex speech act type (See the example in the following section). More explanation on the complex nature of this speech act is presented in 2.2.

English Requests

Ellis (1994) defined requests as “an attempt on the part of the speaker to get the hearer to perform or to stop performing some kind of action” (p. 167). Although there are cross-cultural variations, according to Brown and Levinson (1987) and Leech (1983), direct requests are considered to be impolite, because they limit the hearer’s freedom, and indirectness is a way that speakers prefer to increase the degree of politeness. Therefore, it is vital that speakers use appropriate forms of requests; otherwise, they might look rude or impolite, and this can lead to communication problems. The following conversation between two friends is an example of an appropriate English request and an appropriate refusal (to request) from Uso-Juan (2013, p. 87).

Jack: Hi Claire! Can you help me with final project work? (Request)

Claire: Uhm. I’d love to. Sorry, but I have to study for an exam tomorrow. Tomorrow maybe?
(Refusal)

ESL Learners

In a general sense, ESL refers to English as a second language. ESL learners come from non-

English-speaking backgrounds and typically need some form of instruction. ESL-learner participants of the present study came from various backgrounds and demonstrated an intermediate proficiency in English at the beginning of the research. More information on the participants of this study is presented in 3.2.

Face-to-Face Feedback (FF)

Face-to-Face instruction is a mode of delivering instructional and assessment materials in the traditional classroom. In this study, FF feedback was delivered by teachers to ESL learners in regular classrooms without the use of any online learning and instruction.

Pragmatics

Crystal (1997) defines 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).

Pragmatic Comprehension

In this study pragmatic comprehension is operationalized as decoding linguistic and contextual clues, and using them to understand speaker’s intention. According to Taguchi (2005), “real-time comprehension involves a rapid transformation of information into thought, or the ability to attend to and understand quickly the intended interpretations in contexts” (p. 546). L2 pragmatic comprehension can be a challenging task for language learners because “they have to recognize the gap between the literal utterance and the intended meaning and re-process literal cues to infer implied meaning” (Culpeper et al., 2018, p.112). There are different ways to research pragmatic comprehension such as multiple-choice tests and recognition tasks as well as meta-pragmatic awareness tests such as interviews and diaries. This study has taken multiple-choice discourse

completion test (MDCT). The reason for choosing this test and how it measures pragmatic comprehension are further discussed in Chapter 3 (section 3.7.1)

Pragmatic Production

Pragmatic production is operationalized in this study as the ability of learners to productively demonstrate their ability to understand and respond to a communicative scenario. Specifically, this study focuses on learners' ability to orally produce appropriate requests and refusals as prompted by communicative scenarios in an oral role-play test (RP). (See 3.7.2 for more details)

Speech act

According to Culpeper et al. (2018), a speech act is “An utterance that performs a communicative action, such as a refusal, request, or promise” (p. 210). The target speech acts in this study are requests and refusals (see the definitions above)

Technology-Mediated Feedback (TM)

Technology-Mediated Learning (TML) is an ‘umbrella’ term, incorporating different approaches to using computers in learning and teaching. In TML environment, teaching materials, assignments, and assessments are exchanged between learners and instructors via advanced technology. Computer-assisted language learning (CALL) and computer-mediated communication (CMC) are subcategories of TML. This study used mobile technology in promoting ESL learners' pragmatic competence. The specific application used in this study is WeChat (see 3.6 for more details). This application was used both by participants of the study in making video calls for performing target speech acts and by the teacher in listening to learners' role-plays and giving online feedback.

1.6 Outline of the Dissertation

This dissertation consists of five chapters. The first chapter provides the background,

purpose, and significance of the present study. Chapter two provides a review of the literature concerning the development of pragmatics, feedback studies and the application of technology in L2 pragmatics. It starts with the main theoretical frameworks of the study namely, Schmidt's noticing theory and Long's interaction hypothesis and continues with the theories that explain second language pragmatics competence with special attention given to speech act theories and politeness theories. This is followed by a review of literature on the role of pedagogical intervention in developing L2 pragmatic competence focusing on studies on feedback, requests and refusals. This chapter also provides a discussion of the merits of integrating technology into language learning classrooms and reviews relevant studies that employed technology in L2 pragmatics. Chapter two ends with the research questions and hypotheses. Chapter three provides an overview of the research methodology used in the present research study. This chapter first narrates the research design and then describes the participants, treatment groups, and the procedure including the instruments used, and the pilot study. Chapter four focuses on the results. The data elicited through the MDCT and the RP tests in pre, post, and delayed tests are analyzed quantitatively. This chapter presents the findings derived from the statistical analysis with regards to the effects of CF on request and refusal development delivered in Face-to-Face and Technology-Mediated modalities. Chapter five discusses the results and major findings of the study. The results are interpreted with regard to the theoretical frameworks of the study and a comparison of the previous studies. This last chapter further presents the theoretical and pedagogical implications of the findings and ends with a discussion on the limitations of the present research. Finally, this chapter provides directions for further research.

1.7 Summary

This chapter presented the background necessary to contextualize and understand the

present research. It clarified the importance of this study through discussing the significance and rationale of the study. Instructional L2 pragmatic research has evolved into a thriving research field during the past three decades. The role of corrective feedback, however, remains rather unexplored in this area. Different types and delivery modes of corrective feedback can have differential effects on developing L2 pragmatics. The next chapter reviews the studies relevant to these issues including the theoretical background of pragmatic research, the studies on corrective feedback, and technology-mediated studies on L2 pragmatics.

CHAPTER TWO- LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0 Introduction

This chapter provides background to the present study by describing key theoretical foundations of second language (L2) pragmatics research on the one hand and reviewing the related literature on the other. In the first part, definitions of pragmatics and pragmatics theories are provided with special attention given to speech act theory, the conversation principle of cooperation, and politeness theory. The two pragmatic targets of the study, requests and refusals, are introduced next and discussed in terms of the construct of complexity. This is followed by definitions of communicative competence and pragmatic competence and their applications in second language acquisition (SLA). Next, an overview of Schmidt's noticing hypothesis and Long's interaction hypothesis are discussed as the main SLA theoretical frameworks of the study. This chapter also introduces corrective feedback and discusses the types and roles of feedback in developing L2 pragmatic competence. Major data elicitation tools in L2 pragmatics are introduced next and the two methods that are used in the study are discussed in more details. The next section reviews the literature that relates closely to the present study including the target speech acts and feedback roles in L2 pragmatics and links them to the theoretical issues that were presented in previous sections. Finally, technology-mediated approaches to second language pragmatics are introduced and the related literature is reviewed. The chapter concludes with a summary of the reviewed theories and literature.

2.1. Pragmatics

“The term pragmatics was originally used within the philosophy of language (Morris, 1938) and later extended into sociolinguistics and other disciplines” (Eslami & Liu, 2013, p. 53). According to Culpeper et al. (2018), pragmatics “is a branch of linguistics that focuses on

meanings that arise from the use of communicative resources in context, and in particular, the meanings implied by speakers, inferred by hearers, and negotiated between them in interaction” (p.208).

One of the most important notions in pragmatics is the concept of *speech act* is. The term denotes the sense in which utterances do not merely bear meanings, but rather in a very real sense do things, that is, perform functions (Levinson, 2016).

2.2 Pragmatic Competence

In 1971, Hymes introduced the notion of communicative competence. “communicative competence can be defined as the ability to use language, or to communicate, in a culturally appropriate manner in order to make meaning and accomplish social tasks with efficacy and fluency through extended interactions” (Travin 2014, p. 6). Hymes’ communicative competence model consists of two areas of competence: grammatical competence and sociolinguistic competence. Based on this model, L2 speakers must be able to navigate the sociocultural contexts in which they must actually use the language because the mastery of surface level structures, understanding denotative word meanings and being able to construct grammatically correct sentences, is insufficient for achieving communicative competence (Travin 2014).

Later, a number of models of communicative competence emerged which were inspired by Hymes’ attention to communicative competence. Some of these models situated pragmatic competence among several interrelated components of language knowledge that enable learners to perform a communicative act in a social situation. These models did not distinguish between sociolinguistic and pragmatic competence. However, in 1990, Bachman developed a framework of communicative competence that viewed pragmatic competence as a competence on its own right. In their 1996 model of communicative ability, Bachman and Palmer distinguished three

components: organizational knowledge, pragmatic knowledge, and strategic competence. See Figure 2.1 for a model of communicative competence by Bachman and Palmer.

According to Bachman (1990), pragmatic competence includes the types of knowledge that are employed in contextualized performance and interpretation of socially appropriate illocutionary acts in discourse, in addition to organizational competence.

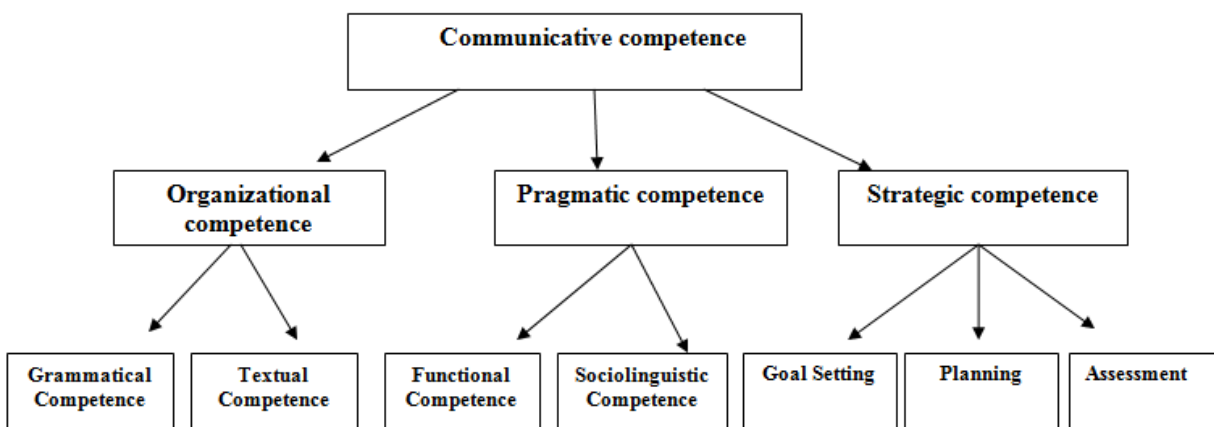


Figure 2.1. Bachman's communicative competence model (Bachman & Palmer, 1996, p. 68)

Based on this model, pragmatic competence includes functional and sociolinguistic knowledge (Bachman & Palmer, 2010). Xiao (2015) explained the two types of knowledge: Functional knowledge represents the knowledge of using linguistic forms to realize pragmatic functions, such as using *would you* to make a request, while sociolinguistic knowledge is the knowledge of using linguistic forms appropriately according to different situational variables (e.g., social status, familiarity, power relationship, and degree of imposition), such as choosing polite forms when speaking to people of higher social status (p. 559).

A similar distinction between these two types of knowledge was also introduced into pragmatics. Functional knowledge or the range of linguistic resources available to perform language functions was called *pragmalinguistics* by Leech (1983) and Thomas (1983), while the ability to understand features of context and selecting the most appropriate linguistic resource in a given context was called *sociopragmatics*. According to Taguchi (2013), “pragmatic competence requires both types of knowledge, as well as processing skills that mobilize this knowledge in real time communication” (p. 1). For instance, when performing a speech act of request, there are various ways of requesting the loan of something such as “*Give me that book*” Versus “*Could I borrow that book?*” Versus “*I was wondering if it isn’t too much of a bother, whether you might consider loaning me that book, just for a little while?*” (van Compernelle, 2014, p. 3). In this way, *pragmalinguistics* includes the conventional linguistic tools used to mediate the communicative action of requesting. However, speakers do not simply use *pragmalinguistic* resources randomly. *Sociopragmatic* knowledge enables the speakers to make choices from among *pragmalinguistic* resources based on the conventions of ‘proper’ or ‘appropriate’ social behavior including what to say to whom and when, as well as an understanding of the social consequences of conforming to or breaking those conventions (van Compernelle, 2014, p. 3). For instance, a speaker makes different choices when requesting the loan of something from his/her professor or when requesting from his/her friend. Figure 2.2 illustrates the relationship between the linguistic means available to speakers (*pragmalinguistics*), and the speakers’ knowledge of sociocultural schemas, concepts and social relations (*sociopragmatics*).

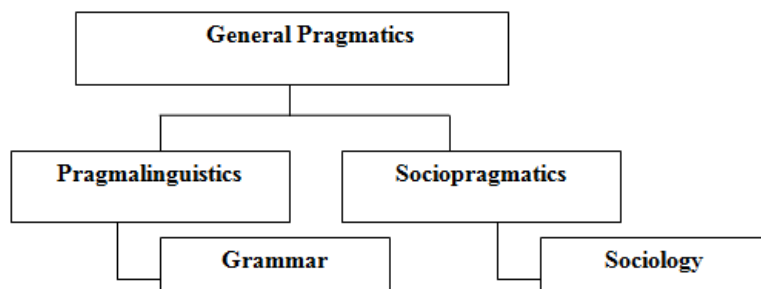


Figure 2.2. General pragmatics, pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics (Culpeper et al., 2018, p. 30)

By considering pragmatic competence within a framework of communicative competence, we can see that L2 pragmatics behaviors can be best examined by analyzing what L2 learners actually do in interaction. Following this line of thought, Culpeper et al. (2018) went a step further and added an important dimension to the previous definitions of pragmatic competence by arguing that “it is equally important to study how learners come to understand or comprehend meaning, as well as how they negotiate and co-construct meaning” (p.1). This study relies on Culpeper et al.’s definition of pragmatic competence and therefore views comprehension, production, and interaction as central to developing pragmatic competence.

According to Nguyen (2019), pragmatic production refers to “the production of meaning in social contexts (e.g., speech acts and humor)” (p196). Pragmatic production is the most researched area in L2 pragmatics. Of the 246 empirical studies Nguyen (2019) reviewed, 88% (217 studies) examined pragmatic production (both spoken and written).

While pragmatic comprehension is an important ability for L2 learners, its development has received the least attention within L2 pragmatic studies (Kasper & Rose, 2002, p. 118). For instance, of the 246 studies Nguyen (2019) surveyed, only 54 investigated pragmatic

comprehension and perception (p. 200). According to Taguchi (2005, p. 544), “Pragmatic comprehension involves the ability to understand implied speaker intention by using linguistic knowledge, contextual clues, and the assumption of relevance (Grice, 1975; Levinson, 1983; Sperber & Wilson, 1995; Thomas, 1995)”.

In summary, based on Culpeper et al.’s definition of pragmatic competence, carrying out studies that only target the production of aspect of competence does not contribute to an understanding of this notion. In order to capture a better picture of development of pragmatic competence, this study investigates both pragmatic comprehension and pragmatic production.

The learning or acquisition of pragmatic competence is closely related to interlanguage pragmatics (ILP) or second language pragmatic (L2 pragmatic) development which is an interdisciplinary field covering two areas: pragmatics and second language acquisition. However, language acquisition research often does not match classroom practices. Ishihara (2007) writes:

Although *pragmatic ability* (the ability to use language effectively to achieve a specific purpose and understand language in context) has been recognized as an essential component of communicative competence..., pragmatics has not been fully incorporated into today’s second/foreign language (L2) teaching and teacher education [emphasis in original] (p. 21).

Given the complexities of pragmatics that involve the connections among forms, functions, and contexts, one would naturally wonder whether pragmatic competence is indeed teachable (Taguchi, 2013). Studies that have addressed teachability (whether instruction is better than no instruction) strongly suggest that most aspects of L2 pragmatics are indeed amenable to instruction, that instructional intervention is more beneficial than no instruction targeted to

pragmatic learning, and that for the most part, explicit instruction combined with ample practice opportunities results in great gains (Kasper & Roever, 2005, see Jeon & Kaya, 2006, for review).

2.3 Theoretical Frameworks

Second language acquisition (SLA) theories and the field of L2 pragmatics are strongly connected. Various SLA theories guide L2 pragmatics research by providing a multiple framework that helps explain the development of the L2 pragmatic system. The last decade has seen an increasing diversity in SLA theory in general. As a result, a range of theoretical paradigms in L2 pragmatics research has emerged. Some of these theoretical foundations include: The Noticing hypothesis (Schmidt, 1993, 2001), Skill acquisitions theory (Anderson, 1982), Language socialization theory (Kanagy, 1999), Dynamic systems theory (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008), and the Interaction approach (Long, 1996). Besides these language acquisition theories, there are also classic pragmatic frameworks that are important in understanding the kind of pragmatics that informs L2 pragmatics. The two most influential pragmatic frameworks are Speech act theory (Austin, 1962; Searle, 1969) and Politeness theory (Brown & Levinson, 1987). This study builds on the noticing hypothesis from the work of Schmidt (1990, 1993a, 1994a, 1995) and the interaction hypothesis (Long, 1996) as the foundation for investigating the effect of corrective feedback in the acquisition of second language pragmatic knowledge. The speech acts theory of Austin (1962), the politeness theory of Brown and Levinson (1987), and the conversational maxim of Grice (1975) provide a framework for the analysis of the pragmatic competence of the ESL learners in this study. Those models are described in the following sections.

2.3.1 Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis

Schmidt's (1990, 1993a, 1994a, 1995) noticing hypothesis addresses the role of

conscious process in L2 acquisition. Noticing Hypothesis introduced by Schmidt (1990) states that “people learn about the things that they attend to and do not learn much about the things they do not attend to” (Schmidt, 2001, p.30). This hypothesis emphasizes that in order for the input to become intake, the detection of input in the form of awareness and attention is necessary (Schmidt, 1995). Intake is part of the input which is being paid attention to and is taken into short-term memory and consequently is integrated into the interlanguage, a language independent from both the learner’s native language and the target language (Selinker, 1972). As Schmidt (1990, 2001) claims, “Not all input has equal value and only that input which is noticed then becomes available for intake and effective processing. This hypothesis claims that for acquisition to take place, learners must consciously notice forms (and the meanings these forms realize) in the input. Schmidt’s noticing hypothesis accounts for initial input recognition and focuses on the importance of attention and consciousness (1993) in second-language acquisition. This theory is a response to some previous research which claimed that learning a language is a primarily unconscious process (Chomsky, 1990; Gregg, 1984; Krashen, 1982; Seliger, 1983).

The Noticing hypothesis has been used not only in the literature on language acquisition theory but also in the literature on L2 pragmatic research as well as on corrective feedback. In language acquisition, the role of attention has been argued to be a necessary process in language acquisition. In L2 pragmatics, “one must attend to both the linguistic forms of utterances and the relevant social and contextual features with which they are associated” (Schmidt, 2001, p.30). Finally, noticing hypothesis has been used in corrective feedback, because feedback prompts learners to notice L2 forms and therefore facilitates L2 learning (Mackey, 2006).

In studies of second-language acquisition, Schmidt found evidence that supports the role of consciousness in learning a language. Schmidt (2001) pointed out that global alertness to

target language input is not sufficient; attention has to be allocated to specific learning targets, or directed to whatever evidence is relevant for a particular domain. As Schmidt and Frota (1986) suggest “a second language learner will begin to acquire the target-like form if, and only if, it is present in comprehended input and ‘noticed’ in the normal sense of the word, that is, consciously” (p. 311).

Empirical support for the facilitative effects of awareness on second language behavior and, consequently, for Schmidt’s (1990 and elsewhere) noticing hypothesis, has been found in various studies (e.g., Carroll & Swain, 1993; Doughty & Valera, 1998; Ellis, 2001; Nassaji & Fotos, 2004; Robinson, 1995; Schmidt, 1993, 2001; VanPatten, 2002). Schmidt (1993) extended his discussion about consciousness and learning to the field of L2 pragmatics. He focused on the ways consciousness may be involved in learning the principles of discourse and pragmatics in a second language. Schmidt distinguishes between consciousness as attention and consciousness as awareness. According to Schmidt (2010, p. 724), attention refers “to a variety of mechanisms or subsystems, including alertness, orientation, detection within selective attention, facilitation, and inhibition”. The common feature among all these mechanisms is “the function of controlling information processing and behavior when existing skills and routines are inadequate” (p. 724). Based on this definition, learning (establishing new or modified knowledge, memory, skills, and routines) is “therefore largely, and perhaps exclusively, a side effect of attended processing” (p.725). On the other hand, Schmidt associates awareness with understanding and defines awareness as “the implicit knowledge that is acquired without conscious effort to learn” (p.725). In addition, Schmidt distinguishes between the concepts of noticing and understanding. Noticing is defined as the “conscious registration of the occurrence of some event,” while understanding implies “the recognition of some general principle, rule, or pattern.” According to Schmidt

(2010), knowledge of rules and metalinguistic awareness of all kinds belong to this higher level of awareness, i.e. understanding. Schmidt claims that “noticing is necessary for SLA, and that understanding is facilitative but not required” (2010, p.725). Schmidt (1995) applied his distinction between noticing and understanding to pragmatics as follows:

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

Schmidt (1993) concluded that “for the learning of pragmatics in a second language, attention to linguistic forms, functional meanings, and the relevant contextual features is required” (p.35). The results obtained by some researchers (e.g. Fukuya & Clark, 2001; Silva, 2003; Takshashi, 2005) in the field of ILP studies support Schmidt’s (1993) noticing hypothesis, since they illustrated how conscious attention to specific target language features promoted L2 learning.

Noticing hypothesis also plays a role in feedback research when learners attempt to express or negotiate their meaning and they notice their non-target-like utterances. As Nassaji (2015, p. 75) claims, “When learners compare their original output with the teacher’s or interlocutor’s output, they notice the gap and they realize that their interlanguage differs from the target language (Swain 1998; Williams, 2005). Feedback strategies such as recasts promote noticing the gap. When the teacher (or an interlocutor) reformulates a learner’s erroneous utterance into a correct form, the learner may compare his/her output to the teacher’s output and notice the gap. According to Kartchava and Nassaji (2019), “it is impossible to measure noticing

directly (but see Long, 2017) as this is an unobservable mental process” (p.411). However, researchers can use various indirect techniques to assess noticing, including questionnaires, learning journals, eye tracking, various introspective and retrospective measures (i.e., think-aloud, talk-aloud, stimulated recall), and learner reports (e.g., Kartchava & Ammar, 2013; Mackey, 2006; Philp, 2003). This study makes no provisions to investigate the construct of noticing; rather it highlights the role that noticing plays in corrective feedback process.

Related to the role of feedback and noticing is also the concept of Focus on Form (FonF) which is widely advocated in L2 pedagogical research. The notion of FonF was first introduced by Long (1991). According to him, FonF “overtly draws students’ attention to linguistic elements as they arise incidentally in lessons whose overriding focus is on meaning or communication” (Long, 1991, p. 45-46). In a more operational sense with consideration of classroom instruction, Long and Robinson (1998) further stated that Focus on Form “consists of an occasional shift of attention to linguistic code features – by the teacher and/or one or more students – triggered by perceived problems with comprehension or production” (p. 23). FonF can be accomplished in various ways. There is a continuum of techniques varying in terms of the degree of explicitness. As one way to attempt Focus on Form, conversational interaction has gained great attention in second language acquisition studies since the beginning of the 1980s (Guo, 2013). Interaction research is largely driven by three interrelated hypotheses, namely, noticing hypothesis (Schmidt, 1993), interaction hypothesis (Long 1981, 1983a, 1996), and output hypothesis (Swain, 1985, 1995). The following section describes interaction hypothesis as one of the main theoretical foundations of the present study in more detail.

2.3.2 Long’s Interaction Hypothesis

Based on the interaction hypothesis (Long 1996), “L2 development will occur when a

learner engages in negotiation for meaning that results from message incomprehensibility during interaction” (Lyster et al., 2013, p.10). Learners can test their hypotheses in interaction and receive feedback about their communicative success along with opportunities for modifying their non-target output. Long’s interaction hypothesis is an extension of Krashen’s input hypothesis which is closely related to the idea of making input more comprehensible, and the gap between target language and interlanguage noticeable to language learners. In his research in 1981 and 1983, Long found that when native speakers talk to non-native speakers, they modified their speech to make it more comprehensible. Native speakers also used more conversational strategies (e.g., confirmation check and repetition) to solve communication problems. Long argued that in order for learning to take place, it is not enough to only receive input. It is through this *modified* input of their conversation partners during conversational interaction that second language learners may have access to input made comprehensible to them, which leads to possible intake. According to Long (1991), interaction or negotiation of meaning makes input comprehensible, which in turn leads to second language acquisition. As a response to this model, Swain (1993) proposed the output hypothesis and argued that even comprehensible input may not be enough for L2 language learning. Swain (1993) suggested that “Learners need to be pushed to make use of their resources; they need to have their linguistic abilities stretched to their fullest; they need to reflect on their output and consider ways of modifying it to enhance comprehensibility, appropriateness, and accuracy” (p. 160-161). Based on output model, language learning takes place while learners engage in conversational interaction, receive feedback, struggle to reformulate and make their output comprehensible to their interlocutors. Swain and Lapkin (1995) also argued that interactive feedback and language production may lead learners to notice the gap between their interlanguage and target language. Noticing the gap

between the interlanguage and the target language may not be sufficient for language learning but noticing something in the input is a prerequisite to language acquisition (Schmidt, 2010).

After the growing concern with learners' attention to internalize language data, Long (1996) improved his version of interaction hypothesis. He claimed that selective attention during negotiation for meaning mediates the L2 acquisition process. He further argued that feedback obtained during negotiation work can be facilitative of L2 development.

The role of feedback in interaction model is to focus itself on the problematic aspects of the learners' interlanguage and give them the opportunity to concentrate on their language production and comprehension. This, in turn, helps learners to notice any gaps in their knowledge. Interaction hypothesis, therefore, has several contributions to SLA. First, it makes input more comprehensible through negotiation for meaning; second, it gives corrective feedback and promotes the production of modified output, and third, it brings learners' attention to L2 form in testing their hypothesis of L2.

In this study, noticing, feedback and interaction are linked in the way that feedback is viewed as a kind of interaction which provides learners with opportunities to notice the learning gap and facilitating L2 acquisition.

In the field of pragmatics research, a number of theories and concepts have formed the theoretical foundation for the empirical investigation of speech acts. Some of these theories include speech act theory (Austin, 1962), politeness theory (Brown & Levinson, 1987), and conversational maxims (Grice, 1975). These pragmatics theories are discussed below.

2.3.3. Speech Act Theory

J.L Austin, the father of modern pragmatics, introduced speech act theory in his major work *How to Do Things with Words* which has been widely used and is still being used by many

researchers from linguistics to sociologists to philosophers. Although speech act theory was not originally designed for use in discourse analysis, it does provide unique and meaningful insight into language use. “A speech act can be summarized as a communicative act, performed through speech, which demonstrates how meaning and action are related to language” (Sykes, 2005, p.405). Thus, utterances assert, request, refuse, advise, threaten, apologize, and so on. The theory of speech acts is the theory of doing things with words. Speech acts can be single words or be composed of several components known as semantic formula or pragmatic strategies.

Such speech act sequences include not only head acts, but also supporting moves that strengthen or weaken the head act (Blum- Kulka, House, & Kasper, 1989). According to Blum-Kulka et al. (1989), a head act is “the minimal unit which can realize a request; the core of the request sequence” (pp. 275-276). A speech act set specifies all the components of a given speech act, but most realizations of a speech act include a subset of possible semantic formulas. “For example, an apology may include the head act “I’m sorry,” and explanation “I didn’t see you,” a pledge of forbearance, “I won’t happen again,” or offer of repair, “I’ll pay for the cleaning” (Bardovi-Harlig, 2017, p. 225). In the case of refusals, the head act is the initial refusal. Supporting moves can surround this head act to soften or strengthen the impact of the refusal using mitigators or aggravators. “In the case of refusals, these supporting moves can be apologies, explanations given, and so forth” (Sykes, 2005, p. 403).

Austin (1962) proposes a three-fold system to describe a speech act in which he breaks it down to three components, namely: the locution, the illocution and the perlocution. According to Austin’s system, the locution refers to the actual words the speaker uses, whereas the illocution expresses the intention, or force behind the utterance such as giving an order, making a request or a promise, apologizing, complaining, etc. The last aspect is the perlocution which is the

interlocutors' reaction whether verbally or nonverbally. For example, as Table 2.1 illustrates, the statement "someone opened my letter" can be viewed in terms of three different acts. The locutionary act is the literal meaning of the utterance, i.e. (someone opened my letter). The illocutionary act is the intended meaning of the utterance, which in this case is either performing a request (tell me who opened my letter), or performing a complaint (this is not acceptable to me that someone opened my letter). The perlocutionary act is the result that is created through the illocutionary act which in the case of our example is the hearer's fear of consequences of opening the letter. Although speech act theory includes all three aspects, the notion of speech act is mostly synonymous with illocutionary act (or illocutionary force). Yule (1996) claims that, of these types of speech acts, the most distinctive one is illocutionary force: "Indeed, the term speech act is generally interpreted quite narrowly to mean only the illocutionary force of an utterance" (p. 49).

Table 2.1

Types of act: locutionary, illocutionary, and perlocutionary (Adopted from Culpeper et al., 2018, p. 35)

Type of act	Austin's definition	Clarification	Example "someone opened my letter"
Locutionary	"the act of saying something" (Austin, 1975, p. 94)	The production of an expression with sense and reference	Someone opened my letter
Illocutionary	The performance of act in saying something" (Austin, 1975, p. 99)	The act the expression performs, such as requesting, apologizing, refusing	Tell me who opened the letter (i.e., a request); this is not acceptable to me (i.e., a complaint)
Perlocutionary	"what we bring about or achieve by saying something" (Austin, 1975, p. 109)	The effect on the participants' feelings, thoughts and actions that were brought about by the	Stating who opened the letter; inducing fear of consequences

		expression	
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Subsequent to Austin's system of speech act, Searle (1976), a student of Austin's, contributed widely to the development of the speech act theory, especially illocutionary acts. Searle divided speech acts into five categories: "*assertive* (e.g., reporting, announcing, claiming, and so on), *directives* (e.g., requesting, ordering, and so on), *commissives* (e.g., refusing, offering, and so on), *expressives* (e.g., apologizing, thanking, and so on), and *declarations* (e.g., sentencing, dismissing, and so on)" (Eslami & Liu, 2015, p. 54). Based on Searle's taxonomy, the speech act of refusal, one target speech act of the present study, falls under the category of commissives and the speech act of request falls under directives.

Another important aspect of the speech act theory is the concept of felicity conditions, which was first introduced by Austin (1962) and later developed by Searle (1969). "According to this concept, for a speech act to be performed successfully, a certain number of conditions have to be met" (Morkus, 2009, p. 25). For example, a speaker has to have the right to perform certain speech acts in order for them to be performed successfully.

2.3.4 Conversational Maxims

In order to link between utterances and what is understood from them, Grice (1975) proposed four conversational maxims of quantity, quality, relevance, and manner (see table 2.4 below for description). According to Grice (1975), conversation proceeds on the basis that listeners and speakers act cooperatively, and mutually accept one another to be understood in a particular way. In order to keep the conversation progressing smoothly, these four maxims should be observed (Phuong, 2006). For instance, in one study drawing on Grice's conversational maxims, Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford's (1991) studied the speech acts produced by 21 non-native speakers (NNS) of

English in interaction with native-speaking (NS) advisors or professors during academic advising sessions. The researchers focused on examples of advice rejection produced by the learners and found that the NNS students largely followed NSs in accompanying instances of rejection with explanation; “however they could not maintain the balance of status with their NS interlocutors because they chose inappropriate status-preserving strategies when rejecting the advice” (cited in Jernigan, 2007, p. 21). For example, one Korean ESL learner rejected her advisor’s advice to take two different courses by using apparently contradictory reasons: “I checked the textbook but—all the information is just new to me” and, for the second class, “But I checked the textbook and it’s exactly the same” (Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford, 1991, p. 54). The Korean learner possibly intended to avoid directly refusing the advice by using these contradictory explanations while they resulted in confusion for the advisor and, eventually, dismissal of the learner’s objections by the advisor. According to Jernigan (2007), “the failure to adhere to conversational maxims, though not always indicative of a lack of pragmatic development in the L2, is a consistent problem for L2 learners” (p. 22). Therefore, familiarity with the ways in which the conversational maxims, as proposed by Grice (1975) are commonly realized in English would be advantageous to ESL learners who will be in regular social and academic interaction with native speakers. Grice’s maxims are outlined in Table 2.2.

Table 2.2

Grice’s (1975) Conversational Maxims (Adopted from Jernigan, 2007, p. 22)

Maxim	Description
Quantity	Interlocutors should be as informative as necessary in their contributions, but not more than is necessary.
Quality	Interlocutors should say things that they believe to be true, or that evidence suggests is true.
Relevance (Relation)	The contributions of the interlocutors should be relevant to the direction and purposes of the conversation.
Manner	Interlocutors should make their contributions in an orderly way, in keeping with expected conversational norms in the culture.

2.3.5 Politeness Theory

Moving on from the introduction to the classic pragmatic frameworks, another theory that has been influential in L2 pragmatic research is politeness theory. A number of theories have been proposed to provide a conceptual framework for understanding politeness phenomena. Initial research in this area is attributed to Goffman (1967), Lakoff (1975), Leech (1983), and Brown and Levinson (1987). Goffman (1967), described politeness within the framework of a general theory of behavior. He also introduced the important concept of face, which was later incorporated into Brown and Levinson's politeness theory. Lakoff (1975) also made an important contribution to our understanding of politeness, which she defines in terms of the desire to reduce friction in social interaction. "She proposed rules for polite behavior and showed how syntactic and lexical strategies can be used to convey politeness" (Morkus, 2009, p. 31). Later, Leech (1983) proposed a number of maxims of politeness. However, there is no single agreed definition of politeness shared by these theories. The most influential theory of politeness to date which is particularly important in the field of L2 pragmatics and cross-cultural speech act research is that of Brown and Levinson (1987). Their theory of politeness is based on the concept of *face*, which was first introduced by Goffman (1967).

The concept of face can be generally defined as a person's public image, reputation, and

self-esteem. The loss of face often results in humiliation or embarrassment. Brown and Levinson (1987) made a distinction between two types of face: positive face and negative face. A person's positive face refers to "the desire to be ratified, understood, approved of, liked or admired" (p.62). Negative face is defined as "the want of every competent adult member that his actions be unimpeded by others" (p.62). Based on this concept of face, Brown and Levinson proposed two types of politeness: negative and positive. Positive politeness attends to the hearer's positive face, and this is achieved by conveying to the hearer that his or her desires and wants are in a way similar to the speaker's desires and wants. According to Culpeper et al. (2018), this type of politeness can be achieved through some output strategies "such as using terms that signify in-group membership, expressing sympathy to the hearer, and joking and being optimistic (e.g., Hey buddy, can I have your pen?)" (p. 45).

Negative politeness, on the other hand, attends to the hearer's negative face by showing that the speaker does not intend to impede the hearer's freedom of action or invade his or her personal space. According to Brown and Levinson (1987), negative politeness is avoidance-based and is characterized by "self-effacement, formality, and restraint.... with apologies for interfering..... with hedges on illocutionary force of the act, with impersonalizing mechanism.... with other softening mechanisms that give the addressee an "out", a face-saving line of escape" (p. 70). Culpeper et al. (2018) describe negative politeness as "a softening of the blow technique (e.g., I'm so sorry to bother you, but could I possibly ask if I could borrow a pen?)" (p. 46).

Brown and Levinson (1987) explain that there are certain speech acts that are by definition face-threatening such as requests and refusals. These face-threatening speech acts, or FTA's, can be classified according to whether they threaten the speaker's face or the hearer's

face, and whether they threaten the positive face or the negative face. For instance, requests potentially threaten the addressee's negative face because they may restrict the addressee's freedom to act according to his/her will. "Refusals, on the other hand, may threaten the addressee's positive face because they may suggest that what he/she says is not favored by the speaker" (Abroughi, 2012, p. 2441). However, as Abroughi (2012) suggests refusals can be considered as "dual face-threatening acts" because "there are still some other scholars who believe that some speech acts like refusals may threaten both interlocutors' faces. (p. 2441). In an attempt to avoid FTAs, interlocutors use specific strategies to minimize the threat according to a rational assessment of the face-risk to participants. For example, in terms of refusal speech act, the speaker can refuse implicitly by giving the listener a hint so that he or she can infer that the speaker means a refusal. An example for refusing a friend's request to borrow money can be "I'll think about it."

Brown and Levinson (1987) also propose three social variables that affect the seriousness of an FTA, i.e. power, distance, and rank. Power is the relative power of speaker over hearer (e.g., an interaction between a professor and a student vs. an interaction between two students). Distance is the social distance between hearer and speaker (e.g., an interaction between strangers vs. an interaction between family members). Rank is the weight, or rank, of the imposition (e.g., asking someone to pass the salt vs. requesting to borrow someone's car). Brown and Levinson view these factors as universal variables which help to understand how a face threatening act is likely to be and thus how much politeness is needed to counter-balance it. For instance, in the case of the distance variable, "asking a new colleague for a cup of tea is more face-threatening than asking a long-standing colleague" (Culpeper et al., 2018, p. 50). Although this model is criticized for underplaying the influence of other factors (such as the presence of a third party,

mood, formality), “it remains a very useful analytical framework and model used by numerous researchers” (Culpeper et al, 2018, p. 50).

The above pragmatics theories are used in this study to explore similarities and difference between request and refusal speech acts in the following section. Furthermore, the social variables affecting politeness degree and hence the appropriateness of speech acts are used both in instructional and assessment tools of this study. The criteria for rating comprehension and production of participants in this study were based on appropriateness levels which are directly influenced by politeness theory and the social variables involved. These criteria are further discussed in chapter 3 (section 3.7.4).

2.4. Request and Refusal Speech Acts

As discussed above, “speech acts are at the core of pragmatic communication as they perform social actions and functions of communication” (Stavans & Shafran, 2017, p.150). The reason for choosing requests and refusals in the present study is that they are “two of the most frequent speech acts in human communication, regularly used in everyday social interactions” (Stavans & Shafran, 2017, p.150). Requests and refusals are similar in that they are both face-threatening and they are different in terms of threatening hearer’s positive or negative face (Bella, 2012, 2014; Brown & Levinson, 1987, for requests; Allami & Naeimi, 2011; Codina-Espurz, 2013; Vilar-Beltran & Melchor-Couto, 2013, for refusals). The speech act of requesting threatens the hearer’s negative face since it shows that the speaker intends to limit the hearer’s freedom via imposition. The speech act of refusal threatens the hearer’s positive face since it shows that the speaker does not care about the hearer’s wants or desires and that the speaker’s desires are not the same as the hearer’s desires.

As Trosborg (1995) claims, “requesting is among one of the most commonly studied

speech acts” (p. 186). Requests are categorized as directives in speech act theory and as face-threatening acts (FTA) in politeness theory. By making a request, the speaker may threaten the hearer’s negative face by intending to impede the hearer’s ‘freedom of action,’ (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 65) and also runs the risk of losing face him/herself, as the requestee may choose to refuse to comply with his/her wishes (Salmani Nodoushan, 2007c; Salmani Nodoushan & Allami, 2011). According to Trosborg (1995), request is “an illocutionary act whereby a speaker (requester) conveys to a hearer (requestee) that he/she wants the requestee to perform an act which is for the benefit of the speaker” (p. 186). The requester uses different politeness strategies when making a request in order to preserve his/her positive face and mitigate the effect of the FTA on the hearer’s negative face (Tytar, 2015).

The choice of politeness strategy influences the linguistic means the speaker uses to compose a request. Such linguistic means were studied as a part of the Cross-Cultural Speech Act Realization Project (CCSARP) (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989). This research identified the NSs’ patterns of realisation in relation to requests and apologies in eight languages (Australian English, American English, British English, Canadian French, Danish, German, Hebrew, and Russian). As a result of this project, researchers developed a coding manual, which describes how a request can be analyzed linguistically. The authors used the term “request sequence” to refer to all the utterances involved in the request speech act. According to the manual, each request sequence consists of up to three components (or moves): Alerter, Head Act, (which can be optionally modified by downgraders or upgraders), and Supportive Moves. Example 1 below represents a request sequence:

Example 1 *Request sequence* (Tytar, 2015, p. 6)

John, close the window, please. I am terribly cold.

Request sequence		
Alerter	Head Act	Supportive move
John,	close the window, please	I'm terribly cold

In the example above, *John* is an Alerter, a part of a request sequence that turns the hearer's attention to the request that follows it. *Close the window* is a Head Act (also referred to as a 'core request' or 'request proper'), a minimal unit of the request realization. *Please* is an optional downgrader, an internal modification of the Head Act that softens the imposition of the Head Act. *I am terribly cold* is a supportive move, an external modification of the request Head Act. Table 2.3 illustrates strategies involved the speech acts of request.

Table 2.3

Request strategies (adapted from Blum-Kulka et al., 1989, pp. 278-280)

Direct Strategies	
Marked explicitly as requests, such as imperatives.	<i>Close the window</i> <i>I am asking you to close the window.</i>
Conventionally indirect strategies	
Using a suggestion to perform a specific action.	<i>How about closing the window?</i>
Using reference to a preparatory condition for the feasibility of the request (e.g. ability, willingness, possibility).	<i>Can you close the window?</i> <i>I was wondering if you would close the window.</i>
Non-conventionally indirect strategies	
Using hints to refer to relevant elements of the intended action depending on contextual clues.	<i>The window is open</i> or <i>It is very cold in here</i> (speaker's intention: getting the hearer to close the window)

Refusals, on the other hand, are categorized as commissives in Searle's speech act theory and as FTA in politeness theory. Refusal means the speech act of saying "no" (Wierzbicka 1987,

p. 94), expressing the addressee's non-acceptance, declining of or disagreeing with a request, invitation, suggestion or offer. In other words, "refusing means, essentially, saying 'no, I will not do it' in response to someone else's utterance, in which he has conveyed to us that he wants us to do something and that he expects us to do it" (Nguyen, 2006, p. 15). According to Brown and Levinson (1987), "by making a refusal, the speaker is posing a threat to the hearer's positive face by not caring about 'the addressee's feelings, wants, etc.,'" (p. 66). Like other speech acts, refusals are sensitive to context variables such as relative status and social distance of the interlocutors. Similar to requests, the usual sequence in refusal strategy consists of up to three components: "1. Pre-refusal strategies: preparing the addressee for an upcoming refusal; 2. Main refusal (Head Act): bearing the main refusal; 3. Post-refusal strategies: functioning as emphazier, mitigator or concluder of the main refusal" (Abroughi, 2012, p. 2442). Example 2 below represents a request sequence:

Example 2 *A refusal sequence of someone to his friend's request for going to Movie Theater together (Abroughi, 2012, p. 2442)*

Uhm, I'd really like to, but I can't. I'm sorry, I'm busy today.

Refusal Sequence		
Pre-refusal	Head Act main refusal	Post-refusal
Uhm, I'd really like to	but I can't	I'm sorry, I'm busy today

The speech act of refusing, like other speech acts, requires cooperation maxims to be considered in order to maintain a harmonious conversation. In fact, it is difficult to express a refusal without violating the principles. According to Nguyen (2006), "while people often utilize negotiation rather than direct refusal in their daily relationships, more subtle strategies may be required if the speaker is to convey the intended refusal without hurting the other's feelings" (p. 6). Table 2.4 illustrates strategies involved the speech acts of refusal.

Table 2.4

Classification of refusals (Adapted from Beebe et al., 1990, pp. 60–70)

Direct Refusals	
Strategies	Examples
a. Performative	<i>I refuse</i>
b. Nonperformative statement	<i>I can't</i>
i. "No"	<i>I won't</i>
ii. Negative willingness	<i>I don't think so.</i>
Indirect Refusals	
a. Statement of regret	<i>I'm sorry...; I feel terrible...</i>
b. Wish	<i>I wish I could help you.</i>
c. Excuse, reason, explanation	<i>My children will be home that night</i>
d. Statement of alternative	<i>Why don't you ask someone else?</i>
e. Set condition for future or past acceptance	<i>If you had asked me earlier, I would have...</i>
f. Promise of future acceptance	<i>I'll do it next time; I promise I'll... or Next time I'll...</i>
g. Statement of principle	<i>I never do business with friends</i>
h. Statement of philosophy	<i>One can't be too careful</i>
i. Attempt to dissuade interlocutor	<i>It won't be any fun tonight (to refuse an invitation)</i>
i. Threat/statement of negative consequences to the request	<i>If I knew you would judge me like this I never did that</i>
ii. Guilt trip	(Waitress to customers who want to sit a while) <i>I can't make a living off people who just order coffee</i>
iii. Criticize request, requester, etc.	<i>who do you think you are? That's a terrible idea</i>
iv. Request for help, empathy, and assistance by dropping or holding the request	<i>Don't worry about it; That's okay; You don't have to.</i>
v. Let interlocutor off the hook	<i>I'm trying my best; I'm doing all I can do.</i>
j. Acceptance that functions as a refusal:	
i. Unspecific or indefinite reply	<i>"I don't know when I can give them to you"</i>
ii. Lack of enthusiasm	<i>"I'm not interested in diets"</i>
k. Avoidance	
i. Non-verbal	<i>(silence, hesitation, doing nothing and physical departure)</i>
ii. Verbal	<i>(topic switch, joke, repetition of past request, postponement and hedge); e.g. I'll think about it.</i>
Adjuncts to Refusals	
a. Statement of positive opinion/feeling or agreement	<i>That's a good idea; I'd love to</i>

b. Statement of empathy	<i>I realise you are in a difficult situation</i>
c. Pause fillers	<i>well; oh; uhm</i>
d. Gratitude/appreciation	<i>Thank you</i>

As the above table shows, the number of moves in a refusal depends on the type of refusal (whether it is direct or indirect). Compare these two examples (Abroughi, 2012, p. 2442):

Example 3 *Direct refusal*

A: May I leave a message? B: No, you may not.

Example 4 *Indirect refusal*

A: Have another sandwich. B: Thanks. Everything was so tasty, I Couldn't eat any more.

In the first example, the refusal involves only one move, which is a contradictory move, but in the second example the hearer refuses the proposition using more than one move.

Naturally, indirect refusals take more moves to accomplish the refusals.

While both request and refusal speech acts are FTA's, in requests, it is the hearer's negative face which is threatened. However, in refusals, it is the hearer's positive face which is threatened. In everyday life, it is not easy to refuse. If you give a flat refusal, it may be interpreted as more than just the refusal itself (see example 3 above). In contrast, it can create a feeling of discomfort in both the requester and requestee (Nguyen, 2006, p. 16). According to Ellis (2008), "refusals involve high level of pragmatic competence of the speaker, especially when it is compared with other speech acts like apology and request" (cited in Tian, 2014, p. 212). As Sarfo (2011) argues:

Refusals by nature are complex; they are often negotiated over several turns and involve some degree of directness and indirectness, usually varying in the degree of directness and indirectness depending on the status and age of the interlocutors and the cultural context. (p.1)

“Individuals have the free will to either accept or refuse/reject a request, an offer, an invitation, a suggestion or a piece of advice” (Sarfo, 2011, p. 1). However, as Nguyen (2006) points out, when the speaker makes a refusal, he/she “challenges the pragmatic presuppositions of the preceding utterance” (p. 15). The way one makes a refusal can also be offensive if the person whose request, offer, invitation or suggestion has been declined does not know about how a refusal is made in the culture of the one who makes it.

Furthermore, the number of strategies to arrive at the appropriate form of refusal is more than a polite request. Gass and Houck (1999) argue that, “part of the complexity of refusals lies in the fact that they may involve a long, negotiated sequence and that, because they function as a second pair part, they preclude extensive planning on the part of the refuser” (Cited in Eslami, 2010, p. 232). The conversation below is a sample polite refusal in American English. Judy (the refuser) applies five moves (components/strategies) to come to an appropriate refusal to Bethany’s invitation:

Example 5 *Polite refusal in American English* (Eslami, 2010, p. 236)

“Bethany: Do you wanna see a movie tomorrow?”

Judy: Uhm (1), I’d love to (2). Sorry (3), but I have to study for an exam tomorrow (4). Next week maybe? (5)”

Depending on the eliciting speech act, the order of these strategies, their content, and form may vary but the classification can be used for teaching refusals in general (Beebe et al., 1990). Moreover, according to Beebe et al. (1990) “refusals are a major “sticking point” for nonnative speakers and are complex in nature.” (p. 56). Sadler and Eroz (2000) also point to the “complex constructions” of refusals because “they are often negotiated over several turns and involve some degree of indirectness” (p.53).

Beebe et al. (1990) also comment that the risk of face-threat is so inherent to the speech act of refusal that some degree of indirectness is usually required. According to Martinez-Flor and Uso-Juan (2011):

Refusal is a highly complex speech act that functions as a response to an initiating act (i.e., request, invitation, suggestion or offer). Since acceptance or agreement is usually preferred in response to these four speech acts, saying “no” can mean disapproval of the interlocutor’s intentions and consequently, a threat to the interlocutor’s face. (p. 56)

Chen (1995, p. 6) also points out that, “refusals are considered to be a face threatening act (FTA) in that either the speaker’s or listener’s positive or negative face is risked when a refusal is called for or carried out”. Because of the face-threatening nature they entail, refusals tend to be indirect, include mitigation, and/or delay within the turn or across turns (see example 5 above) (Houck & Gass, 1999). In fact, they involve a long-negotiated sequence with lots of face-saving maneuvers to accommodate its noncompliant nature (Houck & Gass, 1996), and “that is why refusing appropriately requires a high level of pragmatic competence” (Martinez-Flor & Uso-Juan, 2011, p. 56). Based on the above discussion, this study proposes that refusal is a more complex speech act than request and explores potential differences in the development of these two speech acts in terms of their complexity.

2.5 Data Elicitation Tools in L2 Pragmatics

As mentioned earlier, pragmatic competence involves a range of abilities from understanding to production of appropriate utterances in different social contexts. Therefore, for assessing pragmatic competence, the measured constructs vary in scope, from receptive abilities such as recognizing speech act types in interactional sequences to productive abilities of speech act performance.

Culpeper et al. (2018) divided production eliciting methods into two categories of elicited data and naturalistic data. They claim that “DCTs and role plays are popular methods for eliciting data while audio/video/ digital-based recordings, diaries, and field notes have been used to collect naturalistic data” (p.88). Culpeper et al. (2018) further divided elicitation methods for pragmatic comprehension and awareness into multiple-choice tests to assess comprehension and questionnaire-based methods to assess pragmatic recognition and metapragmatic awareness. Each data-gathering method can have strengths and limitations. As Culpeper et al. (2018) suggest, “researchers should weigh advantages and disadvantages of different data collection methods and select the most appropriate one(s) for the purposes of their studies and research questions posted” (p. 88).

Based on the research question of the present study which compares pragmatic comprehension and production of the target speech acts, two data elicitation methods of multiple-choice test (to assess comprehension) and oral role-play test (to assess production) are selected. The rationale for choosing each of these tests is further discussed below.

2.5.1 Comprehension Test: Multiple-Choice Discourse Completion Test (MDCT)

One of the very few tests to measure L2 pragmatic comprehension is multiple-choice discourse completion test (MDCT). In an MDCT, items typically include one target option and a few distractor options. According to Nguyen, (2019), “the target option can be adapted from previous research or can be newly created based on field notes of real-life interactions collected by researchers” (p. 201). Even though multiple-choice questions (MCQs) are considered to be one of the most practical test instruments due to objective scoring (Brown, 2001), developing MCQ items is challenging especially when creating valid distractor options (Liu, 2006; Yamashita, 1996). In MCQs, valid distractors mean that they sound plausible so they can

distinguish among different levels of language competence accurately. However, distractors for pragmatics are not obviously incorrect for everyone because they are determined based on the degree of appropriateness. Depending on test-takers' own culture-specific pragmatic norms, some test-takers, despite their established levels of pragmatic competence, may consider a distractor as a correct answer. Moreover, nature of items can be different in MDCT and thus responses can be analyzed differently depending on the nature of the items. Some MDCT items do not have a single correct response. For instance, in Bardovi-Harlig's (2014) study, L2 English learners were given a conventional expression and were asked to indicate their degree of understanding of the expression, ranging from 'not recognizing the expression at all' to 'I can use this expression in a conversation'. On the other hand, some MDCT items contain one single correct response. Learners are then required to choose what would be best to say next in that situation based on such factors as formality, social distance, directness, and politeness levels required for the specific scenario. From among three multiple-choice possibilities, only one would be considered fully appropriate by a native speaker of English. For instance, in Taguchi et al.'s (2016) implicature comprehension test, learners' responses were scored for accuracy (e.g., one point per correct answer). As Nguyen (2019) suggest, "Inferential statistics can be applied further to compare responses across participant groups and strategy (e.g., indirect refusals and indirect opinions)" (p. 201). Previous studies (Hudson et al., 1992; 1995; Roever, 2005; Yamashita, 1996; Yoshitake-Strain, 1997) conducted in various cultural environments have obtained different results for the reliability and validity of multiple-choice discourse completion tests. For example, Yamashita (1996) reported a reliability coefficient of .45 and Yoshitake (1997) reported a reliability of .60 on the MDCT test.

Nonetheless, an increasing body of recent research reports a satisfactory level of

reliability of MCQs (e.g., Garcia, 2004; Liu, 2006, 2007; Taguchi, 2009; Timpe-Laughlin & Choi, 2017). For instance, Liu (2007) reported on developing a MDCT that worked a high reliability of .90, which he accomplished by using students to generate the speech acts and situations that were used. Hudson et al. (1992, 1995) created initial prototype tests and validated them for EFL students at a US university. They noted that the MDCT did not work particularly well for them. Yamashita (1996) then created Japanese versions of those same tests and verified that all but MDCT worked reasonably well for Japanese as a second language. Enochs and Yoshitake (1996) and Yoshitake (1997) verified that the six assessments worked well for Japanese university EFL students. Ahn (2005) created Korean versions for all but the MDCT and verified that they worked reasonably well for Korean as a foreign language.

According to Yamashita (2008, p. 214), “the need for multiple-choice test formats seems to be growing with the increasing number of web-based tests”. Thus, further investigation of this method is necessary in different cultural settings. Moreover, MDCT is a suitable device to collect data for the design of the present study because it could quickly large amounts of data in a short time. MDCT can make it easy to statistically compare responses from different groups without any need for transcription. Finally, there is no need to check inter-rater reliability when using MDCT since only one correct response can be accepted by any rater. Following is a sample MDCT item on request speech acts.

Example 6 *Sample MDCT test item (Hudson et al., 1995 p. 108)*

You are shopping for your friend’s birthday and see something in a display case. You want to look at it more closely. A salesclerk comes over to you.

What would you say?

A. I want to take a look at that. Will you take it out of the case?

B. Excuse me! Show me that in the case there.

C. May I see that, please?

2.5.2 Production Test: Role-Play Test (RP)

A role-play test in L2 pragmatics asks examinees to read a description of a situation and then play a particular role with another person in that situation. The present research uses this type of role play to assess participants' production of requests and refusals because in this test different variables such as the situation, politeness factors, gender and age of the participants, or their proficiency level, can be controlled (Félix-Brasdefer, 2010). The major reason to use this test in the present study is to match the assessment mode with the treatment mode. This is in response to Bardovi-Harlig (2018) who argues that matched modality tasks should be used when evaluating pragmatic knowledge. In this view, the modality of elicitation tasks has to match the modality of the language event that we are simulating. She calls this "modality matching", and the resultant research design, "matched modality" (p.13). Bardovi-Harlig (2018) particularly emphasizes oral-for-oral tasks as crucial for understanding how the pragmatics of spoken language is learned and used. Oral tasks match the oral modality of conversation. In the present study, all treatment is delivered orally; hence, an oral mode of assessment matches the design of the study. According to Culpeper et al. (2018), "Compared to the more popular written discourse completion tests (DCT) in L2 pragmatics field, role-plays reflect more natural settings" (p.70). Culpeper et al. (2018) also point out that "although there are different variations and forms of DCTs, researchers have questioned the authenticity of the situational prompts, as well as the authenticity of language use" (p.59). Another serious limitation of DCT-elicited data is the absence of features specific to spoken interactions. DCTs usually produce a one- or two-turn written response which does not show usual conversational features (such as turn-taking) or

features of speech (such as hesitation or repetition) and non-verbal features (Kasper, 2008). Moreover, “the one-directional format of DCTs does not represent real-life situations where speech acts are often co-constructed” (Culpeper et al., 2018, p. 60). The following is an example of a DCT item eliciting a request where the test-takers are asked to write down the response in the space provided.

Example 7 *Sample DCT item (Billmyer & Varghese, 2000, p. 548)*

You missed a class and need to borrow a friend’s notes. What would you say?

You:

Role-plays (RP) on the other hand, simulate real-life communicative encounters and are widely used as a method of data collection in interlanguage pragmatics (see for instance Cheng, 2011; Felix-Brasdefer, 2008; Martinez-Flor, 2008; Taguchi, 2006; Takimoto, 2009). Role-play “elicits spoken data in which two interlocutors assume roles under predefined experimental conditions” (Félix-Brasdefer, 2010, p. 47). A distinction has been made between closed and open role-plays based on the amount and variety of production involved (Kasper & Roever, 2005).

According to Martinez-Flor and Uso-Juan (2011), “closed role-plays consist of a single turn in response to the description of a situation with specific instructions” (p.51). However, “open role-plays may involve as many turns and discourse phases as interlocutors need in order to continue and end their interaction” (Eslami & Mirzaei, 2014, p. 139). These open role-plays however have certain limitations. For instance, as Martinez-Flor and Uso-Juan (2011) point out, “it may not be possible to arrange the appropriate conditions for a large number of pairs to perform the role-plays and the subsequent transcription of the long conversations may be very time-consuming for the researcher” (p.52). Role-plays are audio- or video-recorded and analyzed for target pragmatic features occurring during role plays. Although these interactions are usually

Face-to-Face, some recent studies have used technology platforms for role-play interactions such as on-line virtual spaces, via chat, by phone, and role-playing software (see for example, Sydorenko, 2015; Taguchi et al., 2017; Vilar-Beltran & Melchor-Couto, 2013). Some limitations of role-plays include the longer time (compared to DCTs) needed to both to collect and analyze the data obtained because researchers need to transcribe the recorded data. The following is an example of a role play item on refusal (to request) speech act:

Example 8 *Sample role-play test item (Martinez-Flor & Uso-Juan, 2011, p. 71)*

You are a student at University. You have attended all classes during this semester. One of your classmates wants to borrow your class notes. Although you understand he/she has been sick, you do not want to lend your notes. You refuse by saying:

In sum, According to Ahn (2003), a number of pragmatics measurements have different merits and limitations, thus it is important to recognize the characteristics and purposes of the tests. For example, if a researcher needs to make a quick decision in short amount of time, then MDCT is the test of choice. On the other hand, if the researcher needs to encourage more insightful elicitation, then a role-play might be more useful in obtaining detailed information.

2.6 A Review of Literature on L2 Pragmatics Research

Over the last 30 years, an increasingly large body of research has been done on L2 pragmatics. Some of these studies have focused on the teachability of L2 pragmatics. As Plonsky and Zhuang (2019) mention “studies in this line of research have examined pragmatics instruction across many contextual and learner factors, treatments and target features, and outcome measures” (p. 287). Attempts have been made to determine whether pragmatics is teachable at all or what type of instruction most benefits the development of L2 pragmatics. So far, the most widely used approach in categorizing instruction in L2 pragmatics has been labeling

instruction as either explicit or implicit instruction (Taguchi, 2015). These instructional studies on L2 pragmatics have primarily focused on comparing explicit instruction (i.e., providing direct instruction on how specific forms are used in context to accomplish pragmatic goals) with implicit instruction (i.e., exposing learners to pragmatic aspects of language and providing them with a means to make generalizations and conclusions about how language is used in context). In general, studies have demonstrated that learners benefit from both explicit and implicit instruction (e.g. Hernandez, 2011; House, 1996; Martinez-Flor, 2008; Rose & Ng, 2001; Safont, 2003; Takahashi, 2001; Takimoto, 2009; Tateyama, 2007, 2001; Yoshimi, 2001), however “a general consensus has been reached in the area of interlanguage pragmatics according to which explicit instruction is more facilitative than implicit instruction for improving learners’ use of difficult pragmatic structures that include speech acts such as refusals, invitations, requests, offers, suggestions, agreements, complaints, and apologies” (Lyster et al., 2013, p. 25)

The findings of L2 instructional studies have been summarized in a few meta-analyses and review papers (e.g., Badjadi, 2016; Jeon & Kaya, 2006; Kasper & Rose, 2002; Plonsky & Zhuang, 2019; Takahashi 2010a, 2010b; Taguchi, 2011, 2015). The results have showed that instruction is more effective than mere exposure to input and that explicit instruction is more effective than implicit instruction (Takahashi, 2010). These empirical findings lend support to Schmidt’s (1993, 2001) noticing hypothesis, which claims that attention is necessary for input to become noticed and subsequently internalized as intake (see section 2.4.1).

The present study narrows the scope of reviewing the L2 pragmatics instructional literature mainly to interventional studies on the two target speech acts of the study, i.e. requests and refusals.

Requests and refusals in L2 Pragmatic Research

Requests are one of the most commonly researched speech acts in L2 pragmatics studies. For instance, Takahashi (2001) studied the role of input enhancement in developing pragmatic competence and learning request strategies. Input enhancement is described as “manipulated instructional input on L2 structures” (Takahashi, 2001, p.171) which can be accomplished in various ways such as some form of corrective recast (e.g., Doughty & Varela, 1998) and visual enhancement (textual modification) with the use of bold or italic face (e.g., Doughty, 1995). In Takahashi’s study, input was enhanced by classroom tasks intended to make the learners focus on the target strategies in a particular way. Four input conditions were set up: explicit teaching, form-comparison, form-search, and meaning-focused teaching. These differed in degree of input enhancement, with the explicit teaching condition demonstrating the highest degree of input enhancement and the meaning-focused condition the least. Participants were 138 Japanese college students who had received between seven and ten years of formal classroom instruction in English. The results of a quasi-experimental pre-test/post-test indicated that the students in the explicit teaching group showed greater use of the target forms than those in the other three groups. The results supported the hypothesis that the degree of input enhancement affects the learning of target request strategies and suggested that the target pragmatic features were most effectively learned when a relatively high degree of input enhancement was realized with explicit teaching of pragmatics.

In another study, Eslami-Rasekh et al. (2004) explored the effect of explicit metapragmatic instruction on the comprehension of advanced EFL students of the speech acts of requesting, apologizing, and complaining. Classroom activities included teacher-fronted discussions, cooperative grouping, role playing, and other pragmatically-oriented tasks that

promoted learning of the intended speech acts. Participants were Iranian undergraduate students in the field of teaching English as a foreign language, with a group of American students that provided the baseline. This study applied the pre-post control group design. The results indicated that speech act comprehension improved significantly; supporting the claim that explicit metapragmatic instruction facilitates interlanguage pragmatic development.

In an intervention study in 2007, Alcon-Soler compared the impact of explicit and implicit treatment on Spanish EFL learners' acquisition of request forms in English. The explicit group was given metapragmatic information regarding requests, and was asked to identify examples of requests in provided scripts and to justify their choices. The implicit groups received awareness raising tasks that featured input enhancement but no metapragmatic information. The researchers found that both groups (explicit and implicit) outperformed the control group, but no significant differences were found between the intervention groups. However, results indicated that the explicit group maintained learning even though the post-test was delayed 3 weeks after the treatment (Taguchi, 2011).

In another experimental study, Li (2012) examined the effects of different focus-on-form techniques, and the durability of such effects, on adolescent beginners' acquisition of request supportive moves. Three treatments were implemented: (1) the input/output group was exposed to input and involved in meaningful output activities; (2) the enhanced group was aided by visual enhancement of the input; and (3) the explicit group was aided with metapragmatic information. Discourse completion test results showed that, when learners are provided with appropriate input and chances for output, visual enhancement can boost their pragmatic development, while metapragmatic information did not result in development. Only the input-output activities could produce durable effects in every aspect of the target features. The explicit treatment did produce

durable effects in the acquisition of overall supportive moves. The effects of the visual enhancement were not durable. According to Li (2010), the combination the learner profile and the nature of target features may have been what influenced the treatment effects. He suggested that “since these learners were young adolescents, their cognitive resources were limited for metapragmatic information” (p.46). Li concluded that “when there is a combination of pertinent input and chances for output, implicit techniques may work better than explicit ones in adolescent beginners' pragmatic development” (p. 49).

Turning to refusals, as mentioned earlier in 2.4, this face-threatening speech act is a dispreferred second action (e.g., as a response to a request or invitation) and as such, it often requires not only long sequences of negotiation and cooperative achievements, but also “face-saving maneuvers” to accommodate its noncompliant nature and avoid conflict (Gass & Houck, 1999, p. 2). According to Uso-Juan (2013, p. 66), “given the complex nature of this speech act and the inherent risk in offending the interlocutor, there is a need for learners’ instruction in this particular speech act”. However, as indicated by Eslami (2010), the number of studies on the effect of instruction on polite refusals in English is quite limited. Some of these studies include Duan and Wannaruk (2010), Alcon-Soler and Guzman (2010), Alcon-Soler, (2012), and Uso-Juan (2013) which will be briefly reviewed.

Duan and Wannaruk (2010) compared the effects of explicit and implicit instruction in the use of English refusals mainly as regards strategy choices (e.g., direct and indirect) and level of formality. Sixty-two participants were divided into an explicit instruction group (EIG) and an implicit instruction group (IIG). The teaching targets were refusals to four types of acts: invitations, suggestions, offers and requests, and involved three kinds of status between the speaker and hearer (high, equal and low) in familiar relationships. The quantitative results from

pre/post-tests in written Discourse Completion Test (DCT) showed that explicit instruction was significantly more effective ($t = 7.67, p = .000$) than implicit instruction for teaching English refusals. Qualitatively, for teaching refusals to invitations and requests, explicit teaching was more effective than implicit teaching; for teaching refusals to offers and suggestions there was no difference between the two kinds of instruction; but teaching refusals to offers was effective, and no effect could be found in teaching refusals to suggestions. Duan and Wannaruk (2010) concluded that “As to amount of information, strategy choices, and level of formality, the performance of the EIG was better than that of the IIG” (p. 93).

Alcon-Soler and Guzman (2010) carried out an interventional study to measure the effect of pragmatic instruction on foreign language learners’ awareness of refusals. Participants received audiovisual pragmatic input from the series *Stargate* in English, which was controlled for speech act type (refusals to requests) and social distance (power and social distance). Moreover, an instructional treatment that involved four steps was designed: identifying refusals in interaction; providing pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic information related to the issue of directness and use of mitigation in the performance of refusals (see examples 3 and 4); noticing by means of awareness-raising activities; and performance of refusals in role-plays. Alcon-Soler and Guzman (2010) used retrospective verbal reports to analyze whether instruction made a difference with regard to learners’ awareness of refusals in English as a foreign language (EFL) context. The results of a paired matched t-test ($t = 22.67$) showed statistically significant differences in attention before and after instruction, which reveal the benefits of pragmatic instruction on learners’ attention and awareness of pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic issues involved in the production of refusals.

Targeting refusals again, Alcon-Soler, (2012) investigated the benefits of teaching this speech act from a discourse perspective on third language learners' pragmatic knowledge. Ninety-two students of English (52 receptive bilinguals and 40 productive bilinguals of Catalan and Spanish) participated in her study. The study involved a one-group pre-test/post-test design and an instructional treatment. Research findings gathered through retrospective verbal reports showed that both receptive and productive bilinguals increased their attention and pragmalinguistic awareness of refusals in English, but productive bilinguals outperformed receptive bilinguals in metapragmatic awareness after pragmatic instruction on refusals with statistically significant difference on both for pragmalinguistics features ($p = 0.029$) and sociopragmatics features ($p = 0.029$).

More recently, Uso-Juan (2013) examined the effects of explicit instruction through metapragmatic information on English refusals among Spanish EFL learners. Pedagogical intervention was organized progressively in six steps: Researching, Reflecting, Receiving, Reasoning, Rehearsing and Revising (Martinez-Flor & Uso-Juan, 2006). The pedagogical intervention was designed to help learners understand the form-function relationship of refusals in different social contexts. Results from comparing pre-and post-tests showed that this pedagogical proposal had a positive effect on the amount of refusal strategies used by learners in the post-test. Specifically, results showed that the high use of direct strategies found before instruction decreased significantly after the treatment, allowing thus for an increase in different indirect strategies, such as those of reason/explanation, regret/apology, alternative, and plain indirect. According to Uso-Juan, "after instruction, there was a higher use in frequency and variety of adjuncts to refusals, including the strategy of willingness and positive opinion, which also denoted a politeness orientation" (2013, p. 81).

The above literature supports the need of pragmatics instruction in language classrooms and provides evidence for the benefits of noticing (Schmidt, 1991) and instruction in L2 pragmatics. However, as Nguyen (2019) points out, “compared to pragmatic production, pragmatic comprehension and perception are less researched and should receive greater attention in future studies” (p. 206). Moreover, there is a gap in the literature as most of the studies do not consider pragmatic development both in terms of comprehension and production. Studies have restricted pragmatic development either to pragmatic awareness or comprehension (e.g., Alcon-Soler, 2012; Eslami et al., 2004) or to pragmatic production (e.g., Duan & Wannaruk, 2010; Li, 2010). Furthermore, most of the studies have examined the effects of instruction only on one single speech act. In fact, no studies were found which examined the potential effect of complexity of speech acts in their acquisition. The lack of comparative studies on speech acts results in another gap in the literature as to what type of instruction can be more effective on what type of speech act. As one of the key contributions, this research intends to fill this gap by examining whether the type of speech act (request versus refusal) can influence corrective feedback effects. Another problem in the literature is the small number of studies specifically on refusals which prevents the possibility of any generalizations being made based on the present literature. While a number of these studies have interesting findings, none of them have been replicated by other researchers. This research adds to the previous literature by adding more data on refusals so potential generalizations can be made in the future.

2.7 Corrective Feedback

There has been a growing interest in the role of corrective feedback (CF) and its mechanism in the field of SLA in recent decades. As Brown (2016) mentions:

This line of research stems, pedagogically, from the shift towards communicative language teaching with a focus on form (e.g. Norris & Ortega, 2000) and, theoretically, from the long-standing interactionist tradition of SLA (e.g. Gass, Mackey & Pica, 1998; Plonsky & Gass, 2011). (p. 437)

Indicative of the growing interest in CF are four meta-analyses of CF research which were published between 2006 and 2010 (Li, 2010; Lyster & Saito, 2010; Mackey & Goo, 2007; Russell & Spada, 2006). The findings “together provide strong support for the overall effectiveness of CF” (Lyster et al., 2013, p. 2). Based on Lighbown and Spada’s definition, corrective feedback (CF) is “an indication to a learner that his or her use of target language is incorrect” (2006, p. 197). As Lyster et al. (2013) note, CF may consist of an indication of the existence of an error, provision of the correct target form, or metalinguistic information about the rules of the target language. CF can vary in degree of explicitness and can be viewed as a continuum between explicit and implicit. However, researchers differ in their opinions as to which type of corrective feedback is more effective. Figure 2.3 illustrates different types of CF along this continuum. Corrective feedback can be written or oral, however, interactional feedback, which is the focus of this study, is often a response to oral errors, because such feedback occurs in the context of interactional conversation. This is discussed in the next section.

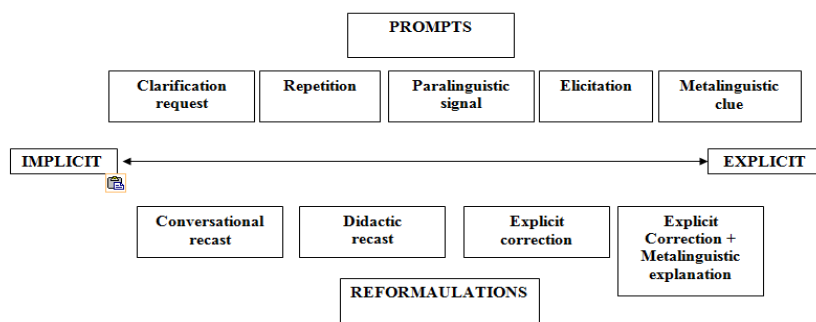


Figure 2.3. CF types (Lyster et al., 2013, p. 5)

Interactional feedback is an oral type of corrective feedback that is “generated in response to both linguistically erroneous and communicatively inappropriate utterances that learners produce during conversational interaction” (Nassaji, 2015, p. 45). According to Lyster and Saito (2010), “the effectiveness of interactional feedback continues to attract the attention of researchers with theoretical interests in the cognitive processes it triggers as well as practitioners with practical interests in how feedback can be effectively yet seamlessly integrated into classroom interaction” (p. 292). Interactional feedback is viewed as an effective pedagogical tool in a FonF approach as it draws learners’ attention to form when the primary focus is on meaning (Ellis, 2001). In this view, the aim of error correction is to help learners express their meaning rather than simply display what is incorrect. Interactional feedback can be provided through various forms such as repetition, clarification requests, and confirmation checks. Based on Nassaji (2015), there are at least three moves in a conversational exchange of interactional feedback: 1. An initiation move that contains an error and triggers the feedback, 2. A feedback move which can be of any type of explicit or implicit, and 3. An optional learner response move because the learner has a choice as to whether or not to respond to the feedback. The following example provides an example of an interactional feedback exchange where the learner repeated her original utterance in the response move:

Example 9 *Interactional feedback* (Nassaji, 2007a, p. 529)

Student: *On the street there was a policeman, and she was skipping running (Initiation)

Teacher: I am sorry, she was....? (Feedback)

Student: Skipping running, the thief (Response)

Interactional feedback can be both implicit through strategies used to deal with communication difficulty and explicit through strategies that draw learner’s attention to a

particular linguistic form irrespective of any communication breakdown. Interactional feedback generally consists of two main types: reformulations and elicitations (or prompts). Figure 2.8 illustrates different types and subtypes of interactional feedback. Reformulation involves rephrasing the learner's erroneous utterance into a correct form. Elicitations are strategies which attempt to prompt the learner to correct his or her erroneous output (rather than providing the correct form). As shown in Figure 2.4, both reformulation and elicitation can take many different forms. Reformulations can include recasts and direct correction. Subtypes of elicitations can be clarification requests, repetition, direct elicitation, meta-linguistic cues, and nonverbal cues (Nassaji, 2015). Each of these feedback types is explained below in more details.

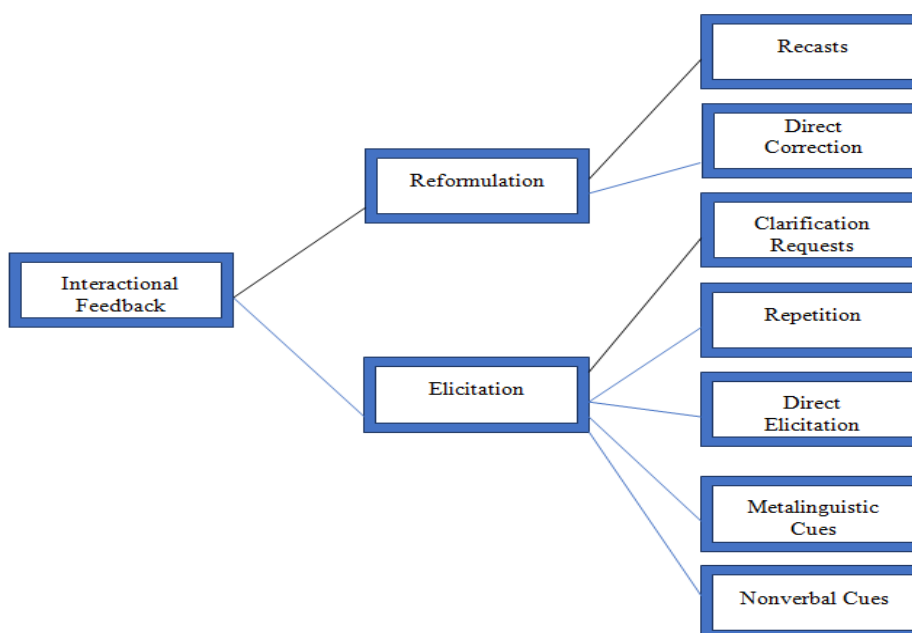


Figure 2.4. Type and subtypes of interactional feedback, (Taken from Nassaji, 2015, p.46)

Recasts

Recasts are one of the most frequently studied types of interactional feedback. Recasts are defined by Long (2007) as:

A reformulation of all or part of a learner's immediately preceding utterance in which

one or more non-target-like (lexical, grammatical, etc.) items is/are replaced by the corresponding target language form(s), and where, throughout the exchange, the focus of the interlocutors is on meaning, not language as object (p. 77).

Based on this definition, recasts have several characteristics: first, they occur immediately after a non-target form; second, they provide the correct form; third, they occur when the primary focus is on meaning, and fourth, they attempt to preserve the original meaning. These characteristics make recasts as one of the preferred feedback types especially in instructional settings. Some benefits of recasts are that they are time-saving, less threatening to students' confidence and less disruptive of the flow of the interaction due to their implicitness (Loewen & Philp, 2006).

Doughty (2001) argued that recasts are ideal for achieving an “immediately contingent focus on form” (p. 252). Recasts have several advantages from a psycholinguistic perspective. According to Long (1996, 2007), recasts facilitate form-function mapping by providing linguistic information in context and when the learner has comprehended part of the message from pervious production. In other words, the reformulation of the learner's own production frees up “attentional resources” that can be used in form-function mapping. Although recasts are generally considered as one type of feedback, they are not a unified feedback type and can take many different forms such as declarative or interrogative, isolated or embedded, partial or full, corrective or communicative (See Nassaji, 2018 for a detailed analysis). The following is an example of a recast:

Example 10 *Recast* (Sheen, 2006, p. 372)

S: *Yeah, he know Michael.

T: He knows Michael?

Recasts are the most widely studied type of feedback; however, mixed findings have been

reported in many studies. Although some researchers (e.g., Long, 2006; Doughty, 2001) consider recast as an effective corrective feedback technique, others (Lyster, 1998; Panova & Lyster, 2002) propose that learners usually do not notice and thus they regard them not as effective for interlanguage development. A number of interaction researchers (e.g., Braidı, 2002; Chaudron, 1977, 1986; Long, 1996; Lyster, 1998a, 1998b; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Oliver & Mackey, 2003), referring to the ambiguity of recast, also argue that recast might be perceived as mere repetition for language learners hence learners might fail in perceiving the corrective function of recasts (e.g. Long, 2006; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Morris & Tarone, 2003; Nicholas et al, 2001). The following example shows the ambiguity of the recast.

Example 11 *The ambiguity of the recast* (Nassaji, 2015, p. 49)

S: *I like to eat apple every day.

T: That is very good. Eating an apple every day is very good for you.

In the above example, the student may confuse teacher's correction for adding indefinite article "an" before the singular noun "apple" with the general idea that eating an apple is healthy.

Direct Correction

Direct correction is another type of reformulation which involves rephrasing the learner's erroneous utterance into a correct form by using very explicit words or phrases such as *no*, *that is not correct*, etc. The following example illustrates a direct correction:

Example 12 *Direct Correction* (Nassaji, 2018, p. 53)

S: *He has catch a cold.

T: Not catch, caught

Clarification Requests

Clarification Request is one type of elicitation feedback and occurs when the teacher or an interlocutor indicates to learners that either the utterance has been misunderstood or is incorrect in some way and that a repetition or a reformulation is needed. Phrases such as *pardon me? Sorry? what? 'I don't understand'* follow a student's utterance to indirectly signal an error. Since the correct form is not provided in this type of feedback, the learner has the opportunity to correct herself/himself. Similar to recasts, clarification request can be ambiguous since the learner may consider them as a reaction to content rather than to form. Example 13 illustrates two instances of clarification request:

Example 13 *Clarification request (Lightbown & Spada, 2013, p. 140)*

T: How often do you wash the dishes?

S: Fourteen.

T: Excuse me. (Clarification Request)

S: Fourteen.

T: Fourteen what? (Clarification Request)

S: *Fourteen for a week.

T: Fourteen times a week? (Interrogative Recast)

S: Yes. Lunch and dinner.

Repetition

Repetition refers to feedback that includes repetition of all or part of the learner's incorrect utterance generally with a change in intonation (rising, in most cases) (Lyster & Ranta, 1997).

Example 14 *Repetition (Sheen, 2004, p. 279)*

S: *Oh my God, it is too expensive, I pay only 10 dollars.

T: I pay?

Direct Elicitation

This type of feedback attempts to push the learner to provide the correct form through such strategies as pausing, repeating the utterance, or asking more directly to reproduce the utterance. Example below is one form of elicitation.

Example 15 *Direct elicitation* (Lightbown & Spada, 2013, p. 141)

S: *My father cleans the plate.

T: Excuse me, he cleans the _____?

S: Plates?

Metalinguistic Cue

According to Lyster and Ranta (1997) metalinguistic feedback “contains either comments, information, or questions related to the well-formedness of the student’s utterance, without explicitly providing the correct form” (p. 47). This technique indicates the presence of an error and generally provides information about its locus and nature through metalinguistic clues. These clues can be in the form of a metalinguistic comment and a metalinguistic question, both of which can result in self-correction (Nassaji, 2015). The following illustrates an example of a metalinguistic question.

Example 16 *Metalinguistic cue* (Lightbown & Spada, 2013, p. 141)

S: *We look at the people yesterday.

T: What’s the ending we put on verbs when we talk about the past?

S: /e-d/

Nonverbal Cues

According to Nassaji (2015), interactional feedback can also be provided nonverbally

using gestures, facial expressions as well as hand and head movement. Ellis (2009) uses the term Paralinguistic signal for this type of feedback and provides the following example:

Example 17 *Nonverbal cue* (Ellis, 2009, p. 9)

S:* Yesterday I go cinema.

T: gestures with right forefinger over left shoulder to indicate past.

Besides the above types and subtypes, interactional feedback exchange can be simple or complex. Simple feedback consists of only one feedback move while complex feedback or multi-move (Sheen, 2006) consists of a number of feedback moves. For instance, a feedback exchange may include a recast in combination with other types of feedback such as repetition, clarification request, or metalinguistic information (Sheen, 2006). The following shows an example of a complex feedback turn consisting of a repetition and a recast:

Example 18 *Complex feedback* (Sheen, 2006, p. 371)

S: *I pay the cost.

T: I pay? I'll pay the cost.

Another distinction can also be made considering the timing of feedback. L2 teachers can provide CF immediately during the task or delay CF until sometime after the task has ended. If the feedback is provided immediately after an erroneous utterance, it is called immediate feedback and if the correction is withheld for a period of time, it is called delayed feedback. There is a debate among researchers regarding the effectiveness of these two types of feedback (e.g., Doughty, 2001; Goo & Mackey, 2013; Loewen, 2004; Nassaji, 2007; Varnosfadrani, 2006). However, interactional feedback is often of the immediate type as it happens in reaction to an error during the interaction. Doughty (2001) argued that immediate feedback is more effective since it takes place immediately after the error and while learners' attention is on

meaning so it provides a better opportunity for form-meaning mapping. On the other hand, there are also the positive results reported from the very few investigations of the developmental effects of delayed CF (Sheen, 2006; Varnosfadrani, 2006). Therefore, more empirical research may be required to investigate whether there is any difference in the L2 development that results from immediate and delayed CF.

Among all types and distinctions of CF mentioned above, the present study uses a complex interactional feedback which is a combination of repetition and recast strategy (see example 18 above). This multi-move feedback type is Doughty and Varela's (1998) operationalization of recasts which they called as "focused recast", "corrective recast", or "combination recast". The reason for selecting this combination is to include benefits of recast and to make its corrective intent clearer through more explicit types of feedback (repetition).

As mentioned earlier, recast has an implicit and unobtrusive nature which does not interrupt the flow of communication, thereby allowing learners to pay attention to form and meaning at the same time (Long, 1991, 1996, 2007). On the other hand, recasts may go unnoticed because they are not salient enough (Lyster, 2004). Furthermore, the corrective intent of recasts may be ambiguous because teachers often repeat learners' correct utterances as well as recasting their incorrect ones. As a result, Nicholas et al. (2001) suggest that recasts are most effective when their ambiguity is diminished and their corrective intent is clear. One way of doing so would be by enhancing the saliency of recasts. This enhancement can be achieved in a number of ways, by shortening the recasts, by targeting single errors versus multiple errors, or by using them in conjunction with other interactional features such as added stress, rising intonation, or other types of explicit moves or signals (Loewen & Philp, 2006; Sheen, 2006).

In this study, in order to make the learners notice the gap between their utterances and the

correct target, recasts are combined by other techniques such as an interrogative repetition, clarification request, and metalinguistic information. This makes recasts slightly more explicit and easier to notice. Teachers try to draw learner's attention to problematic linguistic or pragmatic features by repeating the errors in a rising intonation, and subsequently providing a "specific exemplar in a falling intonation "so that learners can make a cognitive comparison between their interlanguage utterance and the teacher's recast" (Doughty & Valera, 1998, p. 118). (See examples 19 and 20 below)

Although the emphasis is on maintaining the flow of communication, corrective recasts on pragmatics can interrupt the ongoing interactions. According to Fukuya and Hill (2006), while recasts on morphological and syntactic forms are brief and consist of just one morpheme, one word, and a few structural elements— "recasts on pragmatics are longer on the sentential level and thus may direct learners' attention away from the ongoing interaction" (p. 65).

Although pragmatic recasts can make disruptions in the interaction, they do not carry negative pedagogical or theoretical implications. Fukuya and Hill (2006) mention that even if corrective recasts are interruptive, "they should be considered appropriate at the pragmatic level; instructors briefly intervene in the meaning-exchange for the purpose of an intermittent attentional shift to linguistic features..... and thus this focus on form involves the learners' engagement in meaning" (p. 65).

Regarding the timing of the feedback, this study takes the immediate feedback type not only because it is well-supported in empirical studies, both also because it matches the theoretical background of the study, i.e., the noticing hypothesis and the interaction approach. Immediate and brief feedback draws learners' attention to their non-target-like utterances within the context of meaning-based interaction without breaking the flow of communication.

With respect to errors, corrective feedback in this study targets two types of errors: pragmalinguistic errors and sociopragmatics errors. This is based on Thomas (1983) who broke down pragmatic failure into two types: pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic failure. Pragmalinguistic failure is fundamentally a linguistic problem, “caused by differences in the linguistic encoding of pragmatic force” (Thomas, 1983, p. 99), whereas sociopragmatic failure results from “different perceptions of what constitutes appropriate linguistic behavior” (Thomas, 1983, p. 99). In other words, pragmalinguistic error is an utterance that is pragmatically appropriate but grammatically incorrect and sociopragmatic error is an utterance that is grammatically correct but pragmatically inappropriate (e.g., degree of politeness required, rights and obligations, costs/benefits (Fukuya & Zhang, 2002)). The distinction between these two types of failure parallels the dichotomy between pragmalinguistics (functional aspect of pragmatic competence) and sociopragmatics (social aspect of pragmatic competence). This is consistent with the definition of pragmatic competence at the beginning of this chapter based on Bachman and Palmer’s (2010) model of communicative competence which views pragmatic competence as consisting of pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics knowledge (Leech, 1983; Thomas, 1983). Following Fukuya and Zhang (2002), the main thrust of this framework is that when a learner makes an inappropriate refusal or request, “the teacher recasts it by using one of the target conventions” (p. 8). And when the learner makes an appropriate request or refusal but with an incorrect linguistic form, the teacher recasts the form. As Fukuya and Zhang (2002) suggest, “The teacher ignores other cases” (p.8).

The followings are two examples of interactional corrective recast from the study.

Example 19 *Corrective recast on a linguistically inappropriate form*

S: *Can I lend your notes? I was sick; I couldn’t go to class yesterday.

T: lend? ↑ Can I borrow? ↓ (repetition + recast)

S: Yes, Can I borrow your notes?

T: yes!

Example 20 *Corrective recast on a pragmatically inappropriate form*

S: *I want you to lend me your notes.

T: I want you? ↑ This is not very polite! Can you lend me your notes? ↓ (repetition + metalinguistic information + recast)

S: can you lend me your notes please?

Feedback in L2 pragmatics research

In L2 pragmatics, while the effects of instruction have been largely studied, feedback has not received as much attention. From another perspective, while there are relatively few studies on the effect of corrective feedback on developing L2 pragmatics, there are large number of studies investigating effects of different feedback types on other areas of L2 teaching and learning (e.g., Li, 2010; Lyster & Saito, 2010; Mackey & Goo, 2007; Russell & Spada, 2006). Some of these studies have also explored whether feedback has a durable effect over time. Meta-analyses of CF research provide strong support for the conclusion that CF facilitates the development of L2 grammatical knowledge. For instance, Li (2010) conducted a meta-analysis on the effectiveness of corrective feedback in second language acquisition. He found that there was a medium overall effect for corrective feedback ($d = 0.64$) and the effect was maintained over time. Explicit feedback was more effective than implicit feedback on both immediate and short-delayed post-tests. Another major finding of the meta-analysis was that the effect of implicit feedback was better maintained than that of explicit feedback as shown through larger effect sizes on long-delayed post-tests. There are also a number of studies that have examined the

provision and effects of computer-assisted feedback (e.g. Bower & Kawaguchi, 2011; Lee, 2011; Rouhshad et al., 2016; Sauro, 2009; Yilmaz, 2012). According to Nassaji (2015), “the results of these studies confirm that interactional feedback occurs in computer-mediated settings and that such feedback can be beneficial for L2 learners, particularly when provided in ways that the feedback draws learners’ attention to form” (p.553).

Despite the wide research on CF effects on other areas of language learning, feedback has not been investigated to the same extent in pragmatics. According to Bardovi-Harlig (2017), “feedback as a variable has received very little attention in published studies of instructed pragmatics to date” (p.235). Out of 81 studies Bardovi-Harlig (2015b) reviewed, she counted 34 with feedback. Of those only three studies investigated feedback as a variable (Barekat, 2013, who uses Takimoto’s 2006 feedback script; Koike & Pearson, 2005; Takimoto, 2006), whereas the others simply reported it as a feature of the instruction (Bardovi-Harlig 2017). In the next section, studies on CF alone are reviewed first. This is followed by studies that include corrective feedback as a part of the instructional methods.

The literature search of this study also led to only a few studies on pragmatic development with a focus on corrective feedback as a separate variable (Fukuya & Zhang, 2002; Koike & Pearson, 2005; Takimoto, 2006; Nipaspong & Chinokul, 2010; Nguyen et al., 2015).

Fukuya and Zhang (2002) investigated the effects of implicit feedback on Chinese learners of English in learning eight pragmalinguistic conventions of request. Participants role played a scenario that featured request making and received a recast from their instructor when they produced nontarget- like request forms. Both pragmatic recast and control groups performed role-plays; the experiment group received recasts on their request Head Acts whereas while control group did not. In this treatment, learners were not only made aware that their request

forms were inappropriate, but also had an opportunity to compare their forms with more target-like request forms. Since the recasts occurred through meaningful communication, learners were able to make a connection among the target pragmalinguistic form, the function it expressed, and the context of its occurrence. Instructional gains in accuracy and appropriateness of the request forms were measured in a DCT task. The results yielded large ($d = 0.83$) effect sizes of the pragmatic recast group, proving that pragmalinguistic recasts were effective for teaching both pragmatically and grammatically appropriate requests.

Again, targeting requests, Koike and Pearson (2005) provided feedback after learners completed a series of exercises and activities. They examined the effectiveness of teaching pragmatic information through the use of explicit or implicit pre-instruction, and explicit or implicit feedback, to English-speaking learners of third-semester Spanish. They operationalized explicit feedback as correct response along with metalinguistic information and implicit CF as clarification requests. Results showed that the explicit group performed significantly better than the other experimental group and the control group on all measures.

Takimoto (2006) provided feedback to learners after they had made an incorrect selection from two possibilities in a written dual-choice task. He compared the effects of structured input tasks with and without explicit CF on the ability of adult Japanese learners of English to make polite requests. All participants engaged in structured input tasks requiring them to rate the appropriateness of dialogues in different situations; participants in the CF group also received explicit CF that involved “either a metalinguistic question to elicit a correct response or provision of a metalinguistic rule” (p. 411). Both groups made significant progress in the receptive and production tasks, although the CF group had slightly higher scores than the no-CF group on all measures.

Later in 2010, Nipaspong and Chinokul examined the effectiveness of explicit feedback and prompts on learners' pragmatic awareness of the use of appropriate refusals. There were three groups in the study; explicit feedback, prompt, and control group. The data were derived from the parallel pre-test and post-test and interview protocols. After a 10-week treatment, results from a pragmatic awareness multiple-choice test and qualitative data revealed a significant improvement of pragmatic awareness, especially concerning unconventional refusal expressions, of the prompts group over the explicit feedback and the control groups. The researchers explained that the "advantages of prompts may result from its demand for learners to generate repairs and its provision of more opportunities for learners' uptake" (p. 101).

In a more recent study, Nguyen et al. (2015) examined whether giving written corrective feedback on students' performance during pragmatics-focused activities leads to their subsequent improvement in producing and recognizing pragmatically appropriate email requests. The study involved two experimental groups of direct-feedback (provision of the correct/ suggested answer without explaining the correction) and metapragmatic feedback (provision of comments/ questions relating to the nature of the error without providing the correct/suggested answer) and one control group. Students' pragmatic performance was measured by means of a pre-test, an immediate and delayed post-test, which consisted of a production and a recognition task. The results indicated that the treatment groups performed significantly better than the control group in the production task, but there was no significant difference between the two treatment groups. On the other hand, students who received metapragmatic feedback significantly outperformed those receiving direct feedback and the control group in the recognition task.

Although the findings of the above studies generally confirm positive effects of CF on pragmatic development, there are inconsistencies between the findings. For instance, Takimoto

(2006) reported no effect for feedback while other studies reported significant effects. In this case, both the type of feedback, and the type of activity were different among studies. According to Bardovi-Harlig (2017), “this suggests more focused investigation of the effect of feedback in pragmatics instruction and additional consideration of whether feedback interacts with the complexity of the language being corrected or with the instruction that precedes it” (p. 236).

Beyond the above studies, there are other studies that employed feedback as part of instruction, but did not compare it to a non-feedback or other-feedback condition. For example, Nguyen et al. (2012) evaluated the relative effectiveness of two types of form-focused instruction, i.e., explicit and implicit instruction on the acquisition of the speech act set of constructive criticisms by sixty-nine Vietnamese learners of English. The explicit group ($N = 28$) participated in consciousness-raising activities, received explicit meta-pragmatic explanation and correction of errors of forms and meanings. The implicit group ($N = 19$), on the other hand, participated in pragmalinguistic input enhancement and recast activities. The two treatment groups were compared with a control group ($N = 22$) on pre-test and post-test performance, consisting of a discourse completion task, a role play and an oral peer- feedback task. The results revealed that both experimental groups outperformed the control group, with the explicit group performing significantly better than implicit group in all measures.

Another example of studies which include feedback as one of component of instruction is by Fukuya et al. (1998). They investigated the effects of focus on form (FonF) versus focus on formS (FonFS) instruction and feedback on ESL learners’ ability to request. They employed four role-play scenarios (interaction enhancement approach) for teaching appropriate requests. The treatment consisted of three stages: rehearsal, performance, and debriefing. The type of treatment in the rehearsal and performance phases were the same for both experimental groups. However,

in the FonFS debriefing, the teacher explicitly addressed pragmatic strategies, providing the students with appropriate utterances for each scenario. The control group participated in the same rehearsal stage but did not receive feedback during the performance phase. The instructors in the experimental groups provided brief, explicit focus on form when the performing student said something inappropriate regarding the social distance, social power, or degree of imposition inherent in the scenario. More specifically, they raised a sign and repeated the student's inappropriate utterance with a rising intonation. According to Fukuya et al., "this procedure was designed to focus the students' attention on the pragmatic failure without completely interrupting the interaction" (p. 10). Results from the written DCT pre-and post-test showed no statistically significant differences among the three groups. The researchers explain that the reason for the inconclusive findings could be "that exposure to a total of four role-play scenarios may have been insufficient input to achieve generalization of sociopragmatic competence to the wide range of scenarios represented on the DCTs" (p. 16).

Taken together, the presence of feedback in instructional designs for L2 pragmatics suggests that lesson designers view it as an integral part of instruction, even in the absence of studies that isolate feedback as a variable-for investigation in instructed pragmatics (Bardovi-Harlig, 2017). Furthermore, these findings confirm that focused instructional tasks benefit learners' L2 pragmatic development and suggest that different types of CF contribute differentially to this development. On the other hand, the problem with these kinds of studies is that since multiple instructional techniques were applied, the obtained effect cannot directly be attributed to a particular component/task of instruction like feedback. Therefore, more research is necessary to obtain a better understanding of the relationship between CF and L2 pragmatic knowledge.

Over all, the literature on the effect of CF on L2 pragmatics reveals some problems. First is that the number of studies are very few and findings are still very limited. Although a topic of both theoretical and practical interest, the role of CF is under-researched in the field of L2 pragmatics. “Further research is required for a better understanding of the role of a range of CF in L2 pragmatic acquisition” (Lyster et al., 2013 as cited in Nguyen et al., 2015, p. 174).

The second problem with the above literature is that findings are relatively mixed. The results lead to a conflict as to whether CF is necessary for fostering L2 pragmatic knowledge, and, if yes, which type works more effectively. For example, whereas Fukuya et al. (1998) found no effects for recasts in teaching sociopragmatic aspects of L2 requests, Fuykuya and Zhang (2002) reported relatively large impact of recasts on improving learners’ performance of requests in terms of both sociopragmatic appropriateness and pragmalinguistic accuracy. Therefore, more research on the relationship between CF and L2 pragmatics are needed. This study is response to some calls for such studies. For instance, Lyster et al. (2013) write:

We call for further research to examine the impact of CF on L2 pragmatics according to various independent variables such as different types of CF (as in Nipaspong & Chinokul 2010), various task conditions (e.g. deductive vs. inductive tasks: Takimoto 2008), various output measures (e.g. controlled vs. free constructed responses: Nguyen et al., 2012), and speech acts with different levels of frequency and saliency in the input. (p. 26)

Nassaji (2015) also highlights the need for further research to directly examine and compare Face-to-Face classroom interaction with computer-mediated interaction. Although studies of computer-mediated feedback seem to suggest that computer assisted interactions may provide useful opportunities for feedback, this area is rather unexplored in L2 pragmatics.

Finally, the durability of feedback effects in the delayed post-test remains rather

unexplored. The reason that very few studies reported using a delayed post-test might be the difficulties in finding and keeping participants or other institutional constraints. Moreover, the few studies in L2 pragmatics that used delayed post-test reported mixed findings. While some L2 pragmatic scholars (e.g., Koike & Pearson, 2005; Nguyen et al., 2015) argued that instructional effects could be retained and even improved by the time of a delayed post-test, other researchers (e.g., Salemi et al., 2012) reported that there was no long-term retention of pragmatic knowledge in learners' performances. However, study designs with delayed post-tests are more advantageous in that they reveal whether the gains that students made through instruction are durable (Kasper & Rose, 2002). The present research intends to fill this gap by examining the problem of retention when dealing with the acquisition of L2 pragmatic knowledge.

This study responds to the above calls by investigating the impact of CF on L2 pragmatics by considering such independent variables as different modes of CF (FF and TM), various output measures (multiple-choice test for comprehension and role-play test for production), different speech acts (request and refusal), and time (immediate post-test vs. delayed post-test). As one of the main interests of this study, the relationship between L2 pragmatics and technology is reviewed below.

2.8 Technology and Pragmatics

Pragmatic competence enables the speakers to connect an utterance and a meaning in a variety of social contexts. With a rise of technology, these social contexts have expanded to digitally mediated spaces where communication takes place by means of Internet-based technologies (Cunningham, 2019). Such technologies can promote the learning of pragmatics “by facilitating learners' interaction with peers and expert language users who are located remotely, thus providing opportunities for natural communication and self-regulated learning”

(Eslami, Mirzaei & Dini, 2015, p. 100). Over the past two decades, the use of computer-mediated communication (CMC) has become more integrated into different areas of second language acquisition for delivering instruction and collecting data. CMC can be understood as “person-to-person communication that takes place via a range of computer-supported transmission technologies that enable both synchronous real-time and asynchronous interaction across different modalities” (Sauro, 2013, p. 1). An accumulated body of research has examined the efficacy of CMC in SLA (e.g., Belz & Throne, 2006; Chapelle, 2007, 2009; Lafford, 2009), and as a result, multiple syntheses and meta-analyses (e.g., Lin, 2015; Lin, Huang, & Liou, 2013; Sauro, 2011; Ziegler, 2016) have been published. Generally, the results have confirmed that CMC can facilitate L2 acquisition.

Although CMC also provides opportunities in promoting pragmatic competence, efforts specifically aimed at pragmatics have been modest (Cohen, 2018). According to Cunningham (2019), the literature on CMC and L2 pragmatics “has focused on specific pragmalinguistic forms in relation to their communicative functions and contexts of use (e.g., pronominal address forms, sentence particles), speech acts (e.g., requests, refusals), and discourse-level phenomena (e.g., conversational openings and closings, communication management)” (p. 373). Researchers have used different technologies in developing L2 pragmatics such as emails, corpora, multiuser virtual games, blogging, telecollaboration, wiki, video conferencing, online discussions and text and voice chats (e.g., Belz & Vyatkina, 2005; Cunningham, 2017; Eslami & Liu, 2013; Johnson & deHaan 2013; Kakegawa, 2009; Li, 2012; Sykes, 2009). Besides the above tools and more recently, learners worldwide have been engaged with Smartphone apps (and wearable technologies) which add new dimensions to video-based exchanges on social media platforms such as Skype, FaceTime, WeChat, Zoom, Google Hangouts and others. According to Sykes and

Taguchi (2013, p. 273), “the affordances of mobile devices offer a great deal of potential for the teaching and learning of interlanguage pragmatics”. Mobile experiences can include creating apps and games for the learning of pragmatic, real-time data collection experiences, and connecting learning experiences across campuses and other learning contexts (e.g., study abroad).

The type of interaction in technology-mediated environment is also varied and can include one-to-one, one-to-many, and many-to-many interactions (Naidu, Barrett & Olsen, 1995). One-to-one interactions may take the form of communication between the instructor-student, the student-expert, and also between students. In such environments, “learners engage with one another through text chat or audio-video conferencing with guidance from instructors on conversation topics or assigned tasks” (Chun, 2015 as cited in Godwin-Jones, 2019, p. 10). In the process, they interpret utterances and negotiate meaning, using the L2 for real communicative purposes. That will typically involve requests for help or clarification, noticing and reusing partners’ formulations, and engaging in self-repair as well as in recasts of partner speech. As Godwin-Jones (2019) points out, “ideally, this can lead to improvement in multiple L2 skills, as well as the development of strategic competence in the L2” (p. 10). Examples for one-to-many online interactions may include lectures, symposiums, and panel discussions. Many-to-many techniques can include debates, simulations/games, and group-discussions.

The present research applies (one-to-one) learner-to-learner interaction for performing the target speech acts in role-play tasks as well as three-way interaction between two learners and the teacher (learner-learner-teacher) for receiving corrective feedback during role-play tasks.

Eslami et al. (2015) lists some of the capacities provided by technology in L2 pragmatics:

- a) authentic instructional materials, b) exposure of learners to a broader range of pragmatic

features and discourse options, c) opportunities for meaningful interactions, d) longitudinal evidence and data of L2 pragmatic development, and e) effectiveness of instructional interventions in L2 pragmatic development. (p. 101)

Building on the last capacity of CMC mentioned above, this study uses Smartphone video call as a technology tool to determine whether CMC can serve as a potentially useful channel to enhance pragmatic competence by providing online corrective feedback. Given the various claims regarding the potential capacities of CMC environment in pragmatic instruction, some of the relevant studies in this area are reviewed in the next section.

Technology in L2 Pragmatics Research

One major focus of the present study is evaluating the differential effects of two modes of delivery of feedback, i.e., Face-to-Face (FF) and Technology-Mediated (TM). FF feedback studies were reviewed in previous sections. This section reviews TM studies in instructional L2 pragmatics with an attempt to focus on the two target speech acts of requests and refusals. Furthermore, the very few studies that compared the two modes of FF and TM in L2 pragmatics are reviewed.

As one of the pioneers of computer-mediated (CMC) research in L2 pragmatics, Sykes (2005) addressed the effects of CMC explicit instruction on L2 Spanish learners' refusals through group discussions. Using a pre-/post-test design, the study compared three communication environments for refusals: Written Chat, Oral Chat, and Face-to-Face on the production of speech acts of refusal. The results revealed that while Face-to-Face group used more supporting moves, the Written Chat group outperformed the others in terms of both complexity and variety of strategies they used in their invitation refusals. Sykes (2005) explains this outcome in relation to the CMC medium: "without the tools oral communication often

provides (e.g., intonation, body language, etc.), the [written SCMC] group had to be more explicit in their communication” (p. 420). She concluded that CMC is a valuable tool for pragmatic instruction and recommended it especially for foreign language curriculum because it can provide opportunities for practicing authentic language with native speakers which is otherwise very limited in EFL context.

Also focusing on refusals, Takamiya and Ishihara (2013) used blogging data to investigate sociopragmatic awareness of one advanced learner of Japanese in the U.S.A. (pseudonym Jane). Exposure to community practices was reinforced through FF instruction, blogging, dialoging, and reflecting. According to Takamiya and Ishihara (2013, p. 205), “the multiple layers of interactions with peers, expert speakers, and the instructor through blogs and in class assisted the pragmalinguistic acquisition of refusal strategies”. Jane’s blog entries demonstrated a development in her acceptance of white lies as an appropriate face-saving device when refusing in Japanese culture. This implied that interactions with peers and the teacher through blogs can lead to an understanding of the socially acceptable use of white lies as a face-saving strategy. In particular, the researchers attributed this development to the combination of pragmatically rich input with classroom-based explicit instruction. The findings of Takamiya and Ishihara’s (2013) study lend support to the positive effects of instruction on pragmatic development and “provide evidence that interaction through blogs can help pragmatic learning when combined with classroom instruction” (2013, p.208).

Considering the speech act of request, Eslami et al. (2015) used a quasi-experimental design to examine asynchronous interactions between L2 learners of English and their L1 telecollaborative tutors. Three groups of Iranian EFL learners, a control and two intervention groups, were included in this study. The intervention groups were matched with US-based

graduate ESL Education students (as telecollaborative tutors) to undertake either an explicit or an implicit instructional treatment through asynchronous computer mediated communication (ACMC) for one semester. The explicit group participated in consciousness-raising activities, received explicit metapragmatic explanations and corrections of errors of forms and meanings. The implicit group received enhanced input and implicit feedback. The researchers used a discourse completion task (DCT) as well as students' email communications with the graduate students to compare control and intervention groups. Quantitative analysis revealed that both experimental groups (i.e., explicit and implicit instruction of requests) outperformed the non-instructed group, however, the explicit group performed the best on the DCT and email task. Qualitative analysis further showed an increase in the use of indirect requests and request mitigation over time in both experimental groups.

Also on requests, Li (2012) investigated the effects of different amounts (Regular & Intensive) of instructional practice through computer-assisted language learning (CALL) techniques on the development of accurate and speedy recognition and production of request-making forms in L2 Chinese. The results showed that the CALL input-based practice was effective in promoting accuracy in an Oral DCT and in enhancing speed in a Pragmatic Listening Judgment Task.

In a similar line of inquiry, Cunningham (2016) investigated the effect of telecollaborative exchange on the requesting behavior of American learners of German for professional purposes as they interacted with German-speaking professionals in Germany via synchronous Web conferences. While his quantitative analysis showed no change between experimental conditions, a qualitative analysis of 4 learners' request production over the course of 4 online discussions revealed idiosyncratic developmental pathways and the emergence of a

common strategy for managing participation in oral synchronous computer-mediated communication which was frequent turn taking and more direct requesting behavior.

Cunningham concludes that “participation in telecollaboration affords opportunities to improve pragmatic production” (p.501).

There are two main issues regarding previous studies; first, the effect of instruction and feedback is hardly teased apart and there is only a combined effect reported. Second, most studies used a hybrid of both Face-to-Face (FF) and online methodologies to deliver pragmatic instruction and none used online instruction for one group and FF instruction for another group in a single study.

In an attempt to compare the effects of modes in a single study, Lai and Zhao (2006) examined the capacity of text-based online chat to promote learners’ noticing of their problematic language productions and of the interactional feedback from their interlocutors. In their study, twelve ESL learners formed six mixed-proficiency dyads. The same dyads worked on two spot-the-difference tasks, one via online chat and the other through FF conversation. In these tasks, the participants were instructed to spot the differences between two pictures. The two interlocutors held a different portion of the information and were required to request and supply the information to each other so as to achieve the same goal of reaching the only one acceptable task outcome. Stimulated recall sessions were held subsequently to identify instances of noticing. It was found that text-based online chat promoted noticing more than FF conversations, especially in terms of learners’ noticing of their own linguistic mistakes.

One of the few studies which compared the relative effectiveness of the instructional modules implemented through CMC with FF instruction was conducted by Eslami and Liu (2013) for teaching request strategies. The researchers compared three groups of Taiwanese

undergraduate learners: one receiving explicit instruction via CMC, one receiving explicit instruction FF, and one receiving no instruction. The participants in the FF group were given explicit instruction on “request” features through in-class activities. The students in the CMC group learned pragmatics through email and online discussions with their partners in Texas with whom they were required to have weekly online communication. The researchers used a pre/post-test design and a DCT to measure pragmatic development. Not surprisingly, the quantitative analysis revealed groups receiving explicit instruction performed better on the post-test than the uninstructed group; however, when comparing the instructional environments, both the CMC and the FF groups performed equally well.

More recently, Rouhshad et al. (2016) compared the nature of peer negotiations between FF and synchronous text-based computer-mediated (SCMC) modes in same-proficiency intermediate dyads. Their results showed that FF generated significantly more negotiations for meaning than SCMC with a large effect size. However, negotiations for form fell short of significance across the two modes. These findings indicate that mode of interaction was an important variable, which was likely to influence the quantity and quality of negotiations.

Summing up, research of speech acts in CMC has provided central insights regarding the development of L2 pragmatic knowledge. Multiple studies confirm that instruction can boost learners’ ability to perform these speech acts in a computer-mediated interactional environment. Moreover, CMC provides an environment to perform speech acts that are less typical in classroom discourse such as requests and refusals.

Nonetheless, the studies done so far lack certain features. First, most of the studies discussed above were based heavily on answers to a written DCT questionnaire. The DCT format is constructed for eliciting pair responses, so multiple turns of interaction cannot be

examined.

Second, some of these studies were ethnographic profiles and individual case studies despite calls for more research with an experimental or quasi-experimental design (Taguchi, 2015). This research gap is also reflected in Lin's (2015) meta-analysis of SLA and CMC where she was able to include only one study of L2 pragmatic development in her meta-analysis.

According to Cunningham (2019, p. 377), such studies as Eslami et al. (2015) and Eslami and Liu (2013) are "valuable in that they are rare examples of quasi-experimental research that employed a rigorous quantitative analysis, however, their research design only allowed for conclusions about the effect of instruction and not about the interactional environment". In other words, while there is evidence for the efficacy of instruction, the specific influence of the CMC environment on the development of pragmatic knowledge remains unclear. Cunningham continues with a call for "further meaningful comparison between the performance of speech acts in CMC and Face-to-Face communication" (p. 377). In doing so, he calls for future studies that include a control group, enabling further empirical confirmation of the many positive indications observed regarding the relationship between participation in CMC and L2 pragmatic development.

Third, most studies of L2 pragmatic in CMC environments have mainly focused on production whereas pragmatic comprehension has received less attention. In this regard, Cunningham (2019) calls for further investigation of how learning environment (FF vs. CMC) can make a difference in learners' ability to comprehend certain indirect meaning. He recommends "research comparing equivalent groups across different learning environments for assessing the effect of CMC participation in comprehension of indirect meanings" (p. 382).

Finally, previous studies that investigated computer-mediated feedback often examined

the effects of text-based computer-delivered corrective feedback on L2 development and little is known about the effects of video-based oral corrective feedback on L2 development.

To respond to the research gaps mentioned so far as well the calls for further research, the present study investigates the effect of video-based technology and face-to-face corrective feedback on the comprehension and production of requests and refusals.

2.9 Research Questions and Hypotheses

Based on the literature and the research gaps reviewed above, this study presents the following questions and the subsequent hypotheses:

RQ 1: Does corrective feedback have any effect on the learning of L2 pragmatics?

H1. Corrective feedback improves the learning of L2 pragmatics.

According to Li and Vuono (2019), “whether CF facilitates learning is a primary concern of theorists, researchers, and teachers, because the ultimate goal of all discussions and research about CF is to see whether CF can enhance L2 learning” (p.97). Although the previous research on the effects of recast on L2 pragmatics is very limited (e.g. Fukuya & Zhang, 2006; Guo, 2013; Takimoto, 2006), there is plenty of research on the positive impact of different types of corrective feedback on second language acquisition (See Li, 2010 for a meta-analysis of 33 studies on corrective feedback). All these studies have shown that CF is facilitative of L2 development. Based on these findings, it is assumed that corrective feedback is also beneficial to second language pragmatics learning.

RQ 2: Does corrective feedback have any differential effects on L2 pragmatics comprehension versus production?

H2. Corrective feedback leads to better improvements in L2 pragmatic comprehension than L2 production.

The next research question explores potential differences between comprehension (reflected in multiple-choice test) and production (role-play test) of speech acts as they are influenced by corrective feedback. The hypothesis of better L2 comprehension than production is made based on a synthesis of previous studies. So far, the comprehension and production language modes have typically been studied separately in second language acquisition research, with the focus shifting from one to the other. However, several meta-analyses (e.g., e.g., Lee et al., 2015 on pronunciation instruction; Norris & Ortega, 2000 on grammar instruction) have tried to compare comprehension and production by examining L2 instructional effects across different outcome measures such as selected response (comprehension) and free constructed response (production). Current cumulative knowledge suggests that effects are larger in studies that employ controlled outcome measures (e.g., multiple-choice comprehension tests), whereas instruction is likely to result in smaller observed effects if researchers choose to employ free response outcome measures (e.g. role-play production test). For example, Norris and Ortega's (2001) study, showed larger effect sizes for comprehension measures ($d = 1.46$) than production measures (0.55). Although the results of such studies rely on the way comprehension and production were measured, production generally involves greater linguistic and cognitive demands and thus might be expected to reveal smaller or at least more variable gains for groups receiving instruction.

These findings can be supported by the claim that comprehension draws on learners' ability to transform input into intake, while production requires deep processing, defined as the relative amount of cognitive effort, level of analysis, elaboration of intake together with the usage of prior knowledge, hypothesis testing and rule formation (VanPatten, 2002a, b; Leow, 2007). As mentioned in the review of literature, there are very few studies on comparing

pragmatic comprehension and production. However, it is assumed that CF leads to similar results in L2 pragmatics as other L2 areas and leads to better improvement in comprehension (MDCT test) than in production (RP test).

Besides the experimental support to the above assumption (e.g., Norris & Ortega, 2001), some theories of first and second language acquisition also assume that comprehension has to, and always does, precede production. The motivation behind such assumptions is purely cognitive, in other words, production is thought to be a more cognitively demanding process. After all, before learners attempt a new task (linguistic or other) they need to understand what they are doing. For example, according to Swain (1985), upon receiving input, the learner focuses on semantic processing, or understanding the input's meaning, and it is only when he/she is allowed to produce output that attention is paid to processing form. When exposed to recognition and comprehension tests, learners will mainly perform semantic processing, which is less cognitively demanding. For this reason, it might be easier for L2 learners to comprehend the target structures than to produce them. As Swain (2000) point out, “[. . .] output pushes learners to process language more deeply –with more mental effort-[. . .]” (p. 99). She further argues:

Output may stimulate learners to move from semantic, open-ended, strategic processing prevalent in comprehension to the complete grammatical processing needed for accurate production. To produce, learners need to do something. They need to create linguistic form and meaning, and in so doing, discover what they can and cannot do. (Swain, 2000, p. 99)

RQ 3: Does the delivery mode of corrective feedback (FF vs. TM) make any difference on the learning of L2 pragmatics?

H3. Corrective feedback has similar effects in FF and TM modes.

The third hypothesis is made based on some previous studies that found similar instructional effects in FF and CMC contexts. Furthermore, the technology tool in this study (WeChat) is a video-based platform that provides a real-time, Face-to-Face communication which is very similar to traditional classroom Face-to-Face interaction. Rassaei (2016) investigated the effects of two modes of corrective feedback, i.e. Face-to-Face recasts and computer-mediated recasts during video-conferencing (Skype) on EFL learners. Results from an oral production task and an error correction test revealed no statistically significant difference between learners' scores in video chat and Face-to-Face conditions. The study concludes that computer-mediated and Face-to-Face recasts were equally effective for enhancing learners' L2 development. Also, in a meta-analysis of 33 studies on CF, Li (2010) found that computer-delivered feedback (which is provided by an interlocutor through online communication programs or is embedded in the computer) and Face-to-Face feedback did not differ substantially in affecting L2 development ($FE: Q(1) = 0.1, p = .77$). In L2 pragmatics, most of the studies in the area of corrective feedback and have been in regular FF environment. These studies have showed positive overall effects of corrective feedback (Lsyer et al., 2013; Plonsky & Zhuang, 2019). On the other hand, some researchers have indicated that the flexibility and technological support available in computer-mediated environments can be a promising means to improve L2 pragmatic competence (e.g., Belz & Throne, 2006; Sykes, 2005, 2009). Results from experimental studies (e.g., Chen, 2015; Eslami et al., 2015; Nguyen, 2018) suggest that technology-mediated intervention helps improve L2 pragmatics and "parallels the results of nontechnology pragmatic research" (González-Lloret, 2019, p.117). By comparing FF and TM modes, this study has several intentions. First, it investigates different advantages that each mode might have on learning different aspects of L2 pragmatics. Second, it explores whether TM and

FF modes can similarly improve pragmatic competence. This will open exciting doors to replacing TM with FF teaching in circumstances that FF is not available. Third, it fills the gap in the rather unexplored area of L2 pragmatics research. With the general scarcity of pragmatic studies in the field of TM learning, this research investigates the potentials of a new technology which has not been studied before.

RQ4: Does the type of speech act (i.e. request and refusal) influence the effects of corrective feedback?

H4. Corrective feedback is more effective on request (simple) than refusal (complex) speech act types.

The next research question explores whether the type of speech acts can influence corrective feedback effects. Despite its pedagogical importance, to date, few studies have “directly compared the effects of different instructional approaches on different language forms” (Spada & Tomita, 2010, p. 264). In the existing literature, “decisions as to what language features to teach are usually based on whether the features are considered simple or complex to describe or easy or difficult to learn” (Spada & Tomita, 2010, p. 264). Based on the discussion in 2.4, it is proposed that refusals involve pragmatically more complex rules than requests. According to Spada and Tomita (2010), “Some researchers have claimed that whereas easy rules can be taught, hard rules are by their very nature too complex to be successfully taught and thus difficult to learn through traditional explanation and practice pedagogy” (p. 264) (e.g., DeKeyser & Sokalski, 1996; Hulstijn & de Graaff, 1994; Robinson, 1996; Spada & Tomita, 2010).

According to Nassaji (2015), “the effectiveness of feedback is related to the degree of difficulty of the target structure” (p. 211). Some researchers have argued that complex rules are

less responsive to instruction and feedback as they are difficult to explain (e.g., Krashen, 1982). In other words, “when the target form is easy, the learner may process the correction more easily, but when the rule is more complex, it might need more time to process and understand the feedback” (Nassaji, 2015, p. 211). For the same reason, it can be assumed that learners can process requests which involve simpler syntactic and pragmatic rules (as discussed in 2.4) more effectively than refusals which are argued as more complex (e.g., Ellis, 2008; Eslami, 2010; Gass & Houck, 1999; Nguyen, 2006; Tian, 2014). Of course, research findings in this area are mixed particularly due to the difficulty of defining and measuring complexity. As mentioned in previous sections, the present study defined complexity in terms of the number of moves needed to perform a speech act appropriately and assumed that refusals are more complex than requests. However, different definitions and criteria of pragmatic complexity might lead to different assumptions and results. For instance, in a meta-analysis of the relationship between the type of linguistics structure and instruction, Spada and Tomita (2010) found no relationship between rule complexity and the effectiveness of feedback. They defined complexity in terms of linguistic criteria, i.e., the number of linguistic transformations required to construct the structure. For example, they classified English yes/no questions as complex and English articles as simple. However, they acknowledged that if they had used other criteria, they might have found different results. Some other criteria for complexity include “developmental stage, L1/L2 differences, form-meaning relationships, learnability, teachers’ perceptions of learner difficulty, the lexical preference principle, structure complexity, and typological markedness” (Spada & Tomita, 2010, p. 289). Finally, it should also be noted that if a rule is simple, it is not necessarily easy to learn. For instance, English articles might be linguistically simple, but difficult to explain and learn (Nassaji, 2015). Therefore, despite the hypothesis above, it is also possible to find other results.

For instance, no relationship might be found between speech act complexity and feedback effect similar to Spada and Tomita's (2010) meta-analysis.

RQ5. Is the effect of feedback on comprehension and production, if any, maintained over time?

H5. Corrective feedback effects on comprehension and production will be maintained in delayed post-test results.

The last research question investigates the retention of feedback effects in the delayed post-test and the hypothesis of durable feedback effects is made based on previous research findings. The cumulative empirical observation in several meta-analyses (e.g., Li, 2010; Lyster & Saito, 2010; Mackey & Goo, 2007; Plonsky & Zhuang, 2019) show that although instructional effects tend to marginally decrease over time (at least partially as a result of learning and maturation that brings control and instructed groups closer together), it is the case that average effect sizes for delayed post-tests remain relatively large, indicating sustained differences in favor of instructed groups. For example, Lyster and Saito's (2010) meta-analysis of fifteen CF studies showed that both immediate and delayed effects of CF thus exhibit medium-to-large effect sizes which indicates that there is no significant decline in gains between immediate and delayed post-tests (with post-tests conducted within 1 week of an instructional treatment considered as immediate, and those after 2 weeks and up to 6 weeks considered delayed). Lyster and Saito (2010) attributed these results to the strategic and intensive delivery of CF across the studies analyzed. In other words, in all but one study (i.e., DeKeyser, 1993), CF was provided during oral interaction that had been pedagogically designed to elicit target forms from students and to create strategic opportunities for teachers to provide CF. In L2 pragmatics also, findings show considerable retention of instructional effects (see Plonsky & Zhuang, 2019 for a meta-

analysis of 50 primary studies in L2 pragmatics).

2.10 Summary

This chapter provided a background to the present study from theoretical and pedagogical perspectives. Theoretical overview of L2 pragmatics were reviewed on one hand and the L2 pragmatics literature on interventional studies that explored L2 learners' comprehension and production of requests and refusals were reviewed on the other hand. Based on the research gaps discussed in the literature review and the theoretical framework of study, research questions of the study were presented. Corrective feedback in pragmatics is important both in directing the learners' attention to areas which may cause potential communication breakdowns and in providing modified output. The next step in this journey of exploration is moving on to deal with the research methodology and the research design. The following chapter aims at outlining the research design, treatment groups as well as data collection procedures and measures.

CHAPTER THREE- RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

3.0 Introduction

This study attempted to investigate ESL learners' pragmatics competence and to show how corrective feedback might help them develop this knowledge. This chapter outlines the specific details of the methodology including a thorough description of the participants, the instructional materials, the assessment instruments, the pilot study, data collection procedures, and scoring procedures.

3.1 Overall Design

This study employed a quasi-experimental approach to measure corrective feedback effects on L2 pragmatics through a pre-test, post-test, and delayed post-test design. Figure 3.1 presents the research design. The study consisted of three groups: Control group, Face-to-Face (FF) treatment group, and Technology-Mediated (TM) treatment group.

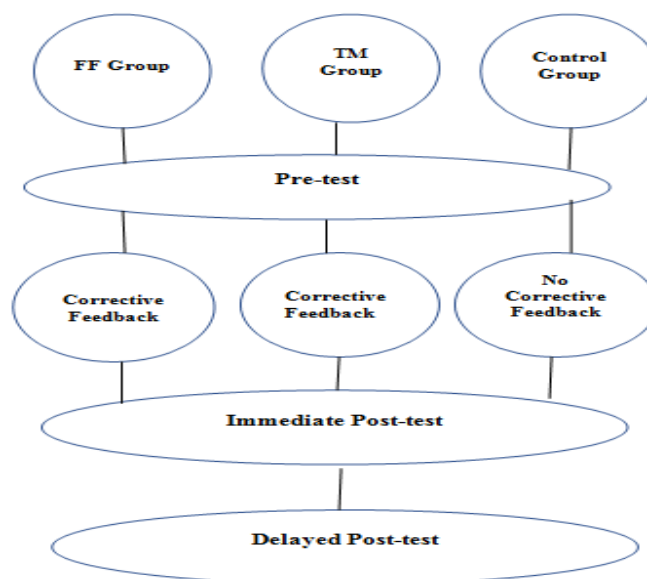


Figure 3.1. Study design

There were two independent and two dependent variables in the study. The first independent variable was the treatment represented by the different feedback delivery modes of (a) the Face-to-Face group (FF) and (b) the Technology-Mediated group (TM). The other independent variable was speech act type, i.e. whether the two speech acts of (a) requests and (b) refusals can influence corrective feedback effects as reflected in the tests scores. The dependent variables were the scores of the (a) multiple-choice discourse completion test (comprehension) and (b) role-play test (production) test.

3.2 Participants

Sixty-six adult intermediate ESL learners studying at two ESL schools in Victoria, BC participated in this study. While a few language schools were considered for this experiment, only the English Language Centre (ELC) at the university of Victoria and Intercultural Association of Greater Victoria (ICA) were selected. There were a few reasons for choosing these two schools: a) they were the two biggest language schools in Victoria and there were more chances of recruiting a bigger population of participants for the quantitative design of this study; and b) free Wi-Fi internet was available at both schools for students and teachers. Having a reliable free internet connection was necessary for this experiment because participants in the TM group needed to get online for making video calls. The study was a classroom-based research and entire already-formed classes were assigned to the specified treatments. However, due to limitations in finding volunteer teachers and intact classes (i.e. already-formed classes), all three groups could not be formed in the same school and at the same time. The FF group was from the ELC and the data were collected in August 2018. Control and TM groups were from the ICA and the experiment was done in October 2018 because there were no classes offered in the summer at the ICA.

The reason for selecting the intermediate level of proficiency was that learners were expected to have gained sufficient speaking proficiency needed to produce the oral role-plays required. Furthermore, intermediate proficiency assured that the level of the participants would allow them to follow the instructions. Learners' proficiency level was compared across the two standard proficiency tests used. The two schools had two different placement tests; however, participants were selected from classes with similar intermediate proficiency skills. ELC used The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) and the ICA used the Canadian Language Benchmarks (CLB.) Participants with CEFR placement test were in B2 classes, and participants with CLB placement test were at level 7. The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) is an international standard for describing language ability. The CEFR describes foreign language proficiency at six levels with three main levels:

1. A1 and A2: basic user;
2. B1 and B2: intermediate user;
3. C1 and C2: proficient user.

It also defines three 'plus' levels (A2+, B1+, B2+)

(Available at: Common European language website: www.coe.int/lang-CEFR)

The Canadian Language Benchmarks (CLB) is a 12-point scale of English as Second Language (ESL) proficiency. The language tests based on CLB benchmarks cover four skills: listening, speaking, reading, writing (Available at: Centre for Canadian Language Benchmark website: <https://www.language.ca/resources/expertise/for-language-learners/>)

The CLB's scale is also divided into 3 main levels:

1. Stage I: Basic Proficiency (1-4 points);
2. Stage II: Intermediate Proficiency (5-8 points);
3. Stage III: Advanced Proficiency (9-12 points).

Table 3.1 demonstrates how the two tests are compared at the selected levels.

Table 3.1

CLB and CEFR side-by-side comparison

CLB level	CEFR level
–	A1 (Beginner)
4	A2 (Elementary)
5	B1 (Intermediate)
6-7	B2 (Upper-Intermediate)
8-9	C1 (Advanced)
10-12	C2 (Proficiency)

<https://tracktest.eu/clb-canadian-language-benchmarks/>

As the table shows, selected CLB and CEFR proficiency levels at both institutions are aligned. Moreover, based on the research report by North and Piccardo (2018), both tests “share similar educational and socio-political philosophies and have been shown to use very similar theoretical frameworks and a similar pedagogical vision” (p.1). Both CLB and CEFR tests are related closely to the leading models of communicative competence (e.g. Bachman, 1990, Bachman & Palmer, 1996; Piccardo & North, 2019). The type of proficiency descriptors in both tests is ‘Can Do’ descriptors to emphasize the real-world orientation. For instance, according to the official CEFR guidelines, someone at the B2 level in English:

- Can understand the main ideas of complex text on both concrete and abstract topics, including technical discussions in his/her field of specialization.
- Can interact with a degree of fluency and spontaneity that makes regular interaction with native speakers quite possible without strain for either party.
- Can produce clear, detailed text on a wide range of subjects and explain a viewpoint on a

topical issue giving the advantages and disadvantages of various options.

The background questionnaire (Appendix B) and consent forms (Appendix A) were distributed among participants prior to the main study. Consent forms had been approved by the Human Research Ethics Board (HREB) at University of Victoria. Although participants were in intact classes, they were given the right to decide whether the researcher could use their data for the study. The identities of the students were confidential and only the researcher had access to the gathered data. The scores of all tests were collected only by the researcher, and the teachers of all three classes did not have access to students' scores.

Although the experiment started with 66 participants, only 44 participants managed to attend all sessions of the experiment. The incomplete data of other participants were not included in the study. L1 diversity was similar across the three groups with majority of the participants speaking Mandarin Chinese as their first language. The information gathered through the background questionnaire revealed that most of the participants were of East Asian origin: 57% from China ($n = 25$), 11% from Japan ($n = 5$), and 11% from Korea ($n = 5$). Five participants were from Brazil (11%). Other participants accounted for 9% of the population ($n = 4$) and were from Hong Kong, Iraq, Venezuela, and Nepal. The number of participants and the L1 distribution in each group are discussed in detail in the following sections. The participants varied in age from 18 to 50; the majority (70%) was in the range of 30 to 50. The youngest being 18, and there was one 59-year old participant. There were 9 (20%) male and 35 (80%) female participants. All participants reported that they had completed high school education. The level of previous education varied from college to undergraduate degrees. Two participants reported holding a master's degree. All participants indicated that English was their second language. The amount of time they lived in Canada varied from one month to ten years. The background

questionnaire revealed that 60% ($n = 26$) of the participants indicated the reason for studying English at their current program was “to improve English skills to live or work in Canada”, and 18 participants (40%) indicated their reason for studying English as “to improve English skills in an English-speaking setting”. Before the experiment started, all classes at both schools were taught following a communicative approach with a focus on the development of students’ listening and speaking skills by doing authentic and real-life activities and tasks. The three classes were randomly assigned to one of these conditions: Control ($N = 16$), Face-to-Face feedback (FF; $N = 14$) and Technology-Mediated feedback (TM; $N = 14$).

Face-to-Face Experimental Group (FF)

This group received Face-to-Face corrective feedback from the teacher in a regular classroom. It consisted of 20 participants at the beginning of the study, but only 14 participants completed all the tasks and tests. Out of the 6 participants who did not complete the study, one missed the post-test, and five others were either absent during feedback sessions or missed the delayed post-test. The incomplete data of these participants were not included in this study. The most common first language in this group was Mandarin Chinese ($n = 5$), followed by Japanese ($n = 4$), Brazilian Portuguese ($n = 4$), and Korean ($n = 1$).

Technology-Mediated Experimental Group (TM)

There were initially 22 participants in the experimental TM group. Five participants missed either treatment sessions 1, 2, or the immediate post-test. Three more students were absent at the delayed post-test. The data of all these 8 participants were excluded from the study. The total number of participants in this group at the end of the experiment was 14. Most of the participants in this group spoke Mandarin Chinese as their first language ($n = 9$) followed by Korean ($n = 3$), and then one speaker each of Spanish and Brazilian Portuguese. The only

difference between FF and TM groups was that the TM group received feedback on the tasks through a mobile application called “WeChat”. The reason for choosing this application, including its capabilities and the procedures involved using it during this experiment is explained below in 3.6 (treatment procedures)

Control Group

This group consisted of 24 participants in the first week. One student did not attend the post-test. Four more participants missed the treatment sessions, and three more participants missed the delayed post-test. The data of these eight participants were excluded from the study. There were 16 participants at the end of the experiment in this group. Similar to the FF and TM groups, the majority of the participants in the control group spoke Mandarin Chinese as their first language ($n = 12$). The other four participants spoke Korean, Nepali, Japanese, and Arabic. The only difference between Control group and the two treatment groups was that Control group did not receive corrective feedback. Table 3.2 summarizes the sample size in the three groups.

Table 3.2

Groups sample size

Group	Number of participants (included in the study)
Face-to-Face	14
Technology-Mediated	14
Control	16
Total	44

3.3 Instructional Materials

The instructional materials for the present study consisted of the materials used in one mini-lesson and the materials in the three feedback sessions. As discussed in chapter two, the instructional targets of the study were the two speech acts of requests and refusals (2.3). The

mini-lesson aimed to raise learners' awareness of appropriate forms and functions in making requests and refusals in different contexts. Following Schmidt's noticing hypothesis (1990), awareness-raising tasks help input become intake. Mini-lesson materials consisted of two video clips, two handouts, and two worksheets on requests and refusals. The materials for the three feedback sessions included role-play cards. The two video clips on requests and refusals were selected by the researcher which presented real-life situations of one request and one refusal. The reason for selecting the two video clips was that these scenarios were found commonly occurring in everybody's communication, yet challenging for L2 learners as reported in the literature (see for instance Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford, 1990; Codina- Espurz, 2013; Taguchi, 2006). These scenarios also included three social variables by Brown and Levinson (1987) (power, distance, imposition, as discussed in 2.3.5) so learners had the opportunity to learn about the speech acts in different situations. Clip one was a two-minute video showing a situation where a neighbor was asking another neighbor to take care of a few things while she is away. This was an example of an equal social distance and power between the interlocutors in a request (<https://youtu.be/YDD8KJG4B9w>). Video clip two was 2 minutes and 30 seconds long and showed an employee trying to refuse the employer's request politely. This was an example of an unequal power of lower-to-higher social distance between the interlocutors in a refusal (https://youtu.be/GqSVI_ON44w).

The first hand out (Requests) presented strategies for making requests in English (adopted from Rinnert & Iwai, 2010, p. 37). Request forms consisted of both direct strategies (such as *give me the book!*) and indirect strategies (such as *could you give me the book?*). Politeness strategies included using softeners in the form of a word or phrase (such as *please, for a second, if possible*), as well as syntactic devices with politeness effects such as past progressive

(*I was wondering*), embedding (*I would appreciate it if ...*) and interrogative (*Would it be possible . . .?*).

Hand out 2 (Refusals) presented typical expressions for making refusals with regard to requester/refuser social status and distance (adopted from Wannaruk, 2008). Refusal strategies included expressing regret, giving an explanation, and offering an alternative. The following is an example of an equal status relationship where a person is politely refusing his/her mother's request for help:

“Oh, I'm sorry mom. I have to be at the library tomorrow. Can't Carrie (sister) do that for you?”

Softeners used in making refusals included lexical word and phrases such as “*terribly sorry*”, “*I'd really like to help but...*”

There were two types of tasks on both worksheets which were compiled by the researcher from different ESL textbooks. The first task on worksheet 1 (Ms. Wong's Requests) asked the learners to answer 5 questions. Example 1 illustrates some of these questions.

Example 1

- A. How many requests did you hear from Ms. Wong?
- B. Did Ms. Wong use the same structure to make requests? If not, what were different ways she used to make her requests?

Task two on worksheet one asked the learners to identify the requests as either direct, indirect, or neither (individually or in small groups). Example 2 shows a few of these requests.

Example 2

- A. Turn off the television now! It's time for breakfast.
- B. Son, your breakfast is getting cold. Why don't you come into the kitchen and eat?

Worksheet 2 (Refusing the boss's request) had a similar structure. Part one asked the learners to answer five questions either individually or in small groups (see Example 3).

Example 3

A. What strategies does the employee use to refuse the boss's request?

B. Comment on the degree of politeness of the refusal made in this clip.

Part two asked the learners to role-play a scenario with a partner where one student played the requester role and the other played the refuser role. Example 4 illustrates this scenario.

Example 4

Student A: You are the professor; ask one of your students (who is your teaching assistant) to stay longer today and finish marking the papers.

Student B: Politely refuse your professor's request and suggest an alternative

Student A: Politely refuse student A's alternative and give a reason why

Both: discuss until you reach an agreement

The materials for the three feedback sessions consisted of three role-play cards for each session. These nine scenarios were adopted from different textbooks and studies by the researcher (e.g., Martinez-Flor & Uso-Juan, 2011; Taguchi, 2012). Several factors were considered in choosing the scenarios such as similarity of the situations to learners' real-life, and requester-refuser social distance and familiarity level. On the whole, there were three equal-distance scenarios, three higher-to-lower, and three lower-to-higher distance situations so that participants had the opportunity to receive feedback on different social contexts. During each feedback session, each participant in the treatment groups practiced playing one equal, one

higher-to-lower, and one lower-to-higher requests and refusals. Example 5 illustrates one role-play card with equal distance between the interlocutors.

Example 5

A. You are a student at University. You have been sick and were not able to attend classes last week. You want to know if one of your classmates can lend you the class notes. You ask the classmate:

B. You are a student at University. You have attended all classes during this semester. One of your classmates wants to borrow your class notes. Although you understand he/she has been sick, you do not want to lend your notes. You refuse by saying:

The three teachers of the three groups (FF, TM, Control) met with the researcher a week before the experiment and were trained to deliver the provided materials to the participants of the three groups in the same way.

3.4. Data Collection Instruments

According to Yamashita (2008), pragmatic ability for language learners is both to comprehend the pragmalinguistic action as well as the ability to produce it as a speaker in a target language following its cultural norms. Therefore, two particular data collection instruments were used in the present study: 1) Multiple-choice discourse completion test (MDCT) to measure comprehension, and 2) Oral role-play test to measure production.

3.4.1 Comprehension test: Multiple-choice discourse completion test (MDCT)

One of the very few tests to measure L2 pragmatic comprehension is the multiple-choice discourse completion test (MDCT). It can be categorized as a sub-type of DCTs, as MDCTs include a communicative situation that is called a stem (referred to as the ‘prompt’ in DCTs) and standardized options, which include one key (correct answer) and two distractors (wrong

answers). Learners are required to choose what would be best to say next in that situation based on such factors as formality, social distance, directness, and politeness levels required for the specific scenario.

In this experiment, students were presented with 12 scenarios (6 refusals, and 6 requests) and were required to choose the best answer among the three options. This test was adapted from Hudson, Detmer, and Brown (1995, pp. 107-130) and Jie (2005, pp. 66-69). Moreover, four English native speakers took this test prior to the experiment and modified the test and response items. Hudson et al.'s (1992, 1995) pragmatic test battery (see the previous section) included 24 multiple-choice questions, which were used in several subsequent studies. The general situations were similar to the situations in instructional materials and learners' everyday life situations such as school, stores, home, etc. Furthermore, based on previous research (e.g. Martinez-Flor & Uso-Juan, 2011) all situations varied according to social status (Brown & Levinson, 1987) and, consequently, three levels of social status were considered (i.e., low, equal and high). Besides including a variety of social instances, this selection also helped keeping the sociopragmatic factors controlled across the tests. Three instances of each status were included for both requests and refusals to ensure the inclusion of different social contexts. Request and refusal situations distributed in the MDCT part of the pre-test are presented below (see Appendices I, J, and K for test items):

a) Requests

1. student requesting a roommate to turn down the music (E)
2. student requesting a teacher to fix his/her computer (L to H)
3. librarian requesting students to quiet down (H to L)
4. friend requesting house-mate to help with moving the carpets (E)

5. applicant requesting an office manager to give an application form (L to H)
6. customer requesting a sales clerk to show an item (H to L)

b) Refusals

1. student refusing teacher's request to organize test papers after school hours (L-H)
2. friend refusing friend's request to help decorating his/her house (E)
3. customer refusing the store clerk's request to wait another day for a photo which was supposed to be ready (H-L)
4. friend refusing house-mate's request to do his/her chores (E)
5. manager refusing an applicant's request to reschedule an interview (H-L)
6. teacher refusing supervisor's request to call other teachers about a meeting (L-H)

Example 6 demonstrates one item on the MDCT test which is an example of a refusal situation with a lower-to-higher social distance.

Example 6

Your teacher asks you to stay after school to help organize today's test papers alphabetically. You really have many other things that you need to do. What would you say if you want to refuse?

- A. Sorry, I'm afraid I can't.
- B. I wish I could.
- C. Miss Li, I'm afraid I can't. I have something important to do during that time.

Using MDCT in this study enabled the researcher to answer the fourth research question and compare pragmatic production and comprehension. Moreover, MDCT was a suitable instrument to collect data for the design of the present study because it could quickly large amounts of data in a short time. MDCT could make it easy to statistically compare responses

from different groups without any need for transcription. Finally, the reliability of this instrument was checked through statistical analyses, i.e. Cronbach alpha reliability estimates. Alpha is a function of internal consistency, that is, of interrelatedness of items and it examines whether all the data were measuring the same underlying construct. Alpha can be between 0 and 1 and in most practical research, alpha 0.7 or higher index is illustrative of acceptable reliability (Cortina, 1993).

The results of the present study showed a medium alpha of 0.33 on the pre-test version, 0.32 on the post-test and 0.52 on the delayed post-test versions. These alpha levels show that the set of questions in the MDCT test were not strongly related to each other. However, in the case of this specific test, the reason could be that there were two different sets of items for assessing two (rather than one) underlying constructs of requests and refusals in the same test and therefore the test items could not in fact be interrelated. In other words, the items measured two factors, rather than a single dimension. This may have led into a low value of alpha because the two speech acts of request and refusal are in fact weakly correlated (and do not have to correlate) with each other. The inclusion of two speech acts was necessary due to the design and research questions of the study which examined how different speech act types can mediate corrective feedback effects. Nevertheless, the researcher was aware of the reliability levels of the MDCT instrument, and interpreted the related results with caution. To establish the validity of the MDCT, the researcher adapted the test from Hudson et al. (1992) who had created and tested a framework for assessing cross-cultural pragmatics. The scenarios in the test were thoroughly researched and validated by Hudson, et al. (1992, 1995), Hill (1997), Takahashi (2001), and Tan and Farashaiyan (2012) and included a variety of situations pertinent to two settings: student's life inside and outside the educational settings.

3.4.2 Production Test: Oral Role-play Test (RP)

In order to assess participants' production of request and refusals, an oral role-play test was administered. Role-plays (RP) simulate real-life communicative encounters and are widely used as a method of data collection in interlanguage pragmatics (see for instance Cheng, 2011; Félix-Brasdefer, 2008; Martínez-Flor, 2008; Taguchi, 2006; Takimoto, 2009). Role-play elicits spoken data in which two interlocutors assume roles under predefined experimental conditions (Félix-Brasdefer, 2010).

The RP test was adopted from Martínez Flor and Uso-Juan (2011) and comprised of six situations of requesting and refusing (the request), which were classified as occurring within social locations in real life. Social settings where the situations happened were similar to the MDCT test and all settings located within the environment of the learners (e.g. university, cafeteria, butcher's, etc.). Additionally, test (pre, post, and delayed) was considered for the status of the requester relative to refuser and vice versa. Therefore, each RP test included two instances of equal, two lower-to-higher, and two higher-to-lower social distances between interlocutors. Although situations in the three tests were similar for comparison purposes, the contexts, roles, and settings of the scenarios were modified in each test. All scenarios included an enhanced photograph on the test paper as well as a written descriptive caption for the requester and the refuser (see example 9). Photographs were used in order to provide interlocutors with sufficient and detailed information regarding the context of interaction, so that learners could recognize them as real scenarios. Including both requester and refuser roles in the same scenario let the researcher assess two participants at the same time: one in the role of the requester and one as the refuser. The six scenarios in pre-test are presented below: (See Appendices I, J, and K for role-play test items).

Situation 1: in university; equal social distance:

- A) Student requesting to borrow classmate's notes
- B) Classmate refusing to lend his/her class notes to another student

Situation 2: in cafeteria; requester lower, refuser higher social distance:

- A) Waitress: requesting the exact change from a research student
- B) Research student: refusing giving the exact amount of money to the waitress

Situation 3: in university; requester higher, refuser lower social distance:

- A) Professor asking a late student to leave the class
- B) Student refusing to leave the classroom (interacting with a Professor)

Situation 4: in language school; requester and refusal equal social distance:

- A) Student asking a student to lend his/her car for a test drive
- B) Student refusing lending his/her car to another student

Situation 5: in school/work; requester lower, refuser higher social distance:

- A) First-year student requesting a research student to fix his/her laptop
- B) Research student refusing to fix the laptop from a first-year student

Situation 6: in butcher's: requester higher, refuser lower social distance:

- A) Public health officer requesting a butcher's assistant to wear plastic gloves when handling food
- B) Butcher's assistant refusing to wear plastic gloves (interacting with an agent from the city hall)

Participants were instructed to read the descriptions and imagine themselves in the situation and role-play them with their partners. Participants were also required to switch roles so that each partner could take both the requester and refuser roles. Total time for this portion of the

test was 30 minutes which was divided into 15 minutes preparation and 15 minutes recording time. Each pair of participants was equipped with a Tascam DR-05 voice recorder which were borrowed from the UVIC library. The teachers and the researcher supervised participants during the recordings to ensure the conversations were actually being recorded or that the sound quality was acceptable for later transcriptions. These recorded conversations were later transcribed by the researcher. The following is a test item in RP test which elicited both requester and refuser roles at equal social distances.

Example 7

RP item (E-E distance) (Martinez-Flor & Uso-Juan, 2011, p.71)

A. You are a student at university. You have been sick and were not able to attend classes last week. You want to know if one of your classmates can lend you the class notes. You ask the classmate:

B. You are a student at University. You have attended all classes during this semester. One of your classmates wants to borrow your class notes. Although you understand he/she has been sick, you do not want to lend your notes. You refuse by saying:



In order to measure the reliability of the RP test, this study used inter-rater reliability

statistical analyses. Participants' scores on the RP test by the two raters were submitted to a Pearson correlation coefficients test. The test was done on requests, refusals, and total scores of all three versions of the test (pre, post, and delayed post-tests) to ensure the reliability of the measures on both speech acts. The Pearson correlation coefficients for the scores of the pre-test, post-test, and delayed post-test by the two raters were: $r = .95$, $r = .98$ and $r = .99$ respectively (Correlation was significant at the 0.01 level, $p < .01$). The significant correlation between the two sets of scores shows that there was a high degree of agreement between the two raters and therefore there was high consistency in the implementation of the RP measure. Table 3.3 summarizes the results of the inter-reliability tests between the two raters on the two speech acts on all the three tests.

Table 3.3

Pearson Correlation Inter-rater reliability results in the RP test

Test	Pearson Correlations
Pre-test requests	.919**
Pre-test refusals	.933**
Pre-test total	.953**
Post-test requests	.983**
Post-test refusals	.978**
Post-test total	.985**
Delayed test requests	.994**
Delayed test refusals	.995**
Delayed test total	.995**

Besides checking the inter-rater reliability, the RP test was adopted from Martinez-Flor and Uso-Juan (2011) who previously used this test to examine the effects of instruction on appropriate use of refusals. They applied a written DCT and the RP to examine the response length, amount of refusal formulae and type of strategies used in both tasks. They found that

learners' performances improved after the instruction with similar results across the two research methods and there was no statistical significant differences between the two (Martinez-Flor, 2013, p. 202). Similar findings in both tests show that they were consistent and reliable for eliciting pragmatic production data. Therefore, it can be safe to conclude that the RP test was a reliable instrument to measure production in this study.

3.5 The Pilot Study

Before the main study, the researcher tested the research design and instruments through a pilot study. This study allowed the researcher to gather feedback about the appropriateness of the following issues: a) treatment procedures; b) instructional materials; c) instructional time; d) design of the tests; e) items and time of the tests; f) scoring procedures; and g) statistical methods. The pilot study was done in August 2018 at the University of Victoria, one month before the main experiment. First, 12 participants (5 native speakers of English, 2 ESL native speaker teachers, and 5 ESL learners with an advanced English Proficiency) who were males and females and aged between 30-40, were invited to take both MDCT and RP tests. They examined the items and decided what that specific item was intended to measure. This process helped to check whether the situations were clearly understood and whether the situations elicited the constructs under study, i.e. comprehension and production of requests and refusals. The correct responses each participant had selected were also studied to examine the agreement on the correct responses. There were a few cases of disagreement between the participants. However, after receiving the participants' comments and responses, these items were modified to overcome the limitations noted by the participants. Although there was a key of correct responses provided by the original test developers (Hudson et al., 1995; Jie, 2005), the final version of the key was modified based on the feedback from the participants in the pilot study. Next, after the initial

versions of the tests were ready, 20 volunteer students from different classes of B2 level at ELC participated in the pilot study experiment. Due to the limited number of participants, no control group was formed. Participants were randomly divided into groups of FF (N = 10) and TM (N = 10). The class of the FF group was in a regular classroom and the TM group class was in a computer lab at the University of Victoria. The video conferencing platform was chosen based on participants' responses to one question in the background questionnaire which asked about their preferred online video call platform. Facebook video call was selected for this group of participants.

During a meeting with the researcher, two experienced ESL teachers were trained to use the instructional and assessment materials (section 3.4 and 3.6) as well as the procedures of corrective feedback. In the initial design of the study, all tests (pre-, post-, and delayed tests) included a 10-item written discourse completion test (WDCT), a 10-item oral role-play test (RP), and a 20-item multiple-choice discourse completion test (MDCT). All tests had a 60-minute suggested time to complete. Figure 3.2 illustrates the pilot study design which included 4 sessions.

Session 1	Session 2	Session 3	Session 4
A) Pre-test (60 min) B) mini lesson (45 min) in classroom for all groups	Feedback 1 (45 min) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> through computer (Facebook) for TM group and face-to-face in class for FF group 	A) Feedback 2 (45 min) <ul style="list-style-type: none"> through computer (Facebook) for TM group and face-to-face in class for FF group B) immediate post-test (60 min)	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> Delayed post test (60 min) in classroom for all groups

Figure 3.2. The research design as proposed initially and used in the pilot study

Due to the volunteer-based nature of the pilot study, there was some attrition and at the end of the study there were only 9 participants (4 in TM group, and 5 in FF group) who had participated in all treatment and assessment sessions. After the data was gathered from this pilot study, two native speaker raters scored the production components (DCT and transcribed RP test), and the researcher scored the comprehension (MDCT) component. However, the sample size of the pilot study was too small for a statistical analysis and the results were only used for a general modification of the research design. Based on the information collected through the pilot study, changes were made and the final version of the research design was fine-tuned. Some specific implications of the pilot study included the following points:

1. Recruiting participants from intact classes (i.e. already- formed classes) rather than volunteer-based outside-the-classroom would help minimize the attrition problem.
2. Testing times (pre-, post-, and delayed tests) were very lengthy and made participants very tired and unwilling to continue the study. In all three tests, the 60-minute time to complete the written and oral components of the tests was insufficient. The minimum time to complete test was 90 minutes which was problematic both on the participants' side and the researcher's side (room booking, etc.). Therefore, the numbers of items were reduced as follows: RP was reduced from 10 items to 6, MDCT from 20 to 12, and DCT was removed completely from the study. Beside time limitations, another reason for excluding the DCT from the main study was that the written mode of this test did not match the oral nature of the study. According to Bardovi-Harlig (2018), "when written production is used to study attributes of oral production, there is a mismatch in mode" (p. 234). In other words, the mode of elicited production should align with the mode of production of the construct under investigation (Bardovi-Harlig, 2018). DCTs and other written production tests align with written feedback communication such as feedback on

letters and Emails. The role-play test in this study which elicit oral production matches the mode of the feedback in this study as well as the construct of pragmatic production as operationalized in chapter two. This oral-for-oral assessment is what Bardovi-Harlig (2018) calls “alignment of mode” or “matched mode” (p.234). Bardovi-Harlig (2010) recommended avoiding “the siren call of written production – unless investigating the pragmatics of written genres” (p. 242). DCTs also have other disadvantages which are briefly discussed in section 2.5. For a more detailed account of DCT weaknesses see Culpeper et al. (2018). These changes reduced the testing time from 60 minutes to 45 minutes.

3. Computer-mediated communication in a lab did not work for the design of this study.

Although the TM group participants were placed in two separate labs and were equipped with noise-cancelling headsets (AKG MKII Studio), there was too much noise in both labs and participants complained about noise interferences. The availability of computers and computer lab was also another issue. Therefore, the decision was made to use personal mobile devices instead of computers for the main study.

4. Facebook video group call was not appropriate for this study. In order to place video calls, participants needed to add each other to their Facebook friends. Although users could unfriend a contact from their friends’ list any time, some participants (and one teacher) were reluctant to add other participants as “friends” due to the privacy issues. After meeting the participants of the main study, the video call application was shifted to WeChat based on their preferences. Section 3.5 discusses this reason and the application features in more details.

5. Number of feedback sessions was increased from 2 to 3 sessions in the main study to enhance the opportunities for receiving feedback.

In summary, this pilot study helped to assess the practicality of data collection procedures

and to identify the problems which contributed to the modification of the research design and data collection instruments before the actual study. Figure 3.3 illustrates the design of the main study after these modifications.

Session1	Session 2	Session 3	Session 4	Sesssion 5	Session 6
A) Pre-test (45 min)	•Feedback 1 (60 min)	•Feedback 2 (60 min)	•Feedback 3 (60 min)	• Post-test (45 min)	•Delayed Post-test (45 min)
B) Mini-lesson (45 min) in classroom for all groups	•through mobile application for TM group and face-to-face in class for FF group	•through mobile application for TM group and face-to-face in class for FF group	•through mobile application for TM group and face-to-face in class for FF group	•in classroom for all groups	•in classroom for all groups

Figure 3.3. Research design of the main study

The following sections describe the methodology of the main study.

3.6 Treatment Procedures

The present investigation included six sessions: 1. pre-test and mini-lesson; 2. feedback one; 3. feedback two; 4. feedback three; 5. post-test; and 6. delayed post-test. The first four sessions were the treatment sessions which are discussed in details below. These six sessions were completed within the span of three weeks: all treatment and immediate post-test in week 1, and the delayed post-test week 3 (two weeks after the last treatment). The reason for including both pre-test and mini-lesson in the same session was that the two volunteer instructors who were teaching the experimental groups had certain time limitations. They could not allocate more

than one week of their normal semester schedules to this experiment since they had to meet their pre-determined course syllabi. Teachers had distributed consent forms and background questionnaire a week before the experiment started. The researcher collected this information on the first day of the experiment (Day 1). Based on the information gathered, the participants in the TM group were asked to install the mobile application “WeChat” on their smartphones for the next session. The decision to use this application was made after the researcher reviewed responses of the TM group participants to a question in the background questionnaire which asked about participants preferred online video call or conferencing application. Of the 22 participants in this group, 15 reported already using “WeChat”. The rest of the research team including the 7 participants, the researcher, and the volunteer teacher installed the application after the class and practiced getting comfortable with it before the first feedback session the next day. The following section describes the related features of this application.

WeChat

According to Wikipedia, “ WeChat is a Chinese multi-purpose messaging, social media and mobile payment app developed by Tencent”. It was first released in 2011, and became one of the world's largest standalone mobile apps in 2018, with over 1 billion monthly active users. WeChat has been described as China's "app for everything" and a "super app" because of its wide range of functions”. <https://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/WeChat>

The above information matched the results of the background questionnaire as all of the 15 participants who had selected this application were from China. All of these participants believed that this application was the most popular social media app in China. This application is free and can be easily installed on Android and iPhone platforms and has many capabilities including group video calls and conferencing. To use this feature in the experiment, all of the 22

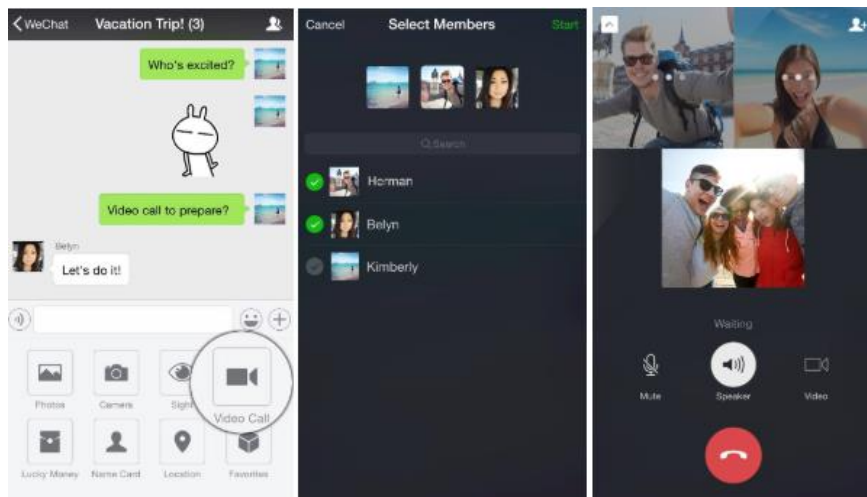
participants in TM group shared their identities with each other as well as the teacher and the researcher. One of the great features of this app was that sharing identities did not require students' and the teacher's personal phone numbers. The identity was provided by the application after signing up and was offered in two forms of WeChat ID and My QR Code. Participants found each other through scanning each other's codes or through sharing their ID's. The teacher also created a group called *UVic research* and added all the participants to the group. According to WeChat Help Center (<https://help.wechat.com>), video & voice Call for Groups is available in WeChat v6.3.5 or later, and up to nine people can join a group call. During this experiment, participants used a two-member (two partners in a pair) video call for preparation time and a three-member (2 participants and the teacher) for the feedback time.

For making a group video call, participants had to follow these steps:

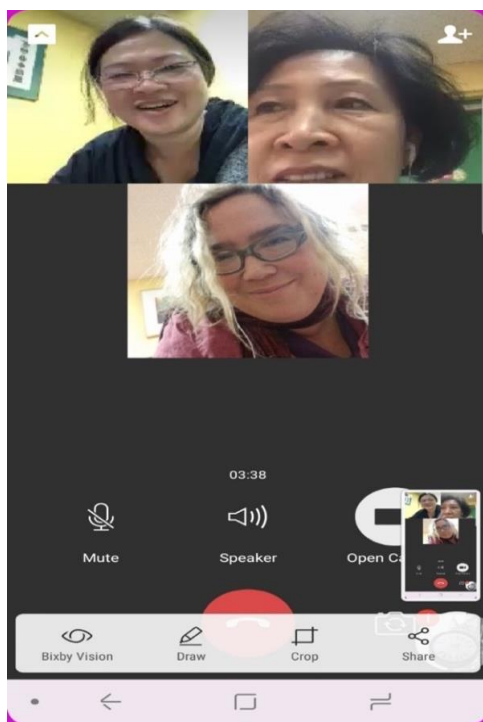
1. Log in to WeChat and enter the group chat they'd like to start a group call.
2. Click the [+] icon on the lower-right corner and tap [Voice Call].
3. Select the group members they wish to call and click [Start] on the top-right corner to start the call.

Only members in a group chat can be invited to a group call created by members of the group. This group was already created by the teacher and all participants were added as members. After making a successful connection, they could click on the camera option [Open Camera] to toggle between a video and voice call and tap the call window to switch between the front and rear camera. The application also provides a feature for recording sound or video which was not used during this experiment. Picture 3.1 illustrates a screenshot of making group video call on WeChat, and Picture 3.2 shows the teacher giving feedback to a pair during a practice

session in TM group. All participants in this group received free earbud headphones to use during the experiment.



Picture 3.1. Group video & voice call in WeChat, Picture from: <https://blog.wechat.com/tag/video-call/>



Picture 3.2. Screenshot of teacher's mobile screen giving feedback to a pair in TM group

Day1 (Pre-test and mini-lesson)

The experiment started in August 2018 for the FF group, and in October 2018 for the TM and Control groups. This session had the same procedure for the three groups. During the first half of this 90-minute session, students took the pre-test and in the next 45 minutes they received the mini-lesson.

The mini-lesson aimed to raise learners' awareness of appropriate forms and functions in making requests and refusals in different contexts. Following Schmidt's noticing hypothesis (1990), awareness-raising tasks help input become intake.

Both the treatment groups and the Control group received the mini-lesson because the present study aimed at investigating only feedback effects and not the instruction. The Control group also needed to receive this lesson; otherwise we could not distinguish whether the results found were due to the feedback or the mini-lesson. As stated in 3.4, the mini-lesson included 2 handouts, 2 video clips, and 2 worksheets which were delivered by the three teachers Face-to-Face in regular classes.

In the 45-minute session of the mini-lesson, teachers of all three classes activated learners' prior knowledge by asking what they knew about requests and refusals in general and English in particular. The teachers explained the two speech acts briefly considering such factors as formality, directness and politeness. For instance, teachers asked how asking a younger brother to wash the dishes is different (in terms of formality, directness and politeness) from asking a professor to write a recommendation letter (see appendix 3 for teacher's copy). Next, the teachers distributed the two handouts and worksheets, and played the two video clips on requests and refusals. After watching the videos, learners were asked to do the two worksheets in small groups. They were reminded that they could use their handouts to answer questions.

Day 2 (Feedback1)

On the second day of the experiment the two treatment groups received feedback on their role-plays while the Control group moved on with the regular class lesson plan. The Control group's teacher reported that they had a guest speaker in class who discussed the procedures of online applications to Canadian universities. The procedure for this part of the treatment was different for FF and TM groups since they were receiving feedback through different modes.

In the FF group, the teacher distributed the role-play cards between pairs of two. There were 7 pairs in this group. Participants were instructed to take both requester and refuser roles throughout this task. Participants had 15 minutes time to read the scenarios and prepare the three role-plays with their partners. During this preparation time, the teacher did not provide any feedback to the pairs and only monitored them during the activity as she walked in the class. She also answered participants' questions on the activity instructions or the scenarios when needed. Then, the teacher sat next to each pair, listened to their role-play and provided corrective feedback when necessary. It took approximately five minutes for each pair to receive feedback on three scenarios. Other pairs were free to choose any class-related activities including working on previous assignments. The feedback stage of the treatment took approximately 40 minutes in this group.

Corrective feedback was provided when participants made errors including both linguistic forms and sociocultural errors which led to pragmatic failure. As trained previously, the teacher focused only on one error at a time, repeated the learner's erroneous utterance with a stress or a rising intonation (like a yes-no question), and finally provided the correct target form (recast) with a falling intonation. Example 8 illustrates one instance of feedback on a linguistically inappropriate request and Example 9 shows a pragmatically inappropriate request.

Both examples involve a scenario where one student is asking a classmate to borrow him/her some notes because he/she has missed the previous hypothetical class.

Example 8

Corrective recast on a linguistically inappropriate form

Student: Can I lend your notes? I was sick; I couldn't go to class yesterday.

Teacher: lend? ↑ Can I borrow? ↓

Student: Yes, Can I borrow your notes?

Teacher: yes!

Student: Can I borrow your notes?

Example 9

Corrective recast on a pragmatically inappropriate form

Student: I want you to lend me your notes.

Teacher: I want you? ↑ This is not very polite! Can you lend me your notes? ↓

Student: can you lend me your notes please?

Teacher: yes.

The Technology-Mediated (TM) group participants had already installed WeChat application on their Smartphones on the first session. Contacts and IDs were saved and shared between participants and the teacher. After regular greetings, the teacher distributed role-play cards with instructions and assigned pairs. Due to noise interferences, each partner in a pair moved to a different location in the language school. The researcher had made arrangements with the school and different quiet spaces of the school were used for making video calls. Wi-Fi internet was available in all areas inside the school as well as the yard. There were 22 participants in this group which made 11 pairs. Some learners preferred to stay inside the class

while some others moved to their preferred spaces in school and made video calls with their partners to practice the three role-plays. The virtual feature of this task allowed participants to practice in any position they liked; some were sitting, standing or even walking. All participants were asked to use earbud headphones to block other noises, however, some believed the sound quality was good enough and there was no need of headphones. Partners established video connections and prepared the three situations. Students had 15 minutes time to prepare their role-plays for three scenarios. After time was up, the teacher who was sitting in a separate room used her iPhone to call each pair. She listened to each conversation and provided feedback to each pair on all 3 scenarios. As with the FF group, other pairs were free to choose one instructional activity while one pair was receiving feedback from the teacher. The nature of corrected errors (linguistics and pragmatic) and the procedure of corrective feedback was the same as FF group; the only difference was the delivery of feedback which was mediated through WeChat mobile application in the TM group. Each three-member call lasted about 5 minutes. The feedback portion of the session took approximately 60 minutes in the TM group which was around 15 minutes longer than that of FF group. This was due to random interruptions of the calls or assistance given to learners (by the researcher and the teacher).

Day 3 and 4 (Feedback sessions 2 and 3)

During the third and fourth days of the experiment (Wednesday & Thursday), learners of the experimental groups received feedback sessions 2 and 3. The Control group, however, continued with their normal class schedule (writing short essays, reading major newspaper headlines, and group discussions). The same procedure as day 2 was taken for both FF and TM groups. Three new scenarios were introduced into class each day. During the 15 minutes preparation time, FF participants prepared for their roles in each scenario face-to-face and TM

group participants prepared the role-plays online through WeChat mobile application. Same as Day 2, in the next 45 minutes, both groups received the same type of corrective feedback on their conversations from the teachers although through different modes. All class materials including role-play cards, handouts and worksheets are presented in Appendices D, E, F, G, and H. The following table shows a brief procedure of every step.

Table 3.4

Instructional Procedures for FF and TM, and Control Group

Sessions	Face-to-Face (FF)	Technology-Mediated (TM)	Control
Session 1	<p>A) <i>Pre-test (45 min)</i></p> <p>B) <i>Mini-lesson (45 min) :</i></p> <p>1) awareness raising task: Learners engaged in a general discussion on requests and refusals</p> <p>2) Teacher explaining about the form, function, and use of refusal and request strategies (using the handouts)</p> <p>3) Learners watching two video clips (one request and one refusal)</p> <p>4) Learners answering the questions provided in worksheets in small groups</p>	<p>A) <i>Pre-test (45 min)</i></p> <p>B) <i>Mini-lesson (45 min) :</i></p> <p>Same as FF, (inside class)</p>	<p>A) <i>Pre-test (45 min)</i></p> <p>B) <i>Mini-lesson (45 min) :</i></p> <p>Same as FF and TM, (inside class)</p>

Session 2-3-4	<i>Feedback 1-2-3</i> 1) Pairs prepare 3 role-play situations on requests and refusals. 2) Each pair acts out their role-plays 3) Corrective feedback: Teacher provides feedback on the use of target items while each pair acts out role-plays	<i>Feedback 1-2-3</i> 1) Online pairs prepare 3 role-play situations on requests and refusals with their partners through WeChat video call 2) Each pair presents their role-plays to the teacher online 3) Online Corrective feedback: teacher provides feedback on the use of target items to each pair while they act out role-plays	Normal Class running (no practice and feedback on speech acts provided)
Session 5	Post-test	Post-test	Post-test
Session 6	Delayed post-test	Delayed post-test	Delayed post-test

3.7 Data Collection Procedure

The two data collection instruments of MDCT and RP were used in a pre-test, immediate post-test and delayed post-test to measure participants' L2 pragmatic comprehension and production ability. All versions of the two tests were similar with only minor modifications such as names and locations of the scenarios and different order of the items so as to be able to easily compare the results between the three versions of the tests.

Following previous similar research design (e.g., Felix-Brasdefer, 2008; Narita, 2012; Nguyen, 2013), the pre-test was administered to all three classes at the onset of the study which was the first day of the experiment. The post-test was given immediately after the treatment on the fifth day of the experiment. The delayed post-test was 2 weeks after the study which was August 31st for FF, and October, 19th, 2018 for TM and Control groups. Students in all three classes took the post-test and delayed post-test in their regular class hours and locations. All the three classes went back to their normal class schedules after a break in the post-test and delayed post-test sessions. All the tests were delivered in pen-and-paper format for all the three groups because of the limited access to computers in some classes at the ICA school. Participants had 15

minutes time for the MDCT part and 30 minutes time (15-minute preparation, 15-minute recording) on the RP section of the tests. Each test took approximately 45 minutes time.

The arrangement of the RP and MDCT tests was counterbalanced to reduce the potential test effect on comprehension and production. In other words, half of the participants in each group took the comprehension test first, and the other half took the production test first in all three tests (pre, post, and delayed tests). Moreover, three versions of the test were developed with slight differences in arrangements and contexts. The order of different versions of the tests were counter-balanced. Participants who received version A as the pre-test took version B at the post-test and version C as the delayed post-test; those who received test B as the pre-test, took test C as the immediate post-test and test A as the delayed post-test, and finally, participants who took version C as the pre-test, took versions A and B for the post-and delayed-post-tests respectively. Figure 3.4 summarizes the instruments and procedures of data collection of the study.

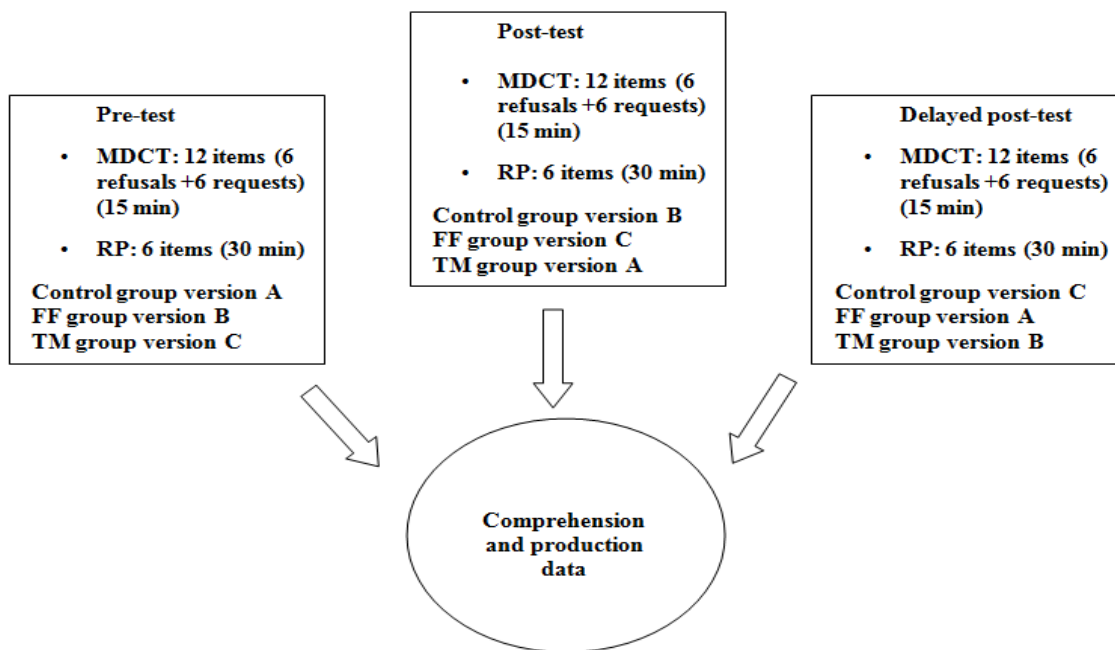


Figure 3.4. Data collection procedure

3.8 Scoring Procedures of MDCT and RP

According to Holden and Sykes (2013), “assessment and feedback are commonly noted as most challenging aspects of L2 pragmatic instruction” (p. 155). Collecting a standard set of appropriate L2 pragmatic behaviors to teach or test may not be realistic or practical. This is due to “the immense variety in what constitutes appropriate pragmatic behavior, varying individual interlocutor perceptions and responses, and the innumerable contextual possibilities” (Holden & Sykes, 2013, p. 155). In other words, in L2 pragmatics, there may be not one right or wrong response. This requires assessment that considers “a variety of appropriate responses, making fair, authentic, and unbiased assessment challenging and time consuming, often an impracticality for classroom instructors with large numbers of students” (Holden & Sykes, 2013, p. 157). It is important to note that the coding schema for scoring the two tests in this study was not based on a comparison with a NS, but rather a schema that specifically addressed the components being taught as part of the mini-lesson and the feedback received during the treatment (See for instance Sykes, 2013). Therefore, data from each of the two tests (MDCT and RP) were scored and compared based on the information being targeted in the treatment to examine how participants’ pragmatic comprehension and production behaviors changed.

The MDCT was marked by the researcher based on the key which was developed earlier in the pilot study. Evaluating this test involved giving one point for each correct response and zero points for either of the incorrect responses. The full score of the MDCT was 12, i.e. one score for each correct response to the twelve items (6 requests + 6 refusals = 12).

Scoring the RP test involved several steps: transcribing audio files, rater training, scoring by the raters, checking for inter-rater reliability and averaging the scores of the two raters for each participant. Recordings were saved on the researcher’s personal computer and were

transcribed for all the groups and all the tests. After the recordings were transcribed by the researcher, they were rated by two English native speakers. They were both graduate students in the linguistics department at the University of Victoria. Both declared to be native speakers of Canadian English although one had lived in the United States in childhood for a few years. These two raters were trained on the rubrics and marking based on the rating instructions given in Appendix L. They discussed the criteria and showed their agreement on the criteria during a meeting with the researcher. Then, they marked independently without further discussion. The final total score of each student on the RP test was the mean score of the two raters. As mentioned earlier, the inter-rater reliability was checked with the Pearson correlation test and a high reliability ($r = .97$) was found (see section 3.4 for more details).

The rating criteria on the RP test were four aspects of appropriateness according to Hudson et al. (1992, 1995) and Hudson (2001) which included correct expressions, quality of information, strategies choices and level of formality. The appropriateness was marked by analytic Likert scale in line with Hudson's (2001) format. The scale moves from 5 which refers to "completely appropriate" to scale of 1 which indicates "not appropriate and not acceptable". The whole format of rating criteria is presented in Appendix 12. More detailed explanation of each criteria is as follows (adapted from Hudson, 2001; Hudson et al., 1992, 1995).

1. Correct expression

This aspect refers to the typical use of expressions from the native speaker's perspective which includes an appropriate pattern without grammatical mistakes. This category includes the typical expressions used for requests and refusals to speakers of different kinds of status, i.e. low-high, equal-equal and high-low. The raters depended on their native speaker's intuition to judge the correctness. In other words, what they considered to be the appropriate speech act the

situation intended to elicit. The question raters asked themselves was: how appropriate is the wording/are the expressions for this situation? Based on their native speaker's intuition of appropriateness, they used the following scale to rate participants' requests and refusals for correct expression:

5: Completely appropriate: Complete appropriate expressions and no grammatical mistakes

4: Mostly appropriate: Appropriate expressions, no or at most one grammatical mistake

3: Generally appropriate: Generally appropriate expressions, one grammatical mistake

2: Not very appropriate, but acceptable: Not very appropriate expressions, two or three grammatical mistakes

1: Not appropriate, not acceptable: Not very appropriate expressions, more than three grammatical mistakes

2. Quality of Information

This aspect refers to appropriateness of the information given by the students. This aspect is also referred to as "amount of information" in some studies such as Hudson et al. (1992, 1995) and Hudson (2001) and Liu (2004). According to Hudson et al. (1992), "speakers of any language adjust the amount of speech in a given speech act to fit the particular situation" (p. 164). Non-native speakers might tend to use very direct and thus shorter-than-the-average-NS utterances. For example, a NNS might use only "I can't" as a refusal without a reason or excuse because he/she does not have the language to give such an explanation. There are also instances that NNSs use more speech than the average NS which might be due to using circumlocution as a result of a lower proficiency. The question raters asked themselves in this section was: "how appropriate is the amount of speech/information given?" Deciding how much speech/information is appropriate for a given situation might be difficult. As a guideline, Hudson et al. suggested

that “raters use their native speaker intuition to judge when a response seems particularly abrupt or seems as “ramble” and provided too much unnecessary information” (p. 165). The following explanations helped raters judge learners’ utterances for amount of information:

5: Completely appropriate: Completely appropriate with appropriately lengthy sentences

4: Mostly appropriate: Mostly appropriate with lengthy sentences

3: Generally appropriate: Generally appropriate with short sentences

2: Not very appropriate, but acceptable: Not very appropriate with very short sentences

1: Not appropriate, not acceptable: Not appropriate sentences with very short sentences

3. Strategies Choices

The third aspect was the level of strategies choices which tested if learners could choose the strategies provided in the learning targets. This category referred to refusal strategies such as explanation, positive feeling, gratitude etc. and request strategies such as alerter, head act, and supportive moves used by native speakers. The question to ask was: “How appropriate is the strategies choice?” Based on their intuition and the following rubrics, raters judged learners’ strategy choice from a scale of 5 to 1.

5: Completely appropriate: Exactly same as the learning targets

4: Mostly appropriate: strategy with some variations to the learning targets

3: Generally appropriate: strategy different with the learning targets

2: Not very appropriate, but acceptable: strategies different with the learning targets

1: Not appropriate, not acceptable: No strategies same as the learning targets

4. Level of Formality

Formality can be expressed through the degree of formal or informal word choice and the degree of politeness. According Hudson et al. (1992), “use of colloquial speech could be

appropriate and polite in American English when the situation was informal and between friends, families and co-workers” (p. 165). Use of formal speech could be appropriate and polite in the situation of high to low and low to high status. “However, a degree of appropriateness could be applied” (Duan, 2008, p. 88). The question asked by native speaker raters for acceptability of this criteria was “How appropriate is the level of formality?” The following guidelines helped raters judge formality of the utterances:

- 5: Completely appropriate: Use very polite and very appropriate words for the situation
- 4: Mostly appropriate: Use polite and appropriate words for the situation
- 3: Generally appropriate: Use some words being not very polite and not very appropriate for the situation
- 2: Not very appropriate, but acceptable: Use words being not very polite and not very appropriate for the situation
- 1: Not appropriate, not acceptable: Use very impolite words and completely not very appropriate for the situation

(Adapted from Hudson et al., 1992, 1995; Hudson, 2001)

The researcher prepared a rating sheet based on the above criteria and the RP test format. The rating sheet is available in Appendix M. Both raters used the rating sheets to score requests and refusals made by the two interlocutors in each role-play. Each participant had a request and a refusal score on each of the 6 role-play situations since roles were switched in each role-play. Therefore, each participant had 12 scores (6 scores on requests and 6 on refusals) in the RP test.

The overall score of each item was the mean of the scores for the four aspects (on a 5-point scale). This score was obtained through the adding of four scores and divided by 4. Decimal points were rounded up and down and the whole number was used without a decimal

point. Using one mean score on all four aspects of appropriateness helped to achieve a holistic picture of learners' pragmatic production which is a reflection of these multiple aspects combined. According to Taguchi (2006), "pragmatic performance is more than just utilizing a series of formulaic utterances. It also entails efficient discourse and grammatical management, as shown in the ratings of appropriateness" (p. 26). While there are studies that report findings with regard to each separate aspect (especially when applying written discourse tests), this study followed Hudson (2001) and other researchers (e.g., Duan, 2008; Taguchi, 2006; Martinez-Flor & Uso-Juan, 2010) to report one holistic mean for oral production.

In order to show the above rating procedures, an example from the present study is provided below where one student is refusing to lend notes to a classmate:

Example 10 (*E-E status*)

A (requester): You know, I missed the last class. Could I please borrow your notes from that class?

B (refuser): Oh, no (no). I'll use it in a moment (explanation)

Rater 1 scores on participant B's refusal on the 4 criteria:

1. Correct expression: 3 generally appropriate, though no grammatical mistake
2. Quality of information: 3; generally appropriate, short sentences
3. Strategies choice: 2; strategies different from the learning targets (i.e. regret, explanation, alternative)
4. Level of formality: 3: not very polite, without gratitude and regret strategies

(Total score on participant A's refusal, i.e. average on the 4 criteria: $3+3+2+3 = 11$ out of 20 divided by 4 = 2.75 out of 5, rounded to 3)

In the above example, participant B's scores in role-play situation one at the refuser role

by the first rater were 3 on correct expression, 3 on quality of information, 2 on strategy choice, and 3 on level of formality: $3+3+2+3 = 2.75$, the final score for this participant on refusal 1 was rounded up to 3. The same participant was also scored at the requester role for the same role-play. For instance, he/she was scored 5 on three criteria and 4 on one criterion: $5+5+5+4=4.75$, the final score was rounded up to 5. Therefore, in the above example, participant A receives 8 (3+5) out of 10 for the first item by rater 1. The full score of the RP test was 60 since there were 12 items with 5 points each (6 requests and 6 refusals) as indicated below:

5 (full score of each request item) times by 6 = 30

5 (full score of each refusal item) times by 6 = 30

$30+30 = 60$ total score on RP test

The same procedure was taken for each student by rater 2. For instance, participant A was evaluated separately by rater 2 and got a score of 4 on the request and a score of 5 on the refusal for the first role-play item (i.e. a total score of 9 out of 10). After inter-rater reliability was assessed by the researcher, the two raters' scores for each participant were combined and averaged. The final total score of each student was the mean score of the two raters. In the above example, participant A who received a score of 8 from rater 1 and a score 9 by rater 2, got a total average score of 8.5 on RP item 1 ($8+9=17/2 = 8.5$).

In order to facilitate the comparison between comprehension and production scores, the RP total scores which were out of 60 were divided by 5 to get a value out of 12. This matched MDCT comprehension scores which were out of 12.

3.9 Summary

This chapter described the design of the study including participants, instructional materials and the treatment procedures. A description of the data collection tools and assessment

procedures were also presented in order to establish the ground for the data analyses in the next chapter. The results from the comprehension and production pragmatics tests are analyzed quantitatively in chapter four to answer each research question.

CHAPTER FOUR- RESULTS

4.0 Introduction

The purpose of this study was to investigate the effects of oral corrective feedback on L2 pragmatic competence through FF and TM delivery modes. The corrective feedback was operationalized as a corrective recast, i.e. a repetition of the error followed by the correct form. The pragmatic features used in this study were request and refusal speech acts. The participants' performance was measured by the scores on the MDCT comprehension test and the RP production test. In the quantitative analyses in this chapter, Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS 24.0) software was used and alpha levels for all tests were set at 0.05. This chapter will report on the results obtained when answering research questions of the study. A summary of research questions is presented below. This chapter concludes with a summary of findings.

The present study investigated the following research questions:

1. Does corrective feedback have any effect on the learning of L2 pragmatics?
2. Does corrective feedback have any differential effects on comprehension versus production?
3. Does the delivery mode of corrective feedback (FF vs. TM) make any difference on the learning of L2 pragmatics?
4. Does the type of speech act (i.e. request and refusal) influence the effects of corrective feedback?
5. Is the effect of feedback on comprehension and production, if any, maintained over time?

4.1 Normality test

The first step in determining the appropriate statistical procedure in this study was to examine the type of the data collected. The data gathered in this study fall under continuous data (i.e., data that can take any value within a range). There are two types of statistical tests that are appropriate for continuous data; parametric tests and nonparametric tests. Deciding whether to use a parametric or nonparametric test depends on the normality of the data. According to Mackey and Gass (2005, p. 262), “in a normal distribution (also known as a bell curve) the numbers (e.g., scores on a particular test) cluster around the midpoint”. In other words, in a normal distribution, the bell curve is symmetrical. Half of the data will fall to the left of the mean; half will fall to the right. *Parametric tests* assume that the data are normally distributed and means and standard deviations are appropriate measures of central tendency (Mackey & Gass, 2005). Examples of parametric tests include t-test and analysis of variance (ANOVA). *Nonparametric tests* do not rely on any distribution and “are generally used when the assumptions for parametric tests are not met” (Mackey & Gass, 2005, p. 272). Examples of nonparametric tests include Chi Square and Kruskal-Wallis tests. Parametric tests often have nonparametric equivalents. For example, the nonparametric parallel test of ANOVA is called Kruskal-Wallis test. In this study, normal distribution of the data was examined by SPSS which provided the Shapiro-Wilk normality test. The Shapiro-Wilk test compares the similarity between the observed and normal distributions. The null hypothesis for the Shapiro-Wilk test is that a variable is normally distributed in some population. The null hypothesis is rejected if $p < .05$. Table 4.1 summarizes normality tests results of the RP and MDCT scores.

Table 4.1

Normality on MDCT (comprehension) and RP (production) tests

Scores	Statistic	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>
MDCT. Pre-test	.932	44	.012
MDCT. Post-test	.966	44	.216
MDCT. Delayed	.951	44	.058
RP. Pre-test	.981	44	.668
RP. Post-test	.977	44	.530
RP. Delayed	.973	44	.371

The results indicated that production scores in all three tests (pre, post, and delayed) were normally distributed. The only set of data that were not normally distributed were the pre-test scores in comprehension ($p = .012$). Based on these results, parametric statistical tests (ANOVA) were selected for normally distributed data in comprehension and production (almost all the data). A non-parametric statistical test (Kruskal-Wallis) was applied for comprehension pre-test scores.

4.2 Statistical Analyses used in the study

Before analyzing the data to answer the research questions, it was necessary to investigate whether the three groups' level of pragmatic ability was comparable at the beginning of the study. In order to find out if the students in the three groups began the study with similar pragmatic levels, a one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) was conducted on the production RP scores (which were normally distributed). A non-parametric equivalent of ANOVA test (Kruskal-Wallis one-way ANOVA) was done on the comprehension MDCT test pre-test scores (which were not normally distributed). Data were input to SPSS 24.0 software and alpha levels for all tests were set at 0.5, "as is customary in second language research" (Mackey & Gass,

2005, p. 267). The descriptive statistics for means of all three groups in comprehension and production of speech acts in pre-test are presented in Table 4.2. The ANOVA results are displayed in Tables 4.3 for production and 4.4 for comprehension.

Table 4.2

Descriptive statistics: Means of 3 groups in pre-test

Group	Test	<i>N</i>	Mean	<i>SD</i>
Control	MDCT	16	6.29	1.62
	RP		7.45	1.05
FF	MDCT	14	5.30	1.34
	RP		7.85	1.28
TM	MDCT	14	5.40	1.56
	RP		7.92	.96
Total	MDCT	44	5.69	1.56
	RP		7.72	1.10

Table 4.3

One-Way Analysis of Variance of RP (Production) Pre-test

Source	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>	η_p^2
Between Groups	4.42	2	2.21			
Within Groups	61.32	41	1.49	1.18	.240	.06
Total	65.75	43				

Table 4.4

Kruskal-Wallis Analysis of Variance of MDCT (Comprehension) Pre-test

Source	Group	<i>N</i>	Mean of Ranks	χ^2	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>	η_p^2
MDCT (Comprehension)	Control	16	27.88				
	FF	14	16.07	6.54	2	.059	.15
	TM	14	22.79				

As Table 4.3 shows, there was no significant difference between the three groups in production of speech acts, $F(2, 41) = 1.1, p = .240$. Table 4.4 also shows that there was no statistically significant difference in comprehension scores between the three groups in the pre-test, $\chi^2(2) = 6.54, p = .059$. In other words, all groups had similar accuracy in comprehending and producing the speech acts when they started the study in the pre-test. The next section discusses the type of statistical tests used for answering the research questions.

To examine the effect of CF on L2 pragmatics, a comparison was made between the groups on their comprehension and production scores. The independent variable, the mode of corrective feedback provided to L2 learners of English, included FF and TM corrective feedback. The dependent variable was the participants' comprehension and production of speech acts, specifically, their performance on the MDCT and RP tests. In addition to descriptive statistics, three statistical tests were conducted on the scores. First, separate mixed-model ANOVA (also called mixed-design) tests were conducted for all of the participants' responses on the MDCT and RP tests. Next, follow-up one-way ANOVA tests with Scheffe post-hoc multiple comparisons were conducted when necessary to identify the source of any observed effects or interactions indicated in the ANOVA. In addition, effect sizes, expressed in terms of Partial Eta Squared (η_p^2) were calculated for all effects on the two instruments of RP and MDCT (pre-test, post-test, delayed post-test). These statistical tests are discussed in more details below.

4.2.1 Mixed-Model ANOVA

A mixed-model ANOVA combines repeated-measures ANOVA with between-groups ANOVA and is performed under General Linear Model statistics in SPSS. According to Roever and Phakiti (2018), such a combination allows researchers to simultaneously examine the effect of a between-subject variable (type of treatment in this study) and a within-subject variable such

as test time (pre, post, and delayed post-tests in this study) and the interaction among these variables. In this study, subjects were assigned to Control, FF, and TM groups and their comprehension and production scores on request and refusal speech act were measured at the three time points of pre-, post-, and delayed-post tests. Therefore, time and speech act were set as the within subject variables and group (treatment) was defined as the between subject factor. The mixed-model ANOVA helps not only to determine the main effect of each independent variable but also helps find out if there is an interaction between the independent variables. A main effect is the effect of one independent variable on the dependent variable. It ignores the effects of any other independent variables. In general, there is one main effect for each independent variable. For example, in a study examining how tutoring and extra homework help to improve math scores. As there are two independent variables (tutoring and extra homework), there are two main effects:

1. The effect tutoring has on math scores.
2. The effect extra homework has on math scores. (Example cited from: Laerd Statistics

Retrieved from: <https://www.statisticshowto.datasciencecentral.com/>)

The two independent variables can also interact (work together) on the dependent variable. In that case, the effects are called interaction effects. In the above example, tutoring and extra homework may interact with each other and have a third effect (interaction effect) on math scores.

Necessary conditions of mixed-model ANOVA are similar to the ANOVA tests; each level of the independent variable needs to be approximately normally distributed. Another assumption is the concept of sphericity. Sphericity can be likened to the homogeneity of variances in a between-subjects' ANOVA in which the population variances (i.e., the

distribution, or “spread,” of scores around the mean) of two or more samples are considered equal. According to Roever and Phakiti (2018), “sphericity refers to the condition that the variances of differences between the individual measurements should be roughly equal” (p.156). Violation of sphericity is when the variances of the *differences* between all combinations of related groups are not equal. The violation of sphericity can increase the possibility of the Type I error (i.e., rejecting the null hypothesis when it is actually true). Therefore, it is very important to determine whether sphericity has been violated. However, even if violations of sphericity occur, corrections have been developed to produce a more valid critical *F*-value (i.e., reduce the increase in Type I error rate) (Laerd Statistics, n.d. Retrieved from <https://statistics.laerd.com/statistical-guides/sphericity-statistical-guide.php>). This is achieved by estimating the degree to which sphericity has been violated and applying a correction factor to the degrees of freedom. Sphericity is tested with *Mauchly’s test* which is always included in SPSS’ mixed-model ANOVA output (for example see table 4.6). Mauchly’s test should not reach significance (*p* not below .05). If data violate the sphericity assumption, SPSS applies adjustments automatically. However, sphericity is only checked when there are at least three conditions (e.g., time in this study). Therefore, if there is a repeated-measures variable that has only two levels (as in the case of speech act in this study), then sphericity is already met because there is only one set of difference scores and nothing to compare those difference scores against to indicate a violation of sphericity. In such cases, the sphericity estimates computed by SPSS are 1 (perfect sphericity) and the resulting significance test cannot be computed. In this study, two separate mixed-model ANOVAs were performed on comprehension and production scores and the results are broken into smaller tables to report and discuss the results as relevant to each research question.

4.2.2 One-Way ANOVA

The mixed-model ANOVA, when carried out in SPSS, does not perform post-hoc calculations (e.g., Scheffe) on two treatment groups. In this study, follow-up one-way ANOVAs were conducted when the mixed-model ANOVA revealed a significant main or interaction effect. One-way ANOVAs can identify the specific source of the effect or interaction indicated. This procedure (of applying one-way ANOVAs after mixed-model ANOVAs) has precedent in the second language assessment research literature (e.g., Nguyen et al., 2015). The ANOVA procedure was selected because of the robustness of this test in determining whether or not the experimental and control groups differed (Mackey & Gass, 2005). Following the ANOVAs, Scheffe post-hoc multiple comparisons were conducted in order to explore and identify the source of any significant effects or interactions (for example, the significant effect of CF might come from the significant differences between control group and one treatment group).

4.2.3 Effect Size

This study also reports effect sizes expressed as a coefficient called *Partial Eta Squared* (η_p^2) and generated in SPSS ANOVA results. Effect size provides a number that indicates the magnitude of an effect. While the p-value can tell us whether your main effects and interaction terms are statistically significant, partial eta squared (η_p^2) tells us about the magnitude of these effects. Therefore, a significant p-value tells us that an intervention works, whereas an effect size tells us how much it works. For instance, effect size does not just show if a treatment affects participants, but how much it affects them. The value of partial eta squared is between 0 and 1. Generally, a partial eta squared of 0.01 is considered small, 0.06 as medium, and 0.14 as large (Field, 2005).

In the case of the present study, calculating the effect size is particularly important because of the relatively small sample group size ($N = 14$ per treatment group). While larger sample sizes tend to lead to statistical significance when comparing means, in smaller sample sizes statistical significance may not be found and we have to resort to effect sizes to interpret the effects of the treatments. The effect size statistic provides another measure to aid the researcher in assessing the effect of a treatment (Jernigan, 2007). The next section will report on the results obtained when answering research questions of the study through the above-mentioned statistical tests.

4.3 Research Question 1: The Overall Effect of Corrective Feedback

After ensuring that there was no significant difference between the three groups in the pre-test (they started the study at similar skill levels), the first question of the study was explored: “Does corrective feedback have any effect on the learning of L2 pragmatics?”

In order to address this question, two separate mixed-model ANOVAs were employed for comprehension (MDCT) and production (RP) scores to assess differences in scores among the Control group, the FF feedback group, and the TM feedback group through three testing times (from the pre-test to the immediate post-test to the delayed post-test). Group (Control, FF, TM) was set as the between-subject factor and speech act type (request, refusal), and time (pre, post, delayed tests) were set as multi-level within subjects' factors. The analyses of results included descriptive statistics, the tests of between-subjects' effects, main effects, and interaction effects. The effect sizes were also calculated to measure the magnitude of effects of the different treatments with respect to within-group contrasts (time difference) and between-group contrasts (group difference). After mixed-model ANOVAs, separate one-way ANOVAs with post-hoc

pairwise comparisons were conducted to identify the source of the significances. Results of the two RP and MDCT tests are presented in the following sections.

4.3.1 CF Effects: Production (RP) Results

Descriptive statistics (Table 4.4) shows that in the immediate post-test both FF group ($M = 8.91$, $SD = 1.20$) and TM group ($M = 9.38$, $SD = .69$) performed better than the Control group ($M = 7.50$, $SD = .91$). Delayed post-tests are also compared and the results are presented in section 4.5 where the durability of the effects is discussed.

Table 4.5

Group Means of the Production (RP) Scores through Three Times

Group (Treatment)	Speech act	Pre-test		Immediate Post- test		Delayed Post-test	
		<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Control (<i>N</i> = 16)	Request	3.89	.60	4.06	.47	4.04	.37
	Refusal	3.34	.61	3.43	.48	3.60	.37
	Total	7.24	1.15	7.50	.91	7.64	.73
FF (<i>N</i> = 14)	Request	4.35	.66	4.71	.57	4.57	.49
	Refusal	3.47	.74	4.20	.64	4.16	.55
	Total	7.83	1.39	8.91	1.20	8.74	1.03
TM (<i>N</i> = 14)	Request	4.34	.50	5.0	.30	4.83	.27
	Refusal	3.60	.64	4.38	.41	4.49	.33
	Total	7.95	1.11	9.38	.69	9.32	.59

In order to examine whether the above differences are significant a mixed-model ANOVA was used. Table 4.6 illustrates Mauchly's Test of Sphericity and Table 4.7 Presents the mixed-model ANOVA results.

Table 4.6

Mauchly's Test of Sphericity in Production (RP) Scores

Within Subject Effect	Mauchly's <i>W</i>	Approx. Chi- Square	<i>df</i>	<i>p</i>	Greenhouse- Geisser	Epsilon b Huynh- Feldt	Lower- bound
Time	.25	55.10	2	.000	.57	.60	.50

Time x Speech act	.67	15.91	2	.000	.75	.81	.50
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As mentioned in section 4.1, sphericity is only checked when there are at least three conditions and table 4.6 only illustrates only those variables of the study that have three levels. The variables with only two levels (speech act in this study), sphericity is already met and they are not included in the above table. The results of the Mauchly's test of sphericity indicated that the assumption of sphericity had been violated for time $\chi^2 (.25) = 55.10, p = .000$, therefore degrees of freedom were corrected using Greenhouse-Geisser estimates of sphericity ($\epsilon = .80$). This is the reason that degrees of freedom are reported with decimals in the next section. Table 4.7 illustrates the mixed-model ANOVA results on RP (production) scores.

Table 4.7

Mixed-model ANOVA tests of CF; main and interaction effects in production

Source		Type III SS	df	MS	F	p	η_p^2
Time	Sphericity Assumed	12.17	2	6.08	39.10	.000	.48
	Greenhouse- Geisser	12.17	1.14	10.63	39.10	.000	.48
Time x Group	Sphericity Assumed	3.13	4	5.32	5.04	.001	.19
	Greenhouse- Geisser	3.13	2.28	6.64	5.04	.008	.19
Error (time)	Sphericity Assumed	12.76	82	.15			
	Greenhouse- Geisser	12.76	46.91	.27			

The results of the mixed-model ANOVA show that there was a significant main effect of time, $F(1.14, 46.91) = 39.10, p = .000, \eta_p^2 = .48$. This effect tells us that performances were significantly different in pre-test, immediate post-test and delayed post-test. Moreover, there was

a significant interaction effect between group and time, $F(2.28, 46.91) = 5.04, p = .008, \eta_p^2 =$.

19. The significant time by group interaction effect indicates that the three groups significantly differed from each other in the three time points but cannot tell us the source of the significance.

Bearing in mind that no group differed significantly from others in the pre-test, the scores of the immediate post-test and delayed post-test were compared between the three groups. This showed whether there were any differences between the Control group who received no feedback and the two treatment groups who received feedback from the teachers either through Face-to-Face mode or Technology-Mediated mode. To test whether feedback had a significant effect on the production of the speech acts in the treatment groups, a one-way ANOVA was performed on production (RP) scores. The results are illustrated in Table 4.8.

Table 4.8

One-Way Analysis of Variance of Production scores in Immediate and Delayed Post-test

Source		SS	df	MS	F	p	η_p^2
Immediate Post-test	Between Groups	29.34	2	14.67	15.96	.000	.43
	Within Groups	37.68	41	.91			
	Total	67.03	43				
Delayed Post-test	Between Groups	21.99	2	10.99	16.90	.000	.45
	Within Groups	26.68	41	.65			
	Total	48.68	43				

As Table 4.8 illustrates, there was a significant difference between groups in the production of speech acts after the corrective feedback treatment. The results were statistically significant at the $p < .05$ level, both in the immediate post-test $F(2, 41) = 15.96, p = .000$ and in

the delayed post-test $F(2, 41) = 16.90, p = .000$. These results show that CF was effective for improving pragmatic production of the participants. In order to identify the source of significance in results, multiple comparison post-hoc tests were conducted. Scheffe post-hoc tests revealed that there was a significant difference in production means between the Control group and the FF group in immediate post-test (MD (mean difference) = 1.41, $p = .001$). The difference between FF and Control group was statistically significant in the delayed post-test too ($MD = 1.10, p = .002$). Likewise, there was a significant difference in means between Control group and TM group both in immediate post-test ($MD = 1.88, p = .000$) and delayed post-test ($MD = 1.67, p = .000$). This indicates that both treatment groups benefited from the feedback treatment in the production of speech acts as compared to the Control group which received no feedback. The comparison between the FF and TM group was also carried out and will be discussed when presenting delivery mode effects.

4.3.2 CF Effects: Comprehension Results

The effect of CF was also checked in MDCT comprehension results. The same procedure as production was followed. Table 4.9 illustrates descriptive statistics.

Table 4.9

Group Means of the Comprehension Scores through Three Times

Group (Treatment)	Speech act	Pre-test		Immediate Post-test		Delayed Post-test	
		<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Control (<i>N</i> = 16)	Request	3.25	1.00	3.81	1.10	3.18	.98
	Refusal	3.12	1.14	2.62	.80	2.81	.98
	Total	6.37	1.58	6.34	1.26	5.93	.99
FF (<i>N</i> = 14)	Request	2.50	.75	3.57	1.28	3.92	1.14
	Refusal	2.35	.92	3.0	.67	2.28	1.32
	Total	4.87	1.23	6.57	1.74	6.21	1.67
TM (<i>N</i> = 14)	Request	3.00	1.17	5.21	.89	4.85	.66
	Refusal	2.71	.82	3.71	1.06	3.35	.74
	Total	5.71	1.72	8.92	1.38	8.21	.97

Descriptive statistics indicated that both the FF group ($M = 6.57$, $SD = 1.74$) and TM group ($M = 8.92$, $SD = 1.38$) had greater improvements than the Control group ($M = 6.34$, $SD = 1.26$) on the immediate post-test comprehension scores. In order to test the significance of these improvements, a separate mixed-model ANOVA was performed on MDCT scores. Tables 4.10 and 4.11 illustrate the Sphericity and mixed-model ANOVA results.

Table 4.10

Mauchly's Test of Sphericity

Within Subject Effect	Mauchly's W	Approx. Chi-Square	df	p	Greenhouse-Geisser	Epsilon b Huynh-Feldt	Lower-bound
Time	.91	3.64	2	.162	.92	1.00	.50
Time x speech act	.97	1.15	2	.563	.97	1.00	.50

The results of the Mauchly's test of sphericity indicated that the assumption of sphericity had been met in comprehension results ($p = .162$ for time and $p = .563$ for time by speech act), so mixed-ANOVA results are reported with the sphericity assumed condition. Table 4.11 presents mixed-model ANOVA results on MDCT.

Table 4.11

Mixed-model ANOVA tests of CF; main and interaction effects in comprehension

Source		Type III SS	df	MS	F	p	η_p^2
Time	Sphericity Assumed	31.90	2	15.93	36.91	.000	.47
	Greenhouse-Geisser	31.90	1.84	17.34	36.91	.000	.47
Time x Group	Sphericity Assumed	23.10	4	5.77	13.36	.000	.39
	Greenhouse-Geisser	23.10	3.68	6.28	13.36	.000	.39

Error (time)	Sphericity	35.43	82	.43
	Assumed			
	Greenhouse- Geisser	35.43	75.43	.47

Similar to results in production, the results in comprehension show that there was a significant main effect of time, $F(2, 82) = 36.91, p = .000, \eta^2 = .47$. This effect tells us that comprehension performances were significantly different in pre-test, immediate post-test and delayed post-test. The interaction effect between group and time was also significant, $F(2.28, 46.91) = 5.04, p = .008, \eta_p^2 = .19$. This indicates that the three groups significantly differed from each other in the three time points but cannot tell us the source of the significance. To identify between-group differences, the one-way ANOVA test revealed similar results to production. There was a statistically significant difference between comprehension mean scores in three groups both in the immediate post-test ($F(2, 41) = 13.10, p = .000, \eta_p^2 = .39$) and in the delayed post-test ($F(2, 41) = 14.36, p = .000, \eta_p^2 = .41$). This shows that CF was effective for improving pragmatic comprehension. Table 4.12 illustrates these results.

Table 4.12

One-Way Analysis of Variance of Comprehension scores in Immediate and Delayed Post-test

	Source	SS	df	MS	F	p	η_p^2
Immediate Post-test	Between Groups	56.43	2	28.21	13.10	.000	.39
	Within Groups	88.29	41	2.5			
	Total	144.72	43				
Delayed Post-test	Between Groups	44.59	2	22.29	14.36	.000	.41
	Within Groups	63.65	41	1.55			
	Total	108.25	43				

Pairwise post- hoc comparisons revealed a strong evidence of difference between Control group and TM group in comprehension of speech acts both immediate post-test ($MD = -2.49, p = .000$) and delayed post-test ($MD = -2.27, p = .000$). However, the difference between the Control and FF groups was not significant in either immediate post-test ($MD = -.13, p = .969$) or in the delayed post-test ($MD = -.27, p = .832$). This shows that FF delivery was not an effective way to improve pragmatic comprehension of the participants. On the other hand, delivering CF through technology helped learners significantly improve.

In summary, the results in the above analyses provide a positive response to the first research question of the study because corrective feedback treatment in general had a significant effect on improving production and comprehension of the target features.

4.4 Research Question 2: The Differential Effects of Corrective Feedback on Comprehension vs. Production

In order to answer the second research question “Are there any differential effects of feedback on comprehension versus production?” the results of the one-way ANOVAs were compared. As discussed in the previous section, CF had statistically significant effects on improving both pragmatic comprehension and production in both post-tests. Although these results show that CF treatment affected both comprehension and production similarly, effect sizes can show the magnitude of the significance, i.e. how much CF has affected comprehension and production. Comparisons between effect sizes showed slightly larger effect sizes in production. More specifically, in production, effect sizes were $\eta_p^2 = .43$ in immediate post-test and $\eta_p^2 = .45$ in the delayed post-test. In comprehension, effect sizes were $\eta_p^2 = .39$ in immediate post-test and $\eta_p^2 = .41$ in the delayed post-test. As can be noticed, the effect sizes in

comprehension and production results are very close. This shows that CF did not have differential effects on comprehension and production. The answer to the second research question is therefore negative because CF influenced comprehension and production similarly and improved both significantly. Figures 4.1 illustrates feedback effects on the comprehension and production of the three groups (Control, FF, TM) over the three time points (pre, post, delayed tests).

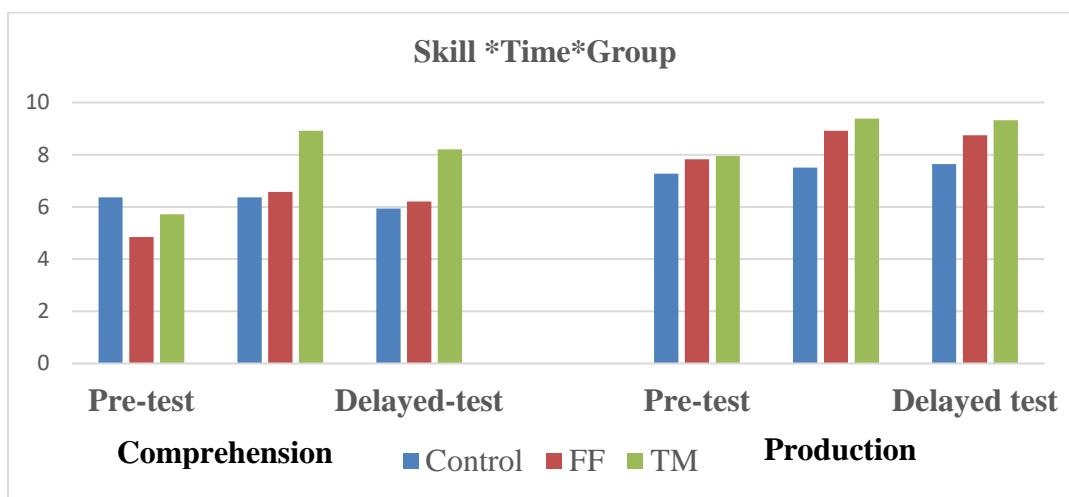


Figure 4.1. Comprehension and production of the three groups over the three time points

4.5 Research question 3: Delivery Mode of Corrective Feedback: The Comparison Between Face-to-Face (FF) and Technology-Mediated (TM) Groups

This section answers the third research question “Does the delivery mode of feedback (FF vs. TM) make any difference on the learning of L2 pragmatics?” For testing the mean differences between the FF and TM groups in production and comprehension scores, the results of the same one-way ANOVAs produced in analyzing the first research question were used. Both ANOVAs included multiple pairwise comparisons between groups both on the immediate post-test and the delayed post-test scores.

4.5.1 Delivery Mode: Production Results

Pairwise comparisons between groups in production (RP) results showed that there were no significant differences between the two treatment groups (FF and TM) either in immediate post-test ($M = .47, p = .436$) or in delayed post-test ($M = .57, p = .182$). This shows that both ways of Face-to-Face and Technology-Mediated delivery of CF had been equally effective on improving pragmatic production of the participants. In other words, delivery mode did not make a significant difference on the production of speech acts since both FF and TM groups did similarly well on the production measure.

4.5.2 Delivery Mode: Comprehension Results

Pairwise comparisons between groups in the ANOVA test showed a significant difference between the two treatment delivery modes (TM vs. FF) both in immediate post-test ($MD = 2.35, p = .001$), and delayed post-test ($MD = 2.00, p = .001$). Significantly higher scores in the technology-mediated group indicate that corrective feedback was more effective in improving participants' pragmatic comprehension when delivered through technology mean of *Wechat* mobile application than when delivered Face-to-Face.

In summary, these results indicate that the mode of delivering CF has influenced comprehension and production differently. While both ways of FF and TM delivery of CF had been equally effective on the production, TM was a more effective means of delivering CF in comprehension than FF. Therefore, the answer to research question two is positive with respect to comprehension since TM delivery mode was more effective on the comprehension of target speech acts, and negative in production since the delivery mode of CF did not make a difference on the production of the speech acts.

4.6 Research question 4: The Type of speech acts: Comparison between Requests and Refusals

In order to answer the fourth research question of the study “Does the type of speech act (i.e. request and refusal) influence the effect of CF?” the results of the initial mixed-model ANOVA were used. Follow-up one-way ANOVAs with multiple post-hoc comparisons were conducted to identify the source of any significant effects or interactions revealed by the mixed-model test. As with the analysis of data for the previous research questions, effect sizes (partial Eta Squared, η_p^2) for each instrument on the request and refusal speech act items were calculated.

The next two sections present the results on requests and refusals in the production and comprehension measures.

4.6.1 Request and Refusals: RP Production Results

The relevant results regarding speech act type main and interaction effects from the initial mixed-model ANOVA were used for this discussion (Table 4.13 below).

Table 4.13

Mixed-model ANOVA tests of speech act type; main and interaction effects in production

Source		Type III SS	df	MS	F	p	η_p^2
Speech act	Sphericity Assumed	21.16	1	21.16	445.02	.000	.91
	Greenhouse-Geisser	21.16	1.00	21.16	445.02	.000	.91
Speech act x Group	Sphericity Assumed	.043	2	.02	.45	.641	.02
	Greenhouse-Geisser	.043	2.00	.02	.45	.641	.02
Error (speech act)	Sphericity Assumed	1.95	41	.04			
	Greenhouse-Geisser	1.95	41.00	.04			

Time x Speech act	Sphericity	1.61	2	.58	28.01	.000	.40
	Assumed Greenhouse- Geisser	1.61	1.50	.77	28.01	.000	.40
Time x Speech act x Group	Sphericity	.479	4	.12	5.78	.000	.22
	Assumed Greenhouse- Geisser	.479	3.01	.15	5.78	.001	.22
Error (Time x Speech act)	Sphericity	1.69	82				
	Assumed Greenhouse- Geisser	1.69	61.73				

The results showed a main effect of speech act type, $F(1, 41) = 445.02, p = .000, \eta_p^2 = .91$). This means that there were statistically significant differences between requests and refusals since participants (regardless of the treatment group or the time of testing) performed significantly better in requests ($M = 8.73$) than in refusals ($M = 7.07$) in immediate post-test. The interaction between time and speech act was also significant, $F(2, 82) = 28.01, p = .000, \eta_p^2 = .40$. This means that there were significant differences between request and refusals in time 1, 2 and 3. However, these results include the Control group and pre-test scores and cannot be interpreted as the effect of CF treatment. The interaction effect between speech act type and group can be used to examine CF effects. These results were not significant ($F(2, 41) = .45, p = .641, \eta_p^2 = .02$). This shows that there were no differences between the groups in the production of the two speech acts. In other words, different CF treatments have influenced the two speech acts similarly. However, the three-way interaction between time by speech act by group was significant ($F(4, 82) = 5.78, p = .000, \eta_p^2 = .22$). This interaction effect shows that the three groups had significant differences in the production of requests and refusals at the three time points. Since treatment (group) did not have a significant interaction with speech act, the groups were merged and the two speech acts were compared in post-test. The results showed slightly

larger effect sizes for requests ($\eta_p^2 = .44$ in RP) than refusals ($\eta_p^2 = .41$ in RP). Figure 4.2 illustrate learners' performance in requests and refusals in the production measure regardless of the group in time1, 2, and 3.

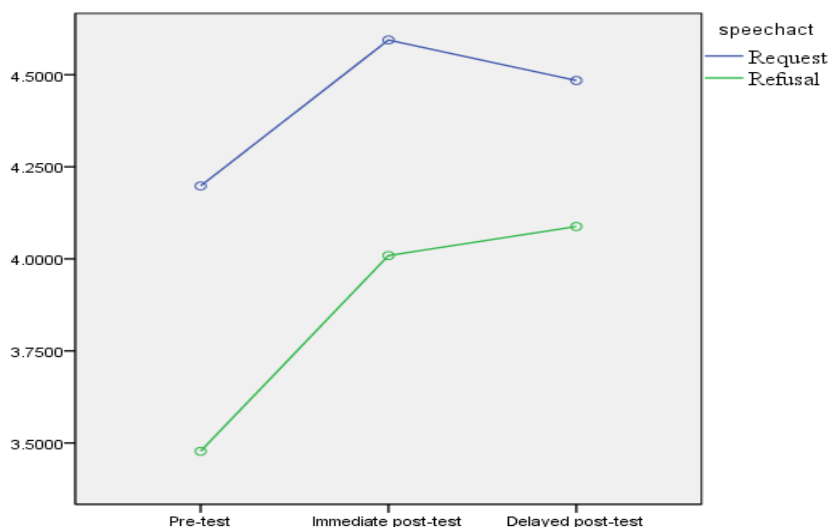


Figure 4.2. Speech acts of request and refusal in RP test (production)

While the above mixed-model ANOVA results can indicate significant or insignificant main and interaction effects, they do not specify between-group differences and the source of the significance. Therefore, a separate one-way ANOVA was conducted on the production scores of the two speech acts at the three time points. The results are illustrated in Table 4.14.

Table 4.14

One-way ANOVA on the speech acts in production

Speech act, test	Source	<i>SS</i>	<i>df</i>	<i>MS</i>	<i>F</i>	<i>p</i>
Request, Pre-test	Between groups	2.12	2	2.12	2.97	.062
	Within groups	14.60	41	.356		
	Total	16.72	43			
Refusal, Pre-test	Between groups	.513	2	.25	.575	.567
	Within groups	18.31	41	.44		
	Total	18.82	43			

Request,	Between groups	6.94	2	3.47		
Post-test	Within groups	8.85	41	.21	16.08	.000
	Total	15.79	43			
Refusal,	Between groups	7.76	2	3.88		
Post-test	Within groups	10.81	41	.26	14.63	.000
	Total	18.63	43			
Request,	Between groups	4.92	2	2.46		
Delayed	Within groups	6.30	41	.154	16.02	.000
Post-test	Total	11.23	43			
Refusal,	Between groups	6.10	2	3.05		
Delayed	Within groups	7.53	41	.184	16.62	.000
Post-test	Total	13.64	43			

In time 1 (pre-test), there were no significant differences between the three groups in the production of requests and refusals $F(2, 41) = 2.97, p = .06$ for requests and $F(2, 41) = .57, p = .56$ for refusals which means that the three groups started the experiment with similar accuracy levels in the production on both speech acts. In the immediate post-test, the ANOVA results showed that the effect of treatment was significant both on requests ($F(2, 41) = 16.08, p = .000$) and on refusals ($F(2, 41) = 14.63, p = .000$). Similar improvements in the two speech act types after receiving CF treatment indicates that speech act type does not influence CF effects.

Between-group multiple comparisons on requests indicated that both FF and TM treatment groups were significantly better than the Control group. More specifically, there were significant differences between FF group and Control group ($MD = .50, p = .001$) and between TM group and Control group ($MD = .93, p = .000$). However, there was no significant difference between the FF and TM groups ($MD = .28, p = .273$). In the production of refusals both FF and TM treatment groups were also significantly better than the Control group. Again, there was a significant difference between FF group and Control group ($M = .76, p = .001$) as well as between TM group and control group ($M = .95, p = .000$). However, similar to requests, there was no significant difference between the FF and TM groups ($M = .18, p = .64$). These results

indicate that although CF is effective on the production of requests and refusals, the delivery mode (FF and TM) makes no significant difference. In other words, both FF and TM modes were equally effective on the production of both requests and refusals.

The delayed post-test results in production were very similar to the immediate post-test results. In the delayed post-test, the treatment effect was significant on requests, $F(2, 41) = 16.08, p = .000$ as well as on refusals $F(2, 41) = 14.63, p = .000$. This indicates that CF effects were similarly maintained overtime and speech act type did not influence the durability of CF effects either. Between-group differences were also the same as the immediate post-test results. In requests, there were significant differences between FF group and Control group ($MD = .53, p = .002$) and between TM group and Control group ($MD = .78, p = .000$). However, again there was no significant difference between the FF and TM groups ($MD = .25, p = .243$). In refusals, also there were significant differences between FF group and Control group ($M = .56, p = .003$) as well as between TM group and Control group ($M = .88, p = .000$). However, similar to previous results in production, there was no significant difference between the FF and TM groups ($M = .32, p = .153$).

In summary, the production results indicate that both treatment groups gained a significant improvement from feedback treatment both in requests and refusals as demonstrated in both immediate and delayed post-test results. Moreover, similar trends of improvement in requests and refusals show that the type of the speech act did not influence CF results. Therefore, the answer to the fifth question of the study is negative in production because the type of the speech act did not influence CF effects.

4.6.2 Request and Refusals: Comprehension (MDCT) Results

Turning to the difference between requests and refusals in comprehension, the initial mixed-model ANOVA on comprehension showed a main effect of speech act type, $F(1, 41) = 43.61, p = .000, \eta_p^2 = .44$). Similar to production results, this means that there were statistically significant differences between requests and refusals since participants (regardless of the treatment group or the time of testing) performed significantly better in requests. The interaction between time and speech act was also significant ($F(2, 82) = 8.30, p = .001, \eta_p^2 = .16$) which means that there were significant differences between request and refusals in time 1, 2 and 3. These results, however, include the Control group and pre-test scores and cannot be interpreted as the effect of CF treatment. The interaction effect between speech act type and group were used to examine CF effects. These results were not significant ($F(2, 41) = 1.18, p = .371, \eta_p^2 = .05$). This shows that there are no differences between the groups in the comprehension of the two speech acts. In other words, different CF treatments have influenced the two speech acts similarly. The three-way interaction between time by speech act by group was not significant in comprehension ($F(4, 82) = 2.34, p = .061, \eta_p^2 = .10$). This shows that the three groups did not have significant differences in the comprehension of requests and refusals at the three time points. Table 4.15 presents the mixed-model ANOVA results in comprehension.

Table 4.15

Mixed-model ANOVA tests of speech act type; main and interaction effects in comprehension

Source		Type III SS	df	MS	F	p	η_p^2
Speech act	Sphericity Assumed	43.61	1	43.61	32.36	.000	.44
	Greenhouse-Geisser	43.61	1.00	43.61	32.36	.000	.44
Speech act x Group	Sphericity Assumed	3.18	2	1.59	1.18	.317	.05

	Greenhouse-Geisser	3.18	2.00	1.59	1.18	.317	.05
Error (Speech act)	Sphericity Assumed	55.25	41	1.34			
	Greenhouse-Geisser	55.25	41.00	1.34			
Time x Speech act	Sphericity Assumed	13.12	2	6.56	8.32	.001	.16
	Greenhouse-Geisser	13.12	1.95	6.74	8.32	.001	.16
Time x Speech act x Group	Sphericity Assumed	7.41	4	1.85	2.34	.061	.10
	Greenhouse-Geisser	7.41	3.89	1.90	2.34	.063	.10
Error (Time x Speech act)	Sphericity Assumed	64.82	82				
	Greenhouse-Geisser	64.82	79.73				

Same as production results, since treatment (group) did not have a significant interaction with speech act, the groups were merged and the two speech acts were compared in post-test. Again, the results showed larger effect sizes for requests ($\eta_p^2 = .30$) than refusals ($\eta_p^2 = .22$). Figure 4.3 illustrate learners' performance in requests and refusals in comprehension regardless of the group in time 1, 2, and 3.

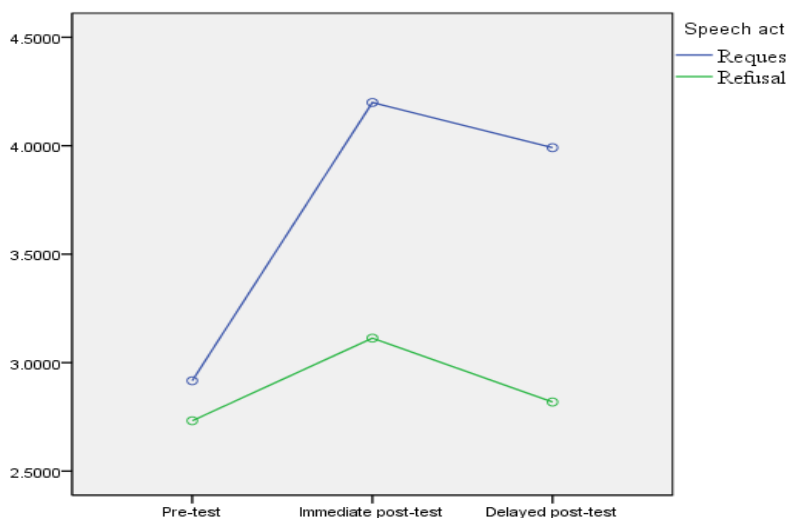


Figure 4.3. Speech acts of request and refusal in MDCT measure (comprehension)

While the above mixed-model ANOVA shows main and interaction effects, it does not specify between-group differences or show which speech act at which time point was significantly better than the other. Therefore, a one-way ANOVA was performed on the comprehension scores of the two speech acts at the three time points. Table 4.16 presents the ANOVA results.

Table 4.16

One-way ANOVA results on the comprehension of requests and refusals

Speech act, test	Source	SS	df	MS	F	p
Request, Pre-test	Between groups	4.29	2	2.14	2.17	.127
	Within groups	40.50	41	.98		
	Total	44.79	43			
Refusal, Pre-test	Between groups	4.42	2	2.21	2.28	.115
	Within groups	39.82	41	.97		
	Total	44.25	43			
Request, Post-test	Between groups	22.32	2	11.16	9.11	.001
	Within groups	50.22	41	1.22		
	Total	72.54	43			
Refusal, Post-test	Between groups	9.02	2	4.51	6.04	.005
	Within groups	30.60	41	.74		
	Total	39.63	43			
Request, Delayed Post-test	Between groups	20.82	2	10.41	11.51	.000
	Within groups	37.08	41	.90		
	Total	57.90	43			
Refusal, Delayed Post-test	Between groups	5.53	2	2.76	2.84	.070
	Within groups	38.88	41	.97		
	Total	44.41	43			

As the table shows, at time 1(pre-test), there was no significant difference between the three groups in the comprehension of the speech acts, $F(2, 41) = 2.17, p = .127$ for requests and $F(2, 41) = 2.28, p = .115$ for refusals. This means that all groups started the experiment at similar levels. The results in the immediate post-test showed a significant difference between groups in requests ($F(2, 41) = 9.11, p = 0.001$) and in refusals ($F(2, 41) = 6.04, p = 0.005$).

These results indicate that CF treatment was similarly effective on the comprehension of both requests and refusals and therefore speech act type did not influence CF effects.

Pairwise comparisons in comprehension showed that in requests, there was no statistically significant difference between the FF groups and Control ($MD = .24, p = .838$) while there was a significant difference between TM group and Control group ($MD = 1.4, p = .005$). This means that feedback treatment was more effective on requests when it was TM than when delivered Face-to-Face. Similarly, in refusals there was no significant difference between FF group and Control group ($MD = .37, p = .501$) but a significant difference between TM group and Control ($MD = 1.08, p = .005$). Similar between-group differences in requests and refusals show that these two speech acts behaved similarly under corrective feedback treatment, in other words, the type of the speech acts did not influence the effect of CF.

In the delayed post-test, there was a significant difference between groups in requests ($F(2, 41) = 11.51, p = .000$) but no statistically significant effect in refusals ($F(2, 41) = 2.84, p = 0.07$). This indicates that CF effects were maintained on the comprehension of requests but were not maintained in refusals. In other words, speech act type can influence the *durability* of CF effects in comprehension. Post-hoc comparisons revealed that the source of the significance in requests was between the Control group and TM groups ($MD = -1.60, p = .000$). The differences between both Control and FF groups and between FF and TM groups were not statistically significant. The finding that TM group outperformed other groups shows that technology can be an effective mode for delivering CF not only in comprehending speech acts but also in maintaining the effects. However, additional research is still needed in this area to confirm these results and submit them to careful statistical analysis.

To sum up, the insignificant result of the interaction between speech act type and group (in the mixed-model ANOVA) as well as the similar improvement trends in the two speech acts in the immediate post-test show that CF has influenced the two speech acts of request and refusal similarly. Therefore, the response to the fifth research question “(does speech act type influence CF effects?)” is negative in both comprehension and production measures since speech act type did not influence CF effects and both requests and refusals improved similarly in the immediate post-test. However, better performances in requests (simple speech act) in all three groups in both RP and MDCT measures and less durable effects on refusals (complex) may imply that there might be an order in the acquisition of speech acts based on their structural and pragmatic complexity. This is discussed in more details in the next chapter. Figure 4.4 summarizes the findings on both speech acts in the three groups and at the three time points.

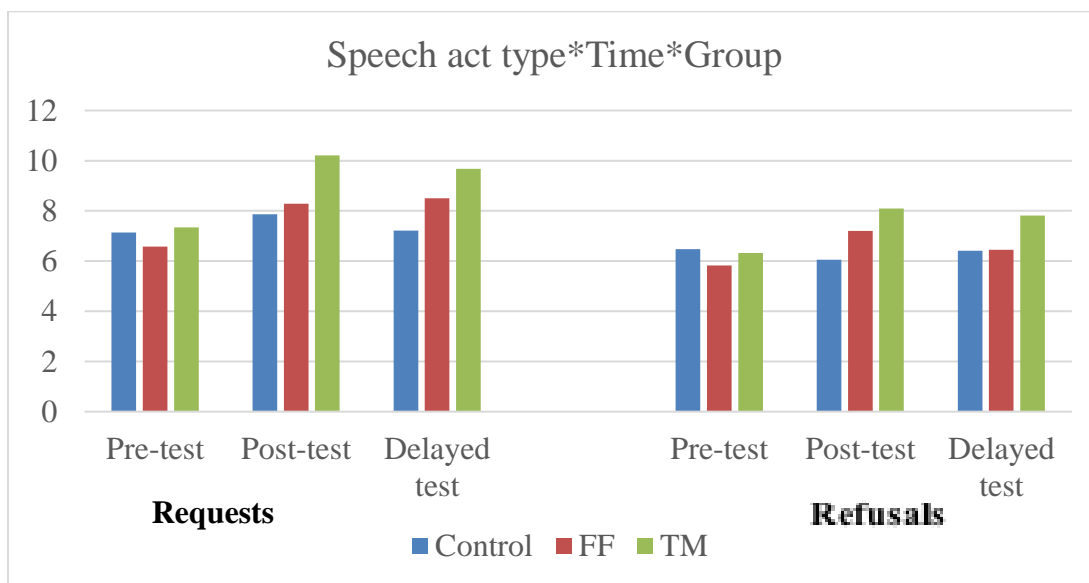


Figure 4.4. Interaction of time by speech act type by group

4.7 Research question 5: The Retention of Corrective Feedback Effects in Comprehension and Production

This section addresses the last research question, “Is the effect of feedback on comprehension and production, if any, maintained over time?” The purpose of this analysis is to examine if the students can retain the learning targets three weeks after the CF treatment. In other words, this section discusses whether CF feedback effects are durable on the pragmatic comprehension and production of the participants. The next two sections present the results in production and comprehension.

4.7.1 Retention of CF Effects: Production (RP) Results

As the results of the initial mixed-model ANOVA (see section 4.3) showed, there was a significant effect of time in production, $F(1.14, 46.91) = 39.10, p = .000, \eta_p^2 = .50$ as well as a significant interaction of time by group $F(2.28, 46.91) = 5.04, p = .008, \eta_p^2 = .19$. This shows there was a significant difference between time 1 (pre-test), time 2 (immediate post-test), and time 3 (delayed post-test) between groups. However, mixed-model does not reveal the source of the differences. Therefore, separate one-way ANOVAs with Scheffe post-hoc multiple comparisons were performed.

Results of the one-way ANOVA showed no significant difference between the groups in the pre-test which means that the three groups started the experiment with similar levels of pragmatic ability. As mentioned in section 4.3, there was a significant difference in the immediate post-test ($F(2, 41) = 15.96, p = .000, \eta_p^2 = .43$) which means that there was an improvement after the CF treatment. There was also a significant effect in the delayed post-test ($F(2, 41) = 16.90, p = .000, \eta_p^2 = .45$) which means that the effects of CF were maintained until

the delayed post-test (See ANOVA Table 4.8). Table 4.17 summarizes multiple comparisons between groups in the three time points in production.

Table 4.17

Multiple comparisons in production scores in the three time points

Group		Time 1 (Pre-test)		Time 2 (Immediate Post-test)		Time 3 (Delayed Post-test)	
		Mean Difference (I-J)	<i>p</i>	Mean Difference (I-J)	<i>p</i>	Mean Difference (I-J)	<i>p</i>
<i>Control</i>	<i>FF</i>	-.59	.421	-1.41*	.001	-1.10*	.002
	<i>TM</i>	-.70	.296	-1.88*	.000	-1.67*	.000
<i>FF</i>	<i>Control</i>	.59	.421	1.41*	.001	1.10*	.002
	<i>TM</i>	-.11	.970	-.47	.436	-.57	.182
<i>TM</i>	<i>Control</i>	.70	.296	1.88*	.000	1.67*	.000
	<i>FF</i>	.11	.970	.47	.436	.57	.182

As the results show that at time 1 (pre-test), there were no significant differences between the three groups. At time 2 (immediate post-test) and time 3 (delayed post-test) both FF and TM groups outperformed the Control group significantly while there was no significant difference between the two (FF vs. TM). Similar findings in time 2 and time 3 as well as significant time effects in mixed-model ANOVA show that the effects of both CF delivery modes were equally durable.

4.7.2 Retention of CF Effects: Comprehension (MDCT) Results

Since the results of the initial mixed-model ANOVA (reported in section 4.3) on comprehension scores showed a significant main effect of time ($F(2, 82) = 36.91, p = .000, \eta_p^2 = .474$), further analyses were done to identify the source of the significance. As mentioned earlier, there was no significant difference between the groups in the pre-test which means that the three groups started the experiment with similar levels of pragmatic comprehension. The results of the one-way ANOVA (Table 4.11) showed that there was a significant difference in the immediate

post-test ($F(2, 41) = 13.10, p = .000$), which means that there was an improvement after the CF treatment. There was also a significant effect in the delayed post-test ($F(2, 41) = 14.36, p = .000$) which means that the effects of CF were maintained overtime. Moreover, post-hoc comparisons show that at time 2 (immediate post-test) and time 3 (delayed post-test), there were no significant differences between Control and FF group. This means that FF delivery of CF did not significantly improve pragmatic comprehension. However, there was a significant difference between Control group and TM group in the immediate post-test ($MD = -2.49, p = .000$) which means that technology-mediated feedback has improved pragmatic comprehension. The significance of this difference was maintained overtime because again in the delayed post-test, there was a significant difference between these two groups (Control vs. TM), ($MD = -2.27, p = .000$). There were also significant differences between FF and TM groups in both immediate ($MD = -2.35, p = .001$) and delayed post-tests ($MD = -2.00, p = .001$). Again, this shows that TM feedback was more effective in improving pragmatic comprehension and that wherever there was a significant effect, it was maintained overtime. Table 4.18 summarizes multiple comparisons between groups in the three time points in comprehension.

Table 4.18

Multiple comparisons in comprehension

Group		Time 1 (Pre-test)		Time 2 (Immediate Post-test)		Time 3 (Delayed Post-test)	
(I)	(J)	Mean Difference (I-J)	p	Mean Difference (I-J)	p	Mean Difference (I-J)	p
Control	FF	.99	.108	-.13	.969	-.27	.832
	TM	.88	.155	-2.49*	.000	-2.27*	.000
FF	Control	-.99	.108	.13	.969	.27	.832
	TM	-.10	.974	-2.35*	.001	-2.00*	.001
TM	Control	-.88	.155	2.49*	.000	2.27*	.000
	FF	.10	.974	2.35*	.001	2.00*	.001

In summary, the results from the mixed-model ANOVA (significant effect of time and time by group) and above one-way ANOVAs reveal that the significant effects of corrective feedback were maintained in comprehension and production over time. In response to research question 4, it is therefore concluded that feedback treatment in general has helped participants maintain learning effects from immediate post-test to delayed post-test in a period of three weeks both in production and comprehension.

Figures 4.5 and 4.6 summarize the findings related to time effect in comprehension and production

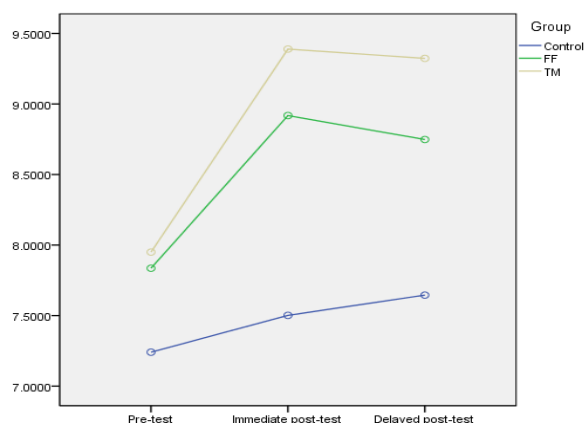


Figure 4.5. The three groups' performance on the RP pre-test and the two post-tests

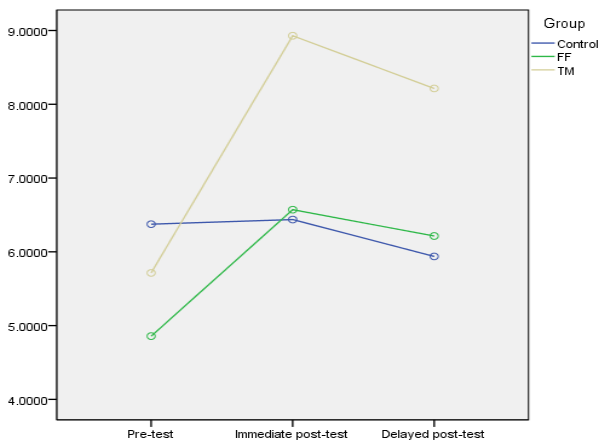


Figure 4.6. The three groups' performance on the MDCT pre-test and the two post-tests

4.8 Summary

In this chapter, the results of the MDCT test (comprehension) and the RP test (production) were presented. The quantitative data were analyzed through two mixed-model ANOVAs followed by one-way ANOVAs and Scheffe post-hoc tests. From the analysis, five research questions were answered. The answer to the first research question on the effects of CF was positive in that corrective feedback improved both pragmatic comprehension and production significantly. The answer to the second research question on differential effects of CF on comprehension and production was negative because CF influenced both skills similarly. The answer to the third research question on the effects of delivery mode was negative in production and positive in comprehension. There was no significant difference between the FF and the TM treatment groups in production scores while the TM group performance was significantly better than the FF group's performance in comprehension. The answer to the fourth research question about the effects of the type of speech act was negative both in comprehension and production. The type of the speech act (request vs. refusal) did not influence CF effects as both speech acts improved similarly under CF treatment. Finally, there was a positive answer to the last research question about maintaining feedback effects over time. CF effects were maintained both in production and comprehension three weeks after the treatment. Table 4.19 provides a summary of the findings discussed above. The following chapter will interpret the results in detail and will provide the conclusions and implications of the study.

Table 4.19

Summary of Research Questions and Findings

Research Question: Answer
RQ1. Does CF have any effect on the learning of L2 pragmatics? In general, yes. Significant one-way ANOVAs on comprehension and production. See below for pairwise comparisons.

RQ2. Does CF have any differential effects on comprehension versus production? In general no. As shown below, ANOVAs on both comprehension and production are significant and effect sizes are similar, but the effects also seem to be affected by delivery mode, see the next question.			
Comprehension test	immediate post-test	Significant, large effect size: $\eta_p^2 = .39$	TM vs. Control: sig. FF vs. Control: not sig.
Production test	immediate post-test	Significant, large effect size: $\eta_p^2 = .43$	TM vs. Control: sig. FF vs. Control: sig.
RQ3. Does the delivery mode of feedback (FF vs. TM) make any difference on the learning of L2 pragmatics? Yes, differential effects in comprehension, but not in production.			
Comprehension	immediate post-test delayed post-test	Significant Significant	FF vs. TM: sig. FF vs. TM: sig.
Production	immediate post-test delayed post-test	Not Significant Not Significant	FF vs. TM: not sig. FF vs. TM: not sig.
RQ4. Does the type of speech act (i.e. request and refusal) influence the learning of the speech acts? No, similar results for requests and refusals in each test.			
Comprehension	immediate post-test	Request: Significant Refusal: Significant	Request: TM vs. Control: sig. Request: FF vs. Control: not sig. Refusal: TM vs. Control: sig. Refusal: FF vs. Control: not sig.
Production	immediate post-test	Request: Significant Refusal: Significant	Request: TM vs. Control: sig. Request: FF vs. Control: sig. Refusal: TM vs. Control: sig. Refusal: FF vs. Control: sig.
RQ5. Is the effect of feedback on comprehension and production, if any, maintained over time? Yes, similar results on the immediate and delayed post-tests.			
Comprehension	delayed post-test	Significant	TM vs. Control: sig. FF vs. Control: not sig. TM vs. FF: sig.
Production	delayed post-test	Significant	TM vs. Control: sig. FF vs. Control: sig. TM vs. FF: not sig.

All of the findings presented in this chapter are explored further in Chapter 5. The fifth chapter discusses and interprets these findings based on the background theories of the study and previous research

CHAPTER FIVE: DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

5.0 Introduction

This chapter discusses the findings of the study by comparing the results with the related literature and the theoretical frameworks of the study. This chapter also presents the theoretical and pedagogical implications of the study; including those of the effect of CF on the development of pragmatic competence and implications for using technology as a means of delivering CF. This is followed by a discussion of the limitations of the current study and directions for future research. The following table summarizes the findings presented in chapter four as related to each research question.

Table 5.1

Summary of findings

Research Question	Findings
1. Does CF have any effect on the learning of L2 pragmatics?	Yes, there were statistically significant effects for CF both in comprehension and production in immediate and delayed post-tests.
2. Does CF have any differential effects on comprehension versus production?	No, CF effects were comparable in comprehension and production results. CF improved comprehension and production similarly in immediate and delayed post-tests.
3. Does the delivery mode of feedback (FF vs. TM) make any difference on the learning of L2 pragmatics?	No in production but yes in comprehension: there was no statistically significant difference between FF and TM treatment in production (RP test) but there was a statistically significant difference between FF and TM treatments in comprehension (MDCT) with TM group outperforming FF.
4. Does the type of speech act (i.e. request and refusal) influence the learning of the speech acts?	No, there was no statistically significant interaction between speech act type and group in comprehension and production. Both speech acts improved significantly in both RP and MDCT measures. Larger effect sizes for requests in RP and MDCT than refusals.
5. Is the effect of feedback on comprehension	Yes, learning effects were retained in

and production, if any, maintained over time?	production (RP test) and comprehension (MDCT) with similar findings in time 2 and time 3.
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5.1 The Overall Effect of Corrective Feedback

The first research question explored whether corrective feedback facilitates learners' ability to comprehend and produce pragmatic speech acts. In order to address whether or not CF had an effect on adult ESL learners' comprehension and production of pragmatically appropriate speech acts, the scores on the multiple-choice discourse completion test (MDCT) and role-play test (RP) were examined. Descriptive statistics in both tests showed that both the FF and TM group had improved from the pre-test to the post-test. The significant interaction of time by group in the mixed-model ANOVA results as well as significant one-way ANOVA results on post-test performance on both comprehension and production tests supported the first research hypothesis and revealed an overall significant effect of CF. Thus, the answer to Research Question 1 is that CF had a significant effect on the comprehension and production of pragmatically appropriate speech acts. However, comprehension results should be discussed with more caution due to the lower reliability rates of the MDCT test (see 3.4).

The reason for the effectiveness of CF can be explained by the special type of feedback which was used. In this study, corrective feedback was operationalized as corrective recasts (Doughty & Valera, 1998) which was a combination of a repetition followed by a recast. This type of recasting is slightly more explicit than simple recasting. More specifically, immediately after a non-target-like form was produced by a learner, the teachers of the treatment groups repeated the error with rising intonation and then provided the correct form in a recast. Carroll (2001) pointed out that corrective feedback works only if learners notice the corrective intentions

and are able to locate the error. From the noticing hypothesis perspective (Schmidt, 1993), the role of corrective feedback in learning L2 pragmatics is to help learners notice the pragmatic errors they make. The combination of recast with a more explicit form of feedback such as repetition or clarification request might have increased the chances for the learners to notice the errors. Since recasts do not overtly indicate the existence of an error and may or may not help with locating the error, the inclusion of more explicit corrective feedback types could have helped not only make the corrective intentions clear to the learners, but also assist in locating the erroneous part. According to Guo (2013), “It has been argued that the corrective purpose of most explicit corrective feedback is generally more salient, and as a result, the corrective function is easier for learners to notice, especially in classroom settings” (p. 79). Employing a repetition and a recast helped to draw learners’ attention to problematic linguistic and pragmatic features and subsequently provided a specific exemplar so that learners could make a comparison between their interlanguage utterance and the teacher’s recast.

The effectiveness of this particular type of CF was also found in previous research (e.g., Doughty & Varela, 1998; Long, Inagaki, & Ortega, 1998). For example, Doughty and Valera (1998) used corrective recast on English past tense and found that learners in the treatment group had a statistically significant improvement in their oral performance ($p = .01$, $\eta^2 = .79$). The positive effects of CF found in the present study are in line with previous research on the effectiveness of CF in general. The most convincing evidence comes from the meta-analyses of CF research (e.g. Li, 2010; Lyster & Saito, 2010; Mackey & Goo, 2007), which all showed that CF has significant effects on L2 learning, with the magnitude of the effects ranging from medium to large.

In L2 pragmatics, the majority of previous work has focused on the effect of instruction

on the acquisition of pragmatic competence (e.g., Bardovi-Harlig & Mahan-Taylor 2003; Ishihara & Cohen, 2010; Martinez-Flor & Uso -Juan 2006; Nguyen, 2013; Sykes & Cohen 2006; Taguchi, 2007) however, there has been relatively little attempt to link corrective feedback to interlanguage pragmatics (e.g., Fukuya & Zhang, 2002; Nguyen et al., 2012; Nguyen et al., 2015; Takimoto, 2006). The findings of this study suggest the applicability of recasting, or corrective feedback as a whole, to the pragmatic level. The positive effects of CF can extend beyond L2 grammar and vocabulary and include L2 pragmatic competence as well. One reason for the effectiveness of CF in this study can be the particular type of CF adopted which included recasting both pragmatically (sociopragmatic) and linguistically (pragmalinguistics) inappropriate utterances. Teachers in treatment groups reformulated either (a) an utterance that was pragmatically inappropriate, or (b) an utterance that was pragmatically appropriate but grammatically incorrect and thereby resulted in a change of the linguistic structure of the speech act. For instance, when a learner made an inappropriate request, the teacher corrected it using one of the target request conventions. Additionally, when the learner made an appropriate request but with an incorrect linguistic form, the teacher provided a recast of the form. The inclusion of recasts on both aspects of pragmatic competence helped learners improve pragmatic comprehension and production.

Another feature of the CF in this study which might have facilitated the comprehension and production of L2 pragmatics is that it was employed in an interactional context. This interaction included learner-learner-teacher. From the perspective of interaction hypothesis (Long, 1996), language learning takes place while learners engage in conversational interaction, receive feedback, struggle to reformulate and make their output comprehensible to their interlocutors. Long (2007) points out that recasts play an important role in presenting negative

evidence during interaction because they provide information about the target language just when the learner needs it, which leads to an efficient use of cognitive resources. The interactional feedback employed in this study during role-play conversations may have helped learners to notice the gap between their interlanguage and target language. Previous research (e.g., Iwashita, 2001; Oliver & Mackey, 2003) also suggests that teacher feedback provided during interaction might facilitate noticing, acquisition and retention of second language (L2) forms, and facilitate meaningful possibilities for learners to correct or modify their output production.

5.2 The Differential Effects of Corrective Feedback on Comprehension and Production

Regarding the second research question about differential effects of CF on comprehension and production, the findings of this study show that providing CF is equally effective in comprehension and production of pragmatic targets. Providing corrective recast on students' performance during pragmatics-focused activities can lead to their subsequent improvement in both producing and recognizing pragmatically appropriate speech acts. Therefore, we must reject the hypothesis that CF leads to better improvements in L2 pragmatic comprehension than L2 production.

The explanation can be that at the comprehension level, according to Taguchi et al. (2016), "L2 learners need a wide range of knowledge and skills, including linguistic knowledge (grammar and lexis), comprehension skills (listening and reading), and knowledge of interactional conventions in the target language culture" (p. 678). Corrective recasting employed in this study seems to have facilitated learners' understanding of linguistic and contextual cues and using them to infer the speaker's intentions. At the production level, based on Thomas (1995), L2 learners need the ability to perform speech functions appropriately in social contexts.

In L2 pragmatic production, ‘appropriateness’ is reflected at multiple levels. According to Taguchi (2006), it reflects the knowledge of the conventions of communication in a society (sociopragmatic), as well as linguistic abilities that enable learners to communicate successfully in L2 (pragmalinguistic). Providing CF on both these levels in this study facilitated learning of appropriate target speech acts.

Besides answering the second research question on pragmatic comprehension and production, the results in this study can contribute to Culpeper et al.’s (2018, p. 20) questions: “Are pragmatic comprehension and production related to each other? Does the ability to comprehend pragmatic meaning develop in parallel with the ability to convey meaning or does one precede the other?” Pragmatic comprehension and production are related to each other and there seems to be a parallel improvement in pragmatic comprehension and production under corrective feedback.

In summary, corrective feedback offers opportunities for learners to identify gaps between their interlanguage (IL) and the target language (TL), as well as to produce modified output (Long, 1996; Swain, 2005), thereby providing learners with the potential to reap both receptive and productive linguistic benefits from interaction (Ziegler & Mackey, 2017). Although in general there are no differential effects of CF on comprehension and production, the mode of delivery has influenced CF effects between the treatment groups. This is discussed in the following section.

5.3 Delivery Mode of Corrective Feedback

The third research question targeted the two different modes of delivering CF that were tested in the study: Face-to-Face (FF) classroom corrective feedback and Technology-Mediated (TM) corrective feedback. The overall question was whether or not the delivery mode of

feedback (FF vs. TM) makes any difference on the learning of L2 pragmatics. The third research question is divided into two sub-questions so that the effect of the CF treatment could be more precisely understood in terms of the participants' performance on each of the two instruments: the MDCT, and RP measures.

In the RP test, the results of this study demonstrate that the communication mode through which corrective feedback was provided did not make a difference to learners' production scores. In fact, CF provided during Face-to-Face classroom communication and during video-chat equally benefited L2 pragmatic production. It was predicted in Hypothesis 3 that the corrective feedback effects are similar in FF and TM delivery modes. This Hypothesis was confirmed as both ways of delivering feedback equally facilitated pragmatic production.

The reason might be that synchronous technology-mediated feedback in this study and Face-to-Face feedback had many similarities. Features of FF, such as short turns, real-time communication, and informality of discourse were also present in the TM environment. Ziegler and Mackey (2017) discuss feedback in FF versus CMC environments and note many similarities in the amount, type, and patterns of interaction in the two contexts.

The results of this study are in line with the findings of previous studies that indicated positive effects of CF in Face-to-Face instructional modes (e.g. Fukuya & Zhang, 2002; Koike & Pearson, 2005) as well as computer-mediated contexts (e.g. Nguyen et al., 2015). The lack of difference between the two treatment modes in production scores is consistent with previous findings that compared FF and TM delivery. For instance, Eslami and Liu (2013) did not find a statistically significant difference between their Teacher Instruction group and those in the CMC group on the post-test. However, they concluded that CMC is a "potentially beneficial channel for helping learners recognize the pragmatic features of the target language and "noticing" the

appropriate linguistic forms” (p. 66). Similarly, in another L2 pragmatics study, Sykes (2005) examined to what extent FF and different modes of CMC (written and oral chat) mediated the acquisition of Spanish refusal speech act. She found no statistically significant difference for pragmatic development across modalities, although qualitative analysis revealed that learners used more complex strategies in the written chat.

The similarity between FF and CMC modes for delivering CF was confirmed in other areas of second language acquisition as well. For example, Li’s (2010) meta-analysis showed that computer-delivered feedback (which is provided by an interlocutor through online communication programs or is embedded in the computer) and Face-to-Face feedback did not differ substantially in affecting L2 development (Fixed effect: $Q(1) = 0.1, p = .77$).

On the other hand, in comprehension the MDCT results showed that learners’ performance differed as a function of feedback mode for the MDCT measure. CF that was delivered through technology led to significant changes in pragmatic comprehension while FF delivery was not effective. In fact, there was no significant difference between FF and Control groups in comprehension either. The poor performance of FF group in comprehension has made the significant results of the TM group more visible. It appears that applying the “WeChat” mobile application as the communication channel for delivering CF improved pragmatic comprehension significantly. The answer to the third research question with respect to the comprehension component is positive in that delivery mode of CF influenced comprehension results.

Put together, comparisons between FF and TM modes in the two tests show that the TM feedback was generally more effective because FF feedback did not make significant

improvements in comprehension while TM feedback significantly improved both comprehension and production.

Different findings regarding FF and TM modes in the two tests in this study are also reflected in the literature. Previous research has demonstrated mixed and sometimes contradictory findings when comparing CMC and FF interaction in an L2 context (Lin, 2015). While some studies report the superiority of CMC over FF (e.g., Chang, 2008; Peterson, 2011, 2012; Zheng et al., 2009), some other studies report opposite findings (e.g., Blake et al., 2008; Loewen & Reissner, 2009; Rouhshad et al., 2016). Furthermore, different studies by the same researchers sometimes led to different findings. For example, while Blake and his colleagues reported significantly better oral performance of a CMC group over a Face-to-Face group in their 2008 study, Blake did not find such a result in a later study in 2009. Also, the two studies conducted by Chang (2007, 2008) revealed contradictory findings. In oral-based TM environments, while previous research on CF has undoubtedly provided some insights into the effectiveness of its tools, there is a scarcity of research that compared FF and TM modes in L2 pragmatics. To the best of my knowledge, this study is the first to investigate the effects of communication mode, pragmatic skills, and the interaction between these factors in the same study. Therefore, as Cunningham (2019) recommends, more research comparing equivalent groups across different learning environments is necessary for assessing the effect of CMC participation in comprehension of indirect meanings and to confirm or disconfirm these findings.

One explanation for the positive effects of TM mode in both comprehension and production might be that communicating through the medium of mobile devices (rather than direct Face-to-Face) could reduce anxiety (e.g. Kelm, 1992; Kern, 1995), and enhance motivation (Warschauer, 1996). According to Sykes (2005), CMC offers a powerful tool to

overcome some of the difficulties involved in L2 pragmatic development by “lessening the pragmatic pressure of the interaction and allowing more individualized control of the learning environment” (p. 404). For instances, in a study comparing the effect of pragmatic instruction in written chat, oral chat, and face-to-face communication, Sykes (2005) found that “the traditional FF communication was by far the highest-pressure interactive situation of the three” (p. 418). This was particularly evident in the present study since creating the WeChat online group encouraged engagement in participants in the TM group. Participants in TM group continued to use different modalities of the app (video, audio, text, emojis) to connect with classmates, the teacher, and the researcher even after the experiment. Although there was no survey in this research to collect participants’ attitudes on the experiment, participants in the TM group (who are still connected to the researcher through the WeChat group) report that they continue to use this app as it helps them to ask their questions and receive feedback with less stress.

It is worth mentioning that the effects of different modes of CF may vary depending on learners’ individual differences. These include motivation, aptitude, learning styles, willingness to communicate, learning strategies, and personality (Tomita, 2018). Although some learners might feel less discomfort being corrected online, there might be other learners who do not feel comfortable with technology. Thus, it is important for teachers to be sensitive to individual differences and learning contexts in order to provide more effective feedback on L2 pragmatics.

Another potential reason for the difference between TM group scores in comprehension and production could be the lower reliability of the MDCT test ($r = .32$) as compared to the RP test ($r = .98$). In other words, higher scores of the TM group in comprehension results need to be discussed with more caution. It is possible that the MDCT test format has influenced the results to some extent. In L2 pragmatics, there is a lack of standard approaches and instruments for

measuring and assessing L2 learners' ability in comprehending target pragmatic structures. This study built on a few studies which had managed to make a case for use of MDCTs in measuring pragmatic comprehension including Liu (2006), Roever (2011), and Tada (2005). However, more studies might be necessary to further validate this instrument.

In summary, the results of the present investigation suggest that providing CF through digital technologies such as video-chat application on mobile devices can improve both L2 pragmatics comprehension and production.

5.4 The Type of Speech Act and Corrective Feedback Effects

The fourth research question targeted the two different types of speech acts that were tested in the study: requests and refusals. The overall question was whether or not the CF treatment had a different effect on the performances of request and refusal speech act responses among the participants. The question was motivated by the possibility that complexity of speech act may have a mediating effect on corrective feedback effects (Houck & Gass, 1999; Chen, 1995; Beebe et al., 1990; Jernigan, 2007). As with the previous research questions, the fourth question is discussed with regard to the RP and the MDCT measures.

In the RP immediate post-test results, the one-way ANOVAs revealed significant effects of CF on both speech acts. Moreover, between-group comparisons showed similar behaviors of the two speech acts across the groups. These similar results for requests and refusals mean that the CF effect was not influenced by the speech act type in production. Similarly, in the MDCT immediate post-test, CF had significant effects on both requests and refusals with similar findings across the groups. This also implies that speech act type did not influence the CF effect in the comprehension immediate post-test.

Together, the findings in production and comprehension show that there is no difference in the improvement of the two speech acts since both improved significantly under CF.

Therefore, the answer to the fourth research question is that the CF effect is not influenced by complexity of speech act type. Hence, the hypothesis that CF is more effective on request (simple) than refusal (complex) speech act types is rejected.

This finding is in line with some previous research. For instance, in a meta-analysis of the relationship between the type of linguistic structure and instruction, Spada and Tomita (2010) found no relationship between rule complexity and the effectiveness of feedback. The target features in the 41 studies contributing to their meta-analysis were categorized as simple or complex based on the number of criteria applied to arrive at the correct target form (Hulstijn & de Graaff, 1994). The instructional treatments were classified as explicit or implicit. The results showed larger effect sizes for explicit over implicit instruction for both simple and complex features. However, the findings did not show any interaction between the type of language feature and the type of instruction. According to Spada and Tomita (2010), the important caveat was the way in which complex and simple features were defined in the primary studies. They found at least eight different categories in defining complex/simple features in the 41 primary studies. In these categories, complexity was defined based on “developmental stage, L1/L2 differences, form-meaning relationships, learnability, teachers’ perceptions of learner difficulty, the lexical preference principle, structure complexity, and typological markedness” (Spada & Tomita, 2010, p. 289).

Consequently, the first factor to be considered while discussing request and refusal results should be the notion of complexity of speech acts as defined in this study. Given the lack of consensus on the operational definition of complexity in L2 pragmatic research, the present

study defined complexity in terms of the number of moves needed to perform a speech act appropriately and assumed that refusals are more complex than requests. However, different definitions and criteria of complexity might lead to different assumptions and results. For instance, a learner may respond to treatment with respect to speech acts that are typically produced in response to an interlocutor's proposal or prompt (e.g., refusal) better than to speech acts that a speaker typically must produce without an interlocutor's initial cue (e.g., request). Moreover, the role of individual differences between learners should not be neglected. According to DeKeyser (2003) "what is a rule of moderate difficulty for one student may be easy for a student with more language learning aptitude or language learning experience" (p. 331). It should be acknowledged here that if a different set of criteria were chosen to distinguish the two types of speech acts, the conclusions may have been different.

Furthermore, while it is commonly believed that learners should learn easy rules first and only move on to more difficult rules later, if a rule is simple, it is not necessarily easy to learn. For instance, English articles might be linguistically simple, but difficult to explain and learn (Nassaji, 2015). According to Tomita (2018), "it has also been recommended that students learn more difficult rules before learning easier rules. This is based on the assumption that when students acquire more difficult rules, they can generalize the rules, making them easier to utilize" (p. 5). Therefore, one possibility is that since the learners in this study acquired the more complex speech act of refusal, they could easily use the simple speech act of request as well.

Another possibility is that both types of simple and complex speech acts benefited from the explicit nature of feedback used in this study. As mentioned earlier, the combination of recast with repetition made the CF more explicit in this study. It is argued that explicit feedback types can be equally effective for both simple and complex rules (Housen et al., 2005; Robinson, 1996;

Tomita, 2018). Nassaji (2015) argues that “more explicit correction might be needed for more difficult forms or those that require more attention and explanation” (p. 211). The explicitness in corrective recasts applied in this study has helped learners process the corrections in refusals as effectively as requests.

Lastly, it should be noted that although the type of speech act did not influence the short-term *improvement* in comprehension and production, it influenced the *durability* of effects in comprehension. In the MDCT delayed post-test, CF effect was only maintained in requests. The loss of the CF effect in the comprehension of refusals as well as the lower means and effect sizes of refusals than requests in both RP and MDCT measures can reflect the higher complexity of refusals in general. Longitudinal research can help investigate the notion of complexity and its effect on the learning of different linguistic areas including L2 pragmatics. The long-term effects of CF are discussed in the following section.

5.5 The Retention of Corrective Feedback Effects in Comprehension and Production

The last research question investigated if the effects of CF on comprehension and production are maintained over time. This question is discussed in terms of the two instruments of the study: the MDCT and the RP measures.

The results of the one-way ANOVA on the delayed post-test MDCT comprehension test showed a statistically significant effect of CF with a large effect ($\eta_p^2 = .41$), which is nearly identical to immediate post-test effect ($\eta_p^2 = .39$). In other words, CF seemed to produce relatively durable effects that lasted beyond immediate post-test observation after three weeks. Furthermore, similar between-group results in the immediate and delayed post-tests show that the learners in both treatment groups performed similarly on the delayed post-test as they did on the immediate post-test. The fact that TM group outperformed other groups in both immediate

and delayed post-tests is another interesting finding. This implies that corrective feedback has facilitated a durable learning effect on the comprehension of speech acts in TM environment. Although more research is still needed to confirm these results, a number of proposals can be made to account for the distinctions between the TM and FF groups which were previously discussed in 5.3 (delivery mode of CF).

In the RP production results, there was also a statistically significant effect of CF in the delayed post-test. The effect sizes in the immediate and delayed post-tests were also very close (immediate $\eta_p^2 = .43$ and delayed $\eta_p^2 = .45$). Moreover, it was found that both treatment groups' results on the delayed post-test held constant and paralleled the features noted in the immediate post-test data. Similar trends of improvement in the immediate and the delayed post-tests show that effects of CF were also maintained in production.

Taken together, the results in both comprehension and production show that feedback treatment in general has helped participants retain learning effects from immediate post-test to delayed post-test in a period of three weeks. The answer to the last research regarding the durability of CF effects is positive. Thus, the fifth hypothesis that "CF effects will be maintained in delayed post-test results" is confirmed for both comprehension and production.

The durability of CF effects found in this study is in line with previous research on corrective feedback in different areas where the effects of CF were maintained over time as observed in several meta-analysis studies. For instance, Lyster and Saito (2010) conducted a meta-analysis of 15 classroom-based studies with a focus on corrective feedback. They found that corrective feedback had durable effects on target language development with no statistical difference between learners' scores on immediate and delayed post-tests. In another meta-analysis, Li's (2010) examined the effectiveness of CF on 33 feedback studies. He also showed

that the effect of CF in general was maintained over time. Furthermore, explicit feedback was more beneficial in the short term, while implicit feedback (e.g., recast) was more effective in the long term. In fact, Li's meta-analysis showed that the effects of implicit feedback did not fade and even increased over a long term. He suggests that this difference might be because implicit feedback is contributing to implicit knowledge, which takes longer to develop, but is more durable. In another meta-analysis of 28 studies by Mackey and Goo (2007), it was found that CF effects were durable and larger effect sizes were found on the delayed post-test (1.09) than on the immediate post-test (.71). These findings suggest that feedback effects can still be beneficial in the long run.

In L2 pragmatics, very limited studies have investigated CF effects over time but there are a few meta-analyses that examine the durability of L2 pragmatic instruction in general. For instance, in a recent meta-analysis, Plonsky and Zhaung (2019) reported the retention of pragmatic instruction effects over time. From the 50 studies included in their meta-analysis, 18 had delayed post-tests and treatment groups on average outperformed their control/comparison group counterparts in delayed tests ($d = 0.64$). There are also very few studies that report durable effects of CF in L2 pragmatics. For instance, Morrow (1995) reported no significant differences between the post-test and the delayed post-test in the use of politeness strategies after six months. However, because no control group was used, it is impossible to know whether the retention of the targeted pragmatic features reflected the information acquired as a result of the treatment, or whether the learning context of these learners influenced their pragmatic development. Furthermore, in a study on the effect of CF on email requests, Nguyen et al. (2015) found that overall, students in both direct-feedback group and meta-pragmatic feedback treatment groups significantly increased their DCT (production) scores after the treatment

sessions and that this increase was retained when measured again four weeks later. They also found that both of the treatment groups fared significantly better than the control group regarding their post-test results; and that there was no difference between the two treatment groups in this respect. The researchers explained the lack of difference between the two treatment groups regarding their production scores by the benefit of the multiple revision rounds that both of the treatment groups were engaged in.

According to Felix-Bradsefer (2008), the issue of whether pragmatic development is maintained or changes over time is still controversial in the limited literature on ILP that has employed a delayed post-test. The importance of delayed post-tests in pedagogical interventional research has been highlighted by Kasper and Rose (2002): “[D]elayed post-tests should be a standard design feature in interventional research because without their use it is not possible to determine whether the gains that students made through instruction are durable” (p.73).

5.6. Summary of Questions and Findings

This study attempted to answer whether corrective feedback on L2 request and refusal speech acts provided FF or through video chat can lead to an improvement in the learners’ performance in comprehension and production. The first research hypothesis proposed that the groups receiving corrective feedback on request and refusal speech acts would outperform the group that did not receive any corrective feedback. Like some earlier research (e.g., Fukuya & Zhang, 2002; Koike & Pearson, 2005; Nguyen et al., 2012, 2015; Salemi, et al., 2012; Takimoto, 2006), it was found in the present research that CF led to improved performance in L2 pragmatics. Significant effects of corrective feedback were clear for both pragmatic comprehension and production for request and refusal speech act types thus there was no difference between comprehension and production. Furthermore, while both Face-to-Face and

Technology-Mediated CF were effective modalities for delivering CF in production, only Technology-Mediated delivery was effective in comprehending the target speech acts. These differences surfaced even in this preliminary study with a small sample size and would very likely extend and intensify when additional subjects and tokens are included. The possibility of the effects of the type of speech acts in influencing CF effects was generally rejected as CF improved the comprehension and production of both speech acts significantly. Finally, the findings of the present study suggest that CF effects were durable both in production and comprehension. In summary, the findings of the study generally support the application of CF to the acquisition of second language pragmatic ability.

5.7. Theoretical Implications

Corrective feedback provides opportunities for learners to correct their original output, and make them aware of the potential difficulties they have in expressing their meaning. The relationship among interaction, corrective feedback, and noticing components can be summed up by Long's (1996) frequently cited explanation that: "negotiation for meaning, and especially negotiation work that triggers interactional adjustments by the NS or more competent interlocutor, facilitates acquisition because it connects input, internal learner capacities, particularly selective attention, and output in productive ways" (pp. 451–452).

In this view, through CF in an interaction, a learner's attention could be directed to problematic aspects of pragmatic knowledge or production. First, the learner may notice that his/her utterance differs from what a native speaker says (noticing the gap, Schmidt & Frota, 1986). In addition, learners may notice that since they cannot express what they want to express, they have a hole in their interlanguage (Swain, 1998). Next, "the CF may direct learner's attention to something new, such as a new linguistic form and social or cultural norms, thus

promoting the development of the L2 pragmatics” (Gass & Mackey 2015, p.186).

The corrective recast followed by the repetition can provide the learners with positive evidence about what can be said in the L2. Recasts are one of the least intrusive of the many possible procedures in delivering corrective feedback, and thus one with great potential for allowing teachers and students to focus on the content (tasks, curricular subject matter, etc.) uninterrupted, while still dealing with the language problems, but doing so incidentally.

In L2 pragmatics, learners’ mere exposure to L2 is not enough and therefore conscious attention to pragmatics-related information is necessary in L2 classroom (Ishihara, 2010; Kasper and Schmidt 1996). Kasper (1996) cites three conditions for the acquisition of pragmatic knowledge: “There must be pertinent input, the input has to be noticed, and learners need ample opportunity to develop a high level of control” (p. 148). Corrective feedback can function as an attention-drawing cue. When learners receive corrective feedback on their pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic forms, or are pushed to produce modified output, they may notice the gap between the target language norms and their own language production (Loewen, 2015). The types of errors corrected through recasting in this study included both linguistic and pragmatic errors. As mentioned earlier, Thomas (1983) argued that pragmatics entails two interrelated components: pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics. According to Taguchi et al. (2017), “Pragmalinguistics concerns linguistic forms and their communicative functions, while sociopragmatics involves understanding the social norms and conventions that guide language users’ way of behaving” (p. 642). Both components need to be addressed when providing CF so that learners understand which linguistic forms to use to achieve their communicative goals and how their language use impacts others in a particular context.

However, as mentioned in chapter two, some researchers (e.g., Lyster, 2004; Lyster &

Ranta, 1997) have criticized that the corrective function of recasts in classroom can be too implicit and ambiguous for learners to notice (see 2.7). In fact, the issue of explicitness is a central issue in focus-on-form research and is still in debate (Loewen, 2015). On the one hand, it is argued that attention to language should be implicit so as not to distract from the communicative nature of activities. On the other hand, “feedback (or any intervention) that is too implicit will not be noticed, and noticing is a prerequisite for acquisition” (Loewen, 2015, p. 61). The special type of recasts in this study, “corrective recasts”, attempted to keep the implicit-explicit balance by increasing the salience of the intended corrective function of recasts. Providing additional signals (e.g., repetition, clarification requests) could facilitate noticing that an error exists. The corrective recast preceded by the repetition provided the correct exemplar.

Another contribution of the study is the direct comparison of the effectiveness of the two delivery modalities of FF and TM. The finding that Technology-Mediated CF resulted in improved performance in comprehension and production provides support to how technological advances can be used to enhance pragmatic development in ESL learners.

This study extended the scope of its research to embrace an investigation of the learners’ pragmatic development of two aspects of knowledge, i.e., comprehension and production, while previous research had mostly focused on production (Nguyen, 2019). Similar improvements in these two skills show that CF can help to improve pragmatic competence at both levels. With reference to research methods and the instruments that may be used to elicit comprehension and production data, this research has contributed with the implementation of both an oral role-play (RP) test and a multiple-choice discourse completion test (MDCT) in the same study. Despite the low reliability of the MDCT test, this study showed the necessity of the inclusion of an instrument that can be most appropriate for collecting comprehension data.

Finally, the inclusion of two types of speech acts (requests and refusals) contributed to the L2 pragmatics research in that CF can improve the comprehension and production of both speech act types similarly.

5.8. Pedagogical Implications

According to Kasper and Roever (2005) “complexity of developing pragmatic competence means that exposure to input alone is insufficient to promote pragmatic development in a new language” (p. 318). Corrective feedback can be a good practice for L2 teachers who want to help learners with pragmatic development as the influential role of corrective feedback has been evident in previous research. As the results of this study and some previous experimental studies show (e.g., Fukuya & Zhang, 2002; Koike & Pearson, 2005; Nipaspong & Chinokul, 2010), corrective feedback can positively influence learners' pragmatic development. Corrective recasts utilized in this study consisted of a repetition of the learner's error with a rising intonation immediately followed by a corrective recast with a falling intonation. The repetition part can help learners receive negative evidence if they notice the difference between their own erroneous utterance and the correct form. From a practical standpoint, providing recasts during the flow of meaning-focused interaction can be easy for teachers (Loewen, 2015). As Long (2006) points out “the fact that recasts occur as responses to learner-initiated messages also means that they fit well with a learner-centered classroom and methodology in general, which is generally desirable” (p. 114).

5.8.1 Enhancing Opportunities for Interaction and Corrective Feedback in the L2 Pragmatics Classroom

In this section, a few practical questions are posed and tentative answers are provided based on the experimental findings and the literature review of the present study. However, it is

suggested that not to over-simplify the issue of corrective feedback, and note that there is no simple answer as how to treat learner errors in L2 classrooms (Nassaji, 2015). Teachers are invited to become familiar with different types and delivery modes of corrective feedback and to incorporate the most relevant type and method into their lesson plans and daily practice. The information presented below will hopefully assist language teachers in making more informed instructional decisions.

1. What kind of errors should be corrected in L2 pragmatics classroom?

An important question that teachers confront when dealing with learners' errors is what kind of errors they should correct. The types of errors corrected through recasting in this study included both linguistic and pragmatic errors. Martinez-Flor and Uso-Juan (2010) emphasize the role of CF in learners' development of pragmatic competence and mention that this CF should address both form and meaning. Considering meaning, one of the concerns of corrective feedback in L2 pragmatics should be learners' sociopragmatic failure where they interpret a situation differently from a native speaker (NS). For instance, inadequacies in terms of appropriate directness levels and forms of address led to a sociopragmatic failure when Greek speakers of English wrote e-mails to the faculty in a University context. The following is one of the examples given by Economidou-Kogetsidis (2011), in which a student addresses a lecturer:

Example 1 *Sociopragmatic failure* (Economidou-Kogetsidis, 2011, p. 3200)

Mr. LN,

did you talk to Dr? what did she tell you?

Will she allow me to take sociolinguistics?

Thank you.

C.

In the above example, the request was performed with an inappropriately high degree of directness. It was, therefore, perceived as impolite and discourteous by the receiver.

Another concern of corrective feedback in L2 pragmatics is correcting form or learners' pragmalinguistic failure. This type of failure arises when learners have the same understanding of a given context as that of the NSs but do not have enough knowledge of linguistic means to enable them communicate appropriately in that particular context" (Shirkhani & Tajeddin, 2017, p. 27), or "when speech act strategies are inappropriately transferred from L1 to L2" (Thomas, 1983, p.99). For instance, In Russian *konesno* (of course) is often used instead of *da* (yes) to convey an enthusiastic affirmative (cf. *yes, indeed, yes, certainly*, in English). However, in English "of course" often implies that the speaker has asked about something which is self-evident, so that *konesno*, transferred from Russian to English in answer to a 'genuine' question, can sound at best peremptory and at worst insulting (Thomas, 1983). Example 2 is an instance of pragmalinguistic failure.

Example 2 *Pragmalinguistic failure* (Thomas, 1983, p.102)

A: Is it a good restaurant?

B: Of course. [Gloss (for Russian S): Yes, (indeed) it is. (For English H): What a stupid question!]

Having one type of pragmatic knowledge does not necessarily imply the knowledge of other. "For example, a learner may have pragmalinguistic knowledge without sociopragmatic knowledge, in which case learners know the pragmatic force that linguistic forms convey, but may be unclear on when those specific occasions occur" (Loewen, 2005, p. 130). On the other hand, it is possible to have sociopragmatic but not pragmalinguistic knowledge. In this case, learners are aware of the social demands of a situation, but they do not know which linguistic

forms would express the appropriate level of politeness. For example, learners may realize that they need to use more polite forms when making a request of a professor, but they may not know which modal (e.g., can or could) reflects the stance they wish to take. Therefore, L2 teachers are advised to pay attention to both types of errors in L2 pragmatics classes.

The results of this study and previous research thus far, of which some were described previously, show that recasts work. Hence, according to Long, (2006):

Teachers in task-based, content-based, sheltered subject matter, immersion, and other kinds of second language classrooms may have the option of dealing with many of their students' language problems incidentally while working on their subject matter of choice, with fewer interruptions and other unpleasant side effects caused by traditional overt "error correction" practices. (p.77)

2. How to help learners notice the corrective nature of feedback?

As argued throughout this study, noticing is an important requirement for language learning. Although the present study did not examine degrees of noticing, previous research has repeatedly shown that the degree of effectiveness of feedback depends largely on the extent to which learners are able to perceive the feedback as correction (Nassaji, 2015). As Nassaji (2015) recommends, "as a rule of thumb, when providing feedback, teachers should make sure that learners notice the corrective force of the feedback" (p. 210). This is especially important when the feedback is implicit, such as recasts which due to their implicit nature may go unnoticed. The salience of recasts can also depend on the number of changes (feedback moves) and errors. The studies (e.g. Bao et al., 2011; Egi, 2010) on noticing have demonstrated that recasts are more likely to be noticed when they (1) are short, (2) involve fewer changes, and (3) are delivered using a rising intonation (Li & Vuono, 2019). For example, recasts involving fewer changes or

targeting fewer errors are more likely to be perceived as corrective feedback than longer recasts or those targeting multiple errors (Nassaji, 2015). To help learners notice the corrective nature of recasts (thereby enhance the effectiveness of CF), this study used “corrective recasts”. A corrective recast consists of a repetition of the deviant learner utterance with rising intonation, followed immediately by a corrective recast that is delivered with falling intonation. The teachers targeted only one error at a time and provided feedback in one change.

Nevertheless, there are a number of factors that can influence the effectiveness of corrective feedback such as the type of feedback, mode of delivering CF, individual learner differences, and proficiency. Among these factors, this research examined delivery mode factor, i.e. delivering feedback through Face-to-Face and Technology-Mediated modalities. The implications for applying technology as a model for delivering feedback is discussed below.

5.8.2 Delivering CF through Technology in L2 Pragmatics

According to Kartchava and Nassaji (2019), “the effects of technology when conjoined with feedback practices in facilitating instruction cannot be overlooked as this combination may play a pivotal role in enhancing language learning” (p. 180). As the findings of this study and a previous body of research examining technology and interaction suggest, CF has positive benefits within technology-supported environments (e.g., Lai & Li, 2011; Sauro, 2011; Sauro & Smith, 2010). As Rassaei (2017) points out, “CMC tools such as Skype foster learning opportunities such as negotiation of meaning during online interactions as well as learners’ motivation, and autonomy for L2 learning” (p. 134). Therefore, teachers are encouraged to become familiar and comfortable with performing different interactive tasks and providing corrective feedback via various forms of popular technological tools, particularly video-chat. This will provide opportunities to deliver feedback in a “natural” and “appropriate” manner as

immediately as possible to ensure its relevance to the interaction (Ziegler & Phung, 2019, p. 265). Synchronous (real time) video-call programs can engage learners in extended and concurrent interaction on the internet. Interaction in such environments is comparatively similar to FF interaction, particularly the use of facial expression and body language embedded in a verbal message. Yanguas (2012) argues that “Mobile applications that provide online video-conferencing can be valuable tools for pragmatic instruction and can be used in the curriculum” (p. 524). Video-conferencing programs and applications such as WeChat provide opportunities for input, output, and interaction for language learning in extended meaningful discourse and can also serve as authentic vehicles for intercultural communication (Belz, 2007).

Such technological advances are essential in education especially during the time Face-to-Face education is not accessible. For instance, after the outbreak of the COVID-19 pandemic in 2019-2020, many schools, language institutions, and universities around the world were forced to close and send students home. However, while schools were temporarily closed for quarantine, schooling continued and students were being educated remotely using technology. Coronavirus-related disruption led to forming various online learning plans and technologies for students and faculty. In many respects, technology stepped into the breach and the education industry moved to remote instruction. Video conferencing platforms such as Zoom, Skype, and WebEx were being used heavily as were learning management systems like Blackboard and Google Classroom (Dignan, 2020). In such a technologically-driven era, language educators also need to recognize the potentials that new technologies offer language learning. It is highly anticipated that technology will continue to play a key role in educating future generations including first and second language learners.

Finally, this study showed that the implementation of role-play activities and providing

corrective feedback through WeChat mobile application is possible and not a very complex endeavor. Other forms of technology that can be applied with relative ease to pragmatic-focused instruction include audio/video materials. Auditory and visual features in recordings (such as the short videos used in this study on the speech acts of requests and refusals) offer verbal and non-verbal information, which both affect the pragmatics of communication (Ishihara, 2010). Supplementing video/audio materials of sample dialogues in various social contexts can be beneficial for learners as they enhance the pragmatic input and raise learners' awareness. As Ishihara (2010) suggest, "teachers and learners themselves can also audio- or video-record pragmatic language use in order to provide models or facilitate evaluation of learners' pragmatic language use and self-reflection" (p. 247).

Nevertheless, the success of implementation of technological tools depends on proper facilities and proper training on the part of the instructor. As Blake (2008) argues, "technology is a neutral tool and, as such, the pedagogical standpoint under which activities are implemented will for the most part determine the outcome and the L2 skills practiced" (cited in Yanguas, 2012, p. 524).

5.9 Limitations and Recommendations for Future Research

All research studies need to limit their investigative scope for practical reasons; the present study was no exception. This study showed that providing corrective feedback is beneficial to L2 pragmatics production and comprehension, however, due to the limitations, some factors were not considered in the experiment. Moreover, several of the findings of the present study warrant further investigation in future research efforts. This section provides the limitations as well as ideas for the application of the findings to future research.

First, because of attrition factors and institutional restrictions, the present study employed

only 44 participants, including 34 females and 10 males. Due to the dominance of female learners, these results are mostly representative of female speech. Thus, the findings in this study depend on the sample size, the characteristics of the participants (mostly females), the nature of the instruments used to collect data and the context of the study. It is often the case that experimental research in this area has a small sample size for comparisons, which affects the generalizability of any findings. It is possible that an increased number of participants would yield more robust results. Moreover, due to the limited number of participants in this study, individual differences such as ethnic grouping were not distinguished. Future research should compare differential effects on individual variables. In considering the role of corrective feedback (as a manifestation of input, interaction, noticing, and output), it should be noted that learners differ in their learning styles, language strategy repertoires, and motivation for language learning (Cohen & Weaver 2006). Consequently, what works for one L2 learner in terms of gaining pragmatic comprehension and enhanced pragmatic production may not work for another. According to Cohen (2012), “Some learners may, for example, benefit from extensive observation of what natives do without much interaction with them, at least during an initial phase. Others may prefer to start interacting from the beginning, without an initial period of observation” (p. 252).

Moreover, this study targeted only intermediate proficiency level English learners. Future research should explore the extent to which each corrective feedback helps learners of different language proficiency levels improve their pragmatic comprehension and production. Such additional studies might further support the concept that pragmatics instruction needs to be incorporated throughout the L2 curriculum. These studies would help instructors reach learners at various levels and figure out the role of corrective feedback in pragmatics instruction.

One limitation of this study lay in the design of the study itself. The participants of this study were all from three intact classes. Given their busy class schedule, it was decided that the study should take as few sessions as possible of their class time. It was also decided that the entire research project—including the pre-test, the treatment, the immediate post-test, and the delayed post-test—should be conducted during class hours and not take longer than 2 hours. As a result, the treatment time became only 60 minutes in length in each session. It is possible that such limitation might be one reason that the study did not yield significant statistical differences between the two treatment groups in production scores. It is recommended, therefore, that future studies have longer treatment time so that students can receive more feedback on the target patterns.

Another limitation with the design of the study was that this research was cross-sectional rather than longitudinal. Data from longitudinal studies might provide a more holistic picture of the ways in which corrective feedback and pragmatics development interact over time. Further studies are needed to investigate whether similar findings of the study can be empirically verified.

Due to the limited types of instruments that measure pragmatic comprehension, this study employed a multiple-choice discourse completion tests (MDCT) as the instrument to measure learners' comprehension of the request and refusal forms. However, the reliability of this instrument was not high and the design of MDCT needs to be considered carefully so as to make it authentic and justifiable. While the MDCT test in this study was adapted from previous research, newer versions of the test can be created based on field notes of real-life interactions. For creating distractor options (incorrect options), specific principles can be followed. For instance, in Taguchi et al.'s (2016) study assessing L2 Spanish learners' comprehension of

implied meaning, three types of distractor options were created: (1) an option that is the opposite of the target implied meaning, (2) an option that contains words taken from the final part of the conversation, and (3) an option related to the overall meaning of the conversation. As Nguyen (2019) argues, “this format allowed the researchers to conduct a post hoc error analysis, identifying the option to which learners were most attracted when they selected an error option” (p. 201).

This study has emphasized the potential benefits of technology-based instruments in developing L2 pragmatics. However, due to the limited access to computers in classes, this study employed a pen-and-paper MDCT test. Technologies not only create new options for applying corrective feedback in L2 pragmatic teaching but can also provide new tools for data collection and analysis. For example, computer-delivered MDCTs enable researchers to measure learners’ comprehension response times, which are not possible with traditional pen-and-paper tests (e.g., see Taguchi et al., 2013). According to Nguyen (2019), “response times are indicators of the degrees of difficulty involved in processing pragmatic meaning” (p. 207). Thus, collecting response time data enables researchers to draw conclusions about the relationships between the types of meaning that learners must process (e.g., conventional vs. non-conventional indirect meaning) and the amount of effort required in such processing. Nguyen (2019) recommends “exploring an array of digital tools to enrich our knowledge of options in terms of data collection methods” (p. 207). Future research might optimally include outcome measures that involve more innovative research instruments to most effectively investigate pragmatic comprehension. For instance, Taguchi et al. (2016) developed a modified version of the computer-delivered multiple-choice questionnaire using video recordings of dialogues. According to Nguyen (2019), “The incorporation of verbal and non-verbal cues (e.g., tones, gestures, facial expressions) can

simulate real-world multi-modal input and increases task authenticity” (p. 207). Such visual input also provides additional information to help to activate the learners’ background knowledge, thus enhancing their processing efficiency and assisting their comprehension (see Taguchi et al., 2016). Finally, triangulation of data sources is desirable to enhance validity of the results. Therefore, it would also be helpful to include some qualitative data as a complementary source to better interpret and analyze the results in the future study. Ahn (2003) recommends taking a multiple method approach because it allows the researcher to achieve cross-validation. However, since limited work has been done in the designing assessment instruments and research into assessment of pragmatics in general, “there is definitely the need to develop pragmatic assessment instruments” (Ahn, 2003, p.176).

Next, the present study did not investigate the cognitive processes that learners engage in during corrective feedback. Because noticing is such an important construct in the theoretical support for negative feedback (Loewen, 2019), this kind of research can provide important information about the effectiveness of feedback. Mackey (2006) operationalized noticing as “a learner’s report indicating a mismatch between the target language form and the learner’s non-target-like production or comprehension” (p. 413). Several different types of instruments can be used to elicit this information such as self-reports (e.g., Mackey, 2006), and stimulated recalls (e.g., Mackey et al., 2007). In these measures, learners are simply asked to report what they have noticed during interaction sessions. According to Loewen (2012), “If learners mention the targeted linguistic structure or the corrective nature of the interaction, this is taken to be evidence of noticing” (p. 32). Moreover, it has been pointed out that the learning of pragmatics should not be seen merely in terms of cognitive processing since it most definitely involves the socio-affective domain as well (Kasper & Schmidt 1996, Schmidt, 1993). This study has limited the

scope of L2 pragmatics learning to cognitive domain, while further research on interdisciplinary frameworks relating to L2 pragmatic development is necessary to understand the role of social, cultural, psychological, and emotional factors in developing L2 pragmatics. As Ishihara (2010) states, “learners’ motivation, acculturation, social identity, and attitudes are likely to affect the ways in which learners notice pragmatic input, understand the role of contextual factors, negotiate meaning in interaction, and modify their language production across contexts and over time” (p.105).

The next limitation is considered with the target speech acts of the study. The present study investigated the effect of corrective feedback treatment on request and refusal speech acts. The results revealed that comprehension and production of these two speech act types improved after the treatment while they did not appear to respond differently to CF in short-term depending on the treatment type (FF and TM) or outcome measurement that was used (i.e., the RP and the MDCT tasks). Examining broader range of speech acts might help determine whether the complexity of speech acts can influence corrective feedback effects. The investigation of different speech act types and how they are learned and influenced by various instructional treatments must be part of that effort to providing more detailed information about pragmatic acquisition and might reveal a potential order in learning speech acts based on their complexity. Social and syntactic complexity may contribute to the facility with which learners can acquire particular speech acts and lead to a potential developmental sequence. The syntactic complexity among speech act types combines with sociopragmatic awareness to influence learners’ readiness to acquire given speech act types. It is important to note that pragmatic and linguistic factors are not separable, but must be considered together in future research efforts. According to Jernigan (2007), “meta-analyses of the accumulated speech act-related acquisitional pragmatic

studies can be carried out to identify significant results across findings in order to improve understanding of the nature of developmental sequences in L2 developmental pragmatics” (p. 128).

As another limitation to the present study, although the contextual variables (power, social distance, and imposition) were controlled in scenarios in the MDCT and the RP tests, these factors were not analyzed and examined separately as variables. However, there is a possibility that the overall appropriateness score might be influenced by the interaction of these contextual variables. Further studies could be designed to examine the effects of these contextual factors or their improvement as separate factors after the corrective feedback treatment.

Furthermore, this study used a complex type of corrective feedback, i.e. “corrective recast” which was a combination of recasts and a repetition of the error. The reason for this selection was based on the research goals of the study, i.e., to make recasts more salient and therefore to make the learners notice the gap between their utterances and the correct target. However, considering the very few studies done on the role of oral corrective feedback on L2 pragmatics, it is recommended to further study and compare the effects of different types of corrective feedback on L2 pragmatic development. Moreover, since previous studies have investigated and compared the effects of different types of corrective feedback in classroom and experimental Face-to-Face contexts, it is now interesting and vital to investigate the differential effects of types of corrective feedback in computer-mediated contexts including video-chat interactions.

Another recommendation for future research concerns the application of technology in L2 pragmatic instruction. This study used WeChat mobile application as a platform for online video-chat. However, as Cunningham (2019) states “the degree to which the computer-

mediated nature of these interactions contributes directly to instructional effectiveness remains less clear” (p.383). Another intriguing question is how varying the amount, timing, and frequency of computer-delivered practice may affect L2 pragmatic fluency and accuracy development (see Li, 2013). Such investigations may be useful not only in informing the future development and validation of L2 pragmatics research instrumentation but also in broadening areas of investigation and expanding our knowledge of the field. Unfortunately, despite calls for more research with an experimental or quasi-experimental design on the effects of participation in CMC on L2 pragmatics (e.g., Taguchi, 2015), there is still a lack of such studies. This lack is also reflected in the fact that Lin (2015) was able to include only one study of L2 pragmatic development in her meta-analysis of SLA and CMC. Furthermore, with the rise of Internet-based technologies that involve digitally mediated spaces for communication, especially the social media applications (such as WeChat), it seems inevitable that the way people from different linguistic and cultural backgrounds interact with one another in online environments will change quickly. These changes may in turn lead to changes in the current notion of pragmatic competence since such technologies may increase access to a wider range of discourses, providing both opportunities and potential pitfalls for developing L2 pragmatic knowledge. Cunningham (2019) raises a host of questions regarding the future research agenda for developmental pragmatics:

Most broadly, how does the idea of pragmatic competence need to be refined when applied to a computer-mediated environment? What knowledge, skills, and abilities must L2 learners develop in order to participate effectively in CMC and perform necessary pragmatic functions in such contexts? How does this knowledge differ from traditional notions of pragmatic competence? (p.383)

He further argues that with “the rapid pace of technological development and the new communication possibilities that will no doubt arise in the coming decades, empirical findings related to the above questions will be central to expanding current models of pragmatic competence” (p.383)

Last but not least, according to Ishihara (2010), “it is up to the learners themselves as to whether they will choose to be pragmatically appropriate” (p. 14). Despite having an understanding of the social and cultural norms, some learners could still resist accommodating to the norms in their own pragmatic performance. While some learners may wish to model themselves after native speakers to follow culturally acceptable norms in the community, some learners (or the same learners at other times) may wish to intentionally behave rather uniquely in order to preserve their subjectivity.

5.10 Concluding Thoughts

This research has provided some empirical support to the effective role of corrective feedback in L2 pragmatic development which is an important and integrated aspect of L2 learning and teaching. Correcting learners’ errors during video-call communication promoted L2 pragmatic comprehension and production. Therefore, the utility of video-based technologies such as WeChat deserves further attention in L2 pragmatic research. This study opens a new venue in L2 pragmatics research for examining corrective feedback effects in different modalities including online video-based technologies.

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APPENDIX A: PARTICIPANT CONSENT FORM

Participant (students) Consent Form

Investigating the effect of corrective feedback on second language pragmatics: face-to-face vs. computer mediated Communication

You are invited to participate in a study tentatively entitled “*Investigating the effect of corrective feedback on second language pragmatics: face to-face vs. computer mediated Interaction*” that is being conducted by Marziyeh Yousefi.

Marziyeh Yousefi is a PhD student in the department of Linguistics at the University of Victoria and you may contact her if you have further questions by email: yousefi@uvic.ca, or telephone: 2505326325

As a graduate student, I am required to conduct research as part of the requirements for a PhD degree in applied linguistics. It is being conducted under the supervision of Dr. Hossein Nassaji. You may contact my supervisor at 250-721-7424.

Purpose and Objectives

The purpose of this research project is to find an effective instructional technique to help learners of English to use language appropriately for different purposes. This is investigated through two different feedback modes: face-to-face and computer mediated. The two language functions that are used in daily communication and studied in this research are requesting and refusing.

Importance of this Research

Research of this type is important because it might help ESL (English as a second language) participants to learn to perform two key language functions (request and refusal) appropriately and effectively in their daily communication. This is especially important in multicultural societies like Canada, where people from different backgrounds need to communicate efficiently in the society. Other pedagogical implications of the study include making ESL teachers aware of the likely problems, how to give corrective feedback on students’ errors in the most efficient way, and what delivery mode to choose for best results.

Participants Selection

You are being asked to participate in this study because you are attending an ESL class with criteria that matched the researcher goals such as consent of the teacher and proficiency level of students.

What is involved?

If you consent to voluntarily participate in this research, your participation will include your consent to share your tests results with the researcher. You will be attending your regular classes (regular days, times, duration, and location), and receiving pre-planned instructional material from your own teacher. You will have three tests during your class time. A pre-test, and two post-tests. You will receive a multiple-choice test and a role-play test with your partner. All tests will take approximately 45 minutes and will be anonymous. You will be audio recorded while performing the role-play tests. Later, a (anonymous) transcription will be made from the audio files. All the tests will be administered in your regular classroom.

If you agree or decline to share your data from the tests results, only the researcher will be aware of your decision. All data will be scored and stored anonymously in numeric formats. These results will only be used by the researcher for her research and your teachers will have no access to them, so these tests results s will not affect your class performance and assessment in any ways.

Inconvenience

Participation in this study may cause some inconvenience to you, including fatigue or small levels of stress. You might feel tired or a bit stressful during the tests.

Risks

There might be some potential risks to you by participating in this research and they include fatigue or small levels of stress. To prevent or to deal with these risks the following steps will be taken:

1. A small break (and snacks) will be available between the tests.
2. All tests will be scored and saved anonymously.
3. Your decision to participate or to decline to participate in the study by sharing your tests results will not affect your regular class performance or assessment.
4. The relationship between you and your teacher will not be affected in any ways by your decision or performance throughout the study as only the researcher has access to your data and consent forms.
5. You will receive a small incentive after the completion of the study.

Benefits

The potential benefits of your participation in this research include

1. You will have the chance to get focused instruction on two important language functions used in daily English conversations, i.e. requesting and refusing appropriately.
2. The results of this study can help ESL teachers be aware of the likely problems, how to give corrective feedback on students' errors in the most efficient way, and what delivery mode to choose for best results.

Voluntary Participation

Your participation in this research must be completely voluntary. If you do decide to participate by sharing your tests result, you may withdraw at any time without any consequences or any explanation. sIf you do withdraw from the study your data will not be used.

On- going Consent

If you give consent to participate in this study, your data might be used in the future research. However, as this is research is mainly quantitative, all data will be saved in anonymous numerical format for statistical analysis. This research requires your consent to share your tests results with the researcher. Signing this form implies your consent to share your tests results with the researcher to be used in her statistical analysis.

Anonymity

In terms of protecting your anonymity, all test papers and sound files will be saved anonymously. Your name will be replaced by numeric codes immediately by the researcher, and none of the raters know who the paper or the file might belong to. Responses to all tests will eventually be transformed to numerical data through rating scales. Individual characteristics or differences are not of interest of this study and all data will be analyzed as groups' comparison. Statistical analyses do not require identity of any participant.

Confidentiality

Your confidentiality and the confidentiality of the data will be protected by the researcher. Although all your classmates will be around during test times, only the researcher is aware if you have agreed or declined to share your tests results. The test papers will be destroyed after the results are saved in numerical data. Audio files and statistical findings will be kept in my personal password-protected laptop anonymously for some years for potential future analysis.

Dissemination of Results

It is anticipated that the results of this study will be shared with others in the following ways: PhD dissertation, scholarly meetings, conference presentation, journal articles.

Disposal of Data

Data from this study will be disposed. Paper copies will be shredded. Audio files and statistical findings will be kept in my personal password-protected laptop anonymously for some years for potential future analysis. This data will eventually be erased from my laptop after 3 years.

Contacts

Individuals that may be contacted regarding this study include:

Researcher: Marziyeh Yousefi (yousefi@uvic.ca)

Supervisor and head of the department: Dr. Hossein Nassaji (nassaji@uvic.ca)

Supervisory committee: Dr. John Archibald (johnarch@uvic.ca)

In addition, you may verify the ethical approval of this study, or raise any concerns you might have, by contacting the Human Research Ethics Office at the University of Victoria (250-472-4545 or ethics@uvic.ca).

Your signature below indicates that you understand the above conditions of participation in this study, that you have had the opportunity to have your questions answered by the researchers, and that you consent to participate in this research project.

Name of Participant

Signature

Date

A copy of this consent will be left with you, and a copy will be taken by the researcher.

APPENDIX B: STUDENT BACKGROUND QUESTIONNAIRE

Background Questionnaire

1. Name:

2. Gender:

3. Age:

4. Level/Program of study at:

5. Nationality:

6. Type of school you graduated from:

College

High School

University

Other

7. How many years did you study English before you came to this school?

8. How do you rate your English proficiency?

Beginning

Intermediate

Advanced

9. If you have, what is your IELTS / TOEFL/ CLB/ or any other standardized English language test score?

IELTS: _____ TOEFL: _____ CLB: _____ Other: _____

10. Have you ever lived in an English-speaking country more than two months?

Yes

No

if yes, how long did you stay there? _____ .

What was the purpose of your stay?

11. Do you speak language(s) other than your first language and English?

Yes

No

If yes, please specify _____ .

12. Do you have a Smartphone?

Yes

No

13. Do you have an account with these applications?

Facebook

Skype

WeChat

What's App

14. What other mobile applications or platforms do you use for online video calls?

Thank you!

APPENDIX C: TEACHER'S COPY



Teacher's copy**Session 1**

Time: 60 to 90 min (based on class population)

Objectives: - pre-test

-raising awareness of request and refusal strategies

Step by step guide:

- Greetings (self-introduction and participants' names)
- Introduction, explain there is a pre-test and post-test in the study to measure how effective the study has been, explain that only the main researcher has access to the data)
- Run the pre-test (1.MDCT, 2. Role-play (record) 30 to 45 min based on the number of participants
- Break with food (5 min)
- The mini-lesson (30 min)
- Activate prior knowledge by asking what participants know about requesting in general and in English in particular, start with requests
- Some Questions: *how is requesting in English similar to or different from requesting in your language? *How would you ask a younger brother to wash the dishes? *How would you ask your professor to write a recommendation letter for you? *How would a higher status person ask a lower status person to do something?
- List examples on the board (you may add such structures as: Can you....could you please....., would you....., I was wondering if.....Don't you mind.....I'd really appreciate it if.....)
- Look for likeness and variations
- Explain on board how:
- Social status: lower  higher
- Distance: close  distant

Affects our choice of:

Directness: 

Politeness: 

Formality: 

- Shift to refusals. Ask these questions: * how do you refuse a request? * Have you ever had to refuse a request from a member of your family, or friends? * would you refuse a request from your professor or boss? * How can you make a refusal politer? In what situations would you need to make polite refusals? * what can you do if someone refuses your own request?
- List examples on the board, you may add such structures as: I'm afraid but....., I'm sorry but.....I doubt that.....I don't know.....could, probably, possibly, I think.....
- Distribute worksheets and hand outs
- show clip 1 (Miss Wong's requests)

- ask participants (in pairs or groups) to discuss and answer worksheet 1, explain they can use handout 1 to answer the questions. read out some volunteer responses
- Show clip 2 (refusing boss's request)
- ask participants (in pairs or groups) to discuss and answer worksheet 2, explain they can use handout 2 to answer the questions. read out some volunteer responses
- explain next class is going to be practice session with partners

Sessions 2

Time: 45 min

Objectives: - practice and feedback

** please use *corrective recast* (see below for the procedure) as the only method of giving feedback.

Step by step guide:

- Assign participants to groups of 2
- pass out role-play cards 1, 2, and 3. Each card has a scenario that produces a request and a refusal. *make sure all groups have practiced the 3 scenarios by changing cards between groups.
- give 5 min practice time to the pairs.
- Sit next to each group, they perform their conversation and you give them recast feedback.
- Do this until all class has heard your feedback.
- Explain next class there will be more practice.
- Participants can have a snack before they leave.

Session 3

Time 60-90 min (based on class population)

Objectives: - practice and feedback

- Post-test 1

- explain about this session, first they will practice more and then they will have a test

** please use *corrective recast* as the only method of giving feedback

Step by step guide (same as session 2)

- Assign participants to groups of 2
- pass out the role-play cards, 2 request and 2 refusal scenarios, *make sure all groups have practiced the 4 scenarios by changing cards between groups
- give 5 min practice time to the pairs
- Sit next to each group, they perform their conversation and you give them recast feedback
- Do this until all class has heard your feedback
- Give a 5-minute break. Participants can have some snack.
- Run post-test 1 (Role-play (record), DCT, MDCT,)
- Explain next class there will be another test next week, but the test itself is a practice because it gives more chances to role-play

Session 4

Time:30 to 45 min (based on class population)

-Greeting

-Run post-test 2 (MDCT, Role-play (record), DCT)

-Pass out gift cards

Thank you very much!

IMPORTANT: HOW TO GIVE CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK ON STUDENTS' ERRORS:

*Please only use **CORRECTIVE RECASTING** as your feedback type. Please follow this technique when participants make mistakes (including linguistic forms and pragmatics):

1. Focus only on **one error** at a time.
2. repeat the learner's erroneous utterance with a stress or a **rising intonation** (like a yes-no question). This is to prompt learners to NOTICE the non-target like form.
3. provide the correct target form with **a falling intonation.**

Tips:

- Please avoid too many corrections in one turn.
- Don't speak too long when correcting. This is not supposed to break the flow of communication. Corrective recasting should be **brief** and **immediate.**
- Please Don't correct learners if they are presenting in front of the class.
- After each pair has prepared their role-play, sit next to them and give them feedback while they are performing.

APPENDIX D: HANDOUT ONE

Hand out 1 (REQUESTS)
Strategies for making requests in English

DIRECT	Plain/informal	More polite/formal	Softer, Even more polite
	Command form	Add <i>please</i>	Add softeners and/or hesitation markers
	Give me the book.	<i>Please</i> give me the book.	<i>If possible, Uh, please</i> give me the book <i>for a second</i>
INDIRECT	Conventional formulas	Past tense/more polite and formal	Add softeners and hesitation markers
Ability	<i>Can you</i> give me the book?	<i>Could you</i> give me the book?	<i>Do you think you could perhaps</i> give me the book?
Possibility/permission	<i>Can I</i> have the book?	<i>Could I</i> have the book?	<i>Would it be possible</i> to have the book for a minute?
willingness	<i>Will you</i> give me the book?	<i>Would you</i> give me the book?	<i>Do you think you would maybe</i> give me the book?
	<i>Do you mind</i> giving.....?	<i>Would you mind</i> giving.....	<i>I was wondering if you would mind</i> giving me the book?
HINTS			
Feasibility	<i>Do you</i> the book?	<i>Was it</i> you who had the book?	<i>Did you, by any chance, happen to</i> have the book?
Grounder	<i>I don't have the</i> book.	<i>I forgot to</i> bring the book.	<i>Oh, it looks like I may have forgotten</i> to bring the book.
Vague question	<i>Do we need the book</i> today?	<i>Was it necessary to</i> bring the book?	<i>Oh dear, I wonder if we might</i> need the book today.

Please note the following are not requests when uttered under certain conditions; for example, ORDERS (from higher to lower status; no choice but to do it)

Command	<i>Give me the book</i> (right now).		<i>Give me the book</i> when it is convenient.
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Desire	<i>I want you to give me the book.</i>	<i>I'd like you to give me the book.</i>	<i>When you have time, I'd like you to give me the book.</i>
Requirement	<i>You must/have to give me the book.</i>		<i>At your convenience, you are required to give me the book.</i>

(Adopted from Rinnert & Iwai, 2010, p. 37)

APPENDIX E: HANDOUT TWO

Hand out 2 (REFUSALS)

Refuser /Interlocutor Status	Learning Targets	Typical Expressions	Situation /Distance
Lower to Higher Status	1. Explanation 2. Alternative 3. Regret	Oh, I can't. I have that doctor's appointment. Can't Carrie (sister) do that for you? Oh, Boss! I have so much to do tomorrow. Can't Mary do that for you? I'm sorry Mom, but I can't. I have to be at the library tomorrow.	Refusing a mother's request or a boss's request (familiar relationship)
Equal to Equal Status	1.Regret 2.Expanation 3. Alternative	I'm sorry but I need to be glued to this computer until tomorrow morning. I have so much left to do. I'm sorry I still have a lot to finish before tomorrow. Perhaps someone else does not have such a tight deadline. I'm really behind but I'll let you know when I'm done if you still need it.	Refusing a friend's request to use a computer or to borrow something (familiar relationship)
Higher to Lower Status	1.Positive feeling 2. Regret 3. Explanation	I'm terribly sorry but I don't have a minute. I'm sorry but I really don't have the time right now. I'd really like to help you out but I'm afraid I'm really strapped for time right now and can't really afford to. Sorry, I'm late for an appointment.	Refusing a junior member's request to interview /a student for help of an assignment (familiar relationship)

(adopted from Wannaruk 2004, 2005, 2008)

APPENDIX F: WORKSHEET ONE

Worksheet 1 (Ms. Wong's Requests)**Part 1. Individually or in small groups answer the following questions:**

1. How many requests did you hear from Ms. Wong?
2. Did anyone else in the clip make a request?
3. Did Ms. Wong use the same structure to make requests? If not, what were different ways she used to make her requests?
4. How does Sasha respond to Ms. Wong's requests?
5. Are all the requests in this clip accepted? If not, which one is refused and how?
6. Comment on the degree of politeness of the request made in this clip.

Part 2. Individually or in small groups. Identify the following requests as either direct, indirect, or neither:

1. Turn off the television now! It's time for breakfast.
2. I'm asking you to turn off the television, son.
3. I would like to ask you to turn off the television now and come to breakfast,
4. you have to turn off that television, son.
5. I'd really wish you'd turn off television now?
6. How about turning off the television now?
7. son, your breakfast is getting cold. Why don't you come into the kitchen and eat?
8. I don't want you to be late for school, son, could you turn off the television now?
9. I don't know why I even bother to make breakfast for you.
10. you know that can't be the television I hear.
11. You know how I feel about watching television in the morning.
12. I'm sorry I forgot to make breakfast today.
13. Oh! What's on television?
14. That's my favorite program, son.

APPENDIX G: WORKSHEET TWO

Worksheet 2 (Refusing the boss's request)**Part 1 Individually or in small groups answer the following questions:**

1. How did the boss ask the employee to do the job?
2. How could she make the request politer?
3. Does the employer accept or refuse the request?
4. What does the employee respond to the boss?
5. What strategies does he use?
6. Comment on the degree of politeness of the refusal made in this clip.

Part 2 Role-play this situation with a partner.

Student A: You are the professor; ask one of your students (who is your teaching assistant) to stay longer today and finish marking the papers.

Student B: Politely refuse your professor's request and suggest an alternative

Student A: Politely refuse student A's alternative and give a reason why

Both: discuss until you reach an agreement

APPENDIX H: ROLE-PLAY CARDS

Role-play Cards; Sessions 2 and 3

Situation 1 (requester status: equal, refuser status: equal)
A. You are a student at University. You have been sick and were not able to attend classes last week. You want to know if one of your classmates can lend you the class notes. You ask the classmate:
B. You are a student at University. You have attended all classes during this semester. One of your classmates wants to borrow your class notes. Although you understand he/she has been sick, you do not want to lend your notes. You refuse by saying:
Situation 2 (requester status: higher, refuser status: lower)
A. You are a teacher at ICA who is in the middle of a lesson. At that moment, a student walks into class half an hour late and interrupts the lesson. The course policy states that late arrivals are not permitted, except for serious documented excuses. You tell the student that his/her behavior is disruptive and ask him/her to leave the class. You ask the student:
B. You are a student at ICA who arrives half an hour late to class because you had to go to the doctor for an important health issue. The course policy states that late arrivals are not permitted, except for serious documented excuses. The Professor tells you that your behavior is disruptive and asks you to leave the class. You refuse by saying:
Situation 3: (requester status: lower, refuser status: higher)
A. You are applying for a new job in a small company and want to make an appointment for an interview. You know the manager is very busy and only schedules interviews in the afternoon from one to four o'clock on Wednesday. However, you have to take the final-term exam this Wednesday. You want to schedule an interview on Thursday. You ask the manager:
B. You are the manager in a small company and you are hiring new employees. You are very busy and the only time you have for interviewing applicants is on Wednesdays from 1 to 4. One applicant asks you to schedule an interview for him/her on Thursday because she has a final exam on Wednesday. You refuse by saying:
Situation 4 (requester status: equal, refuser status: equal)
A. You are a university student. For the first time this semester, you are taking a mathematics course. You have had a hard time following lectures and understanding the textbook. A test is scheduled to be held next week. You notice that one student sitting next to you seems to have a good background knowledge of math, and is doing well. Since it is the beginning of the semester, you do not know him/her yet. You want to ask him/her to study together for the upcoming test. You ask the classmate:

B. You are a university student and you have taken a mathematic course this year. You have a good background of math from high school. One classmate who is not good in math asks you to study together for the upcoming test. However, you are busy this week because you have to work after school. Also, your parents are coming to visit you and you want to spend your free time with them. You refuse by saying:

Situation 5 (requester status: higher, refuser status: lower)

A. You are the manager of a bookstore in a university. A student has worked for a year at the bookstore, and you have gotten to know him/her quite well. It is the beginning of the semester, and you are very busy selling and refunding textbooks all day. Today you have a plan to extend business hours by an hour, though you know the clerk/student has worked long hours in the past few days. You ask him/her to stay after store hours. You ask:

B. You have been working in your university's bookstore for a year. It is the beginning of the semester, and you have been very busy selling and refunding textbooks all day. Your manager plans to extend hours by an hour and asks you to stay after store hours. However, you have worked long hours in the past few days and you have to study after work. You refuse by saying:

Situation 6: requester status: lower, refuser status: higher)

A. You are a student and you want to have an appointment with the professor tomorrow for asking some questions about your term project. You ask:

B. You are a professor and one of your students asks you for an appointment tomorrow to ask about his/her term project. However, you don't have any office hours tomorrow and have to teach all day. You refuse by saying:

Situation 7 (requester status: equal, refuser status: equal)

A. For the first time this semester, you are taking a mathematics course. You have had a hard time following lectures and understanding the textbook. A test is scheduled to be held next week. You notice that one student sitting next to you seems to have a good background knowledge of math, and is doing well. Since it is the beginning of the semester, you do not know him/her yet. You want to ask him/her to study together for the upcoming test. You ask the classmate:

B. You are a university student and you have taken a mathematic course this year. You have a good background of math from high school. One classmate who is not good in math asks you to study together for the upcoming test. However, you are busy this week because you have to work after school. Also, your parents are coming to visit you and you want to spend your free time with them. You refuse by saying:

Situation 8 (requester status: higher, refuser status: lower)

A. You are a busy professor in your office. A student whom you know very well is in your office asking questions about some ideas in one of your books. You clarify then to him/her. When the student is about to leave, you ask whether she/he can help you by leaving a book in the library when going home. You ask:

B. You are a student in your professor's office asking questions about one of his/her books. After discussing them with the professor, he/she asks whether you can help him by leaving a book in the library when going home. However, the library is not very close to the building you are in and you need to leave soon to get to work on time. You refuse by saying:

Situation 9 (requester status: lower, refuser status: higher)

A. You are a student. One of your papers is due soon. Although you don't have a lot of time to work on a new topic, you have good reasons for changing the topic of your paper. Ask your instructor if you can change the topic of your paper:

B. You are the instructor of the course and you have already assigned topics for students' papers which is due soon. One of your students asks you if she/he can change the topic. You can't accept because you other students did not have a choice to choose the topic. You refuse by saying:

To the teachers:

Distribute first 3 cards between pairs of two. Assign roles in each group. Make sure each student is assigned both requester and refuser roles throughout the practice session. Give 5 min practice time. Sit next to each pair, listen to their role-play and give recast feedback. Once finished with all pairs, collect cards, exchange each pair's card until all pairs have practiced all 3 situations.

To the students:

After you receive each card from your teacher, you have 5 min time to think and practice your role in the situation with your partner. Make sure you have both requester and refuser roles throughout the role-plays. The teacher will help you assign roles. The teacher will come to your table and listen to you performing your role-play with your partner. He/she will give you feedback on your performance.

APPENDIX I: PRE-TEST

Pre-test**Total time: 45 min****Part 1: MDCT test****Time: 15 min**

Name:.....

Instructions: Please read each of the following situations. There are three responses following each situation. Please read the responses to each situation and decide which one is the BEST and most appropriate in this situation.

1. You are a university student living at the university in residence. You are trying to study in your room and you hear loud music coming from another student's room down the hall. You don't know the student, but you decide to ask him to turn the music down. What would you say?

A. Excuse me, what's the name of the music? Sounds good, I like it. I wish I had another chance to listen to it, but not now.

B. Hello! Turn down the music. Some people are now studying, and some are sleeping.

C. Hey! I've got an exam tomorrow so would you mind turning the tunes down a little?

2. Your teacher asks you to stay after school to help organize today's test papers alphabetically. You really have many other things that you need to do. What would you say if you want to refuse?

A. Sorry, I'm afraid I can't.

B. I wish I could.

C. Miss Li, I'm afraid I can't. I have something important to do during that time.

3. Your computer is not working because of a virus. One of your teachers is very skillful in fixing computers. You know he has been very busy recently, but you still want to ask him to fix your computer. What would you say?

A. Sorry to bother you, but I've been having problems on my computer and was wondering if you could help me?

B. Excuse me, Mr. Smith. My computer is not working because of a virus, so when will you be free these days? It won't be long.

C. Good morning, Mr. Smith, I hear you are very skillful at fixing computers. So, I hope you can help me. It is a little trouble; it won't take you much time, OK?

4. Your close friend asks you to help decorate his house. You have an important exam coming up. What would you say if you want to refuse?

A. No. Sorry!

- B. Sorry, I'm afraid I couldn't.
- C. Sorry, I'm really busy these days preparing for my exam.

5. Two students are loudly discussing something in the library. You are the librarian and decide to ask the students to quiet down. What would you say?

- A. Would you please keep quiet?
- B. Excuse me. We're in the library. If you talk so loudly, you'll disturb others.
- C. Please move your discussion outside this library.

6. You have organized a good-bye party for a co-worker. Everyone in the office has contributed money to have a special photograph of all the office workers framed. The frame store promised that it would be ready today. You go into the store and the clerk tells you that they are very busy now and asks if you can wait another day. You can't wait because the good-bye party is this evening. What would you say?

- A. Oh! I'll be in trouble; I don't know if we can wait for tomorrow. I'm supposed to pick it up today. I'll talk to my manager and see if we can wait a couple of more hours.
- B. No, I can't wait. It's a gift for a good-bye party tonight, so I need it done by 5 o'clock today
- C. I really can't wait. I need it this evening because we are giving the photo to a co-worker this evening. You promised it would be ready today, didn't you?

7. You live in a large house. You own the house and rent out the other room. Next week you are going to put new carpeting in all of the bedrooms, so all of the furniture needs to be moved out of your house-mate's bedroom. You are sitting in the kitchen when your house-mate enters the room. You ask:

- A. Hi. Do you think you will be around next weekend? I'm planning to put new carpeting in the bedroom next weekend.
- B. Would you mind helping out next week? I'm going to put in new carpet.
- C. Hi, we're going to be getting new carpet next weekend, so do you think you could move the furniture of your room by next Saturday?

8. You live in a large house. You own the house and rent out the other rooms. Each person in the house is responsible for a few hours of chores every week. One of your house-mates asks if you can do extra chores this week because they are going out of town. You cannot do your house-mate's chores because you are very busy at work this week and do not have any extra time. What would you say if you want to refuse?

- A. Oh, I'm sorry. I'm really busy at work this week. Maybe you could ask someone else
- B. No, I can't. I'm very busy this week.

C. I wish I could do it, but I have lots to do.... I'm sorry.

9. You want to apply for a job in a small office. You want to get an application form. You go to the office and see the office manager sitting behind a desk. What would you say?

A. Hello. I'm interested in applying for a position with your company. Could I get an application form from you?

B. Excuse me; I would like to apply for a job. So, would you give me an application form?

C. Excuse me. I'm thinking of applying for a job here. If it's not too much trouble could I please have an application form?

10. You are the manager in an office that is now hiring new employees. Last week an applicant came to the office and scheduled an interview for tomorrow. Now, that same person is in the office asking you to reschedule the interview because of a family funeral. You cannot reschedule because you are about to leave the country for two weeks, your schedule is completely full, and you need to hire someone before you leave. What would you say if you want to refuse?

A. I'm sorry but I can't find any other time. I'm really busy these days, and I'm going abroad soon. Also, I have to have new staff before I leave.

B. I'm very sorry, but my schedule is completely full. I'm about to go to Japan for two weeks and I need to hire someone before I leave.

C. I'm sorry but I cannot reschedule the interview because I have an extremely tight schedule.

11. You are shopping for your friend's birthday and see something in a display case. You want to look at it more closely. A salesclerk comes over to you. What would you say?

A. I want to take a look at that. Will you take it out of the case?

B. Excuse me! Show me that in the case there.

C. May I see that, please?

12. You are a teacher at a large school. You see the teachers' supervisor on campus. The supervisor asks you to call all of the other teachers tonight and tell them that there will be a meeting tomorrow. You cannot do it because you know that it will take hours and you have friends coming over to your house tonight. What would you say if you want to refuse?

A. Oh, I have a very tight schedule tonight. Could you ask somebody else?

B. I'm terribly sorry but I can't. My evening is all tied up tonight because my friends are coming over for dinner. Maybe another teacher could help. Really, I'm sorry! I'll help next time.

C. I'm sorry, but I have friends coming over to my house tonight, so I won't have time. Maybe you could ask one of the other teachers.

Part 2: Oral role-plays

Time: 15 min preparation, 15 min recording

Instructions: Read the following role-plays. Pictures are provided to help you understand each situation. You have 15 minutes to prepare them with your partner. After you are both ready, perform all situations. The role-plays will be audiotaped in 10 minutes. Switch roles in each role-play in a way that each one of you will play both A and B roles.

Role-play 1

A. You are a student at university. You have been sick and were not able to attend classes last week. You want to know if one of your classmates can lend you the class notes. You ask the classmate:

B. You are a student at University. You have attended all classes during this semester. One of your classmates wants to borrow your class notes. Although you understand he/she has been sick, you do not want to lend your notes. You refuse by saying:



Role-play 2

A. You are an ICA student and you also work at a coffee shop near ICA. A volunteer teacher's assistant, whom you have never seen before, wants to buy a doughnut. You tell him/her it costs 2 dollars and ask him/ her if he/she could give you the exact amount of money since you don't have change. You ask the teacher's assistant:

B. You are a volunteer teacher's assistant at ICA. You go to a coffee shop near ICA, where you have never been before, to buy a doughnut. Since you don't know the exact price of the doughnut you have only brought a 20-dollar bill. When you are about to pay, the waitress tells you it costs 2 dollars and she doesn't have change today. You refuse by saying:



Role-play 3

A. You are a teacher at ICA who is in the middle of a lesson. Half an hour into the lesson, a student walks into class and interrupts the lesson. The course policy states that late arrivals are not permitted without a doctor's note. You tell the student that his/her behavior is disruptive and ask him/her to leave the class. You ask the student:

B. You are a student at ICA who arrives half an hour late to class because you had to go to the doctor for an important health issue. The course policy states that late arrivals are not permitted except for serious documented excuses. The professor tells you that your behavior is disruptive and asks you to leave the class. You refuse by saying:



Role-play 4

A. You are a student at university. You are about to go home when you see a student parking a car that is exactly the same make as the one you really want to buy. You have not had the opportunity to go to the local car dealer to request a test drive. So, although you don't know the student, when he/she parks the car, you tell him/her you want to buy that kind of car, and ask if they would take you for a test drive within the University campus. You ask the student:

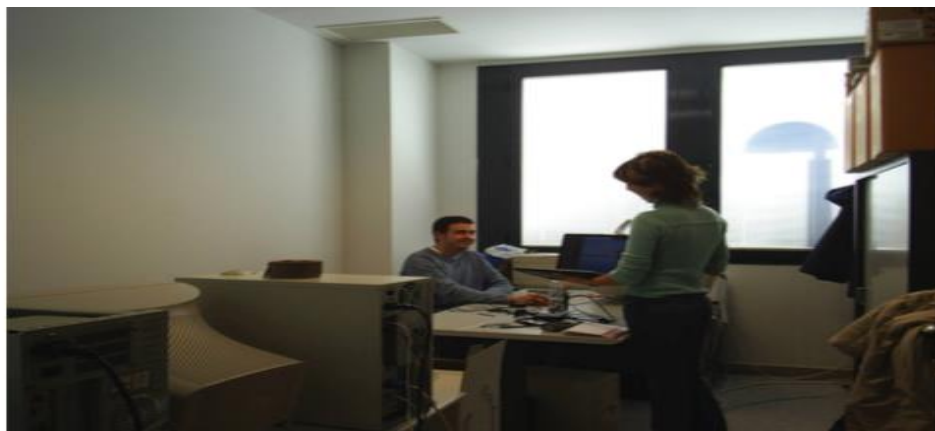
B. You are a student who just parked your car at the university campus. A student whom you have never seen before, explains to you that he/she is very eager to buy the same car you have. He/she asks you if he/she could borrow it for a test drive it for a while within the University campus. You refuse by saying:



Role-play 5

A. You are a first-year student at university. You have a paper due in three days and you haven't started working on it yet. The day you start working on it your laptop doesn't work. A close friend of yours is working as a research student in the department of Computer Science at University. You ask him/her if he/she can urgently help you fix the laptop. You ask the research student:

B. You are a research student in the department of Computer Science at University. While in your office, a first-year student who is a close friend of yours, asks whether you can help her/him with the laptop. He/she explains to you he/she has a paper due in three days and he/she urgently needs the laptop to get the paper done. Although you understand the urgency of the matter you cannot do it. You refuse by saying:



Role-play 6

A. You are a middle-aged man/woman who is also a nurse and responsible for educating people about public health in your city. Right now, your office is informing all local shops about flu prevention techniques they may use to keep themselves and their clients healthy. An important technique is the use of plastic gloves when handling food. You are at the butcher shop and the assistant is not wearing gloves. You ask him/her:

B. You are a student at university who is helping your father in his butcher shop. Very recently, the Public Health office sent all local shops flu prevention techniques they may use to keep themselves and their clients healthy. An important technique is the use of gloves when handling food. A middle-aged client asks you to wear plastic gloves to handle food, explaining that he/she is responsible for Public Health education. You refuse by saying:

APPENDIX J: IMMEDIATE POST-TEST

Immediate Post-test**Total time: 45 min****Part 1: Oral role-plays****Time: 15 min preparation, 15 min recording****Name:..... Code:**

Instructions: Read the following role-plays. Pictures are provided to help you understand each situation. You have 15 minutes to prepare them with your partner. After you are both ready, perform all situations. The role-plays will be audiotaped in 10 minutes. Switch roles in each role-play in a way that each one of you will play both A and B roles.

Role-play 1

A. You are a professor working in your office. Your teaching assistant, with whom you have a good academic relationship, met with you to discuss some of the concepts in one of your books that he/she didn't understand. You clarify them to him/her and when he/she is about to leave, you ask him/her whether he/she can help you to finish an online questionnaire by discussing some items. You ask the assistant:

B. You are an assistant to a professor, with whom you have a good academic relationship. You go to his/her office to discuss some concepts in one of his/her books that you didn't understand. After discussing them with him/her, you are about to leave when he/she asks you whether you can help him/her to finish an online questionnaire by discussing some items. You refuse by saying:

**Role-play 2**

A. You are applying for a new job in a small company and want to make an appointment for an interview. You know the manager is very busy and only schedules interviews in the afternoon

from one to four o'clock on Wednesday. However, you have to take the ICA English final-term exam this Wednesday. You want to schedule an interview on Thursday. You ask the manager:

B. You are the manager in a small company and you are hiring new employees. You are very busy and the only time you have for interviewing applicants is on Wednesdays from 1 to 4 pm. One applicant asks you to schedule an interview for him/her on Thursday because she/he has an English final exam at the ICA on Wednesday. You refuse by saying:



Role-play 3

A. You are a student enrolled in a hairdressing program at an academy. As part of your practicum you are doing an internship in a reputable salon. One day, you are cutting a woman's hair. You feel tired and need a coffee to wake up. Your colleague and close friend is not with a client at that moment so you ask him/her whether he/she can get you a coffee. You ask your colleague:

B. You are a student enrolled in a hairdressing program at an academy. As part of your practicum you are doing an internship in a reputable salon. As you do not have clients, you are sweeping the salon floor. Your colleague and close friend is cutting a woman's hair and asks you whether you could bring him/her a coffee to wake up. You refuse by saying:



Role-play 4

A. You are a university student. There is a long lineup to buy lunch at your university cafeteria. You are carrying a lot of heavy books. You see another student (whom you have never met)

sitting at a nearby table. You want to put your books on the table and ask the student to watch them until you get your food. You ask:

B. You are a student sitting in the University cafeteria finishing your lunch. Another student, whom you have never met, puts his/her books on the table and asks you to watch them until he/she brings the food. You can see that there is a long lineup to buy the food and you do not want to miss your own class, so you cannot wait. You refuse by saying:



Role-play 5

A. You are a secretary in the English Studies department at university. You are in an office giving some documents to a research assistant who works in the same department. It is getting close to the end of the day, and you still have a lot of things to do, among others dropping a document off in the library. You know that this building is on the research assistant's way home, so you wonder whether he/she could help you by leaving the document in the library on their way home. You ask the research assistant:

B. You are a research assistant working in the English Studies department at university. You are in an office with the secretary of your department who is giving you some documents. It is getting close to the end of the day, and he/she tells you the list of things he/she still has to do, among others leaving a document in the library. He/she asks you if you could help him/her by leaving the document in the library when going home. You refuse by saying:



Role-play 6

A. A. You are a teacher at the ICA who is in the middle of a lesson. Suddenly, the mobile phone of one of your students rings. You ask your student to turn off his/her mobile phone. You ask:

B. You are a student at ICA. Your teacher has always asked you to turn off your phone during the class. You are waiting for an important call today and can't turn off your phone. In the middle of the class your phone rings and the teacher asks you again to turn it off. You refuse by saying:



Part 2: MDCT test**Time: 15 min**

Name:.....

Instructions: Please read each of the following situations. There are three responses following each situation. Please read the responses to each situation and decide which one is the BEST and most appropriate in this situation.

1. You missed yesterday's class and need to borrow a friend's notes. What would you say?
 - A. Hey, Tom. You know, I was ill yesterday and missed the English class. Could you please lend me your notes?
 - B. Tom, can I borrow your notes?
 - C. Tom, I wonder if I can borrow your notes.

2. Your teacher asks you to stay after school to help organize today's test papers alphabetically. You really have many other things that you need to do. What would you say if you want to refuse?
 - A. Sorry, I'm afraid I can't.
 - B. I wish I could.
 - C. Miss Li, I'm afraid I can't. I have something important to do during that time.

3. You work in a restaurant. You have just taken a customer's order and are ready to leave the table. The customer is still holding the menu and you need it for another table because you only have a few menus. What would you say?
 - A. Excuse me, are you finished with that?
 - B. Excuse me; would you give me that menu? I need it.
 - C. Excuse me. If it's not too much trouble could I please take your menu?

4. One day, your girlfriend's teacher (who does not know who you are) is playing basketball and catches sight of you walking by. He asks you if you want to play. What would you say if you want to refuse?
 - A. Sorry, I'm afraid I couldn't.
 - B. It is pitiful that I am ill.
 - C. I'd love to but I am poor at playing at basketball.

5. Two students are loudly discussing something in the library. You are the librarian and decide to ask the students to quiet down. What would you say?

- A. Would you please keep quiet?
- B. Excuse me. We're in the library. If you talk so loudly, you'll disturb others.
- C. Please move your discussion outside this library.

6. You are on your lunch hour. You go into a small shop to look for a present for your friend's birthday. You find something you like and buy it. As you are getting ready to leave, the clerk explains that he would like to know more about the store's customers and asks if you would fill out a short questionnaire. You cannot fill out the form because you have to hurry back to work. What would you say if you want to refuse?

- A. Sorry, but I have to go back to work right now. Will you ask somebody else?
- B. I wish I could but I'll be late for my work so I can't.
- C. Sorry, but I'm in a hurry

7. One of your brother's friends asks to borrow your car to take his/her family members out. You would really prefer not to lend your car to anyone. What would you say if you want to refuse?

- A. Sorry but I prefer not to lend my car to anyone.
- B. Sorry, I'm afraid I can't.
- C. Why not rent one?

8. You live in a large house. You hold the lease to the house and rent out the other room. Next week you are going to put new carpeting in all of the bedrooms. Thus, all of the furniture needs to be moved out of your house-mate's bedroom. You are sitting in the kitchen when your house-mate enters the room. You ask:

- A. Hi. Do you think you will be around next weekend? I'm planning to put new carpeting in the bedroom next weekend.
- B. Would you mind helping out next week? I'm going to put in new carpet.
- C. Hi, we're going to be getting new carpet next weekend, so do you think you could move the furniture of your room by next Saturday?

9. You want to apply for a job in a small office. You want to get an application form. You go to the office and see the office manager sitting behind a desk. What would you say?

- A. Hello. I'm interested in applying for a position with your company. Could I get an application form from you?
- B. Excuse me, I would like to apply for a job. So, would you give me an application form?
- C. Excuse me. I'm thinking of applying for a job here. If it's not too much trouble could I please have an application form?

10. Your close friend asks you to help decorate his house. You have an important exam coming up. What would you say if you want to refuse?

- A. No. Sorry!
- B. Sorry, I'm afraid I couldn't.

C. Sorry, I'm really busy these days preparing for my exam.

11. You are a professor and want Tom, your student, to present a paper in class a week earlier than scheduled. What would you say?

A. Tom, can you present your paper in class next week? It was originally scheduled for the following week.

B. Tom, the schedule has been changed and you will have to present your paper next week, not the week after.

C. Tom, you must present your paper next week, not the week after.

12. You have organized a good-bye party for a co-worker. Everyone in the office has contributed money to have a photograph of all the office workers framed. The frame store promised that it would be ready today. You go into the store and the clerk tells you that they are very busy now and asks if you can wait another day. You can't wait because the good-bye party is this evening. What would you say?

A. Oh! I'll be in trouble; I don't know if we can wait for tomorrow. I'm supposed to pick it up today. I'll talk to my manager and see if we can wait a couple of more hours.

B. No, I can't wait. It's a gift for a good-bye party tonight, so I need it done by 5 o'clock today

C. I really can't wait. I need it this evening because we are giving the photo to a co-worker this evening. You promised it would be ready today, didn't you?

APPENDIX K: DELAYED POST-TEST
(Total time: 45 min)

Part 1: MDCT test

Time: 15 min

Name:..... Code:.....

Instructions: Please read each of the following situations. There are three responses following each situation. Please read the responses to each situation and decide which one is the BEST and most appropriate in this situation.

1. You are trying to study in your room and you hear loud music coming from another student's room down the hall. You don't know the student, but you decide to ask him to turn the music down. What would you say?

- A. Excuse me, what's the name of the music? Sounds good, I like it. I wish I had another chance to listen to it, but not now.
- B. Hello! Turn down the music. Some people are now studying, and some are sleeping.
- C. Hey! I've got an exam tomorrow so would you mind turning the tunes down a little?

2. You are on the beach with your friends. You have forgotten to bring your sunscreen. You see that one of your friends is applying sunscreen lotion. What would you say?

- A. May I have your lotion? I forgot to bring mine.
- B. I need your lotion; I forgot to pack mine.
- C. Could I use a little of your sunscreen? I forgot to pack mine.

3. Your close friend asks you to help him/her with his/her math homework. You have an important exam coming up. What would you say if you want to refuse?

- A. No. Sorry!
- B. Sorry, I'm afraid I couldn't.
- C. Sorry, I'm really busy these days preparing for my exam.

4. One of your brother's friends asks to borrow your car to take his/her family members out. You would really prefer not to lend your car to anyone. What would you say if you want to refuse?

- A. Sorry but I prefer not to lend my car to anyone.
- B. Sorry, I'm afraid I can't.
- C. Why not rent one?

5. Two students are loudly discussing something in the library. You are the librarian and decide to ask the students to quiet down. What would you say?

- A. Would you please keep quiet?
B. Excuse me. We're in the library. If you talk so loudly, you'll disturb others.
C. Please move your discussion outside this library.
6. You are shopping in a store. You need to buy some envelopes but you can't find them. You see a salesclerk nearby. What would you say?
- A. Excuse me. I need to buy some envelopes to send some letters. Where can I find them?
B. Excuse me! Show me the envelopes.
C. Excuse me, where are the envelopes?
7. You are a tourist in a large city. You have taken your film to a photo shop. When you go into the shop to pick up the pictures, the salesperson asks if you would like some coupons for more film developing. You don't need the coupons because you are leaving the city today. What would you say if you want to refuse?
- A. No, I really don't want any.
B. Thanks but I don't need them because I'm going to leave this city soon.
C. No thanks, I'm leaving town today.
8. You are the manager in an office that is now hiring new employees. Last week an applicant came to the office and scheduled an interview for tomorrow. Now, that same person is in the office asking you to reschedule the interview because of a family funeral. You cannot reschedule because you are about to leave the country for two weeks, your schedule is completely full, and you need to hire before you leave. What would you say if you want to refuse?
- A. I'm sorry but I cannot find any other time. I'm fully occupied these days, and I'm going abroad soon. Further, I have to have new staff before I leave.
B. I'm very sorry, but my schedule is completely full. I'm about to go to Japan for two weeks and I need to hire someone before I leave.
C. I'm sorry but I cannot reschedule the interview because I have an extremely tight schedule.
9. You want to apply for a job in a small office. You want to get an application form. You go to the office and see the office manager sitting behind a desk. What would you say?
- A. Hello. I'm interested in applying for a position with your company. Could I get an application form from you?
B. Excuse me; I would like to apply for a job. So, would you give me an application form?
C. Excuse me. I'm thinking of applying for a job here. If it's not too much trouble could I please have an application form?
10. You are applying for a student loan at a small bank. You are now meeting with the loan officer. He/she tells you that it would take two weeks to review your application because there

are many other applications. However, you want the loan to be processed as soon as possible in order to pay your tuition by the deadline. What would you say?

A. I am sorry I am applying late, but the tuition payment deadline is on the tenth of the month.

Could you possibly try to get the processing speeded up so I could pay my tuition on time?

B. Seems like a lot of people want to get student loans. You must be really busy. I'm very happy I have an opportunity to apply. However, I have to pay my tuition as soon as possible, I wonder if there is any way I could do this....

C. Could you review my application as soon as possible? The deadline to pay my tuition is very close.

11. You are applying for a job at a large company. You have just finished the interview with the manager. The interview went well but took much longer than you expected. You are getting ready to leave the office when the manager explains that it is time for a long tour of the company. You can't go on the tour because you have another meeting scheduled. What would you say if you want to refuse?

A. I'm sorry; I didn't realize there would be a tour. I've scheduled a meeting that starts in twenty minutes. Would it be possible to do the tour another time?

B. Oh, I didn't know about the tour and I have an appointment in twenty minutes.

C. I am very sorry, but I cannot go on the tour. I was not informed, and besides, I have another appointment this afternoon.

12. You work in a small printing shop. It is late afternoon and a valued customer comes in to ask if you can print 1500 copies of a new advertisement by tomorrow morning. To do this, you would have to work into the night. You are tired after a long day and cannot stay late. What would you say if you want to refuse?

A. I'm sorry but we are closing soon. I really can't do it by tomorrow morning, but if you can come back I can finish it by tomorrow afternoon.

B. I'm sorry but I can't help you. In order to help you I would have to work into the night, but I have to go home and feed my kids. Sorry about that.

C. Well, I hate to tell you, but it would be impossible to prepare 1500 copies by tomorrow morning.

Part 2: Oral role-plays

Time: 15 min preparation, 15 min recording

Instructions: Read the following role-plays. Pictures are provided to help you understand each situation. You have 15 minutes to prepare them with your partner. After you are both ready, perform all situations. The role-plays will be audiotaped in 10 minutes. Switch roles in each role-play in a way that each one of you will play both A and B roles.

Role-play 1

A. You are on the bus with one of your friends. There are plenty of seats on the bus but there are not any for two people together. You ask a passenger who is sitting on his/her own on a two-seater to change seats with you so that you and your friend can sit next to each other. You ask him/her:

B. You are on the bus. You are sitting on your own on a seat for two people. There are plenty of seats on the bus but there are not any for two people together. A passenger talks to you. He/she requests you to change seats and you are not willing to do so. You refuse by saying:



Role-play 2

A. You are an English student at the ICA and want to apply to study at a Canadian university. You ask one of your classmates to stay after class and help you figure out how to apply online. You ask:

B. You are an English student at the ICA. One of your classmates asks you to stay after class and help him/her figure out how to apply to study at a Canadian university. However, you are busy after class today and can't stay longer. You refuse by saying:



Role-play 3

A. You are applying for a new job in a small company and want to make an appointment for an interview. You know the manager is very busy and only schedules interviews in the afternoon from one to four o'clock. However, you have English classes at the ICA in the afternoon. You want to schedule an interview in the morning. You go to the office this morning to turn in your application from when you see the manager. You ask:

B. You are the manager in a small company. You are hiring new employees and are now reviewing application forms and scheduling interviews. You are busy with other work in the company in the morning and can only schedule interviews in the afternoons. One applicant sees you in the office and asks you to interview him/her in the morning. You refuse by saying:



Role-play 4

A. You are a salesclerk in a department store. The store has a new product and has asked you to show a demonstration of the product to any customer you have. You have a customer now who is paying for his/her items. You ask:

B. You are shopping in a department store. You have selected an item and are waiting to pay for it. The salesclerk helps you and explains that there is a special offer on a new product. He/she asks if you have time to show you a short demonstration. You can't watch the demonstration because you are on your way to meet someone for lunch. You refuse by saying:



Role-play 5

A. You are a teacher at the ICA. You are in class with one of your students who is asking a question after the class is over. It is getting close to the end of the day, and you still have a lot of things to do in class before you leave. You need to leave a document in the main office which is on the second floor. You know that your student is going home soon. You ask the student to help you by leaving the document in the main office when going home. You ask the student:

B. You are a student at the ICA. After the class is over, you stay in class to ask question from your teacher. After answering your question, the teacher asks you if you could help him/her by leaving the document in the main office when going home. However, you are late and the office is on the second floor. You refuse by saying:



Role-play 6

A. You are the head of a small company. It is getting close to the end of the day but today's project is not finished yet. You ask one of your employees (who you have a good a relationship with) to spend an extra hour or two tonight to finish up with this work. You ask:

B. You are at the office in a meeting with your boss. It is getting close to the end of the day and you want to leave work. He/she asks you to spend one or two hours after work to finish a project. Although you have a good relationship with the boss, you have to leave because your family is expecting you for dinner. You refuse by saying:



THANK YOU VERY MUCH

APPENDIX L: ROLE-PLAY RATING MANUAL AND RUBRICS

CRITERIA FOR RATING

You are to rate the appropriateness of the responses of ESL learners to oral role-plays on the four aspects: correct expressions, quality of information, strategies choices, level of formality. The appropriacy or appropriateness is marked by analytic Likert 5, that is, 5--completely appropriate; 4—mostly appropriate; 3—general appropriate; 2--- not very appropriate but acceptable; 1--- not appropriate and not acceptable. The format is as follows.

Scale	Criteria for Four Aspects of Appropriacy			
	Correct Expressions	Quality of Information	Strategies Choices	Level of Formality
5	Completely appropriate	Completely appropriate	Completely appropriate	Completely appropriate
4	Mostly appropriate	Mostly appropriate	Mostly appropriate	Mostly appropriate
3	Generally appropriate	Generally appropriate	Generally appropriate	Generally appropriate
2	Not very appropriate but acceptable	Not very appropriate but acceptable	Not very appropriate but acceptable	Not very appropriate but acceptable
1	Not appropriate and not acceptable	Not appropriate and not acceptable	Not appropriate and not acceptable	Not appropriate and not acceptable
O	The mean score of the above four items			

O= Overall score

(adapted from Hudson et al., 1992,1995; Hudson, 2001)

Explanations of the above criteria are provided below. The following criteria are just for your reference. You are to use your native speaker intuition and reactions and compare them to what your native speaker norm might be. Do not use what you think might say as the sole criteria for your rating.

1. Correct Expressions

This category includes the typical expressions used for refusals in three different kinds of refuser status (low-high, equal-equal and high-low). The correct expressions referred to an appropriate pattern without grammatical mistakes, in spite that the linguistic accuracy was not the focus of the study. You may depend on your native speaker's intuition to judge the correctness. The question to ask is: How appropriate is the wording/are the expressions? The criteria can be as

follows:

5: Completely appropriate Complete appropriate expressions and no grammatical mistakes

4: Mostly appropriate Appropriate expressions, no or at most one grammatical mistake

3: Generally appropriate Generally appropriate expressions, one grammatical mistake

2: Not very appropriate, but acceptable Not very appropriate expressions, two or three grammatical mistakes

1: Not appropriate, not acceptable Not very appropriate expressions, more than three grammatical mistakes

2. Quality of Information

This aspect refers to appropriateness of the information given by the students. An appropriate and lengthy explanation for refusal is needed for some native speakers, also, the situation for the written DCT of the present study is located only in a familiar relationship which needs a longer utterance. But non-native speakers of low proficiency might use very direct and thus shorter-than-native-speakers utterance. If a refusal begins with “I can’t” without any reason or explanation may be judged as inappropriate. You can judge appropriateness based on your intuition. The question is: How appropriate is the quality of information?

5: Completely appropriate Completely appropriate with very lengthy sentences

4: Mostly appropriate Mostly appropriate with lengthy sentences

3: Generally appropriate Generally appropriate with short sentences

2: Not very appropriate, but acceptable Not very appropriate with very short sentences

1: Not appropriate, not acceptable Not appropriate sentences with very short sentences

3. Strategies Choices

This category refers to refusal strategies like explanation, positive feeling, gratitude etc. used by native speakers. Those who can choose the three most frequently used American English refusal strategies provided in the learning targets can be regarded as the holder of scale of 5. You may judge according to your

intuition. 5: Completely appropriate

The question is: How appropriate is the strategies choice?

Exactly same as the learning targets 4: Mostly appropriate

1 strategy with some variations to the learning targets 3: Generally appropriate

1 strategy different with the learning targets 2: Not very appropriate, but acceptable

2 strategies different with the learning targets 1: Not appropriate, not acceptable

No strategies same as the learning targets

4. Level of Formality

Formality can be expressed through the degree of formal or informal word choice and the degree of politeness. Use of colloquial speech can be appropriate and polite in American English when the situation is informal and between friends, families and co-workers. Use of formal speech can be appropriate and polite in the situation of high to low and low to high status. However, a degree of appropriateness can be applied. You are the judge. The question is: How appropriate is the level of formality?

- 5: Completely appropriate Use very polite and very appropriate words for the situation
- 4: Mostly appropriate Use polite and appropriate words for the situation
- 3: Generally appropriate Use some words being not very polite and not very appropriate for the situation
- 2: Not very appropriate, but acceptable Use words being not very polite and not very appropriate for the situation
- 1: Not appropriate, not acceptable Use very impolite words and completely not very appropriate for the situation

(adapted from Hudson et al., 1992,1995; Hudson, 2001)

In all of your ratings, you are to use your native speaker intuitions and reactions. As someone with a great deal of experience with NNSs, you might be more accepting than other native speakers (NBs). However, you are not to rate the responses as the all accepting-and-culturally-sensitive-EFL-teacher. It is assumed that although you might be more accepting of a response than other more linguistically or culturally isolated NSs, you will still notice differences in some of the responses. Therefore, focus on what you notice and, using your native speaker intuitions. Compare it to what you think the NS norm might be.

When relying on your NS intuitions, it is assumed that you will employ some type of "band of acceptability". For example, you might find that two responses to the same situation have different degrees of formality, but that both seem acceptable. In such a case, you should rate them as you feel is most appropriate. Do not use what you think you might say as the sole criteria for your ratings. For example, you might be someone who uses humor very often in interacting with strangers. With this in mind you should not rate other response negatively just because they do not include the humor you would use in the given situation.

While rating, to the best your ability, judge each response independently of the others. Try not to let the other response influence your decision of the response in question. This might prove difficult. Try to clear your mind after each response, thus allowing your native speaker intuition as chance to interact with each response without bias from the last one. Some typical expressions for refusals are presented in the tables below:

H-L		(give comfort).				
Refusals to requests						
<p>Professor: We need some people to plan the class party. Do you think you can help?</p> <p>L-H</p>	<p>1. Explanation 2. Alternative 3. Regret</p>	<p>I'm sorry(regret), I can't (negative). I have a lot to do (explanation), maybe next time (future acceptance).</p>	<p>5 Completely appropriate, no grammatical mistakes</p>	<p>5 Completely appropriate, lengthy sentences</p>	<p>4 Future acceptance strategy with some variations of alternative</p>	<p>5 Very polite and formal</p>
<p>Classmate: You know I missed the last class. Could I please borrow your notes from that class?</p> <p>E-E</p>	<p>1.Regret 2.Expanation 3. Alternative</p>	<p>Oh, no (no), I'll use it in a moment (explanation).</p>	<p>3 Generally appropriate, though no grammatical mistakes</p>	<p>3 Generally appropriate, short sentences</p>	<p>2 2 strategies different from the learning targets (no regret and alternative strategy)</p>	<p>3 Not very polite, without gratitude and regret strategies</p>
<p>Relative: I'm having problems with some of my homework assignments. Would you please help me with some of my homework tonight?</p> <p>H-L</p>	<p>1.Positive feeling 2. Regret 3. Explanation</p>	<p>I'm so sorry (regret). I can't come (negative). I'm busy with my examination (explanation).</p>	<p>4 Mostly appropriate expressions, no grammatical mistakes</p>	<p>5 Completely appropriate and lengthy explanation</p>	<p>3 No positive strategy</p>	<p>4 Polite and formal but no positive feeling</p>

L-H=a lower refuser to a higher interlocutor
 E-E= an equal refuser to an equal interlocutor
 H-L= a higher refuser to a lower interlocutor

APPENDIX M: ROLE-PLAY RATING SHEET

Rating sheet
Rater 1
(Participants A and B)

Name/code	RP1	Correct expression	Quality of information	Strategies choice	Level of formality	Overall score
	Person A. request					
	Person B. refusal					
	Person A. request					
	Person B. refusal					

Name/code	RP2	Correct expression	Quality of information	Strategies choice	Level of formality	Overall score
	Person A. request					
	Person B. refusal					
	Person A. request					
	Person B. refusal					

Name/code	RP3	Correct expression	Quality of information	Strategies choice	Level of formality	Overall score
	Person A. request					
	Person B. refusal					
	Person A. request					
	Person B. refusal					

Name/code	RP4	Correct expression	Quality of information	Strategies choice	Level of formality	Overall score
	Person A. request					
	Person B. refusal					
	Person A. request					
	Person B. refusal					

Name/code	RP5	Correct expression	Quality of information	Strategies choice	Level of formality	Overall score
	Person A. request					
	Person B. refusal					
	Person A. request					
	Person B. refusal					

Name/code	RP6	Correct expression	Quality of information	Strategies choice	Level of formality	Overall score
	Person A. request					
	Person B. refusal					
	Person A. request					
	Person B. refusal					