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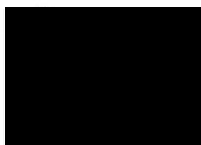
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ABSTRACT

This dissertation aims to highlight the importance of pragmatics when learning a language by reviewing previous research on pragmatics. This paper defends that being competent in pragmatics is as important as learning vocabulary, spelling, pronunciation and grammar of a language. It contains theoretical elements on pragmatics, interlanguage pragmatics and also, research on pragmatics in classrooms. The review of different studies will provide information on the possible effects of teaching pragmatics and how pragmatics can be taught. The goal is to promote competence in pragmatics and the benefits of learning pragmatics of a given language.

KEY WORDS: Pragmatics, interlanguage pragmatics, teaching pragmatics

RESUM

La finalidad de este trabajo es resaltar la importancia de la pragmática cuando se aprende una lengua teniendo en cuenta las investigaciones previas sobre la pragmática. Este artículo defiende que ser competente en la pragmática es igual de importante como aprender el vocabulario, la ortografía, la pronunciación y la gramática de una lengua. Este trabajo contiene elementos teóricos sobre la pragmática, la interlengua pragmática y también, investigación de la pragmática en las clases. La selección de diferentes estudios va a ofrecer los posibles efectos de la enseñanza de la pragmática y como la pragmática puede ser enseñada. El objetivo es promover la aptitud en la pragmática y los beneficios de aprender la pragmática en un lenguaje.

PALABRAS CLAVE: Pragmática, interlengua pragmática, enseñanza de la pragmática.

TABLE OF CONTENTS

1. INTROCUCTION.....	1
2. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE.....	2
2.1. The origin of pragmatics.....	2
2.2.1. Pragmatics and interlanguage pragmatics.....	5
2.2.2. Interlanguage pragmatics.....	6
2.3 Pragmatic competence.....	6
2.3.1. Pragmatic competence in communicative competence.....	7
2.3.2. Pragmatic competence in interaction.....	7
2.3.3. Pragmatic competence in intercultural communication.....	8
3. DATA COLLECTION IN INTERLANGUAGE PRAGMATICS.....	9
3.1. Naturally occurring data.....	9
3.1.1. Field notes.....	9
3.1.2. Recordings.....	9
3.2. Elicited data.....	10
3.2.1. Structured interviews.....	10
3.2.2. Written discourse completion task (WDCTs).....	10
3.2.3. Role plays.....	11
3.2.4. Politeness events.....	11
3.2.5. Rating scales.....	12
3.2.6. Verbal reports.....	12
3.2.7. Written multiple-choice completion task (WMCTs).....	12
3.2.8. Forced judgement task.....	13
3.2.9. Psychological measures.....	13

4. TEACHING PRAGMATICS.....	14
4.1. Explicit and implicit teaching.....	14
4.2. The effects of pragmatic instruction.....	15
4.3. Language socialization.....	16
4.4. Technology.....	18
5. DISCUSSION.....	20
6. CONCLUSION.....	23
7. REFERENCES.....	24

1. INTRODUCTION

My motivation to decide this topic for the end-of-degree paper is that I found interesting how depending on the language, there are different ways to speak depending on the context. For instance, since my parents are Korean, when I go to Korea, I have to take into account the register used depending on formal and informal context whereas in Spain, the country where I was born, formality is not that widely used in comparison to Korea. Therefore, the fact that I am not used to talk in a formal way to adults, when I go to Korea, sometimes I use informal register and they say ‘do not be impolite!’. This is one of the reasons that I know and understand how important the acquisition of pragmatics is in a given language.

Pragmatics in a language is an important part of the language but it is not present enough in language classrooms from my own experience. Although one of the main goals when learning a language is to be able to speak with the target language, it is equally important the ability to adapt the language considering the context, culture and values of the given language.

The aim of this paper is to review previous research on pragmatics, the teachability and if there are benefits or not after pragmatic instruction. The paper will be divided into three parts: the first part, the review of the literature, will serve as the theoretical framework for this essay, dealing with the origin of pragmatics, interlanguage pragmatics and what is considered to be being competent in pragmatics. The second part, data collection in ILP will provide different methods available in order to collect data. Finally, in the third part, teaching pragmatics will review research on the effects and different ways that have been proven to benefit the acquisition of pragmatics

2. REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

2.1. *The origin of pragmatics*

Austin (1978) is recognized as the first person who had interest in what we call nowadays pragmatics. According to Thomas (1995: 28) Austin was a philosopher that reacted against the limitation of truth conditional semantics. Thomas (1995) describes truth conditional semantics within the logical positivism “a philosophical system which maintains that the only meaningful statements are those that are analytic or can be tested empirically”, so it is based whether the sentence is true or false. Austin (1978) came up with his own classification within speech act which are: locutionary, illocutionary and perlocutionary which is explained in detail in *How to do things with words*. Thomas (1995: 49) provides a short definition of the three acts: Locution is “the actual words uttered”, illocution is “the force or intention behind the words” and finally, perlocution is “the effect of the illocution on the hearer”. Interestingly, the concept of speech act that Austin initially referred to has a different meaning nowadays. Thomas (1995) points out that originally, when Austin talked about ‘speech act’ it referred to the utterance in a general way but nowadays, he argues that the term has been narrowed and speech act refers to illocutionary act or force that Austin had previously described.

Austin (1976) is an important researcher in pragmatics but also Grice (1975). Grice (1957: 45-46) in the Cooperative Principle described how conversation needs to be carried out and speakers are assumed to respect and follow four different maxims: quantity, quality, relation and manner:

The Cooperative Principle

“Make your contribution such as required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange in which you are engaged”

Grice (1975:45)

The Maxims

Quantity	Make your contribution as informative as is required Do not make your contribution more informative than is required
Quality	Do not say what you believe to be false Do not say that for which you lack adequate evidence
Relation	Be relevant
Manner	Avoid obscurity of expression Avoid ambiguity Be brief (avoid unnecessary prolixity) Be orderly

Grice (1975:45-46)

If these maxims explained by Grice (1975) are not followed, and the speaker intentionally does not follow them, which happens very frequently, it is considered that the speaker ‘flouts’ the maxims. The speaker may ‘flout’ one, two, or even all of them. If this is the case, we may consider that “conversational implicature” is being observed as Grice (1967) described. Conversational implicature implies that the hearer looks for a meaning that is deeper than the literal one, for instance, in the use of irony. An example is provided in Alba-Juez and Mackenzie (2015: 101):

Charles: Look! It is raining! Why don’t we rush to the beach and bathe in the middle of the storm? IT would be very exciting, don’t you think?

Lucy (rolling her eyes in disagreement: **Yest, VERY, exciting!!**)

In addition to conversational implicature, Grice (1989: 25) described another type of implicature which is the conventional implicature as “in some cases the conventional meaning of the words will determine what is implicated besides helping to determine what is said” implying that the meaning is originated by words and expressions understood conventionally. An example is provided by Alba-Juez and Mackenzie (2015: 104):

“(99) Even teachers can afford one of these laptops”

With this sentence, it is explained that *even* has a conventional meaning that implies that the speaker assumes that teachers cannot afford to buy expensive computers.

Lastly, Searle (1975) is considered to be the most influential on contemporary linguistics with his speech act theory, even though the theory is considered to be incomplete that arises problems that are not solved, as Thomas states (1995: 93), “his work continues to serve as the basis for much (probably most) work in pragmatics”. Searle (1975a) considered to be basic five types of acts: representatives, directives, commissives, expressives and declarations which are considered a ‘refinement’ of Austin’s (1978) classification. Alba-Juez and Mackenzie (2015: 53-54) provide a summary of Searle’s speech act:

Type of Act	Definition	EXAMPLES of verbs denoting members of the class
REPRESENTATIVES	Acts which commit the speaker to the truth of the expressed proposition (Words-to-world direction of fit)	<i>Assert, conclude, boast, complain, deduce, recite</i>
DIRECTIVES	Acts which reflect the attempt by the speaker to get the hearer to do something (in varying degrees) (Words-to-world direction of fit)	<i>Ask, order, command, request, beg, forbid, instruct, urge, warn, plead, pray, entreat, invite, permit, advise, dare, defy, challenge</i>
COMMISSIVES	Acts whose point is to commit the speaker (in varying degrees) to some future course of action (Words-to-world direction of fit)	<i>Promise, threaten, offer, guarantee, pledge, vow, undertake, warrant, swear, volunteer</i>
EXPRESSIVES	Acts which express a psychological state specified in the sincerity condition about a state of affairs specified in the propositional content. (No direction of fit)	<i>Thank, congratulate, deplore, apologize, condole, detest, welcome, appreciate, regret.</i>
DECLARATIONS	Acts which bring about immediate changes in the institutional state of affairs and thus tend to rely on extralinguistic institutions. (Both word-to-world and world-to-word directions of fit)	<i>Appoint, nominate, christen, declare (e.g. war), excommunicate, sentence (e.g. someone to death), pronounce (e.g. a couple husband and wife), resign</i>

In addition, Searle has developed the original idea that big part of the language is not understood explicitly as Austin (1978) previously discussed in illocutionary force. Searle

(1975a) coined as ‘indirect speech act’ and described the different steps that the hearer had to follow to infer the speaker’s intended meaning as Alba-Juez and Mackenzie (2015: 65) state: “laying out the logical steps by which the addressee of an indirect speech act figures out the speaker’s intended meaning”. Finally, they argue that the term *indirectness* became an essential concept in pragmatics.

2.2.1. Pragmatics and interlanguage pragmatics

Pragmatics belongs to the branch of discourse that refers to the way learners use language depending on the context. Crystal (1997: 301) defines pragmatics as: “Pragmatics is the study of language from the point of view of users, especially of the choices they make, the constraints they encounter in using language in social interaction and the effects their use of language has on other participants in the act of communication.” A common example that is used by linguists to explain pragmatics is the sentence “Is that your car? (e.g. Mott 2011: 143). With this question that somebody may ask, depending on the context, instead of a direct question it may imply a sign of admiration.

Most part of the meaning in a discourse that derives from the context and we frequently encounter in social context that language needs to be adapted in order to have a good social integration. This idea is expanded by Alba-Juez and Mackenzie (2015: 2) “Meaning in pragmatics goes further than the word or the sentence, to be regarded as a crucial aspect of the whole social, cultural and even cognitive context”. For instance, the way a person refers to a friend or a police officer may be different. Alba-Juez and Mackenzie include different examples of social context such as: school, doctor’s office and courtroom. They also argue that gender, sexual orientation and ethnicity may affect the use of pragmatics. Alba-Juez and Mackenzie also give examples when they refer to cultural context as a crucial aspect in pragmatics, for instance, the influence of understanding of time, as a linear way or not or also how the same word can be seen positively and negatively depending on the culture. Lastly, when they refer to cognitive aspect, they refer to the beliefs and assumptions that a speaker can have. Thus, they argue that this affects in the way they form and interpret faith, religion and theology and they give an example with the sentence ‘God exists’ in which the implication for an atheist is the falseness of the sentence in contrast to believers. Therefore, language has to be adapted depending on the context in order not to offend or confuse the listener. In addition, it is necessary to take into account all cultural features and beliefs that is involved in a language.

2.2.2 Interlanguage pragmatics

Before interlanguage pragmatics (ILP) was coined as an independent field in second language studies, originally, it was part of applied linguistics in sociolinguistics as Bardovi-Harling (2012: 147) states: “An early venue for L2 pragmatics papers was the Sociolinguistics and TESOL Colloquium, which began at the TESOL conference in 1980.” Therefore, the terminology to refer what we call nowadays *pragmatics* was initially different as Bardovi-Harling (2012) explains, it was used terminologies such as *speech act*, *speech act theory*, *speech event*, *discourse analysis* and *sociolinguistics*. She further adds what were the early materials that dealt with ILP: descriptions of L1 and L2 use, cross-linguistic comparisons, and L2 acquisition that provide the basis for acquisitional inquiries and models for pedagogical materials.

Interlanguage pragmatics has been defined originally by Kasper and Dahl (1991: 216) as “interlanguage pragmatics will be defined in a narrow sense, referring to nonnative speakers’ (NNSs’) comprehension and production of speech acts, and how their L2-related speech act knowledge is acquired”. But this definition has changed over time, and now it has a broader sense, as Kasper and Rose (2003) state that ILP examines how nonnative speakers comprehend and produce actions in a target language, and how L2 learners develop the ability to understand and perform actions in the target language. Leech (1983) and Thomas (1983) provided a classification within ILP dividing them into two components: pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics. The first one refers to the use of linguistic aspects to communicate and the pragmatic meaning that they convey and the second, it is the way social aspects such as status or social distance may affect the way language is used. In addition, pragmatic competence is the pragmatic ability that a speaker has in an interaction. The following section reviews the definition of pragmatic ability and its evolution.

2.3. Pragmatic competence

The way pragmatic competence has been perceived has evolved throughout time, from an individual point of view to an interactional-oriented view. This is provided by Taguchi (2017) who classifies three different focus on competence: communicative competence, interaction and intercultural communication. At first, pragmatic competence was focused on the individual ability and later on it changed to an interaction-oriented the point of view.

2.3.1. Pragmatic competence in communicative competence

Taguchi (2017) argues that pragmatic competence was originated within the sociolinguistic competence with Dell Hymes' (1972) who described a theoretical model of communicative competence "language knowledge entails both grammatical and sociocultural knowledge that determine the appropriateness of language use in context". Taguchi (2017) acknowledges Bachman and Palmer (1996, 2010) as the ones who attempted to describe pragmatic knowledge as the usage of language in connection with the users of the language and the setting. Bachman and Palmer (1996, 2010) provided two types of pragmatic knowledge, first functional knowledge which is concerned with the goal that a language learner has, for instance, having the knowledge to perform a speech act of apologizing. The second type, sociolinguistic knowledge consists in the appropriate use of the language in a given setting, for instance, the way a request has to be adapted depending on the situation.

2.3.2. Pragmatic competence in interaction

According to Taguchi (2017) interactional approach is more used recently than communicative competence where they focused on the individual capacity. A traditional way to measure pragmatic knowledge is by assuming a correspondence between utterance and force, for instance, the use of request associated with conventional forms: could you and may. So, in this last case, research focuses in identifying those linguistic forms that convey the meaning in a particular language and compares these with learners' form to determine a learner's level of pragmatic competence. For instance, the discourse completion test (DCT) to measure pragmatic competence Bavordi-Harlig (2010).

Taguchi (2017) argues that this DCT lacks the interactive and dynamic nature of speech acts which implies the learners' ability to adapt and communicate depending on how the conversation unfolds. Therefore, speech acts may or may appear and non-linguistic forms may convey the request intention, for instance, facial expression, intonation and pause. Learners may use a variety of resources in the conversation such as rhetorical scripts, lexis, and syntax specific to practice, turn-taking system, topic management, repair and production of boundaries between speech act activities (e.g. Kasper 2006; Young 2011).

In addition, she states that in conversational analysis (CA) studies, they started to use it together with L2 pragmatic behaviour like Ross and Kasper (2013), on assessment of L2 pragmatics in interaction

2.3.3. Pragmatic competence in intercultural communication

Intercultural competence has been defined according to Fantimi and Tirmizi (2006: 12) as “a complex of abilities needed to perform effectively and appropriately when interacting with others who are linguistically and culturally different from oneself”. Taguchi (2017) argues that different studies such as Keckskes (2014) show that participants interpret others according to their L1 conventions or they create new standard of communication. In these studies, they have shown how participants negotiate interactional norms, standards of politeness and directness, communication styles, and cultural conventions. Intercultural communication ability is very important as Fantimi (2012) argues that developing intercultural competence will allow to have full access to a new culture.

3. DATA COLLECTION IN INTERLANGUAGE PRAGMATICS

Data collection it is the process in which researchers obtain the information that they are interested in to analyse and discuss. The section that follows review Golato (2017) Féliz-Brasdefer and Hasler-Baker (2017) classification.

3.1. Naturally occurring data

Golato (2017) states that there are two different ways to collect data that has not been elicited: field notes and recordings.

3.1.1. Field notes

This method to collect data consists in writing down the object of interest of the study. So, Golato (2017) argues that researchers are going to be very focused to hear linguistic item of interest and one of the disadvantages is that they have to rely on their memory. She also explains that using memory is going to limit their work in both quantity and quality and researchers are not going to be able to replay and verify an utterance. Kasper (2000: 319) has commented on this matter saying “There is thus a real danger that memorisation and taking field notes will result in recording salient and expected (or particularly unexpected) facets of the interaction, at the expense of less salient but perhaps decisive (often indexical) material”

3.1.2. Recordings

Recording data will allow to replay the utterance and also to be analysed by other researchers. Golato (2017) argues that this method has disadvantages as well since participants can feel uncomfortable being recorded and thus, producing speech can be influenced. This has been commented by Labov (1972: 209) “The aim of linguistic research in the community must be to find out how people talk when they are not being systematically observed; yet we can only obtain this data by systematic observation”. In addition, Golato (2017) explains that certain speech acts may be difficult to obtain in a natural context of an interaction.

3.2. Elicited data

Contrary to naturally occurring data, elicited data is the method in which researchers deliberately get information from participants. The following classification has been offered by Félix-Brasdefer and Hasler-Barker (2017).

3.2.1. Structured interviews

In structured interviews according to Félix-Brasdefer and Hasler-Barker (2017), the researcher is in charge to guide the conversation by preplanned questions or through a conversational task. In the first approach, preplanned questions belongs in the framework of sociolinguistic interview which consists in a series of structured sets of questions with a conversation format. In the pragmatic context, this type of interview is used to elicit narrative of personal experience or stories where there is a presence of control in the selection of the topics and questions that are asked due to the presence of researchers. In conversation tasks, they argue that researchers are not present and participants are asked to engage in free conversation in a group of two (e.g. Félix-Brasdefer and Lavin 2009).

3.2.2. Written discourse completion task (WDCTs)

The instrument that it is used is paper-and-pencil or computer format where it is measured pragmalinguistic or sociopragmatic knowledge in non-interactive format. The focus of research is therefore, what participants know, rather than how they use the ability to interact. For instance, a research from Cross-Cultural Speech Act Realisation Project from Blu-Kulka et al. (1989), a project in which WDCT was used to collect data in seven countries.

Félix-Brasdefer and Hasley-Barker (2017) explain that participants are asked to imagine a real-life situation and to provide a feedback in written format what do they would respond. This task can provide reactive speech acts (e.g. refusal to an invitation) or initiative acts, as request. They add that there is also free discourse completion task, also referred as dialogue production task (DPT) which is according to Scheneider (2008: 106) “to produce a short dialogue involving two participants”. In these instruments, data needs to be interpreted with caution since the data is under highly controlled conditions.

3.2.3. Role plays

Role plays simulate a communication face-to-face encounters in which two interlocutors assume roles that have been defined previously in experimental conditions. Role-play data allows research to examine interactional practices such as speech act sequences, conventional routines, openings and closings. In addition, this method can control contextual parameters: the situation, the degree of social distance and social power between the interlocutors, the weight of imposition, gender and age of the participants as well as learning environment.

Kasper and Dahl (1991) have provided two type of role plays: open and closed. In the closed, also called as oral production task or oral DCT, participants do not have a reply from the interlocutor and they role-play in a given situation. Therefore, the elicitation that researchers obtain is very specific and controlled. In contrast, open role plays there is interaction between participants and they are often asked to initiate a speech act or to react to, for instance, initiate a request or to refuse. There are also researchers who do not give explicit instruction and participants are asked to act based on the contextual information that they are provided (e.g. Márquez Reiter et al. 2005). The validity of this task is relatively high since researchers can obtain interactive data that is similar with the traits of natural conversation. But still, these tasks have to rely on the interaction of the interlocutors that affects the reliability and limits researcher control.

3.2.4. Politeness events

This method belongs in the field of psychological research, applied in politeness and impoliteness research in cross-cultural pragmatics (e.g. Culpeper et al. 2010). In this type of research, participants are asked to write about events which had a positive or negative effect on them. For instance, Culpeper and colleagues (2010), participants were asked from five countries to report a conversation that had a negative effect on them. Participants had to respond several questions: What was actually said, implied, or done, how/where was It said, implied or done? By whom was it said, implied, or done? Did others hear it? What were your reactions?

The degree of validity of this method can be criticised since participants may not always recall specific information but it has proven valid to a degree since the contributors of the research account their experiences from existing mental frames based on previous experiences.

3.2.5. Rating scales

In this method, participants are asked to rate a given data the degree of formality of a situation (e.g. 1 = too formal, 5 = too informal) or the degree of appropriateness of behaviour (e.g. 1 = inappropriate, 4 = appropriate). Numeric scales are used for instance, from 1 to 9, 1 to 7 or 1 to 5. Felix-Bradefer and Hasley-Barker (2017) explain that ratings scales are often used as a complementary information as in Culpeper and colleagues' (2010) with a question, for instance: 'How bad did the behaviour in the conversation make you feel at the time occurred?' (2010: 602). The data is valid if the instrument ensure consistency of responses but researchers need to be aware of individual variations and intercultural contexts.

3.2.6. Verbal reports

Felix-Bradefer and Hasley-Barker (2017) describe two types of introspection methods in verbal reports: think-aloud protocols and retrospective verbal reports in speech act. In the first one, participants are asked to think aloud or to express their thoughts while performing the task. In contrast, in retrospective reporting, verbal reports are obtained immediately after when participants have completed the task. For instance, Widjaja (1997) examined sociocultural perception that female EFL Taiwanese learners have of their L1 when refusing a date in English.

This method provides an understanding speech act performance since participants account what they actually perceived about each situation and how their perception influenced their responses. Therefore, the two types of verbal reports will increase the content and will construct validity.

Verbal reporting is grounded in psychological research within the Processing Model which interprets human cognition in short-term (STM) and long-term memory (LTM).

3.2.7. Written multiple-choice completion task (WMCTs)

The aim of the task is to measure pragmatic knowledge comprehension by participants. Félix-Bradefer and Hasley-Barker (2017) explain that learners need to choose among different options that are provided with the ones that they think is best or most appropriate in a particular context (e.g. Roever 2006). In the design of the instrument, native speaker norms and regional variations should be considered, as well as the design of distracter items to balance the selection of responses. This method, as the other ways of collecting data, situations need to represent authentic scenarios that corresponds to a high degree of reliability and validity in responses.

3.2.8. Forced judgement task

Félix-Bradefer and Hasley-Barker (2017) argue that in this task, participants have to choose between two or more options and there are three different types of judgement task: truth value judgment task, felicity judgment task, and picture-selection tasks. The first one, in truth value judgement there is given scenario (picture or tableau) where participants have to decide whether the utterance is true or false. In felicity judgment tasks is the same as the first one but instead of deciding the truthfulness or falseness, they have to choose an utterance that best matches. Lastly, in picture-selection task, participants have to choose the picture that they think it corresponds to the utterance (e.g. Katsos and Bishop 2011).

3.2.9. Psychological measures

Four different procedures are available to test psychological responses to a pragmatic stimuli according to Felix-Bradefer and Hasley-Barker (2017): self-paced reading, eye-tracking experiments, event-related potential (ERP) and functional magnetic resonance imaging (fMRI). The first task, participants are in control of the speed that words or phrases appear on a computer screen. The second one, eye-tracking experiments measure the position and the movement of the eye while participants complete the task. The third, ERP measures the components of brain activity waves in responds to stimuli. Lastly, fMRI is similar to the previous one but instead of activity waves, it measures the blood flow of the brain regions that activate (e.g. Eviatar and Just 2006).

4. TEACHING PRAGMATICS

4.1. *Explicit and implicit teaching*

Explicit teaching focuses on the target forms of language, promoting a controlled and a conscious use of language. Explicit teaching is typically considered as *teacher-fronted* Robinson (2001), which implied that learners are passive most of the time during the lesson and they actively practice with the L2. Therefore, explicit teaching favours the learning of specific forms through practice but it can lead to a practice with forms and repetition in a mechanical way. On the other hand, implicit teaching promotes the incidental acquisition of the L2 through usage-based and meaning-oriented practice. Paradis (2009: 23) suggests that is through communicative methods that stimulate the unintentional intake of L2 items that frequently occur in the input. Learners' attention is attracted to target forms, for instance, by contextualizing forms within real sentences or with input strategies. The focus is in communication and teachers may use subtle explanation to support the semantic and pragmatic meaning. Finally, the teacher may not interrupt the conversation even if students make mistakes as long as errors do not cause difficulty in conversation.

Research that has been carried out related to teaching pragmatics, for instance, to observe if learners improve their pragmatic skills after pragmatic instruction, if explicit teaching is more beneficial than implicit or if raising awareness of pragmatics has an effect on learners. Several studies support the idea that explicit teaching is better to students to improve their pragmatic skills such as Bavordi et al (2014), Martínez-Flor and Fukuya (2005) and Alcón (2005). In this last one, the number of participants were 132 who attended the last year of secondary education in Spain. The language of the study was English focusing on request. Participants were divided into three groups: one group received explicit teaching, another group received implicit teaching, and the last group, the control group, they did not receive any instruction on the use of request. The effect of pragmatic instruction was measured in a post-test that the three groups carried out. The results showed that participants in both in implicit and explicit groups increased their pragmatic awareness of request but not in the control group. In addition, the investigation proves that the ability to use pragmatics improved in both implicit and explicit group but not in control group. And finally, explicit teaching is more beneficial than implicit teaching since in this research claims that explicit group was significantly favoured over the implicit group.

On the contrary, not all studies have shown that explicit instruction may benefit the acquisition of pragmatic skills over implicit instruction, which is the case in the research carried out by Tateyama (1998). The pragmatic aspect that was investigated was the Japanese pragmatic routine *sumimasen*. Participants were native speakers of English except a Korean and a Chinese student at the University of Hawai'i at Manoa. The instruction lasted 8 weeks and the way they were assessed was by multiple choice test and role plays. The results of these tests show no significant difference between the two groups (explicit and implicit teaching). Tateyama argues that the result can be influenced by motivation since those participants who scored higher than others in the role-plays showed great interest in learning Japanese. Another factor that is provided that might have influence the result is the chances that they had to speak in Japanese outside of class. Students in the explicit group had hardly any contact with speakers of Japanese and in contrast, students from implicit group indicated that they spoke Japanese regularly. And finally, the fact that the implicit group academically outperformed the explicit group might have affected the results.

4.2. The effects of pragmatic instruction

What learners have acquired by receiving pragmatic has been investigated for instance, by Bardovi-Harlig and Vellega (2012) where 66 participants from an intensive English program were tested. They had multiple language backgrounds: Arabic, Chinese, Japanese, Korean, Portuguese, Turkish, Haitian Creole, Spanish, Russian and three students did not specify their L1. The instruction was focused in contextualised input and guided metapragmatic noticing on 6 conventional expressions in each class. The result show that students made four types of changes: they did no longer use the expression that they used to produce and instead, they chose the one preferred by the native speaker, they change less appropriate content to more appropriate, they added or changed their pragmatic strategy or made adjustments to the form with the same conventional expression. For instance, example 1, Bavordi Harlig and Vellenga (2012:85):

1. Event Organizer: Thanks for coming. [Item R3]
 - a. Pre-test: You are welcome Post-test: Thanks for inviting me (L5AGAS9)
 - b. Pre-test: You are welcome. Post-test: Thank you for inviting Ø. (L4CGAS20)

In addition, Kondo (2000-2001) analyses the effects that raising awareness of pragmatics has on learners. Participants were 38 Japanese learners of English from second-year students in junior college. In the post-test, the results show how learners increased the number of strategies they used and the length of their utterances. In addition, the study investigated which pragmatic aspects learners become aware of and it revealed that it raised awareness in different aspects: participants realised the possibility of transfer from native language and how their lack of knowledge of a given speech can lead to misunderstandings. So, by raising awareness, it helped learners to realise cultural differences and the different ways of using a language.

Lastly, Martinez-Flor and Fukuya (2005) provide two cognitive components students might experience after receiving pragmatic instruction. They argue that participants, after explicit instruction, their mental representation of pragmatic knowledge might have become more organised, especially with formal representation and symbolic representations. Also, that participants may have developed their capacity to control attention to appropriate information in real time. On the other hand, in the implicit group, they speculate two linguistic processes after instruction. Firstly, they argue that pragmatic recasts enhanced their learning probably because the recast provide a comparison to learners between their utterances and the target forms. Secondly, cognitive mapping is stated that may have played a role in the improvement of learning of the implicit group via pragmalinguistic recast. Thus, they argue that participants seemed to establish the cognitive mapping of pragmatic facts on their interlanguage system to a certain degree.

4.3. Language socialization

In line with teaching pragmatics explicitly, research has been carried out to investigate how pragmatics can be learned for instance, through language socialisation. Language socialisation (LS) consists in the acquisition of the language through social interaction and it has been described to be according to Ochs & Schieffelin (1984, 1986a and 1986b) “socialisation to use a language” and “socialization through the use of language”. In the first case, it refers to the way learners are taught what to say in a given context, for instance, in a foreign language classroom, teachers will socialise with their students and inform them how to use a language in a given speech act in an appropriate way depending on the context. In the second case,

socialization through the use of language implies that learners acquire culture of the language and also according to Dufon (2008: 27) “their status and role and their associated rights and obligations”. Studies on language socialization in foreign language classroom has been carried out, for instance, Kanagy (1999) conducted a study of American children learning Japanese in an immersion program and one of the aspects that Kanagy focused is greetings. In Japanese culture, a bow is involved when greeting so the teacher made sure to emphasize Japanese culture by making sure children were aware the attention to form and appearance that it is involved. The way children learn was through observation and imitation and also by socializing taking into account Japanese values.

Similarly, the research by Bell (1995) shows aspects that were emphasized in the previous research by Kanagy. Bell accounts her attempt to acquire literacy in Chinese while she was a student from college. The teacher placed emphasis on form, and on observation and imitation as key in acquisition. Bell and her Chinese tutor had different unconscious assumptions in various aspects for instance, the relationship between content and form, and the values placed upon. These differences created a certain tension in the learning environment that may be the reason why Bell did not progress as she would have liked. She concluded that language learning should be taught together with the culture of the target language:

“We need to consider human qualities which are valued in our society and explore how these are made manifest in our preferred literacy practices. We need to explore our own assumptions and recognize that much of what we used to consider an inherent part of literacy is actually culturally imposed.” (Bell, 1995:702).

Finally, Ohta (1999) has also investigated the socialization of students learning Japanese in an American university, which focused on the acquisition of extended assessments and the Initiation-Response-Follow-up routine. Research focused on a teacher-fronted interactive context, although students had little opportunity to produce language, through participation and scripted activities, they had the opportunity to produce and practice. Ohta found out that learners produce sequences that more closely resemble to those discourse outside the classroom and it shows how language socialisation theory can be applied to investigate how routines and participation can be learnt through social interaction in the classroom and which kinds of activities are more beneficial for learning a particular pragmatic form.

4.4. Technology

Another way that researchers have explored how pragmatics can be learnt is through the use of technology, for instance González-Lloret (2008), a study of how synchronous computer-mediated communication (CMC) may aid foreign language learners in their development of the way of addressing through interaction with expert speakers of the target language. Participants were sixteen from second-year Spanish language students at the University of Hawaii interacting with nine Spanish speakers, students at the University Jaume I in Spain. The project lasted for 10 weeks and it consisted with a project-based task that had to be completed between students of both universities. The task that students had to carry out was a full itinerary for a trip with detailed budget, including flight information, hotels and any activities, excursions, museums and restaurants they planned to visit. The results show that interactions between the learner and the speaker of the language included repair sequences by the Spanish speaker, with explicit instruction about the rules of addressivity between two speakers of similar age (2008: 120):

Vero (1:06:02 AM): Nuestro proyecto deberá planear un viaje. ¿Dónde **quiere usted** ir?

[...]

A_m (1:06:43 AM): No me llames de usted.

The research shows that it took several weeks for the student to acquire and change the way of addressing in target-like and Gonzalo-Lloret (2008) points out that this follows with the research by Alcón (2002: 371) “relationship between collaborative dialogue and learners’ development of pragmatics is not immediate’. But still, in this research students improve in their way of addressing to Spanish speakers.

Similarly, a study by Eslami and Liu (2013) investigate, computer mediated communication on whether the application of the explicit approach has a positive effect on EFL learners’ pragmatic competence. Participants were 118 majoring in EFL from Ching-Yun University of Taiwan and 22 students in the field of Teaching English as a Second Language. The study shows that students in the experimental CMC group who learned pragmatics through e-mail and on-line discussions showed statistically significant improvement in the DCT posttest. Overall, speech act, expressions and levels of politeness improved after the instruction.

Other ways of using technology to improve pragmatics have been explored for instance, in the case of Yang (2016), it is investigated the effects of web-based instruction with 36 English speakers studying Chinese at a Midwestern university in the U.S. The pragmatic aspect that was provided was to express gratitude in Mandarin Chinese. In order to assess participants, it was used a metapragmatic assessment task and also, students wrote reflective e-journals to track their self-access study progress and the perceptions of this method of instruction. The effects of web-based instruction were that all learners, regardless of their proficiency in Chinese, made significantly progress on their Chinese expressions of gratitude after five-week instruction period. In addition, in e-journals, participants expressed that they were more capable of evaluating appropriateness of Chinese expressions and to apply what they had learned from the website.

And finally, another way of improving pragmatics with the use of technology is showed in the case of Takamiya and Ishihara (2013) where they how blogging can be useful to learn pragmatics, which is the case of the single participant of the research. The participant is a learner of Japanese in an U.S. college who received instruction of four speech acts: compliments, thanking, requests, and refusal. After the instruction, through via blogs, the learner discussed the use of speech act with a native Japanese is speaker. Thanks to blogging, the learner showed a gradual pragmatic awareness, for instance, her posts show explicit noticing of pragmatic behaviours (e.g., a white lie when turning down someone's invitation). She also showed struggle accepting this kind of behaviours. The feedback from native speakers' peers was key for the learner to understand culturally specific features.

5. DISCUSSION

Sentences in language are not only based on their truthfulness or falseness, and this idea has been supported first by Austin (1978), who provided a classification of speech acts. Within the classification, illocutionary act is provided which is the origin of what we call nowadays pragmatics. Other philosophers like Grice and Searle developed Austin's idea. Grice made a classification describing how conversations need to be carried out and Searle provided a speech act theory which is considered to be a 'refinement' of Austin's classification.

Austin (1978) challenged the limitation of truth conditional semantics, implying that language has not to be understood only explicitly, and this idea has evolved through time, the term that is used nowadays is *pragmatics*. As seen in section 2.2.1, Pragmatics is defined by Crystal (1997: 301) as: "Pragmatics is the study of language from the point of view of users, especially of the choices they make, the constraints they encounter in using language in social interaction and the effects their use of language has on other participants in the act of communication." Therefore, pragmatics refers the way learners use language depending on the context. I consider that pragmatics is a very important part of the language, and when a student learns a language, it is key to teach in language classrooms since the acquisition of pragmatics show the proficiency the learner but also, if pragmatics is not acquired, it can lead to uncomfortable social situations. For instance, if a French student of Spanish native speaker of Spain does not learn that the pronoun 'vous' is referred to a teacher in France, and instead, uses 'tu', the teacher may consider that student to be impolite.

That is why I consider that pragmatics needs to be more present and spread awareness in language classrooms, since a big part of a meaning derives from the context and there is a need to adapt the language in order to have a good social integration. This last idea is reflected by Alba-Juez and Mackenzie (2015: 2): "Meaning in pragmatics goes further than the word or the sentence, to be regarded as a crucial aspect of the whole social, cultural and even cognitive context". For instance, the way language is used at school or in the courtroom is different depending on the language and the type of register that is used.

A term has been coined when referring to pragmatics in a second language, which is *Interlanguage pragmatics* (ILP). Kasper and Rose (2003) state that ILP examines how nonnative speakers comprehend and produce actions in a target language, and how L2 learners develop the ability to understand and perform actions in the target language. The way pragmatic competence has been perceived has evolved, from an individual point of view to an

interactional-oriented view. It is considered that pragmatic competence has to be contextualised in a conversational perspective since the goal is to use the language and to be able to adapt in the different types of conversations, context and culture. This last, goes in line with intercultural competence that is according to Fantimi and Tirzimi (2006: 12) as “a complex of abilities needed to perform effectively and appropriately when interacting with others who are linguistically and culturally different from oneself”. Since we live in globalized world, I think we must stress the idea that every language has a cultural element attached, thus, being aware and use the pragmatics must be relevant when learning a language.

Research on how pragmatics can be learned has been carried out and there are multiple ways to collect data. One of the ways I find interesting is role plays since it is a way of interaction that is similar to natural conversations. Participants have to take a role and imagining what they would say in a given situation. From my own experience, I think role plays is a good way to acquire new elements of the language since you can also have a feedback from the other interlocutor. Another interesting way thanks to technology is for instance, the eye-tracking experiments that measure position and the movement of the eye while participants are doing a task.

Finally, the big question is whether pragmatics can be taught in classrooms and what are the ways that students can improve the most. Research shows the teachability of pragmatics and how learners can be benefited from explicit teaching more than implicit teaching (e.g. Bavordi et al 2014, Martínez-Flor and Fukuya 2005 and Alcón 2005). In addition, the effects that pragmatic instruction have on learners had been analysed as well. For instance, Bardovi-Harlig and Vellega (2012) show that students made four type of changes after receiving pragmatic instruction: they did no longer use the expression that they used to produce and instead, they chose the one preferred by the native speaker, they change less appropriate content to more appropriate, they added or changed their pragmatic strategy or made adjustments to the form with the same conventional expression.

Different ways to learn pragmatics have been explored in this paper, for instance, through language socialization and technology (see sections 4.3 and 4.4). The first, language socialisation consists in the acquisition of the language through social interaction, for instance, Kanagy (1999) conducted a study where the way children learn pragmatics was through observation, imitation and also by socializing taking into account Japanese values. Also, students can learn pragmatics through the use of technology, for instance, Takamiya and

Ishihara (2013) where the participant use blogging as a way of learning pragmatics. In the blog, the learner had the chance to discuss speech acts with the native speaker of the language. Consequently, she had an acquisition of pragmatic awareness and also, she was able to receive feedback from native speakers.

6. CONCLUSION

The goal of this project was to explore the teachability of pragmatics through previous research. The results of the studies (e.g. Eslami and Liu 2013, González-Lloret 2008 and Martínez-Flor and Fukuya 2005) show that children can improve their pragmatic skills after receiving instruction and also, the findings point out to the fact that explicit teaching can be more beneficial than implicit teaching. Since we have research that shows that learners are capable of learning pragmatics, I think that it is important to implement pragmatic teaching in language classrooms.

The presence of pragmatics in language classrooms is relevant since as it has been argued previously, language is not only about syntax, vocabulary, grammar or pronunciation but also pragmatics. In a globalised world that we live nowadays, I consider that when acquiring a language, we have to take into account values and culture that a language has. For instance, if a Korean native speaker goes to Spain, when learning Spanish, they will have to teach that when you greet someone, instead of a bow that is implied in Korean culture, the learner will have to give two kisses and know the context where the two kisses have to be given.

Before doing research on pragmatics, I thought that explicit teaching had to benefit students more than implicit teaching but it turns out that sometimes, depending on the circumstances, learners will improve more after receiving implicit teaching than explicit teaching as it has been showed in Tateyama (1998). I realised that it is not that simple to teach pragmatics in a classroom but there are many factors to take into account in a class, for instance, the age of the participants, the length of time dedicated on teaching pragmatics, the way of teaching pragmatics, their environment and/or the chances that the learner has to speak with native speakers. Thus, depending all these factors, the learner will be able to improve. Consequently, there is not a universal or one way only that will give the tools to learn pragmatics but there are many, and the teacher will have to try to I think what will suit best to teach in a given classroom context.

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