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# A Study of the Relationship between Korean Non-Native English Speaking Teachers' Prior Teaching Experience and Their L2 Pragmatic Competence

Seung Ku Park

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A STUDY OF THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN KOREAN NON-NATIVE ENGLISH  
SPEAKING TEACHERS' PRIOR TEACHING EXPERIENCE  
AND THEIR L2 PRAGMATIC COMPETENCE

A Dissertation

Submitted to the School of Graduate Studies and Research

in Partial Fulfillment of the

Requirements for the Degree

Doctor of Philosophy

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Indiana University of Pennsylvania

August 2012

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Title: A Study of the Relationship between Korean Non-Native English Speaking Teachers' Prior Teaching Experience and Their L2 Pragmatic Competence

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This study was designed to explore five Korean NNESTs' L2 pragmatic competence and its relationship with their teaching experiences using DCT questionnaires of English request. This study in particular examined (1) five Korean NNESTs pragmatic competencies in English requests, (2) the relationship between their English teaching and learning experience and L2 pragmatic competence, and (3) their perceptions and attitudinal changes toward English education in terms of cross-linguistic/cross-cultural understanding of pragmatic differences between L1 (Korean) and L2 (English).

Three pragmatic theories served as theoretical background of this study: Indirect speech acts, Politeness, and Implicature, all of which are about implicit meaning of what is said in communication.

Three trends of data collection methods were employed; background questionnaire, discourse completion tests (DCTs), and interviews. The findings are, first, there is no big difference in Head Acts of requests in terms of the degree of directness. The Conventionally Indirect Head Act forms are most frequently used over all. Second, Supportive Moves show the salient differences in the use of strategies of requests. Along with Head Acts, Supportive Moves reveal the directness of the participants' request strategies and their L2 pragmatic competence, which is imbalanced between pragmalinguistic knowledge and sociopragmatic application. Third, this imbalanced L2 pragmatic competence result from their imbalanced teaching

experience. Reading-centered, score-oriented English teaching practice in Korea is attributed to the discrepancy of the L2 pragmatic competence. Fourth, four out of five participants have attitudinal change toward teaching and learning English since they became aware of their imbalanced L2 pragmatic competence through the experience of DCTs and review of their responses. However, all of them have a sympathy for Korean students and a strong antipathy to the current educational system in Korea, which originates the imbalanced English teaching in Korea. Fifth, there is no significant co-relationship of DCT responses between oral and written modes. Two participants gave longer responses in written mode and the others in oral mode, because in each mode they felt more comfortable to answer the questionnaires. Rather, they showed the consistency of the lack of L2 pragmatic competence in both oral and written modes.

In memory of my mother, Insoon Yoo (1936 – 1993), and my father, Jintae Park (1935 – 2007)

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## CHAPTER I: INTRODUCTION

... one could say that the fate of the Earth depends on a better understanding between cultures, religions, nations, generations, and so on. (Wierzbicka, 2006, p. 701)

### **Three Vignettes**

When it comes to learning English as a second or a foreign language, prior experience of teaching English cannot guarantee the mastery of appropriate use of English, no matter how long you taught English. This is true for me who taught English for more than 15 years, especially in ESL contexts such as in the US. Below are three small happenings out of many while I have been living in the US.

#### **Vignette One: At a Restaurant**

“Can I have an edible one?”

It was at an American country buffet with a grill station in 2007 not long after I came to America. As I was an English teacher for nine years, asking for a piece of steak at a grill counter was not a big deal. I wanted to have another piece of steak, so I went to the grill counter where a young (American) man was cooking pieces of steak. When I said the above, the man looked momentarily taken aback, picked up a burnt piece of steak and tossed it onto my plate. I felt a little insulted by his manner of giving me the steak. He looked angry for a while, staring at me returning to my seat.

#### **Vignette Two: With a Dog**

“You look yummy.”

It was a peaceful afternoon on a spring day in 2008 in America. I was coming home after school when I saw an American woman walking her little dog. As I like dogs, I asked her permission to pet the dog. She said yes and then I could pet and play with the dog for a while. Since I am a bit

mischievous and like joking around, I just dropped the joke above to the dog. The woman turned red with embarrassment and walked brusquely away without a single word. I just thought she had something to do at the moment.

### **Vignette Three: Casual Greeting in English**

I'm fine, thank you. (Really?)

When I first came to America, I was uncomfortable when I heard "How are you?" When I was asked how I was, I asked myself how I really was at that moment. In those brief seconds, I thought to myself about many things – "You asked me how I am? OK... let's see... I have two papers to submit this week and have to pick up my baby at the day care center at 5 o'clock, and I didn't look good in the mirror when I left home this morning... Do I say 'good' and leave the site? or have a short chat with him or her for a while about my current situation to clarify how I am now?" When I saw anyone I knew and heard "How are you?" I always hesitated for seconds for a proper answer about how I really was. Sometimes I stopped and said "Not good. You know, it's the end of the semester and people are busy" and this led to a little longer conversation, which I, sometimes, didn't want to have<sup>1</sup>.

The three episodes above largely illuminate pragmatic inappropriateness in the use of English as a second language (ESL). For the first expression, my intended meaning was something like "Is there any piece of steak cooked enough to eat?" or "Do you have well-done pieces?" However, the implied meaning of the expression would be "I'd like any harmless piece of steak" or "Is it safe to eat them?", which is totally inappropriate in the given situation. The second expression shows an extreme example of cross-cultural miscommunication caused by an

---

<sup>1</sup> In Korea, people normally and usually exchange "Annyeonghaseyo?" as a routine greeting, which means "Hi" or "How are you?" and often times it goes with no further verbal exchange.

inappropriate use of a joke. I'm from Korea<sup>2</sup> where a dog can be meat. Saying "yummy" to a dog is just a joke, nothing more or less than a joke in Korea, while it has a serious connotation in America. I should have said "Good boy" or "What a nice doggie you are" instead. The third example shows the difference between cultures regarding routine greetings.

I begin this chapter with the three vignettes above about my grammatically correct, but pragmatically inappropriate use of English. In other words, they are about the contextually inappropriate use of a Korean non-native English speaking teacher's (NNEST) English.

### **Rationale of the Study**

This pragmatic inappropriateness of English was an embarrassing notion to me, since I had been an English teacher for twelve years in Korea. It is natural that English language teachers should be competent users of English with a certain amount of proficiency. As Phillipson (1992) argued, the attainment of proven experience and success in second or foreign language learning is a minimal requirement for being teachers of English as a Second Language (ESL) or English as a Foreign Language (EFL). Ishihara (2010) and Goto Butler (2004) also noted that linguistic proficiency of a target language is one of the central qualifications for language teachers. When this applies to non-native English speaking teachers (NNESTs), it is arguable that to be a good NNEST, one should be a good ESL or EFL learner first. As demonstrated above in the opening vignettes, however, twelve years of teaching experience didn't guarantee me the mastery of English as a second language in both grammatical and pragmatic manners, simply because knowing the language and using the language appropriately are two different things. While grammatical correctness is about "knowing" correct linguistic

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<sup>2</sup> Korea in this research refers to South Korea.

forms, pragmatic appropriateness is about “using” appropriate linguistic behaviors<sup>3</sup> in a given context.

I began to wonder if these difficulties in pragmatic appropriateness apply to other Korean NNESTs. Specifically, I wondered how Korean NNESTs, who have taught English in Korea before matriculating in U.S. academic programs, perceive their English pragmatic competence and understand pragmatic differences between Korean and English. Particularly, I wondered if they can find the pragmatic differences across languages and cultures more easily as ESL learners when they are in the U.S. because when in an L2 circumstance, people can perceive the differences more easily. This forms the basis of this study.

### **Instrumental Concepts and Terms of the Study**

This study is about the relationship between prior teaching experience and the perceived pragmatic competence in English and metapragmatic awareness<sup>4</sup> of five Korean NNESTs in a U.S. academic program. These five Korean NNESTs have had a wealth of teaching experiences from Korea, but are currently in their U.S. academic programs. Being in the U.S. functions as an ESL setting for their L2 learning, and their matriculation in an academic program is for uniformity of the participants selection in the current study. All the participants are graduate students of an English department in an American university. Graduate students with English majors are more likely to have had teaching experience in English in the past. Since this study is a qualitative research, the number of participants will be enough simply because “there are no clear rules on the size of the sample in qualitative research” (Cohen, Manion, & Morrison, 2011,

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<sup>3</sup> Speech acts are typical and typological examples of appropriate linguistic behaviors such as requests, compliments, refusal, agreements, and complaints (Austin, 1962; Searle, 1969, 1975)

<sup>4</sup> L2 learners’ pragmatic awareness of cross-linguistic similarities and differences in terms of pragmatic relationship between signals and their contexts of use (Karmiloff-Smith, 1987; Savich, 1983; Wilkinson & Milosky, 1987; Kinginger & Farrell, 2004; Silverstein, 1976, 1993; Verschueren, 2000).

p. 161). The criterion for the participants selection will be discussed in-depth in chapter three.

This study in particular, examined (1) their L2 pragmatic competencies<sup>5</sup> in English requests, (2) the relationship between their English teaching experience and ESL pragmatic competence, and (3) their perceptions and attitudes toward their ESL pragmatic competence in terms of their cross-linguistic understanding of pragmatic differences between English and Korean. If pragmatic competence is vital in successful communication, it is also vital for language teachers to acquire or at least be aware of the significance of their own L2 pragmatic competence.

Most studies of adult L2 pragmalinguistic knowledge have used TOEFL scores only as a measurement of overall proficiency. However in this study, English teaching experience and responses in a special type of questionnaire<sup>6</sup> were examined as influential factors. The assumption is that L2 teaching experience reflects pragmalinguistic knowledge more accurately than just grammatical knowledge in comparing it with sociopragmatic knowledge. L2 learners with teaching experience, in other words, are assumed to have more pragmalinguistic knowledge as a prerequisite for language teaching. However, NNESTs' sociopragmatic knowledge or competence has not been taken into serious consideration in English language teacher education. Thus to have a more comprehensive account of Korean NNESTs' L2 pragmatic competence, the main focus of this proposed study is placed on the aspects of their metapragmatic awareness, with participants who have English teaching experience.

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<sup>5</sup> Thomas's (1983) two subcategories of pragmatic competence;

- (1) pragmalinguistic competence concerns linguistic knowledge of conventional means and forms, such as using grammatical mood or suggestory formulas for request: *Leave me alone, How about leaving me alone?* and *I'd like to ask you to leave me alone.*
- (2) sociopragmatic competence addresses perceptions of social conditions which govern appropriateness of utterances for a given situation, such as relative power, social distance, and degree of imposition: Saying "*what do you want?*" to your friend or a professor concerns sociopragmatic competence.

<sup>6</sup> Discourse completion tests (DCTs). See Chapter III.

## What is Pragmatics?

Pragmatics is “the study of language usage” (Levinson, 1983, p.5). In particular, pragmatics studies “the ability of language users to match utterances with contexts in which they are appropriate” (Bardovi-Harlig & Mahan-Taylor, 2010, p.1). The major focus of pragmatics is placed on the “use” of language. As it is about the use of language, it involves inevitably the appropriateness of the use. Following Leech (1983), Kasper (1997) viewed pragmatics as an “interpersonal rhetoric – the way speakers and writers accomplish goals as social actors who do not just need to get things done but attend to their interpersonal relationships with other participants at the same time” (p.1). When pragmatics is a study of the effect that the use of language has on other participants in the act of communication (Crystal, 2001), pragmatically inappropriate use of a second or a foreign language occurs when a second or a foreign language learner makes an utterance which is grammatically correct, thus clearly understandable, but contextually unacceptable in a given speech community.

### **One Phenomenon, Three Perspectives: (Indirect) Speech Acts, Politeness, Implicature**

Central to pragmatic studies are aspects of non-literal meanings such as *indirect speech acts*, *politeness*, and *implicature*. The indirect speech acts theory (Austin, 1962; Searle, 1969, 1975) explores different, indirect ways of delivering a speaker’s intention. For example, saying “Can you please close the door?” instead of “Close the door!” is an indirect way of speaking politely to achieve communicative goals. The politeness theory is based on an assumption that all human languages have their own way of marking social relationships between interlocutors (Brown & Levinson, 1987; Jespersen, 1933; Lakoff, 1976, 2004; Leech, 1983). The choice of a direct or indirect way of speaking shows different degrees of being polite in social relationships between speakers and listeners, also known as interlocutors such as social distance and social

class difference. The implicature theory entails implied meanings of an utterance (Grice, 1975; Bach, 2006; Levinson, 1983, 2000; Sperber & Wilson, 1986). The utterance “John is a machine” has many implied meanings depending on contexts, such as he is cold, or efficient, or never stops working, or puffs and blows, etc. (Levinson, 1983).

These three theories are three different perspectives toward one single phenomenon, that is, different ways of saying the same thing according to contexts<sup>7</sup>. For example, among the following examples:

1.1 Close the door.

1.2 Would you mind closing the door?

1.3 Aren't you cold?

1.2 is more indirect and more polite than 1.1. Compared to 1.2, 1.3 is more indirect, but could be less polite than 1.2. Degrees of politeness and indirectness of 1.1 and 1.3 are dependent on the relationships between the speaker and the listener, such as social status, social distance, and situations of the utterances. However, all of the three statements have the same communicative goal: The speaker wants the listener to close the door. To achieve a communicative goal, a speaker needs the ability to conduct linguistic behaviors, that is, the ability of *communicative competence*.

### **Communicative Competence and Pragmatic Competence**

Since Chomsky's argument to move away from behavioristic interpretations of language behavior, *pragmatic competence* – ability to use language appropriately in a given context – was relatively recently included in language acquisition research. Pragmatic aspects of language

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<sup>7</sup> The differences of the major concerns among the three theories are; (1) indirect speech acts concerns different (in)direct ways of saying the same thing according to the context; (2) politeness concerns the degrees of politeness by choices of different linguistic forms; and (3) implicature concerns different interpretations of a linguistic form in various contexts.

learning were first introduced by Hymes (1967, 1972) with the notion of *communicative competence*. He expanded Chomsky's (1965) abstract, intrapersonal cognitive account of language learning by adding *sociolinguistic competence*, as shown in Figure 1.

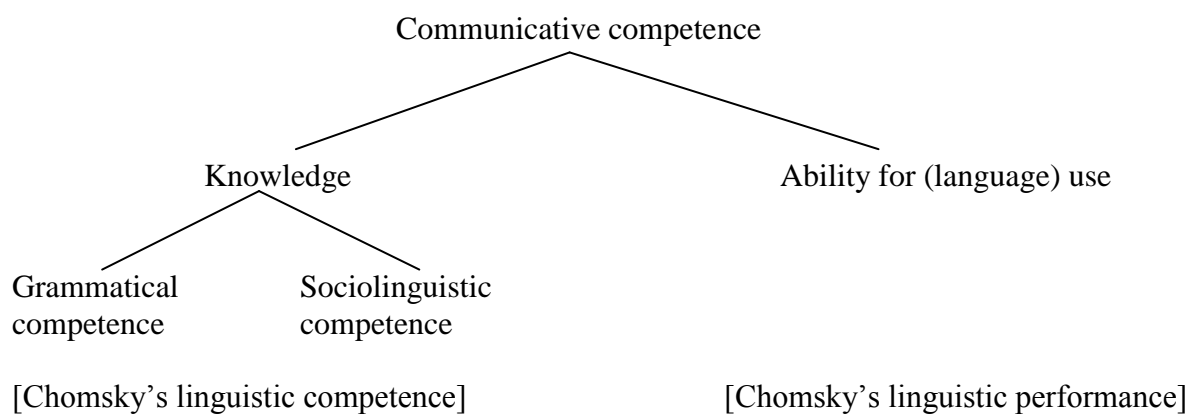


Figure 1. Hymes's communicative competence model.

With this sociolinguistic consideration brought into the field of language learning, Canale and Swain (1980) made a first, significant account of second or foreign language learning in terms of communicative competence. They expanded Hymes's communicative competence model by adding two competencies: discourse and strategic competence, as shown in Figure 2.

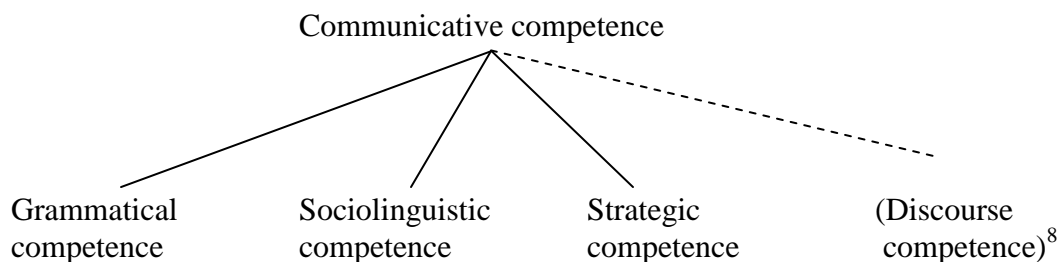
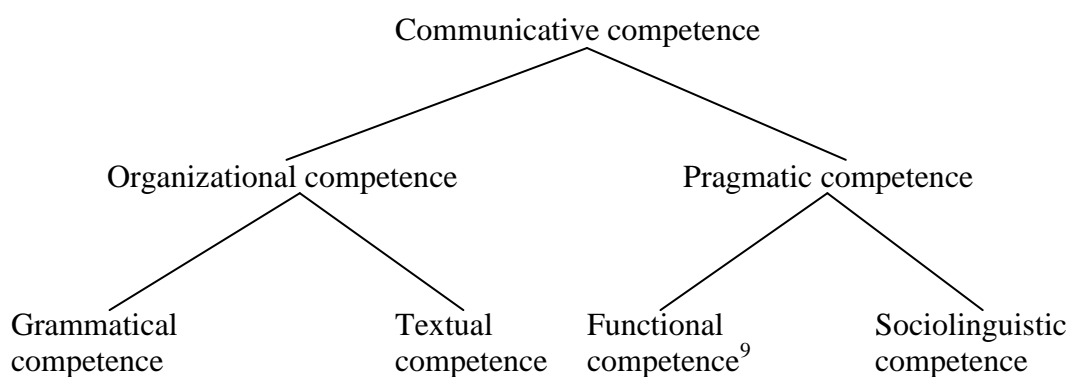


Figure 2. Canale and Swain's communicative competence (as cited in Johnson, 2004, p. 91).

<sup>8</sup> Discourse competence is added by Johnson (2004) by her interpretation of Canale and Swain's communicative competence model (1980)



Expanding Canale and Swain's communicative competence model further, Bachman (1990) first adopted pragmatic competence as one of the four components of language competence. Bachman and Palmer (1996) stated "pragmatic knowledge enables us to create or interpret discourse by relating utterances or sentences and texts to their meanings, to the intentions of language users, and to relevant characteristics of the language use setting" (p.69).



*Figure 3.* Bachman's communicative competence model

As briefly mentioned above, pragmatic knowledge or competence is an important component of language for successful communication in that it encompasses knowledge and the ability to use and interpret utterances appropriately (Bialystok, 1993; Kasper, 1997; Kasper & Rose, 2002). Without it, communication would easily break down and more communication breakdowns will occur when two or more languages and cultures meet.

### **Why L2 Pragmatics?**

Thomas (1983) pointed out that language teachers must draw on research to "develop ways of heightening and refining students' metapragmatic awareness, so that they are able to

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<sup>9</sup> Functional competence was originally stated as illocutionary competence in Bachman (1990: 87-94).

express themselves as they choose” (p. 91). To heighten and refine those students’ metapragmatic awareness, language teachers need to raise their own metapragmatic awareness first. Kasper (1997) pointed out that “Raising teachers’ awareness of cross-culturally diverse patterns of linguistic action [...] must play an essential role in the education and development of language teaching professionals” (p. 113). Tatsuki and Houck (2010) noted that “Of primary relevance to English as a second language (ESL) and English as a foreign language (EFL) teachers is the research on effectiveness of different types of pragmatic instruction on second language (L2) learner awareness, comprehension, and production” (p.2). By raising their metapragmatic awareness, language teachers as well as their students can find options for themselves in their interactions in the target language. Bardovi-Harlig and Mahan-Taylor (2010) argued the following:

The goal of instruction in (L2) pragmatics is not to insist on conformity to a particular target-language norm, but rather to help learners become familiar with the range of pragmatic devices and practices in the target language. [...] “successful communication is a result of optimal rather than total convergence” (Gile, Coupland, & Coupland, 1991). ... [E]xposing the learners to pragmatics in their second or foreign language helps them expand their perceptions of the language and speakers of the language. (p. 5)

They pointed out that L2 pragmatic instruction “should allow for flexibility” (Bardovi-Harlig & Mahan-Taylor, 2010, p. 6) in the students’ adoption or adaptation of the instruction to their own repertoire, so that they can maintain their cultural identities and participate actively through their contributions in a language exchange (Bardovi-Harlig & Mahan-Taylor, 2010; Hill, 1997; Ishihara, 2010; Jenkins, 2000).

In L2 pragmatic research, the grammatical and pragmatic awareness of language learners has been compared in terms of native speakers' intuition (Cook, 1999; Firth & Wagner, 1999; Norton, 1997). This is because there is a prevalent belief that a native speaker is intuitively correct and can explain the social use of language. The prevalent belief originated from the Chomskyan theory of language, which considered language acquisition as a typical genetic development and native speakers as the most reliable source of linguistic data (Chomsky, 1957, 1965). However, in L2 language teaching and learning, nativeness of the target language is not considered as a crucial point for successful L2 acquisition. Language teachers need not be native speakers of a target language but experts in terms of metalinguistic awareness. Kasper and Rose (2002), focusing on the importance of pragmatics in L2 acquisition, noted the following:

The critical qualification is that (language) teachers themselves have been sufficiently socialized to L2 pragmatic practices, that they can comfortably draw on those practices as part of their communicative and cultural repertoire, and that their metapragmatic awareness enables them to support students' learning of L2 pragmatic effectively (p. 52).

Studies of awareness of pragmatic differences between languages demonstrated that this metapragmatic awareness between languages enhances adult second language (L2) learners' effective language acquisition (Fukuya, 1998; Ishihara, 2010; Pearson, 2006; Tamanaha, 1998). As L2 pragmatics research has found that linguistic forms and social norms are learned differently (Bardovi-Harlig, 1999a; Canale & Swain, 1980; Canale, 1983; Kasper & Rose, 2002), the metapragmatic awareness helps an NNEST to be a more suitable and better qualified language teacher.

**Why Speech Acts? Why Requests?**

Among the central areas of pragmatics, speech acts are the most prominent manifestations of pragmatic competence in that all human speech communities have them, i.e. each community has modes of expression which vary according to communicative goal and context (Austin, 1962; Jespersen, 1933; Kachru & Smith, 2008; Lakoff, 1976, 2004; Searle, 1969). In the research of ESL learners' pragmatically (in)appropriate use of English, the speech act is frequently the object of investigation and "they are among the most rigorously researched of the areas in pragmatics (Cohen, 2010, p.6)" because of its universal nature across languages and cultures. By focusing on acquisition of a language by social appropriateness as well as grammaticality, Hymes (1972) noted that "rules of speech acts enter as a controlling factor for linguistic form as a whole" (p. 278) and "a child becomes able to accomplish a repertoire of speech acts, to take part in speech events, and to evaluate their accomplishment by others" (p. 277). As language instruction can inform the learner "by highlighting features of language and language use" (Bardovi-Harlig & Mahan-Taylor, 2010, p. 4), teaching speech acts of a target language will enhance the acquisition of grammatical correctness and social appropriateness of the language.

In particular, speech acts of request are among the most examined topics in studies of pragmatics in second language acquisition studies because requests are one of the most common forms of expression in L2 communication (Kasper, 2006; Koike, 1989). Additionally, the speech act of request represents socio-cultural factors between the interlocutors, such as social distance, power relationships, and the imposition of an utterance (Brown & Levinson, 1987; Hudson, Detmer & Brown, 1995; Leech, 1983; Thomas, 1983, 1995). Blum-Kulka (1991) pointed out that requesting style is a good index of a cultural way of speaking because every culture has a different and unique way of requesting.

As the speech act of request is a canonical form for the investigation of L2 learners' pragmatic competence (Blum-Kulka, 1982; Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1986; Ellis, 1992; Færch & Kasper, 1989; Hassall, 1997; House & Kasper, 1987; Rose, 1998; Takahashi & DuFon, 1989), it provides L2 pragmatic researchers with many pragmatic characteristics and strategic differences across cultures (Lightbown & Spada, 2006). In the field of L2 pragmatic studies, however, Korean ESL learners' pragmatic aspects were not investigated much. This study examined the aspects of Korean ESL learners' pragmatic competence in terms of English teaching experience.

### **Interlanguage Pragmatics, Cross-cultural Pragmatics, and Intercultural Pragmatics**

*Second or foreign language (L2)*<sup>10</sup> *pragmatics* is often used interchangeably with the terms *interlanguage pragmatics*, *cross-cultural pragmatics*, or *intercultural pragmatics*. Pragmatic aspects of L2 learners show the characteristics of interlanguage. *Interlanguage*, coined by Selinker (1972), refers to an L2 learner's language, which is identical neither to the L1 nor to the L2. For example, L2 learners often times produce inappropriate speech act forms which are present neither in L1 nor L2 (Blum-Kulka, 1983; Hill, 1997; Jenkins, 2000). L2 pragmatic research is a "second-generation hybrid" (Kasper & Blum-Kulka, 1993, p. 3). It is second-generation because it belongs to two different disciplines: second language acquisition (SLA) and pragmatics. It is a hybrid because it involves two different but inseparable research domains – language and culture. As L2 pragmatic research focuses on learning L2 pragmatics in different cultures, cross-cultural pragmatics and intercultural pragmatics have been used interchangeably. They can be interchangeable but do not have the same meaning. While cross-cultural pragmatics is considered a study of comparing pragmatic ideas or concepts between cultures, intercultural

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<sup>10</sup> The distinction between second and foreign language is geographical and environmental. If a Korean learns and uses English in Korea, it is a foreign language, while it is a second language, if it is learned and used in the U.S. Despite the distinction, in a broad sense, any language learned after one has learnt one's native language is called a second language (Richards & Schmidt, 2002, 2010). In the current study, both second and foreign language are called L2 henceforth.

pragmatics focuses on pragmatic interactions among people from different cultures (Kecskes, 2004). As the current study explored Korean NNESTs' L2 pragmatic competencies in a different culture (an ESL context), properly speaking, it is an intercultural pragmatic study. Despite the distinction, *L2 pragmatics* is used henceforth to encompass such concepts as second or foreign language pragmatics, interlanguage pragmatics, cross-cultural pragmatics, and intercultural pragmatics.

### **The Context of the Study**

Despite the importance of pragmatic competence in language learning, pragmatic competence was not considered as an important single topic of second language acquisition until the 1980s. In his editorial of the first issue of the first volume of the journal, *Intercultural Pragmatics*, Kecskes (2004) noted that pragmatics research, with the exception of interlanguage pragmatics, does not appear to pay much attention to intercultural aspects of communication in the globalized era. In particular, studies of L2 pragmatics have only recently become part of the main focus of ELT during the 1990s. In spite of the emergence of studies of L2 pragmatics in ELT in the 1990s, there have not been many studies of L2 pragmatics and they were published sparsely in a variety of different journals such as the *TESOL Quarterly*, *Journal of Pragmatics*, *Language Learning*, *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *Modern Language Journal*, and *Second Language Research*, to name a few.

Although it was not a main topic of SLA, the majority of early L2 pragmatic research was conducted with data collected from a variety of western languages including English, French, Dutch, and Spanish among others. With a few articles published in the journals above, studies of non-Westerners' L2 pragmatics didn't start until the 1990s, with a majority of the research with Japanese data (See Fukushima, 2000; Hashimoto, 1993; Ishihara, 2009, 2010;

Kubota, 1995; Ohta, 1994, 1995, 1997, 1999, 2001; Sasaki, 1998; Takahashi, 1996). Studies of Korean L2 pragmatic acquisition have been fewer in number and were not conducted actively until the middle of the 1990s (Kim & Wilson, 1994; Kim, 1995; Suh, 1999a, 1999b) and the 2000s (Ahn, 2007; Byon, 2001; Han, 2005; Koo, 2001; Rue & Zhang, 2008; Song, 2008). These studies, however, didn't touch on the relationship between Korean NNESTs' teaching English experience and L2 pragmatic competence. Pragmatic competence is vital not only for language learning students but also for language teachers. Hinkel (1999) noted that "applied linguists and language teachers have become increasingly aware that a second or foreign language can rarely be learned or taught without addressing the culture of the community in which it is used" (p. 2). Goto Butler (2004) suggested three steps for assisting the improvement of NNESTs'<sup>11</sup> English proficiency: (a) identify the level of proficiency English teachers need to teach English; (b) create appropriate guidelines and assessments for specific contexts in each classroom; (c) provide more systematic support for teachers (pp. 269-271). Although the notion of intercultural or cross-cultural pragmatics was introduced more than a decade ago in the field of ELT, English teacher training in Korea has not yet acknowledged the importance of L2 pragmatics because of the higher value placed on grammaticality than communication in Korean English education in the past.

### **Becoming an English Teacher in Secondary and Post-secondary Schools in Korea**

Educational policies regarding English teaching and learning in Korea are relatively more centralized in terms of government initiative than in other neighboring Asian countries such as Japan and Taiwan, where national education boards allow choices and freedom of English curricula in the local contexts (Goto Butler, 2004; Nunan, 2003). Under the centralized system of English education in Korea, the government administers the one and only qualifying test for

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<sup>11</sup> In her study, NNESTs are Korean, Japanese and Taiwanese English teachers.

becoming an English teacher in secondary schools – the Korean National English Teacher Credential Test (KNETCT). This test is the only assessment for Korean English teacher candidates' English proficiency. As discussed above, pragmatic competence is one of the important components of communicative competence; therefore, it should be an important qualification of a language teacher. However, the KNETCT doesn't have a measurement of the test takers' L2 pragmatic competence (See Appendix I). In my survey of the trend in the questions of the tests administered during the last ten years (2002 – 2011), I found few questions in cross-cultural settings. Furthermore, all of the cross-cultural settings are situations of Koreans vs. Americans with only two exceptions: a brief introduction of Brazilian punctuality and taking a trip to Australia.

In post-secondary schools in Korea, more than two-thirds of the basic required English courses (i.e. English 101 or the first year writing course) are taught by part-time lecturers. Most of them are recent Ph.D holders or doctoral students in English or English related majors such as English literature or English linguistics but not English teaching methodology. In 2008, more than 60% of post-secondary courses in Korea were taught by these part-time lecturers (Park & Kim, 2008). One of the issues in Korean English education is that there is no established law or governmental policy for instructor recruitment in colleges in Korea. In a response from the Korean Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology about an inquiry on the qualifying conditions for teaching English in a college level educational institute, I was surprised to see that there is no such condition (Whang, Y., personal communication, May 17, 2011). It is a conventional regulation in hiring English lecturers in post-secondary schools, which allows anyone to teach English at a college as long as the lecturer has a master's or a higher degree in English or an English-related major. Under these circumstances, it is more difficult to find



qualified or certified English lecturers in terms of L2 pragmatic competence in post-secondary schools than in secondary schools where it is fortunate that there is such a general certification test, i.e. KNETCT.

### **Cross-cultural Approaches in English Language Teaching**

Outside of Korean educational settings, cross-cultural approaches to language teaching were first introduced in the field of ELT in the 1980s as a prelude to L2 pragmatics studies. These approaches studied pragmatic aspects in cross-cultural settings because in a cross-cultural setting, it is inevitable to see pragmatic differences between languages and cultures. For example, saying “I have nothing to say about it” would represent a speech act of negative resistance or a refusal to say anything in English while conversely, it could mean a sincere apology in Korean. Major ELT journals started investigating diverse contexts of English learning and teaching around the world in the 1980s. These studies of L2 pragmatics led to the investigation of diverse contexts of ELT. For example, *TESOL Quarterly* started publishing articles which investigated globalized English incorporating with diverse topics such as refugees’ or immigrants’ English, socio-political English learning, and socio-economical English learning in the 1980s (see Appendix II for the trends and changes in topics and issues of English language teaching in *TESOL Quarterly*). Thirty years have passed since the introduction of cross-cultural approaches in ELT. However, English teacher training and curriculum development programs in Korea have not yet taken cross-cultural and pragmatic aspects of L2 learning into serious consideration<sup>12</sup>.

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<sup>12</sup> It is fortunate that the Korean Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology has recently revised the format of the Korean National Teacher Credential Test (Park, 2005). According to the press release, three steps of the test will be reduced to two by eliminating the first step, multiple choice questions, because it has long been criticized for the peripheral questions and the wide range of the study (Korean Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology, 2012). This reformation was triggered by the needs of the assessment of the candidates’ vocational aptitude and qualification as a teacher. With the elimination of the multiple choice questions, the candidates will be assessed by

By investigating the relationship between English teaching experience and L2 pragmatic competence in English requests, this study explored the importance of L2 pragmatic competence and the participating Korean NNESTs' own perception and awareness of pragmatic competence across cultures and languages. Furthermore, this study will shed light on programs and curriculum development in English teacher training in Korea by providing pedagogical implications and suggestions for teacher training and policy making in English education in Korea.

### **Purposes of the Study**

The main purpose of this study was to deepen and enrich our understanding of the L2 pragmatic awareness in English of five Korean NNESTs in U.S. academic programs. Highlighting their metapragmatic awareness between their L1 (Korean) and L2 (English), this study explored Korean NNESTs' perceptions and understanding of cross-cultural differences between English and Korean as ESL users in U.S. academic programs.

A second purpose of this study was to examine and investigate the possible diversity among Korean NNESTs through the documentation and analysis of their metapragmatic awareness in comprehension and production of request speech acts in English. Exploring their comprehension and production of English requests provided a clearer understanding of the relationship between two subcomponents of pragmatic competence – pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic competence (see footnote 3).

A third purpose of this study was to examine the relationship between the experience of teaching an L2 and the extent of L2 pragmatic competence. Particularly, to become an English teacher in Korea, one needs to get a qualifying score on a primary/secondary school teacher

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their holistic understanding of teaching, but it is still in question whether or not to assess English teacher candidates' general English proficiency, especially pragmatic competence of English.

certification examination (KNETCT), administered by the Korea Institute for Curriculum and Evaluation. The test, however, doesn't evaluate the test takers' pragmatic competence in English as an L2. By investigating the relationship between their teaching experience and their English pragmatic competence, this study provided suggestions for program and curriculum development in English teacher training in Korea.

A final purpose was to highlight the Korean NNESTs' awareness of and attitudinal changes about English language teaching and learning in general. Additionally, the effects of their awareness of the notion of the native speakers fallacy (Phillipson, 1992) or native-speakerism (Halliday, 2005, 2006, see footnote 8) was documented and examined in terms of the improvement of English proficiency. As they have English teaching experiences and are also English learners/users in situ, knowing their current stance and the reality of teaching English will be of great help not only to their own future career as more multicompetent non-native English teachers but also to the enrichment of English teacher training programs in Korea in general.

### **Research Questions**

How do the Korean NNESTs in the U.S. academic programs understand their pragmatic competence in English?

1. In what ways, do they believe that they have metapragmatic awareness?
  - 1.1 In terms of the three pragmatic factors (social distance, power relationship, and imposition), how do they understand and perceive the awareness of pragmatic difference between their L1 and L2?
  - 1.2 In terms of the pragmatic strategies of request speech acts, how do they understand and perceive metapragmatic awareness between their L1 and L2?

2. In what ways, do they believe their past English teaching experiences in Korea have informed their pragmatic competence in English?
  - 2.1 What is their attitude toward English teaching and learning in terms of pragmatic competence of NNESTs and how it has changed?
  - 2.2 What might be brought into the English classroom and teacher training curriculums in Korea in the future?

### **Overview of Research Design**

The main research objective of this study was to examine the relationship between past English teaching experience and pragmatic competence of English as an L2. To this end, I used the following data sources to explore my research focus: background questionnaire, oral and written DCTs (discourse completion tests), and individual interviews. The collected data was analyzed using (1) demographic examination of the answers from the questionnaire in terms of teaching and learning English as an L2, (2) pragmatic properties of requests in the Cross-Cultural Speech Act Realization Project (CCSARP) (Blum-Kulka, House, & Kasper, 1989. See chapter three), (3) participants' and my perspectives on investigating the participants' metapragmatic awareness based on their conceptual and attitudinal change about teaching and learning English.

Eight DCT situations were adapted from Hudson, Brown and Detmer (1995) and revised if needed, to elicit the participants' responses through the combination of three social factors<sup>13</sup> affecting sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic competencies (see Appendix VI). I will have three meetings that I have with each participant. At the first meeting, I administered a background questionnaire and then oral DCTs. A week after the first meeting, I met each participant for the written DCTs. Once the data was collected from the questionnaire and oral/written DCTs, the

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<sup>13</sup> Three social variables affecting speech act behaviors (Hudson, Detmer, & Brown, 1995). See page 87, Data analysis procedure.

data was transcribed. Data collection was basically conducted in English but participants' native language (i.e. Korean) was used if requested by participants or if necessary as to clarify any misunderstanding that may have occurred. Another week after the second meeting, I interviewed each participant about their metapragmatic awareness and attitude toward learning and teaching English as an L2. Before each interview, the data of each participant was analyzed in terms of the pragmatic properties of their request responses (Blum-Kulka, House, & Kasper, 1989) and request strategies (Blum-Kulka, et al., 1989; Brown & Levinson, 1978, 1987) (See the section of data analysis procedure in Chapter III). During the interview, each participant and I reviewed the recorded data to initiate the participants' metapragmatic awareness and their attitude toward English learning in terms of L2 pragmatic competence. The data from the questionnaires was kept in written mode, and the data from the oral DCTs and the interviews was recorded in oral mode.

In general, data was analyzed in two stages because data was collected in two different ways. First, the data collected prior to the interview was used to let the participants become aware of their L2 pragmatic competence. Second, the interview data was collected during the review of the previous meetings. The interview was conducted for the participants to recognize how they did what and why in the previous data collection meetings. Through this self-observing, stimulated recall type of interview, not only the participants' mental processes but also their awareness and performing ability of L2 pragmatics was examined and analyzed (Gass & Mackay, 2000; Mackay & Gass, 2005), especially focusing on the relationship between their past English teaching experiences and their pragmatic competence of English as an L2.

### **Overview of Forthcoming Chapters**

The first chapter began with my personal experiences of inappropriately using English as a non-native English speaker in the U.S. These personal experiences gave birth to this study's inquiry, the relationship between L2 teaching experience and L2 pragmatic competence. This chapter provided a brief sketch of the instrumental concepts and the context of the study. I further clarified the goals of the study and the rationale of the study.

After these introductory remarks, Chapter II reviews the pertinent literature on pragmatic research, specifically as it is seen in non-literal meaning. This review starts with the three pragmatic theories about non-literal meaning: (Indirect) speech acts, Politeness, and Implicature. These three theories, which are three different perspectives toward the common phenomenon of non-literal meaning, are introduced, examined and criticized in this study. Much of the literature reviewed is on L2 speech acts of requests. Particularly, L2 requests studies of Korean L2 learners are examined one by one because there have not been much research conducted in the area of L2 pragmatics of Korean learners.

Chapter III provides the description of the research methodology, including the participants, the data collection methods, the procedures of the data collection, and the procedures of the data analysis. This research is qualitative in nature because it used qualitative methods, such as interviews, and DCTs with open ended responses (See Chapter III).

In Chapter IV, the results from the participants are reported and analyzed using the tools, such as pragmatic factors and degrees of directness with addressing their L2 pragmatic competence in English requests. In addition, a comparison of two different DCT response modes, oral and written are reported and discussed in terms of length of utterances and degree of directness between the two modes. Chapter V provides the discussion about the themes emerging from the results of the data and their analyses in Chapter IV. With the discussion, Chapter V also

synthesizes the research results, and presents the conclusion, the reflections, and the limitation of the study for further research. This final chapter reflects the study in general and provides suggestions for pedagogical implications for language teacher training and curriculum development.

## CHAPTER II: REVIEW OF THE LITERATURE

In the field of English language teaching, the present consensus about native-speakerism<sup>14</sup> is that it is meaningless and pointless to distinguish native speakers from non-native speakers in the discussion of producing a better English language teacher (Graddol, 1997; Kachru, 1992; McKay, 2002; Paikedays, 1983, 2003; Phillipson, 1992). The current concern is the awareness and acceptance of the differences between the two (Medgyes, 1992, 1994, 2001). If we acknowledge and accept the differences, the most prominent differences lie in pragmatic competence (Davies, 2003; Varonis & Gass, 1985; Thomas, 1983, 1995). Since pragmatic competence is concerned with the effect of socio-cultural interactions on interlocutors (Kasper & Rose, 2002), those interactions in a target language are challenges for L2 learners. As such, the current study explores in what ways Korean NNESTs perceive and understand the relationship between what they know and have (grammatical knowledge and teaching experience) and how they perform (actual pragmatic competence), when excellent command of English is the most important characteristic of the NNESTs' professional confidence, and the attainment of L2 pragmatic competence is their biggest challenge.

This chapter reviews previous literature concerning cross-linguistic phenomena, central issues of pragmatics, metapragmatic awareness, L2 pragmatic studies, studies of L2 requests, and Korean L2 pragmatics research. Such a review of the literature will provide a better understanding of theoretical backgrounds and foundations of Korean L2 pragmatic studies of requests.

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<sup>14</sup> Halliday's (2005, 2006) term referring to the ideology within ELT, characterized by the myth that ideal English teachers are native speakers of English. It is also known as "the native speakers fallacy" (Phillipson, 1992).



### One Phenomenon, Three Notions: Language Transfer, Interlanguage, and Fossilization

In a broad sense, the three concepts of *language transfer*, *interlanguage* and *fossilization* are emergent notions from one phenomenon in L2 acquisition, i.e. cross-linguistic or cross-cultural influence on language learning. Language transfer is “the influence resulting from similarities and differences between the target language and any other language that has been previously (and perhaps imperfectly) acquired” (Odlin, 1989, p. 27). Interlanguage is “a separate linguistic system, or a set of utterances, which is neither identical to L1 nor L2, based on the observable output which results from a learner’s attempted production of a target language norm” (Selinker, 1972, p.215). Fossilization is “the long-term persistence of plateaus of non-target-like structures in the interlanguage of non-native speakers (even those who are very fluent speakers of the L2)” (Selinker & Lakshmanan, 1993, p. 197). Figure 4 is a representation of language learning in terms of the three notions, particularly in adult L2 acquisition.

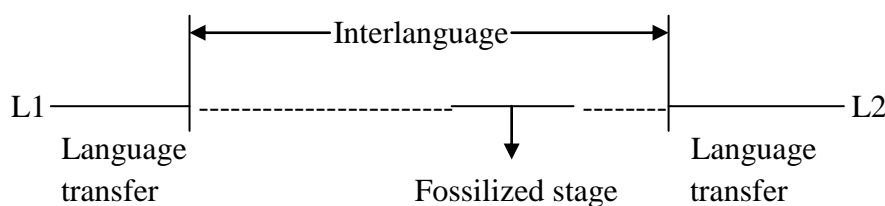


Figure 4. Three concepts in L2 learning

An L2 learner has a stage of language learning which lies on a certain point on the continuum in the range of interlanguage. The closer the point is to the left (L1), the less proficient the learner is in L2, and vice versa to the right. The influence or interference of language contact occurs from both L1 and L2, which is referred to as *language transfer*. Regardless of the argument about the possibility of nativelike attainment of an L2 (Han & Odlin, 2006; Lightbown & Spada, 2006), for

some reason, an (adult) L2 learner's proficiency tends to stop improving in fossilization at some point on the continuum in the range of interlanguage (Lightbown, 2000).

In the research of L2 pragmatics, Kasper (1990) acknowledged the contact of two (or more) systems of language uses and knowledge about them, such as social norms, values, and perceptions of L2 learners. This knowledge about knowledge of different language use is called *metapragmatics*, and the appreciation and recognition of such knowledge is *metapragmatic awareness*.

### **Metapragmatic Awareness and Language Teaching**

In order to have an appropriate communicative interaction, a speaker should be aware of not only the linguistic parameters which determine the effectiveness of the message, but also the management of the parameters governing the situation of the utterance (Gombert, 1993). Silverstein (1976, 1981, 1993) argues that communicative strategies require purposive manipulation of pragmatic rules and conceptualization of speech events and constituent speech acts. He defines such characterization of pragmatic structure of a language as metapragmatics (Silverstein, 1976). In L2 acquisition, it is assumed that understanding the characterization of the target language's pragmatic structure is required for a mastery of foreign or second language learning and use. Kinginger and Farrell (2004) define metapragmatic awareness as "knowledge of the social meaning of variable second language forms and awareness of the ways in which these forms mark different aspects of social contexts" (p. 20). Verschueren (2000) also noted that metapragmatic awareness is "a crucial force behind the meaning-generating capacity of language use" (p. 439). If the manifestation of L2 learning lies in appropriate use in a given context, this reflexive awareness is "no less than the single most important prerequisite for communication" (Verschueren, 2000, p. 439).

Studies of awareness of pragmatic differences between languages have demonstrated that metapragmatic awareness between languages enhances adult second language (L2) learners' effective language acquisition (Fukuya, 2002; Ishihara, 2010; Pearson, 2006; Tamanaha, 2003). As research of L2 pragmatics has found that linguistic forms and social norms are learned differently (Bardovi-Harlig, 1999a; Canale & Swain, 1980; Canale, 1983; Kasper & Rose, 2002), we can make the connection that NNESTs' metapragmatic awareness helps them to be better equipped language teachers. NNESTs are, by definition, aware of the cross-linguistic and cross-cultural differences and similarities between their L1 and L2, because they should know the differences and similarities to teach them to students. However, research on the relationship between teaching experience and L2 pragmatic competence is still in its infancy.

### **Non-literal Meaning in Pragmatic Studies**

Pragmatic research about non-literal meaning is about the connotational and implied meaning of utterances in language use. Theoretical grounds for non-literal meaning have varied over the past four decades and include speech act theory (Searle, 1969; Austin, 1962), cooperative principle and conversational implicature (Grice, 1975), politeness (Leech, 1983) and politeness and face (Brown & Levinson, 1983). The common issues overarching these theories are non-literal and intended meaning in human communication.

Even before Hymes (1972) pointed out that linguistic competence or understanding the literal meaning of an utterance is just a sufficient (not a necessary) condition for successful language learning, studies on aspects of non-literal meaning, or indirect meanings had been conducted to attempt to examine and formulate communicative rules or principles in conversation. With Austin's study of *language acts* (i.e. speech acts in Austin 1962) as well as Searle's study of speaker meanings which are delivered indirectly (indirect speech acts in Searle,

1969), linguists and linguistic philosophers have examined speech acts in terms of different approaches in looking at non-literal intended meanings in human communicative interaction (see Leech, 1983; Brown & Levinson, 1978; Grice, 1975).

Successful language learning, whether L1 or L2, involves learning what to say to whom and in which situations, as well as the ability to follow the rules of grammar and pronunciation (Wolfson, 1989). Human communication involves not only the exchange of information but also the interaction of social relations, i.e. status, position, age, etc. This involvement is mainly driven by the interlocutors' intentions or intended meanings. Because conversational participants' intention or intended meaning (i.e. non-literal meaning) is realized in terms of its situated and functional aspects, studies of communicational functionality have been conducted in the fields of linguistics, philosophy, and language education. As mentioned above, the study of communication functionality has three main streams in pragmatics and linguistic philosophy: the speech act theory (Searle, 1969; Austin, 1962), the implicature theory (Grice, 1975), and the politeness theory (Leech, 1983; Brown & Levinson, 1978). The common assumption is that communication is a social activity where novel information comes from engagement, commitment, and observance of communicational norms (Spencer-Oatey, 2000). Language teachers should be aware of socio-cultural information about non-literal meaning and this will lead to effective L2 communication because knowing the information about communication as a social activity is essential in L2 learning, and the goal of communicative social activities is to understand how to produce and comprehend non-literal meanings. Let us explore the three streams by comparing their different approaches toward the same linguistic phenomenon – the expression of non-literal meaning.

## Speech Act Theory

Among general theories of language and language acquisition, the speech act theory has aroused the widest interest in aspects in language in use, as Levinson (1983) pointed out, from psychology, anthropology, and philosophy to literary critics, the speech act theory has been widely accepted and applied to account for linguistic phenomena of non-literal meaning. Given the wide interest, I cannot review all the works related to speech acts and its application, so in this section I will attempt to draw a brief sketch of the core concepts, their crucial issues, and further studies of post-speech acts theory, because it has a direct relevance to my research.

The central idea of the speech act theory is that saying something is doing something. Austin (1962) identified three types of speech acts; locutionary acts (the production of sounds and words with propositional meanings), illocutionary acts (the performance of communicative intentions with conventionalized linguistic forces, such as greetings, requests, and apologies), and perlocutionary acts (the actual, sequential effect on the hearer after the utterance)<sup>15</sup>. Of the three acts, illocutionary acts are often used to mean speech acts in contemporary studies of language (Spencer-Oatey, 2000).

### **Indirect speech acts.**

Searle (1969, 1975) had the same consideration of speech acts as Austin did, and synthesized and systematized Austin's work by distinguishing direct and indirect speech acts. I might want to say that his "indirectness" is a revised notion of the illocutionary force of an utterance in Austin's account of speech acts. He pointed out that the illocutionary force is related

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<sup>15</sup> For example, saying "Do not go into the water" delivers its literal, ostensible meaning as the locutionary act, a warning as the illocutionary act, and a persuasion as the perlocutionary act if the listener doesn't go into the water.

to explicit performatives and illocutionary force indicators<sup>16</sup>. Searle's indirect speech acts are considered equivocal to Austin's illocutionary acts in that they consider the same examination of more than just the propositional or literal meaning of an utterance.

Searle (1969, 1975, 1976) adopted Austin's idea of performatives and proposed five types of actions in speaking; *representatives* (e.g. asserting, concluding), *directives* (e.g. requesting, commanding), *commissives* (e.g. promising, offering), *expressives* (e.g. thanking, apologizing, welcoming), and *declarations* (e.g. declaring war, excommunicating, firing from employment). Searle's directiveness/indirectness dichotomy refers to the (in)direct relationship between sentence structure and functional meaning. Different structural forms can be used to make the same indirect speech act depending on circumstances where or when an utterance is given. For example, when a mother wants to have her child wear a seat belt, there are many structural forms which can deliver the same intention or goal of the mother. The first two examples in Table 1 have different structures but can be used to function as an indirect speech act, that is, making a command/request. The final example is a direct speech act. In particular, the choice of different structural forms and different functional meanings varies in the use of ESL learners' (in)direct speech acts in accordance with different levels of proficiency (Achiba, 2002; Ellis 1992; Kasper & Rose, 2002 among others).

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<sup>16</sup> Examples of illocutionary force indicating devices in English: word order, stress, intonation contour, punctuation, verb mood, and performative verbs (Searle, 1969, p. 30)

Table 1

*Examples of Different Structures and Functional Meanings of Direct and Indirect Speech Acts*

<u>Utterance</u>	<u>Structural Form</u>	<u>Functional Meaning</u>
You must wear a seat belt.	declarative	statement
Are you wearing a seat belt?	interrogative	question
Wear a seat belt!	imperative	command/request

Taking another example to achieve a communicative goal or intention, a speaker can choose one structural form to perform his or her intended (in)direct speech act. A speaker chooses to be direct or indirect in speech acts, and the choice is often made by the circumstance of an utterance. For example, when a speaker wants the hearer to close the door, the speaker can achieve his/her goal or intention by saying either of the following in Table 2.

Table 2

*Examples of a Direct and an Indirect Speech Act of a Request (Closing the Door)*

<u>Speech act</u>	<u>Example</u>
Direct	Close the door!
Indirect	Do you mind closing the door?
	You don't mind the cold air. (Because you left the door open)
	This room has perfect ventilation. Were you born in a barn?

Only the first example is a direct speech act, because it is direct in the form of achieving the speaker's goal or intention. The rest of the examples are indirect speech acts of request realized

as commands with different structural forms as interrogatives or declaratives. Specifically the last example is closely tied to American agrarian culture, whose functional, intended meaning is a request or a complaint. The speaker is giving a non-literal hint of the hearer's guilt in leaving the door open. This non-literal, intended meaning is well-conventionalized in American culture that it is hard for L2 learners to produce or understand it. From culture to culture, expressions to ask a hearer to close the door should vary. For example, Koreans could say "You have a long tail" in the same situation as the last example above, because if you have a very long tail and enter a room, it is likely that a part of the tail remains outside the room and therefore you leave the door open. If the examples of a barn and a tail are used cross-culturally, they would be hard to understand as a request to close the door. Basically, indirect speech acts are a speaker's use of non-literal meaning to deliver his/her intention to achieve a goal by speaking obliquely. In particular, the last example, by generating an implicature, leads the hearer to interpret the non-literal meaning more indirectly than the other two examples in that the speaker seems to talk about something else than the door but tries to deliver the same intention. The awareness of indirect speech acts will be examined in the current study because, in many studies of L2 learners' use of different types of indirect speech acts, the perception and understanding of indirect speech acts vary according to level of proficiency (Achiba, 2002; Ellis, 1992; Kasper & Rose, 2002)

Although Searle's speech act theory, following and developing Austin's speech act argument, has considerable influence on pragmatic theory, it has met quite a few criticisms. First, Searle (and Austin, too) took a sentence as a typical unit of a speech act. However, as Geis (1995) pointed out, speech act theory must be embedded within a general theory of conversation, and illocutionary force can only be arrived at by an analysis of multi-turn sequences in



conversation. Ellis (1994) also noted the same point of the problem from his analysis at the single sentence level. Second, in the taxonomy of the speech act theory, there is hardly any limitation of the number of speech acts. Austin's (1962) early work provided five types of speech acts and Searle (1975) acknowledged five additional categories<sup>17</sup>. In the analysis of speech act classification, the number goes up to 600 speech acts (Ballmer & Brennenstuhl, 1981). However, although the variety of speech acts are almost unlimited, "at least some major classes of illocutionary force can be distinguished" (Levelt, 1993, p. 60). Rose (1997) also suggested that it would be best to choose a core set of essential speech act types. Third, speech act classification is not effective in all circumstances, particularly across cultures. Levelt (1993) pointed out the following:

speech act's effectiveness depends on a variety of factors; (1) what the speaker says, (2) the context in which it is said, (3) the way in which it is said in terms of prosody, accompanying gestures, gaze, etc., and (4) various listener factors, such as attention, willingness, and available background information (p. 59).

These factors are dependent on a specific culture's norms and social values. In a similar vein, Wierzbicka (1991) pointed out that most of the speech act studies were conducted in the framework of Anglo-Saxon ethnocentrism. She claimed that the actual realization of speech acts is based on cultural norms and should be different from culture to culture. Blum-Kulka (1989) also noted that certain speech act strategies (of requests) are common across languages, but there are significant differences of the strategies between languages and cultures. As L2 pragmatics concerns itself mainly with the differences and similarities between L1 and L2, understanding speech act strategies is crucial in L2 learning. To compound the matter, various speech act

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<sup>17</sup> Verdictives, exercitives, commissives, behabitives, and expositives (Austin, 1962, p. 150) and representatives, directives, commissives, expressive, and declarations (Searle, 1976; summarized and cited in Levinson, 1983, p. 240).

strategies are used to deliver an intended or non-literal meaning. The interpretation of this intended or non-literal meaning is the main focus of implicature studies. The next section discusses the theory of conversational implicature, one of the most influential areas of study of the elaboration in the delivery of non-literal meaning to conversational partners.

### **Implicature**

Grice's implicature theory is considered one of the most influential descriptions of natural language comprehension (Cooren & Sanders, 2002; Forman & Larreamendy-Joerns, 1998; Levinson, 1983, 2000; Thomas, 1995). His contribution to the "pragmatic revolution" (Watts, 2003, p. 57) refers to his distinction of two levels of meaning, natural meaning (the semantic, propositional meaning of an utterance or literal meaning) and non-natural meaning (the implied intention of a speaker in making an utterance or intended meaning) by the notion of implicatures. The studies of implicature concern the examination of (in)direct ways of speaking as in indirect speech acts and those (in)direct ways of speaking (in)appropriately and (im)politely according to the speaker's intention in a given situation.

Grice's (1975, 1989) central idea of human conversation is that there is a universal expectation of agreement in conversation, which he called *the cooperative principle*; "Make your conversational contribution such as is required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange in which you are engaged" (Levinson, 1983, p.101). This conversational expectation is a global imperative, but as Arundale (2005) noted, "'cooperative' does not mean 'working agreeably,' but rather means 'operating together' in creating a talk exchange" (p. 43). Grice provided a set of conversational maxims to which conversational participants should, but frequently do not, observe.

Table 3

*Conversational Maxims*

Maxim	Application
Quality	do not make contributions that you believe are false or for which you lack evidence
Quantity	make your contributions as informative as required and not more so
Relevance	make your contribution relevant
Manner	make your contributions brief and orderly, not obscure or ambiguous

*Note:* Levinson, 1983, pp. 101-102.

As Grice (1975, 1989) pointed out, these maxims are not obligatory rules, but normative or default assumptions involved in conversation. Although they comprise a standard or a baseline expectation that conversational participants will presume, the maxims are often opted out, violated, or exploited. *Conversational implicature* was coined by Grice to explain the phenomenon of talk exchange by observing or violating the maxims. For example, when a father sees that his son failed in a math exam, he could say “I’m so proud of your math score”. This violates the maxim of quality because it is not likely that a father will be proud of his son for failing a math exam. But the intention of the father is to deliver his sarcasm about the son’s bad math grade. Indirect speech acts are typical examples of ways of making non-literal meaning, i.e. conversational implicature. The speaker’s intention in the examples in Table 2 is to request or command implicitly that the hearer close the door. The speaker purposefully exploits the quantity maxim by giving more information than required or the relevance maxim by mentioning an irrelevant topic – ventilation or a barn.

Grice’s theory of conversational implicature is a great contribution to the study of language in use, but many scholars have pointed out the limitations and obstacles in the

application of the theory to language use across cultures. The most frequently raised questions of the Gricean implicature theory concern its universal applicability. From situation to situation and from culture to culture, conversational participants may not cooperate. For example, in a courtroom exchange, a defendant may try to give the least possible amount of information (Levinson, 1983), and in Malagasy<sup>18</sup> culture, giving insufficient information to a hearer is presumed to be a cultural norm (Keenan, 1976). Another criticism concerns the emergence of meaning in verbal interactions. Garfinkel (1967) observed the ways of meaning making through conversational procedures. Just as in the criticisms of the speech act theory by Geis (1995) and Ellis (1994), he pointed out that Gricean implicatures are generated only from a couple of turns of talk exchange. In other words, the process of conversational meaning making takes often more than a couple of turns of talk exchange. The process also needs the conversational partner's understanding of socio-cultural values and norms. Firth and Wagner (1997) also argued that "in order to make sense, people are obliged to do ceaseless interpretive work. [...] Meaning [...] is [...] a social and negotiable product of interaction" (p. 290).

Another challenge to the Gricean cooperative principle and maxims was made by Taylor and Cameron (1984). They argued that "the Cooperative Principle and the Maxims function as commands which conversational participants should follow and cooperative principle and the maxims have failed to develop a method by which one can identify the rules of conversation and offered 'fictional rules' instead" (Taylor & Cameron, 1984, p. 96). According to them, the validity or explanatory value of the Gricean implicature cannot be tested or falsified, or it dissolves into descriptive generalization. However, in challenging the validity or explanatory value of the Gricean theory, they are not questioning the cooperative-ness of conversation in general. Zegarac (2000) also raised doubts about the Gricean approach to the production and

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<sup>18</sup> Language of Madagascar.

interpretation of non-literal meaning. He pointed out that the Gricean assumption of conversation is that there is a pre-established presumption of cooperation which the participants are expected to observe. He argued that “it is not specific enough to explain how people actually succeed in interpreting communicative acts and responding to them. [...] it is not clear on what basis we make judgements about whether a particular utterance is optimally informative, relevant, and brief” (p. 56).

Sperber and Wilson (1986, 1995), as in Grice’s approach, viewed human communicative behavior as cooperative, but they took the idea of conversational cooperation as a cognitive feature of human communication. They argued that all of the Gricean maxims can be reduced into one property of language interpretation, *Relevance*, and suggested a generalization of the communicative process of conversation. According to them, “every act of overt communication makes an evident guarantee (technically, a presumption) that it is worth paying attention to” (as cited in Zegarac, 2000, p. 57). They argued that relevance is enough to cope with implicatures generated by violation of maxims. The following are examples of the violation;

2.1 A: When can I borrow your car?

B: When the sun comes up in the west.

2.2 A: Where is the bank?

B: It’s right around the corner and today is Independence Day.

In Gricean theory, the untruthfulness of B’s utterance in 2.1 (i.e. a lie or false statement) and irrelevance of B’s utterance in 2.2 (giving a direction and Independence day) need some explanation of quality maxim and quantity maxim respectively. But in Relevance theory, violations of Gricean maxims can be described uniformly as being short of optimally relevant.

As mentioned above, these challenges and developments criticize a Gricean approach to communicative assumption. However few of them are questioning the cooperative nature of verbal communicative interaction or conversation in general. Grice (1975) didn't argue that his cooperative principle and maxims are a perfect model for the communicative mechanism. Rather, he mentioned that "the cooperative principle and the maxims may need to be augmented by the addition of maxims, for example, 'be polite'" (p. 47). Politeness is important in L2 learning simply because the ways of being polite are most likely to be linguistic behaviors and the detailed strategies and social norms and acceptance behind the strategies are challenges to L2 learners. Therefore understanding cross-cultural and cross-linguistic differences and similarities of politeness is also important in L2 teaching and learning.

### **Politeness**

Lakoff (1976, 2004) pointed out the importance of social contexts in learning a second language and language teachers' awareness of it. She noted that language learning needs more than theoretical linguistics, such as syntax, phonology, and semantics, in that "language teachers' perceptiveness is also necessary to notice the pitfalls of language use dependent on contexts and identify them for students" (Lakoff, 1976, p. 47). She acknowledged the Gricean interpretation of conversational meaning in terms of different uses of language according to gender. She discussed different forms and strategies of politeness between men's and women's language as she viewed politeness as a localized societal development to reduce interactional conflicts. She developed forms of politeness by providing three imperative norms to a speaker; (1) *formality*: keep aloof, (2) *deference*: give options, and (3) *camaraderie*: show sympathy (Lakoff, 1976, p. 65). She mentioned that they are useful guidelines, just as "Grice also notices that a great deal of actual conversation is in violation of his rules (maxims)" (Lakoff, 1976, p. 71).

Leech (1983) tried to uphold and develop the Gricean theory by proposing his *politeness principle*. He claimed that the cooperative principle has an inefficient explanation about how implicatures are generated. He stated, “the Politeness Principle could be seen not just as another principle to be added to the Cooperative Principle, but as a necessary complement, which *rescues* the Cooperative Principle from serious trouble” (Leech, 1983, p. 80 [author’s emphasis]). However, many studies criticized Leech’s politeness approach because he postulated more maxims than required, and there is no principled way of restricting the generation of additional maxims (Brown & Levinson, 1987; Fraser, 1990; Thomas, 1995).

The most influential work of direct application of the Gricean framework in conceptualizing politeness is Brown and Levinson’s (1987) *Politeness* theory. Their interest in polite language use stems in part from Lakoff’s (1976, 2004) works, but their assumptions and explanations developed for the observation of language in use are built on Goffman’s (1967) study of *face* and Gricean *implicature*. The central idea of their Politeness Theory is the assumption that fully socialized speakers have both *rationality* to interpret specific, conventionalized strategies of language use, and *face*, which is claimed in interaction (Arundale, 2005). Three basic notions in their politeness model are (1) face, (2) face-threatening acts (FTAs), and (3) politeness strategies.

### **Face.**

The concept of face comes from Goffman’s (1967) studies of face and the English folk term “losing face”. In Brown and Levinson’s politeness model, face refers to the desire that all people have to maintain and defend their own self-image. “It is mutual awareness of ‘face’ sensitivity, and the kinds of means-ends reasoning that this induces, that together with the Cooperative Principle allows the inference of implicatures of politeness” (Brown & Levinson,

1987, pp. 4-5). Their “face” is distinguished into positive face (maintaining one’s self image) and negative face (defending other’s self image). Watts (2003) wrote that:

[N]egative face is the basic claim to territories, personal preserves, rights to non-distraction – i.e. to freedom of action and freedom from imposition, and positive face is the positive consistent self-image or ‘personality’ (crucially including the desire that this self-image be appreciated and approved of) claimed by interactants. (p. 104)

Brown and Levinson claimed that their idea of face is universal, but is subject to much cultural elaboration in any given particular society. Matsumoto (1988) argued that, since Japanese interlocutors must always explicitly show in the language they use how they view the social relationship, it is possible to maintain that all utterances in Japanese can be considered face-threatening (p. 419). This is the case particularly with languages containing honorifics, such as Korean, Japanese, and Chinese.

#### **Face-threatening acts (FTAs).**

Brown and Levinson’s (1987) central idea of the Politeness Theory is that “some acts are intrinsically threatening to the face and require softening” (p. 24). They observed that human politeness acts have two important aspects: preserving a person’s positive self-image and avoiding imposition on a person’s freedom. They provided fifteen positive FTAs and ten negative FTAs. Bowe and Martin (2007) summarized and re-categorized them below in Table 4.



Table 4

*Examples of Face-Threatening-Acts*

		Face	Example
Acts	hearer's	negative face	ordering, advising, threatening, warning
		positive face	complaining, criticizing, disagree, raising taboo topics
threatening to the ...	speaker's	negative face	accepting an offer, accepting thanks
		positive face	apologizing, accepting a complaint, confessing

*Note.* Borrowed from Bowe & Martin, 2007, p.28.

Brown and Levinson also suggested that the decision of the degree of a face-threatening act involves three crucial social factors, the social distance between the speaker and the hearer (D), the relative social power of the speaker with respect to the hearer (P), and the absolute ranking of the imposition in the particular culture (R) (1987). They claimed that it is possible to assess the degree of seriousness of a face-threatening act by combining the three social factors in a conversational setting.

**Politeness strategies.**

Brown and Levinson's Politeness model also involves the choice of politeness strategies. The strategies are employed when the weight or seriousness of the imposition is perceived as being face-threatening. They acknowledge that the degree to which a given act rates as face-threatening as well as the social importance to distance and power are culturally determined and may differ according to the situation within a particular cultural environment.

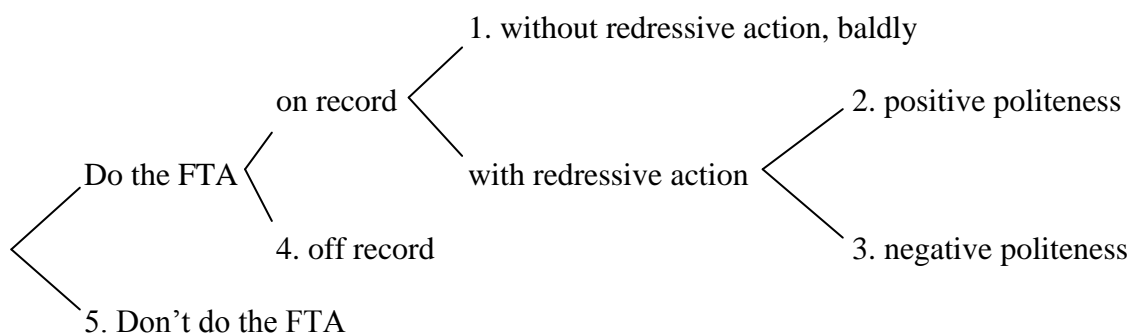


Figure 5. Politeness strategies (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 60).

They suggested the possible sets of politeness strategies with the following definitions.

Table 5

*Definitions of the Terms in Politeness Strategies*

Terms	Definition	Example/application
on record	when the speaker gives an utterance with only one unambiguous intention identified by the participants	<i>I promise that I will come again tomorrow</i>
off record	when the speaker avoids direct impositions or the intention is not directly explicated	<i>I forgot to bring my textbook today</i>
baldly, without redress	Doing an act baldly, without redress, involves doing it in the most direct, clear, unambiguous and concise way possible	<i>Do something!</i>
redressive action	giving face to the addressee, attempts to counteract the potential face damage of the FTA by modifications or additions of behaviors	positive and negative politeness strategies
positive politeness	minimization of the potential face threatening to the addressee by indicating the speaker wants the hearer's wants	treating the hearer as a member of an in-group, a friend, a person whose wants and personality traits are known and liked
negative politeness	satisfaction or redression of the hearer's negative face, a basic want to maintain claims of territory and self-determination	being conventionally indirect, giving deference, using hedges, apologizing for imposing, etc.

*Note:* Summary of Brown & Levinson (1987), pp. 68-71.

They were basically on the same line with the Gricean Cooperative Principle in that they assumed that people, in general, cooperate (and assume each other's cooperation) in maintaining face in interaction, such cooperation being based on the mutual vulnerability of face. Just as the criticism on speech act theory and Leech's politeness approach, Brown & Levinson's politeness principle has also been subject to criticisms, subsequent studies and comments by scholars (see Fraser, 1990; Blum-Kulka & House, 1989; Bowe & Martin, 2007; House & Kasper, 1981; Mao, 1994; Watts, 1989, 2003; Wierzbicka, 1991, 2003).

The first criticism concerns, as with Gricean theory, the theory's universal applicability. House and Kasper (1981), Tannen (1981), Wierzbicka (1991, 2003), Blum-Kulka and House (1989), and Bialystok (1993) have examined the connection between politeness and the degree of indirectness, and pointed out that the relationship between the two processes differs across cultures. For example, in Japanese discourse, there is a closer link between politeness and indirectness than in American or Arabic cultures (Takahashi & Beebe, 1993). Kasper (1981) posited a problem raised from the comparison between directness and indirectness. The decision of the degree of (in)directness is also made differently from culture to culture, i.e. a direct utterance may be interpreted as indirect in another culture. Mao (1994) suggested that Brown and Levinson's idea of face as an image that intrinsically belongs to the individual, to the self, contrasts with Goffman's (1967) original interpretation of face as public property.

Bowe and Martin (2007) pointed out that the major concern of the politeness principle is with politeness strategies in the context of face-threatening acts, where actual interactions don't consist of face-threatening acts only. They argued, "the building of positive/negative relationships through mutual caring and assistance over time is surely important, and is usually accompanied by the expression of mutual appreciation and praise" (p. 37).

Fraser (1990) identified four major perspectives of linguistic politeness. The four perspectives of politeness are: (1) the social norm view, (2) the conversational maxim view, (3) the face-saving view, and (4) the conversational-contract view. He reduced Brown and Levinson's politeness principle into his third view, the face-saving view. He argued that "the social norm view relates to the folk understanding of politeness in English-speaking countries, and that impoliteness occurs when action is to the contrary of the norm, whereas politeness develops when an action is in congruence with the norm" (Fraser, 1990, p. 220). The second perspective, the conversational maxim view, is definitely based on the Gricean cooperative principle and conversational maxims. The fourth perspective, the *conversational contract* view, is the elaboration of Fraser's politeness model. The basic premise is that in a given conversation each participant has an individual set of rights and obligations that influence the flow and the content of the interaction, along with their social relationship. Such rights and obligations can be negotiated in the conversational contract between the speaker and the hearer. The contract is influenced by the participant's experiences, institutional rhetoric, as well as other factors such as the perceived status and power relationship of the participants. Thomas (1995) commented that Fraser's perspective is more sociolinguistic than pragmatic. She also noted that Fraser's inclusion of rights and obligations is welcome but "it is very sketchy and it is difficult to judge how it might operate in practice" (p. 177).

In other approaches to linguistic politeness, Janney and Arndt (1992) suggested that linguistic politeness should be viewed as socially acceptable behavior. They made a distinction between interpersonal politeness, which is called *tact*, and social politeness. Their concept of tact is similar to Brown and Levinson's politeness strategies and is described as an individual's show of consideration for modification or revision of utterances to avoid conflict. Their social

politeness is the use of social conventions for routine behaviors. Blum-Kulka (1989) employed this distinction as well, but she differentiated between tact and formal politeness as expressions of appropriate, polite behavior.

In sum, Brown and Levinson argued, since rationality and face are human universals with regard to language use, interactants in conversation should construct utterances that involve face-threatening acts to redress whatever loss of face will result from performing those acts. In their politeness theory, such redression is accomplished by utterances that mesh with Gricean conversational implicatures. Their claim with regard to Gricean implicatures was that the use of politeness strategies to produce politeness implicatures is a universal of language use and a key part of “the very stuff that social relationships are made of” (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 55).

In a broad sense, while Austin made distinctions between utterances and their performed actions through the notion of speech acts, Grice’s implicature theory is an attempt at explaining how a hearer catches what a speaker intends from what the speaker says. Brown and Levinson’s politeness theory is an investigation of polite ways of saying in terms of interlocutors’ face. According to the ways of saying, there are three different levels of meaning delivery. Table 6 shows the correspondence between the concepts and terms through the examples of theories of non-literal meaning.

Table 6

*Correspondence of Terms and Concepts among Theories and Research of Non-literal Meaning*

Utterance	Research of non-literal meaning			
	Politeness	CCSARP	Implicature	Indirect Speech Act
Leave me alone.	Less polite	Direct	Literal statement	Locutionary act
Why don't you leave me alone?	Polite	Conventionally indirect	Conventional implicature	Illocutionary act
Don't you have something to do now?	More polite	Non-conventionally indirect	Conversational implicature	Illocutionary act <sup>19</sup>

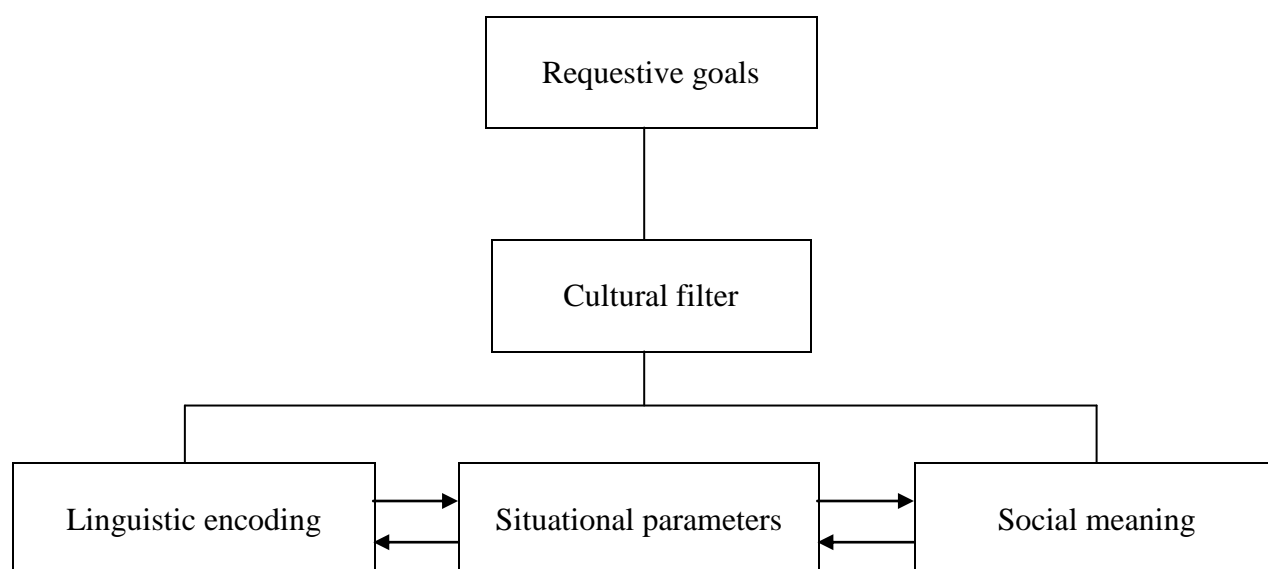
Although different explanations have been offered for linguistic politeness, there is at least a general agreement that “politeness is a pragmatic/communicative phenomenon and [has] nothing to do with a moral or psychological disposition towards being nice to others” (Hill, 1997, pp. 25-26). As Sifianou (1992) noted “consideration for the other person is seen as an integral part of politeness ... but it seems that what is construed as consideration differs” (p. 92), the differences of being polite across languages and cultures are a crucial part of L2 pragmatic research.

### Speech Act of Requests

In the study of pragmatics in general, speech acts constitute as the most central part of communication as it delivers not only the grammatical structures and words but also performances via utterances. In L2 pragmatics studies, the focus of investigation falls on the communicative behavior of non-native speakers attempting to communicate in their second language. Such behavior is labeled as *interlanguage pragmatics* (Yule, 1996, p.88). Among an L2 user's pragmatic behaviors, the speech acts of request have interesting pragmatic features to

<sup>19</sup> For the difference between illocutionary and perlocutionary acts, see footnote 12.

examine because of the ways in which requests are expressed across languages and cultures (Lightbown & Spada, 2006). Most importantly, the majority of L2 learner's interactions with target language speakers occur in the form of requests (Koike, 1989). As requests are a canonical example in an L2 learner's verbal communicative behaviors, the review of the literature for this study examines studies from several areas in pragmatics and second language acquisition (SLA). In particular, the major goal of this study is to examine five Korean NNESTs' perception of L2 pragmatic competence, and their metapragmatic awareness in terms of speech acts of request in English. As Trosborg (1995) pointed out, the speech acts of request are especially sensitive. They are performed in the interest of the speaker and, normally, at the cost of the hearer, because it is necessary for a requester to understand social factors, such as power relationships, different social status, and social distance between interlocutors. This must be correlated to the speaker's way of speaking and the degree of appropriateness, or politeness. Blum-Kulka (1991) suggested a request schema;



*Figure 6.* General model of the request schema (Blum-Kulka, 1991, p. 257)

Despite their limitations and criticisms, the speech act theory and politeness theory have been used as theoretical and philosophical groundings for many cross-cultural studies and interlanguage pragmatic research over the last three decades, and they are still the most powerful theories in current research. The study of speech acts is important because, “speech acts constitute the basic or minimal unit of linguistic communication” (Searle, 1969, p. 16). Achiba (2002) also pointed out that the study of speech acts provides a useful means to investigate relationships between linguistic forms and communicative intent. She treated utterances as the realization of a speaker’s intention and goal in a particular context. The following section will review studies of L2 pragmatics in speech acts.

### **Studies of Requests in L2 Speech Acts**

Among the speech acts investigated so far, requests have received considerable attention in second language acquisition studies, not only because they are frequently used in everyday conversation in attempts to solicit information, help, or cooperation from others, but also because they are important for L2 learners, particularly in the sense that the majority of their interaction with target language speakers will probably take place in the form of requests (Koike, 1989). By the nature of the study, the studies of L2 requests have been comparative analyses between two languages where there are two ways of comparison—longitudinal and cross-sectional.

#### **Longitudinal Studies of L2 Requests**

It is not easy to find longitudinal studies of L2 requests, not only because it is the most time and energy consuming research method in general, but also because requests are not the only communicative behavior in speech acts. A number of longitudinal studies have examined other types of speech acts, such as suggestions and refusals (Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford, 1993b;



Takahashi & Beebe, 1987 with refusals only) and greetings (DuFon, 1999; Omar, 1991). Among others, Schmidt (1983) is regarded as one of the first longitudinal studies of L2 requests. Over the course of three years, Schmidt examined the acquisition and development of pragmatic competence of an adult Japanese ESL learner called Wes. Wes's communicative ability was analyzed in four components: grammatical, sociolinguistic, discoursal, and strategic competence. Although the study did not focus only on requests in English, it provided evidence of Wes's pragmatic development. For example, the number of communicative formulas, such as "Shall we ...?", "Can I ...?", "Let's ...", markedly increased a lot as his proficiency increased. But his improvement of requests still fell short of appropriate, native-like use.

Ellis (1992) examined pragmatic development of two children (10 and 11 years old) in EFL classroom settings in Japan and provided the results of his longitudinal study over 15-21 months. Although considerable development took place over that period of time, both learners failed to develop either the full range of request types or a broad linguistic repertoire for performing those types that they did acquire. The learners also failed to develop sociolinguistic competence in performing requests according to different addressees. His conclusion was that classroom contexts can foster L2 learners' communicative needs, but do not fulfill a sufficient condition of real sociolinguistic needs. Analogically this supports the argument that one's teaching experience is not always positively correlated with one's pragmatic competence.

A notable finding of Ellis's study is that he proposed three developmental stages in L2 requests in terms of communicative need. The notion of three developmental stages was not explicitly stated in his study, but he did distinguish three types of communicative needs to imply the developmental sequence; (1) interpersonal need, (2) expressive need, and (3) sociolinguistic need. Achiba (2002) provided a somewhat overlapping analysis of L2 requests with Schmidt's

study, in her longitudinal study with her own daughter's English acquisition over 17 months in Australia. As her daughter was an absolute beginner of L2 learning, Achiba puts a fourth stage of pragmatic development by adding a "pre-basic" stage in the beginning. Kasper and Rose (2002) combined the three longitudinal studies of L2 pragmatic development and provided five integrated stages of L2 pragmatic development. Table 7 below provides an integration of the three longitudinal studies of L2 pragmatic development.

Table 7

*Developmental Stages of L2 Requests*

	Ellis's (1992) three communicative needs	Achiba's (2002) four developmental phases	Kasper & Rose's (2002) five stages of request development	Characteristics	Examples
Stage 1	Interpersonal need stage		Pre-basic stage	Highly context-dependent, no syntax, no relational goals	"Me no blue", "Sir"
Stage 2	Expressive need stage	Formulaic phase	Formulaic stage	Reliance on unanalyzed formulas and imperatives	"Let's play the game", "Don't look"
Stage 3	Sociolinguistic need stage	Emerging and expansion phase	Unpacking stage	Formulas incorporated into productive language use, shift to conventional indirectness	"Can you do another one for me?"
Stage 4		Pragmatic expansion phase	Pragmatic expansion stage	Addition of new forms to pragmalinguistic repertoire, increased use of mitigation, more complex syntax	"Could I have another chocolate because my children – I have five children.", "Can I see it so I can copy it?"
Stage 5		Fine-tuning phase	Fine-tuning stage	Fine-tuning of requestive force to participants, goals, and contexts	"You could put some blue tack down there", "Is there any more white?"

*Note.* Compiled from Ellis, 1992, Achiba, 2002, and Kasper & Rose, 2002.

An overlapping result of these longitudinal studies is that considerable development of the subjects' pragmatic competence took place, but it was far from native-like request types or repertoires. In particular, the sociopragmatic development that emerged at the end of the development or sociopragmatic competence showed inappropriate and incomplete development.

As there have not been many longitudinal studies of L2 pragmatic development, it is very hard to obtain a generalized argument about it. The environments of the studies varied from classroom settings in Ellis's study to domestic settings in Achiba's. Also, the age of the subjects were different—7 in Achiba's, 10 and 11 in Ellis's, and Schmidt's subject was an adult. As the database provided by the studies is small (only 4 subjects learning L2 requests altogether), more longitudinal studies under a consistent environment are needed. To contribute to this drawback of the longitudinal studies of L2 requests, cross-sectional studies will be of great support to provide more reliable argument in L2 requests studies (Kasper & Rose, 2002).

### **Cross-sectional Studies of L2 Requests**

A number of cross-sectional studies have examined L2 requests. The Cross-Cultural Speech Act Realization Project (CCSARP) (Blum-Kulka, House, & Kasper, 1989) has been the most extensive study of L2 requests. Using discourse completion tasks (DCTs), not only did it provide cross-cultural differences and patterns of speech acts in four languages (requests and apologies in Australian English, Canadian French, Hebrew, and Argentinian Spanish) but it also laid the cornerstone for further research for L2 pragmatics by suggesting a coding manual.

**Cross-Cultural Speech Act Realization Project (CCSARP).** The goals of the CCSARP were to investigate request and apology realization patterns across languages, the effects of social and situational variables in realization of speech acts, and the similarities between native speakers' and non-native speakers' speech act behaviors for a given language (Blum-Kulka, House, & Kasper, 1989). Using DCTs, the study made considerable methodological contributions to cross-cultural pragmatics research through its formulation and classification of nine request strategies along with an (in)directness scale and manipulation of social variables, such as distance (familiarity) and power (dominance).

In addition to the selection of the degree of directness in requests, they noted that general impact of requests can be modified by various devices. This modification of requests was divided into internal and external modification (Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper, 1989; Trosborg, 1995). *Internal modifiers* are the internal-request devices used to modulate the request. For example, specific syntactic structures, such as questions, conditional clauses, or tag-questions, or lexical/phrasal items, such as *please*, *perhaps*, *maybe*, or *would you please - ...?* are used internally to modify the impact and imposition of a request. *External modifiers* (coined as *Supportive Moves* in Blum-Kulka, House, & Kasper, 1989, p. 287) are additional utterances for more plausibility or justifiability of the request, such as *grounder* (e.g. I missed class yesterday. Could I borrow your notes?), or *preparator* (May I ask you a question?). Internal modification is realized by upgraders, which increase the impact of requests, or downgraders, which reduce the imposition of requests. There are nine request strategies, according to the degree of directness as shown in Table 8. Additionally, request modification is divided into internal modification by upgraders or downgraders and external modification by additional utterance(s).

Table 8

*Request Strategies and (In)Directness Scale*

Degree of Directness	Request strategies	Example
Direct	Mood derivable (prototypical form is the imperative)	Leave me alone Clean up the kitchen Please move your car
	Explicit performative	I am asking you to move your car
	Hedged performative	I must/have to ask you to clean the kitchen right now
	Locution derivable	Madam you'll have to/should/must/ought to move your car
	Want statement	I'd like to borrow your notes for a little while
Conventionally indirect	Suggestory formula	How about cleaning up the kitchen? Why don't you get lost?
Non-conventionally indirect	Preparatory	Could you possibly get your assignment done this week?
	Strong hint	(Intent: getting a lift home) Will you be going home now?
	Mild hint	(Intent: getting hearer to clean the kitchen) You've been busy, haven't you?
Indirect		

*Note.* Summary of Blum-Kulka, House, & Kasper (1989), p. 278-280.

In the current study, the degree of directness as well as request strategies will be used to analyze Korean NNESTs' metapragmatic awareness and their pragmatic competence. By asking the participants about why they choose a certain degree of directness, I can examine their knowledge of request strategies and their pragmatic competence in terms of understanding different contexts.

Hill (1997) pointed out “the contribution of the CCSARP adds an enormous amount of support to the universality claims for a set of semantic formulas used in requesting, while there exists the cultural-specific nature of the distributional usage of these semantic strategies” (p. 46). The project also revealed the importance of social factors, such as power and distance, in discussing distributional variations, which are crucial in a study of L2 pragmatics.

### **Post-CCSARP studies.**

Since many studies of L2 pragmatics have borrowed the manual and categorization of request realizations from the CCSARP, it is difficult and almost meaningless to mention all of them. However, several studies have provided considerable and outstanding findings and evidences to explain aspects of L2 pragmatic acquisition. The first notable study since the CCSARP was Trosborg’s (1995) study of Danish EFL learners’ realization of requests, complaints, and apologies. Her subjects were divided into three groups according to different levels of English proficiency (plus two groups of native speakers of English and Danish respectively). One of the findings in Trosborg’s study was a shift of request strategies across the three groups from *hearer-oriented* strategies, such as ability (“Can/Could you...?”), willingness (“Will/Would you...?”), and suggestory (“Why don’t you...?/How about...?”) formulas, to *speaker-based* strategies, such as speaker’s wish/desire (“I would like to...”, “I would like you to...”), demand/need (“I need X”, “I need to ...”, “I want you to ...”) formulas, as the subjects’ proficiency increased. An interesting finding of her study was that, contrary to most studies of L2 requests, while the degree of directness in requests increased along with proficiency, the reverse was true for hints (non-conventional indirect strategy). She assumed that “the pragmalinguistic shortcomings of the lower proficiency group seem to make them hesitate in realizing their pragmatic intent and prevented them from producing a transparent requests”

(Trosborg, 1995, p. 284). The study had a limitation in that the exact difference of English proficiency was not estimated properly. The levels of English proficiency within the three groups were decided solely by the age of the participants or the length of time studying English as a foreign language in Denmark, not by the participants' actual proficiency.

Another important study of L2 requests was Hill's (1997) research on four groups<sup>20</sup> of Japanese EFL learners' development of pragmatic competence in EFL settings. His study also showed a marked decrease in the directness of request strategies with increasing proficiency. A notable point of his study is that while a general tendency to native-like use of conventionally indirect request strategies was found, a number of substrategies of requests did not converge toward native-like use and norms. For example, the English speakers almost never used speaker-based strategies (as defined by Trosborg, 1995), whereas the Japanese subjects increased their use of speaker-based strategies as their proficiency increased. He pointed out that "this was a clear movement away from the native speakers' norm and was regressive rather than developmental" (Hill, 1997, p. 106). In addition, the substrategies such as ability ("Could/Can you ...?"), permission ("May I...?"), and willingness ("Would/Will you ...?") were used inconsistently across the proficiency levels. Kasper and Rose (2002) noted that Hill's study provided an important lesson in L2 pragmatic research in that, without examining more closely the use of specific substrategies at the micro-level, analysts may arrive at an incorrect conclusion.

Rose (2000) assumed, as in Trosborg's study, that the increasing age or length of EFL study of subjects reflected an increasing L2 proficiency. He divided the subjects into three groups according to age (second, fourth, and sixth grade). His findings showed that the

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<sup>20</sup> One group of 20 native speakers of British English, three groups of non-native speakers of English according to their proficiency levels, and 70 male Japanese undergraduate students in Japan, with no experience of living in English speaking countries



children's use of direct request strategies decreased as their L2 proficiency increased, and the use of conventionally indirect request strategies constantly increased as their L2 proficiency increased. While his study concluded that the overall developmental direction moves from more direct to less direct as L2 proficiency increases, it has limitations. Since the subjects were all children, the study neither described the final stage of L2 pragmatic acquisition, nor provided any prediction under ESL settings where EFL settings have a limited environment of exposure to the target language.

While studies of L2 requests focusing on learners' pragmalinguistic competence and its development are many, studies on learners' sociopragmatic aspects are few. As one of the earliest studies on this perspective, Scarcella (1979) argued that the acquisition of pragmalinguistic knowledge precedes that of sociopragmatic knowledge. One question that occurs at this point is that, if pragmalinguistic knowledge comes first in L2 learning, why do adult L2 learners have difficulty incorporating their pre-existing knowledge of the world, or a society? In other words, adult L2 learners should have advanced knowledge of general socio-cultural or interactional rules and mechanisms underlying the use and distribution of pragmalinguistic knowledge, but in many studies of adult learning in L2 requests, the developmental procedure showed the reversed order of acquisition. Kasper and Rose (2002) provided a tentative explanation on this matter. They argued that "adult L2 learners likely have knowledge of social status as a factor affecting language use, but they were not yet able to match this knowledge with the appropriate linguistic forms in given L2 situations" (p. 144).

In sum, the findings of L2 requests studies are as follows. First, although L2 proficiency plays an important role to some extent in the acquisition of L2 pragmatics, it is not a sufficient condition for the mastery of L2 pragmatics alone. Second, learners begin to gradually modify

their requests, both internally and externally, as their proficiency increases. Third, while advanced L2 learners appear to use more native-like request strategies than beginners in terms of directness, their substrategies show a moving away from native-like norms. Therefore studies of L2 requests need to have an in-depth analysis of data at the micro-level, which examines their awareness and understanding of metapragmatic differences and similarities. Fourth, learning contexts play an important role in learning L2 requests. ESL learners, such as Wes in Schmidt (1983) and Yao in Achiba (2002), showed more achievement of sociopragmatic development when they told the differences of the addressees and social distances, but EFL learners in other studies achieved little or no sociopragmatic development. Fifth, as in Ellis (1992) where the two children subjects showed no sociopragmatic development, adult L2 learners showed different procedures of learning and using L2 requests. Kasper and Rose (2002) argued that, despite already possessing considerable universal pragmatic knowledge, adult L2 learners appear to require a great deal of time to develop the ability to map L2 pragamlinguistic forms and functions onto appropriate sociopragmatic situations.

### **L2 Request Studies of Korean L2 Learners**

Research of L2 requests of Asian learners has actively emerged in L2 pragmatics since the 1980s (see page 13) with an emphasis on Japanese and Chinese data, but there have not been many studies of Korean L2 learners' requests in English. Most of them have been comparative studies of request use between non-native speakers of English (Korean) and native speakers of English. One of the earliest studies was Kim and Wilson's (1994) investigation of conversational constraints and the cultural differences in requests. They examined cross-cultural differences (collectivistic Korean culture vs. individualistic American culture) in the perception of important conversational constraints in requests through questionnaires answered by 892 participants. They

posited five conversational constraints in requests: concerns for clarity, avoiding hurting the hearer's feeling, nonimposition, avoiding negative evaluation by the hearer, and effectiveness. Their findings indicated that the clarity of the requests was perceived more important by American participants and concerns for avoiding hurting the hearer's feeling was counted as a more important conversational constraint for Korean participants. The implication of the study was that there was a significant difference in request realization, but the study did not provide further evidence for the actual strategies employed by L1 and L2 speakers because the data was collected only by questionnaires.

Research of Korean L2 learners' request strategy was conducted by Kim's (1995) investigation of request performance of Korean ESL learners in the U.S. She employed oral DCTs with six situations composed by four social factors: dominance in relationships, social distance, rights and obligations, and imposition of requests. The subjects were three groups: 15 native English speakers, 25 Korean advanced ESL learners/speakers and 10 native speakers of Korean. The general finding of the study was that the choice of request strategies was determined by contextual features (sociopragmatic factors) across the three groups. However, non-native speakers of English deviated from English native-like norms in some situations. For example, in a baby-sitting situation, non-native speakers used more direct requests to tell a child to go to sleep than native speakers of English did. In a situation of leaving work early, non-native speakers of English were much more indirect than native speakers of English. These examples provide evidence of a negative transfer from Korean (L1) sociolinguistic norms. The limitation of the study is that, as the L2 learners' realization of English requests were highly variable according to the social contexts, it was hard to obtain any generalization of the strategic tendency or cultural degree of (in)directness. All that could be concluded from this study was that in

certain contexts Korean L2 learners deviated from the native speakers. The research implication of this study is that qualitative research of metapragmatic awareness is needed because in-depth analysis at the micro-level will allow understanding of what an L2 learner thinks and perceives about their pragmatic competence.

Contrary to the evidence of negative transfer in Kim's (1995) study, Suh's (1999a) study of Korean ESL learners' use of internal and external modifications in English requests showed that negative transfer did not occur. She examined the use of the request modifications in three groups; 30 Korean ESL learners in an intensive English course at an American university, 30 native-speakers of English at an American university, and 30 native speakers of Korean in Korea. She administered a written DCT with 12 different request situations. The patterns of modification used by ESL learners significantly differed from those of native speakers of English and Korean. She found that there were some idiosyncrasies in that the Korean ESL learners consistently used more supportive moves than the English native speaker groups across situations. She concluded that this verbosity was likely to result in the learners' pragmatic failure because providing more information than needed is redundant or irrelevant. Additionally, the verbosity can distract the listener, which in effect weakens the illocutionary force of the request.

Another study by Suh (1999b) examined the differences between the English native speakers and the ESL Korean learners in the use of politeness strategies under a variety of situations where social and psychological factors were variables. The general finding of the study was different from her previous study (Suh 1999a) in that considerable similarities were found in the strategies used by both groups. However, the Korean learners were not always able to use politeness strategies in a manner similar to the native speakers of English. For example, in some situations where a requester-requestee relationship is both socially and psychologically close,

i.e., in an intimate friendship, they were not able to use politeness strategies in a way similar to the native speakers of English. In these situations, native speakers of English consistently used a moderate polite form such as “Can you ...?” while the Korean ESL learners predominantly used imperatives. This seems to result from a negative transfer of their L1 knowledge. She didn’t explicitly mention this point but supposed that this difference results from a cultural difference between the two languages.

Bell (1998) examined three speech acts (disagreements, requests, and suggestions) produced by Korean ESL learners in the U.S. in a class of high beginning proficiency. The data was collected through the video and audio-taping of their ESL classes and analyzed in terms of politeness strategies from Brown and Levinson (1978, 1987). Although disagreements comprised more than fifty percent of the corpus data of the three speech acts, few positive politeness strategies were employed by the participants across the three speech acts. A notable finding was the participants’ sensitivity to age. Older students tended to express more disagreement with the younger students and employed the “bald on record” strategy (an act done baldly, without redress) in the vast majority of their disagreements with their younger students. She pointed out that this was evidence of a negative transfer from Korean, which considers direct expressions as formulaic and acceptable when addressed to younger interlocutors. This study suggested that the ESL learners transferred sociopragmatic knowledge as well as pragmalinguistic knowledge from their L1.

As mentioned in Chapter I (pages 14-15), non-Western L2 pragmatics were not studied as much as in Western languages, such as English, German, and Spanish. Studies on Korean L2 pragmatics are even fewer in number. Therefore, as a reaction against Western or Indo-European language-centered studies of L2 pragmatics, studies of interlanguage pragmatics have emerged

with their focus on Korean as the L2. Koo (2001) provided a different comparison of L2 request and apology strategies between native speakers of Korean and learners of Korean as a heritage language<sup>21</sup>. The findings of her study included the different lengths of the formulization of requests and apologies, and characteristics of learners of Korean in requests and apologies. In contrast to previous studies of L2 pragmatics, which argued that native speakers tend to speak shorter than non-native speakers, native speakers of Korean produced longer responses than learners of Korean. Her explanation was that it was probably because the data was collected in oral DCTs, since writing is more physically challenging than speaking. She also argued that writing requires more time as moving the hand is slower than projecting the voice<sup>22</sup>. She supposed that native speakers of Korean may have tried to shorten their responses if they were required to write. However, those factors that may have affected the results through data collection should have been contemplated before the study. A notable difference between the two groups was found through the interviews for thinking processes, which were administered immediately after the oral DCTs. In the interviews, the learners of Korean showed gaps in evaluating certain situations. For example, one participant in the learners of Korean group used the honorific style in speaking to a 10-year-old girl who was a stranger to him. None of the native Korean participants used the polite style of speaking in that situation. Since age is an important factor in choosing a form of a speech in Korean, when grown-ups speak to a child, using honorific forms is usually unexpected, even when speaking to a stranger. Koo concluded that the learners of Korean demonstrated both pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic failure because some deviations from native norms were related to their limited pragmalinguistic

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<sup>21</sup> Koreans who were born in the U.S. or immigrated to the U.S. before they graduated from junior high school in Korea, and who assessed their proficiency in English to be higher than their proficiency in Korean.

<sup>22</sup> She didn't suggest any empirical evidence for this explanation.

knowledge of the Korean language and others to their lack of understanding of sociocultural norms (i.e. sociopragmatic knowledge) in Korean society.

Byon (2001) also investigated the interlanguage features of American learners of Korean as a foreign language (KFL) in the Korean communicative act of request. The data was collected through the use of DCTs and analyzed descriptively in terms of sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic aspects. He developed 17 semantic formulas in requests for Supportive Move in Korean and five semantic formulas in requests for head act<sup>23</sup> in Korean for the sociopragmatic analysis. Nine downgraders (linguistic devices used to reduce the request imposition) were developed for pragmalinguistic analysis. His findings also provided supportive evidence of a negative transfer in L2 acquisition. The patterns of semantic formulas of the American learners of KFL were similar to those of native speakers of American English. In particular, the effects of the negative transfer were evident in their choice of lexical, phrasal, and sentential items. For example, the KFL learners and native speakers of English preferred the *R+G formula* (making a request (R) first then giving a grounder (G), such as an explanation or justification of the request), whereas native speakers of Korean favored the reversed order, *G+R formula* (Grounder first and then Request). He interpreted the Korean native speakers' preference for the *G+R formula* as a specific sociopragmatic feature of Korean requests, indicating that a blunt request before justifying its cause or need is not courteous in Korean culture. He added that, as clear and well-organized statements are expected in English discourse, the KFL learners and English native speakers' tendency to spell out a request before a grounder can be attributed to their unconscious effort to make their communicative intent as clear as possible, as a result of (negative) transfer of their L1 knowledge (Byon, 2001).

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<sup>23</sup> The core part of a request sequence. See page 92-94, Analysis of Request Strategies and Directness.

In the choice of sentential items, the KFL learners seldom used Apology and Self-introduction as a supportive move in requests, whereas Korean native speakers employed them much more to mitigate the face-threatening effect of the request. He noted that these pragmatic failures of the KFL learners' resulted from their incomplete understanding of the different cultural norms between the hierarchical value orientation of Korean society and egalitarian or individualistic value orientation of American society, as well as the effects of negative transfer from their L1. For pragmalinguistic features of Korean requests, Korean native speakers used downgraders more than twice as often as the KFL learners did. This indicates the KFL learners' shortcoming of pragmalinguistic knowledge in Korean in the use of request downgraders. Though conducted with Korean data as the L2, the results of the study were found consistent with the findings of previous studies with English data as the L2. First, advanced learners developed a greater sensitivity to the use of politeness strategies in requests than native speakers. Second, even advanced learners did not acquire fully native-like strategies of requests and showed verbosity in length. Third, negative transfer was identified in the KFL learners' request strategies. The results of this study also confirmed sociocultural differences between Korean and English, that is, "Koreans are relatively more hierarchical, collectivistic, indirect and formalistic than Americans, whereas Americans are relatively more egalitarian, individualistic, direct and pragmatic than Koreans" (Byon, 2001, p 157).

Han (2005) investigated the L2 pragmatic development of Korean ESL learners' requests based on the need for research on the effect of non-native speakers' experience in the target language community, rather than the effect of proficiency. He used oral DCTs to collect data from three groups of Korean ESL learners in the U.S. according to their length of stay in the U.S.: short term (less than 1 year), mid term (1 to 3 years) and long term (at least 5 years). The



data was analyzed with nine situations in terms of the participants' use of directness and mitigation. The general finding of this study was that there was no significant effect of different lengths of stay in the target language community on the development of the ESL learners' request speech act. One notable finding of the study was the increase in use of biclausal formulas or embedded sentences (e.g. "Do you think I could look at your notes?", or "I wonder if I could borrow your notes", rather than "I want your notes") as the length of stay in the U.S. increased. He argued that the ESL learners may have tended to pick up and use more biclausal forms in the ESL settings as their length of stay increased because they may have noticed native English speakers' frequent use of biclausal formulas in their requests and thus begun to use them. He also found that the subjects across the four groups (including a group of native speakers of English for baseline data) tended to use more external modifications or mitigations in situations of requests where the social distance was casual/distance and their social power relation was at the same level. However, Han didn't suggest any relationship between the greater use of external modification and the ESL learners' different lengths of stay. He also indicated that there was a total absence of compliment or cajole external modifications by ESL learners, which may have come from the transfer of Korean culture. In Korea, the use of those mitigations can often be omitted when the social distance between requester and requestee is very close.

The shortcomings of this study are, first, although the study was intended and designed to investigate the relationship between different lengths of stay in the target language community and request strategies, the findings only showed that there was no clear effect of length of stay on the development of the request speech act. Secondly, the study followed the format of quantitative research in terms of the amount of corpus data from the subjects, but the number of subjects (eight participants in each group) was not sufficient to generalize the findings toward the

patterns of Korean ESL learners' requests. Third, the study needed to distinguish L2 learners from L2 users because the non-native speakers of English among the participants were Korean graduate students in an American university, or Master's or Ph.D. degree holders and their length of stay in the U.S. ranged from 5 months to more than 5 years. The point at which an L2 learner becomes an L2 user may be debatable but the cognitive process of L2 users is different from that of L2 learners (Cook, 1999) because it is assumed that the cognitive process of language or L2 learning strategies of new-arrivals is most likely different from that of long-stayers in the target language community.

As in Koo (2001) and Byon (2001), a study of request speech acts by moving beyond the patterns of Western languages was conducted by Rue and Zhang (2008). The study explored the similarities and differences in request patterns in Mandarin Chinese and Korean and the relationship between request strategies and social factors, such as power and distance. The biggest difference of their study from previous studies is that there were no L2 learners or users. All of the data were collected from native speakers of the two languages from natural conversations and role-plays in four white-collar companies, because it was assumed that workplaces are places where requests are considered to be principally speech acts through giving directions to each other. To overcome the limitations of single utterance responses in elicited situations of role-plays, their study employed many turns of discourse in their data collection. In general, their study showed that Mandarin Chinese was more indirect than Korean. The extraordinarily greater use of indirect head acts by the Chinese in role-plays suggested that the Chinese paid more attention to facework when observed by others. For example, the Chinese used more conventionally indirect head acts than Koreans, such as query preparatory (e.g. "Could you give me a little more time?" Chinese 75% vs. Korean 44%) and suggestory formula

(e.g. “Let’s go on your holiday after finishing this task...” Chinese 6% vs. Korean 3%). In natural conversation, the Chinese employed about a 30% greater number of turns, along with more complex negotiation sequences than the Koreans. Rue and Zhang (2008) also explained that the high distribution of direct head acts and internal modifications in Korean data was due to the remarkably rich system of honorifics in Korean. In addition, direct requests were not considered impolite in Korean data when they were mitigated by add-on honorifics. A similarity was also found in their use of head acts in role-plays. Regarding social status, in both groups indirect head acts were used most when dealing with familiar or unfamiliar acquaintances with equal social status.

Rue and Zhang argued that the study suggested a counterexample of the assumption that indirect strategies are universally preferred (Blum-Kulka, House, & Kasper, 1989). Even in a request situation to a superior, direct strategies were used along with add-on honorific mitigations in Korean. As Gao (1999) has argued that Chinese does not fit into the universal category of conventionally indirect requests claimed by the CCSARP, this study claimed that the universality of indirect strategies needs to be reconsidered beyond the patterns of Western languages. A methodological significance was also suggested by filling the gaps of conventional methods of data collection in a written form, i.e. the lack of authenticity or naturality. The data was collected using a combination of natural conversation and role-plays, which overcame sampling problems in natural situations. “As naturally occurring data do not always contain exactly what researchers wish to examine, the employment of the two methods provided a well-presented data package” (Rue & Zhang, 2008, p. 5). In short, one of the contributions of their study was the development of the CCSARP by expanding the scope of the language data to non-Western languages. Specifically their study offered a comparative analysis of two East Asian

languages (Korean and Mandarin Chinese) regarding cross-cultural pragmatics in general.

Another contribution was that the request patterns were examined as sequences in discourse, not as single turns, so that the study can help in developing teaching materials of the two languages as it provides more reasons and justifications for cross-cultural and cross-linguistic communication.

Tables 9 and 10 are a summary of L2 pragmatics studies focusing on requests between Korean and English and a summary of the findings and arguments of the previous studies, although not exhaustive, of Korean L2 learners' production and realization of requests.

Table 9

*Research Methods and Settings of L2 Pragmatic Studies in Requests between Korean and English*

Study	Pragmatic feature	Data collection	Informants (number)	L1	L2	Language setting
Kim & Wilson (1994)	Conversational constraints in requests	Multiple choice questionnaire	Korean and American (892)	Korean English	English Korean	EFL
Kim (1995)	requests	Oral DCT	Korean (35)	Korean	English	ESL
Bell (1998)	Requests, advice, suggest, disagreement	Audio and video taping of ESL class meetings	High-beginning ESL learners Korean (8) Italian (1) Brazilian(1) Peruvian(1)	Korean (8) Italian (1) Brazilian(1) Peruvian(1)	English	ESL
Suh (1999a)	requests	Written DCT	Korean (30)	Korean	English	ESL
Suh (1999b)	requests	Multiple choice questionnaire	Korean (20)	Korean	English	ESL
Koo (2001)	Requests, apology	Oral DCT	Non-native speakers of Korean (20)	English	Korean	KFL (Korean as a Foreign Language)
Byon (2001)	requests	Written DCT	KFL learners (50 female)	English	Korean	KFL
Han (2005)	requests	Background questionnaire, Oral DCT, Post-test questionnaire	Korean (24), (3 groups by length of stay in U.S.)	Korean	English	ESL
Rue & Zhang (2008)	requests	On-site observation (audio and video taping)	Koreans Chinese	Korean, Mandarin Chinese	N/A	N/A



However, as discussed thus far, none of the previous studies of Korean ESL/EFL learners' pragmatic competence were examined in terms of teaching English experience. The experience length and type is important in this study because it will function as a factor for comparison between pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic competence in search for an assumed imbalance between the two pragmatic competences. In addition, a certified English teacher in Korea is expected to have a certain level of metalinguistic or metapragmatic awareness between their L1 and L2. This will enable them to recognize the gap between theory and practice, as they will recognize themselves as a learner of English.

### **Significance of the Study**

The importance of this study is, first, an investigation of requests, the most frequently used speech act form in L2 learners (Koike, 1989), created a general picture of aspects of L2 pragmatics. Second, the biggest challenge in the growing need for non-native English speakers in teaching English is "the native speaker fallacy" (Phillipson, 1992) or "native speakerism" (Holliday, 2005, 2005). The idea of the native speaker fallacy or native speakerism is that, in plain language, native speakers are better than non-native speakers in language teaching, which is closely tied to the awareness of the non-native English teachers who have a greater advantage in sharing the same language and cultural background as their students. Through the investigation of the relationship between Korean English teachers' teaching experience and their pragmatic competence, this study provides an opportunity for Korean non-native English teachers to be aware of their own L2 pragmatic competence so that they can become conscious of their multi-identities as learners and teachers of English. Third, the awareness of the differences and similarities in L2 pragmatics will enhance NNESTs' language proficiency so that they can be more confident and more effective language teachers. Most importantly, language

teachers' expected obligation is to develop ways of heightening and refining students' metapragmatic awareness, so that they are able to express themselves as they choose (Thomas, 1983). As mentioned in Chapter I, to be able to heighten and refine those students' metapragmatic awareness, language teachers need to raise their own metapragmatic awareness first. It is hoped that the current study will be of help to raise language teachers' awareness of cross-culturally and cross-linguistically diverse patterns of linguistic action, which plays an essential role in the education and development of language teaching professionals.



### CHAPTER III: METHODOLOGY

The purpose of this study is to examine the relationships between five Korean NNESTs' past teaching experiences and L2 pragmatic competence in English requests as a way to understand their awareness and attitudes toward pragmatic competence in English. The research design includes the collection of data from two different forms of questionnaires (a background questionnaire and discourse completion task), and interviews focused on their past teaching narratives in terms of L2 pragmatic competence.

This study examined, first, the relationship between their English teaching experience and ESL pragmatic competence. Second, this study examined the relationships between the two L2 pragmatic competencies in terms of English requests—pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic competencies. Pragmalinguistic competence concerns linguistic knowledge of conventional means and forms, such as choosing and using grammatical mood or suggestory formulas for request according to the context: “Leave me alone”, “How about leaving me alone?”, and “I’d like to ask you to leave me alone.” Sociopragmatic competence addresses perceptions of social conditions which govern appropriateness of utterances for a given situation, such as relative power, social distance, and degree of imposition: Saying “can you give me a ride to the airport?” to your friend or a professor concerns sociopragmatic competence, that is, an understanding of the given speech context to have the right form of utterance. Third, this study investigated Korean NNESTs' perceptions and attitudes toward their ESL pragmatic competence in terms of their cross-linguistic understanding of pragmatic differences between English and Korean to identify problem areas in Korean English education.

### **General Characteristics of Qualitative Approach**

This study has characteristics of qualitative research because of the nature of the data collected from the background questionnaire (Appendix IV), Discourse Completion Tasks (DCTs) (Appendix VI), and individual interviews (Appendix VII). According to Bogdan and Biklen (1992, 2007), defining a research as qualitative is about “an issue of degree” (Bogdan & Biklen, 1992, p.29). In other words, no qualitative research strictly follows all the criteria of qualitative research. This study contains the main characteristics of qualitative research. Johnson and Christensen (2004) summarized twelve characteristics of qualitative research in terms of design strategies, data-collection and fieldwork strategies, and analysis strategies:

- (1) Design strategies: naturalistic inquiry, emergent design flexibility, purposeful sampling.
- (2) Data-collection and fieldwork strategies: qualitative data (i.e. personal perspective and experiences), personal experience and engagement, empathic neutrality and mindfulness, and dynamic systems.
- (3) Analysis strategies: unique case orientation, inductive analysis and creative synthesis, holistic perspective, context sensitivity, voice, perspective, and reflexivity (Johnson & Christensen, 2004, p. 362).

In terms of the design strategies, this study is not purely naturalistic because it studies manipulated, quasi-real-world situations in DCTs’ response elicitations. Collecting data in natural settings, however, has non-negligible drawbacks (see page 73). This study still has a naturalistic trait because it doesn’t have any “predetermined constraints on findings” (Johnson & Christensen, 2004, p. 362). This study has emergent design flexibility, as you never know what will happen during the data collection; you cannot predict or predetermine the exact nature of

participants' responses. This study has purposeful sampling with selected cases for study, such as affiliations, communities, cultures, critical events or experiences, etc.

In terms of the data-collection and fieldwork strategies, this study has characteristics of qualitative data, personal engagement, and empathic neutrality in its data collection procedures. This study is also dynamic because it allows the ongoing process of participants' engagement.

This study also has characteristics of qualitative analysis strategies. The analysis is unique as it depends on the quality of individual case studies. It is inductive and creative as immersion and specifics of the data lead to interrelationships among themselves and between the researcher and the participants. It is holistic because the whole phenomenon under the investigation is interpreted as an integration of a complex system, more than just a sum of the particles of data. Specifically in this study, participants' prior experience, attitudes, awareness of cross-linguistic and cross-cultural differences, and socio-cultural backgrounds are synthesized and analyzed all together as an interdependent system. Finally, this study has a voice, perspective, reflexivity, and context sensitivity. The results and findings of the data have a contextual specificity and subjectivity in each case study. In the following section, I will describe the general research setting, methods of data collection, and its analyses.

### **Research Setting**

This study will explore the relationship between Korean NNESTs' past English teaching experiences and their L2 pragmatic competence. The participants of this study are five in-service or post-service Korean NNESTs attending graduate programs on the main campus of a middle Atlantic American university in western Pennsylvania in 2011. Three of them are in-service English teachers in secondary schools in Korea and are on sabbatical. The other two were part-time lecturers of English courses in Korean post-secondary schools. The selection of the

participants was conducted through purposive sampling. The main concern of the current study is not to make a generalization of data from the participants. Rather, as in the cases of purposive sampling, the participants are selected purposefully because the current study is seeking “ ‘knowledgeable people’, i.e. those who have in-depth knowledge about particular issue” (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2011, p. 157). The particular issue in the current study is experience of teaching English. Cohen, Manion & Morrison (2011) noted that;

Though they (participants) may not be representative and their comments may not be generalizable, this is not the primary concern in such sampling; rather the concern is to acquire in-depth information from those who are in a position to give it (p. 157).

The purpose of the sampling in the current study is not to make a generalization, not to make a comparison, but to present unique cases that have their own intrinsic value (Onwuegbuzie & Leech, 2007). In addition, most of the previous studies on cross-linguistic or metalinguistic and cross-cultural pragmatics between Korean and English in terms of L2 acquisition were dominated by quantitative research (with the exception of Song (2008)). One of the goals of the current study is to shed light on the building of a bridge between the findings of previous quantitative research and findings of my qualitative study, as a way to understand Korean L2 learners’ pragmatic aspects in an ESL setting, and to make their voices and experiences more visible in the area of L2 pragmatic acquisition.

The participants are all graduate students only because I seek the uniformity of the participants. As the participants are not only ESL learners but also ESL users, they can represent language use rather than just linguistic knowledge. The level of engagement of teaching English in the past is more likely to have been higher in the graduate level than in undergraduate level. Since the current study attempts to obtain insights into particular educational, social, and familial

processes and practices that exist within a specific location and context (Connolly, 1998), the participants are selected from Korean graduate students in an American university in western Pennsylvania, who have experience of teaching English in order to investigate the relationship between their teaching experiences and L2 pragmatic competence. This study was conducted on the campus, mainly in the library and in the English department because all of the participants are graduate students in the department. The English department has four M.A. programs and two Ph.D. programs in its graduate programs: M.A. Generalist, M.A. TESOL, M.A. Literature, and M.A. Teaching of English, and Ph.D. in Composition & TESOL and in Literature & Criticism. Two participants are in the Literature & Criticism program and the other three are M.A. TESOL students. As noted, the main concern of the current study is to investigate the relationship between NNESTs' experience of teaching English and L2 pragmatic competence. Fortunately, teaching experience is recommended in the application to the graduate programs in the English department of the university in the current study<sup>24</sup>.

### **Participants**

This study samples five Korean NNESTs who are registered as graduate students in a U.S. university in western Pennsylvania. For all of the participants, the following criteria are used to choose participants from the same speech community. First, all participants speak Korean as their first language and have a common educational background, i.e. having post-secondary education in Korea. Second, as registered students in American universities, it is assumed that their English proficiency is higher than intermediate. For all of the participants, the English proficiency requirement for admission to this American university is a TOEFL score of

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<sup>24</sup> A note for the applicants to literature graduate program says, "We do not encourage applications from students who are not already employed in teaching English, or who do not have prior teaching experience". A note for the applicants to the TESOL graduate program says, "One or more years of teaching at secondary, two-year, or four-year school, college, or university is recommended".

570 or higher using a paper-based test format. Third, to select participants with a similar living experience pattern in the target language community, I contacted candidates for the study and excluded any who showed a different experience pattern from other candidates, e.g., one who has an American spouse or an American roommate. As I know all participants, participant selection is done by direct requests, their permissions, and through the University IRB and informed consent forms (see Appendix III). The range of the participants' ages is 36 to 43. There was no restriction to the sex of the participants in this study.

Participants have at least 5 years of experience of teaching English as a certified or accepted<sup>25</sup> English teacher of a public or private secondary and post-secondary school in Korea. All participants have taught an English grammar or grammar-related class for at least one semester in Korea. Demographically the gender of the participants is female. This is just a coincidence, not intentional.

### **Data Collection Methods**

Data collection in this study includes 4 strands: (1) background questionnaire (2) oral discourse completion tasks (DCTs), (3) written discourse completion tasks (DCTs), and (4) interviews. The oral and written DCTs are used to show different lengths of utterances and different speech act strategies caused by different discourse types, written or oral, on L2 pragmatic production. Interviews will be conducted to review the participants' performances in the previous meetings and also via discussion about the participants' experiences of teaching English, attitudes toward English learning, and awareness of L2 pragmatics.

As this study involves multiple data sources and emerging specific topics or foci are important in the way of next steps of research, emerging interview questions were added to the

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<sup>25</sup> Two participants were non-tenured lecturers in the English major in Korean colleges or universities. There is no qualifying test for college level lecturers in Korea. Each college or university has its own internal regulations for lecturer recruitments.

basic interview questions according to the reviews and discussion over the recorded data (Bogdan & Biklen 2007; Strauss & Colbin 1994).

The data was collected in a private group study room available at the time of the meetings in the university library. I made the reservations for the meetings. The background questionnaire was used as an instrument to corroborate social factors of the participants in the beginning of the data collection (see Appendix IV). Questions in the background questionnaire concern gender, age, experience of teaching English, types of English classes they taught, prior visits to English speaking countries, average time of exposure to English settings per day and week, and TOEFL score.

For the sake of naturalness or authenticity of data collected, it would have been better to collect data from spontaneous speech in natural settings. As I mentioned earlier, however, collecting natural data has considerable drawbacks. Nurani (2009) explains, (1) natural data collection is not systematic in that participants' social characteristics such as age, gender, ethnicity, and power relationships are difficult to identify and control, (2) the collection of natural data is a difficult and time-consuming procedure, (3) use of recording devices may make participants uncomfortable, and (4) most importantly, it is impossible to replicate situations which the investigator can compare and analyze. In short, although the DCT method has limitations, it is the main method of data collection in this study because it still represents the appropriateness of data collection in L2 pragmatic research. As seen in Table 8, more than half of the previous studies used DCTs as their main data collecting method. In what follows, I explicate each method.

## **Background Questionnaire**

A questionnaire is “a self-report data collection instrument that each research participant fills out as part of a research study” (Johnson & Christensen, 2004, p.164). A questionnaire is usually a written survey which is often used in a large-scale study to gather information. It can utilize open-ended questions and/or questions followed by a selection from a set of pre-determined answers. One of the primary advantages of using questionnaires is that “questionnaires can in many cases elicit longitudinal information from learners in a short period of time” (Mackey & Gass, 2005, p.94). Questionnaires also can elicit comparable responses from different participants and use many different formats, such as e-mail and phone, as well as personal meeting. This allows the researcher to have flexibility in the data collection process. Mackey and Gass (2005, p.96) summarized four things that researchers should try to achieve to maximize the effectiveness of the questionnaires; (1) questionnaires should be simple and have uncluttered formats, (2) questions should be unambiguous and answerable, (3) questionnaires should be reviewed by several researchers, and (4) questionnaires need piloting among a representative sample of the research population.

Multiple choice questionnaires are a typical format of a written questionnaire. As it is easier to compare potential variables in L2 pragmatic competence using a questionnaire, a background questionnaire will be administered. Special types of questionnaires have been developed. By and large, the discourse completion test is one of the different types of questionnaires. The discourse completion test was a type of questionnaire, and they “have been used to investigate interlanguage pragmatics” (Mackey & Gass, 2005, p.93). Using a background questionnaire (see Appendix IV) allows researchers to obtain a rapid and comprehensive picture of participants’ background related to the research. In this research, questions about participants’



general proficiency of English were given in terms of their time of exposure to English-using circumstances and their previous experience of English teaching. These questions provided a general picture of each participants' background in English learning and teaching.

### **Discourse Completion Test (DCT)**

A discourse completion test (see Appendix V and VI) is a questionnaire which includes a situational description and a brief dialogue which has one turn as an open slot. The given context in a task is designed to constrain the open turn so that a specific communicative act is elicited (Patton, 2002). For example:

A DCT item to elicit an apology

*At the college teacher's office*

A student has borrowed a book from her teacher, which she promised to return it today. When meeting her teacher, however, she realizes that she forgot to bring it along.

Teacher: Miriam, I hope you brought the book I lent you.

Miriam: \_\_\_\_\_

Teacher: OK, but please remember it next week. (Blum-Kulka, House, & Kasper, 1989, p.14)

A DCT can be an effective data collection method if the focus of the research lies in the study of pragmatic knowledge development, e.g. speech acts, because an investigator can manipulate conversational settings relatively easily according to such factors as age or gender differences, or social status differences between interlocutors (Kasper & Rose, 2002, Mackey & Gass, 2005). Kasper and Dahl (1991) define DCT as a written questionnaire containing short descriptions of a particular situation intended to reveal the pattern of a speech act being studied. Originally developed by Blum-Kulka (1982) in her cross-linguistic study of speech acts, DCT has been considered the most common and useful data collecting method of doing pragmatics-

related research, since its first systematic and extensive use in the CCSARP (Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1986, Blum-Kulka, House, & Kasper, 1989).

There are five types of DCT formats (Nurani, 2009, See Appendix V), and the fourth DCT type of “Open item free response construction” will be used in this proposed study. In this format, participants are free to respond without any limitation from an interlocutor initiation and rejoinder, or they are allowed to give no response at all. For example:

A DCT item to elicit a request

*At the university*

You missed a lecture yesterday and would like to borrow your friend, Bob’s notes.

What would you say?

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In their first study about the validity of DCTs, Beebe and Cummings (1996) support the continued use of written DCTs despite the weakness of lack of naturalness because written DCTs give a good idea of the stereotypical shape of a speech act. In contrast, an oral DCT can also be an effective data collection method if the focus of a study is on natural speech (Yuan 2001; Turnbull, 2001, 2005). Rintell and Mitchell (1989) conducted a comparative study of oral versus written DCTs with native and non-native English speakers, and found that the two types of data differed in two ways: non-native speakers’ oral responses were significantly longer than their written ones and (in some situations like cleaning the kitchen or asking for a policeman) both speakers were more direct on the written DCTs than on the oral ones. Despite these differences, Rintell and Mitchell (1989) argue that language elicited in their study is very similar whether collected in written or oral form. This study reexamined their argument to yield confirming support or counterexamples by examining and comparing request strategies, length of utterances

and the degree of directness employed in the two DCT types. The procedures of the data analysis will be represented in the later sections of this chapter.

The main disadvantage of the DCT is that there is insufficient social and situational interactions such as background to the event, information on the role relationship between the speaker and the hearer, and the details related to the context and the setting (Nurani, 2009, p. 673). The biggest weakness of DCT is the lack of naturalness. The absence of authenticity results in several disadvantages as follows:

- (1) The situational descriptions provided in DCTs are of necessity simplified with the minimum amount of information given (Barron, 2003).
- (2) What its participants produce in artificial situations may not be what they would say in real situations (Brown & Levinson, 1987).
- (3) In a DCT, the range of semantic formulas is narrower and speech acts strategies are fewer than in real conversations (Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford, 1993b).
- (4) A DCT doesn't provide comprehensive features of speech acts enough to compare with those in real conversations (Rintell & Mitchell, 1989).

Still, fully aware of the limitations of DCT, which are the simplification of the complexity of real interactions and the lack of authenticity, most researchers of pragmatics-related studies use DCTs (Barron, 2003; Beebe & Cummings, 1996; Cohen & Olshtain, 1981; Ellis, 1994; Hartford & Bardovi-Harlig, 1992; Kasper, 2000; Kwon, 2004; Lyuh, 1992; Nurani, 2009), because of the advantages of DCT. The biggest advantage of DCT is that it allows researchers to collect a relatively large amount of data in a relatively short time as follows:

- (1) The DCT is a controlled elicitation data method which allows participants to vary their response because the situations are developed with status embedded in the situations.

- (2) Respondents will provide the prototypical responses occurring in one's actual speech. Therefore, a DCT is more likely to trigger participants' mental prototypes of speech acts.
- (3) The DCT helps researchers comprehend the construction of a speech act in an authentic communication due to the DCT's nature as a prototype of speech acts.
- (4) The DCT identifies social constraints that are sensitive to given speech-act situations.
- (5) The DCT provides information about the kinds of strategies that participants employ to produce speech acts.
- (6) The DCT offers standardization of situations across cultures. It provides researchers with what subjects consider to be the socially and culturally appropriate responses in any given context (Summary from Barron, 2003; Kasper, 2000; Kasper & Rose, 2002; Kwon, 2004; Nurani, 2009).

When carefully designed, the DCT is an effective data collection instrument when the objective is to expose the speakers' pragmalinguistic knowledge of the strategies and linguistic forms by which communicative acts can be implemented as well as their sociopragmatic knowledge of the context factors under particular strategies (Kasper, 2000; Kasper & Rose, 2002). Kwon (2004) also expressed the opinion that the DCT is the most appropriate instrument in her study since the purpose of the study is to reveal participants' use of refusal strategies under given situations rather than to investigate pragmatic aspects that are dynamic in a conversation such as turn-taking, speaker-hearer coordination and sequencing of speech. Likewise, as one of the purposes was to reveal participants' use of request strategies under given situations in light of their metapragmatic awareness, the DCT is suitable for L2 pragmatic studies. In brief, the DCT lets researchers directly compare a large amount of data and draw generalization based on the comparison. One week following the oral DCT, a written DCT was administered. The time lag

allowed the participants to forget their responses to the oral DCT since these oral productions should not register in the participants' long term memory.

### **Interviews**

Interviews in this study examined participants' thoughts, perceptions, and attitudes toward awareness of L2 pragmatic knowledge. When the transcription and analysis of each participant's data were finished, the interviews were conducted. Among the many different types of interviews, an introspective method was used, which is called stimulated recall (Bloom, 1954; DiPardo, 1994; Gass & MacKay, 2000). Bloom (1954) pointed out that "a subject may be enabled to relive an original situation with great vividness and accuracy if he is presented with (a large number of) cues or stimuli which occurred during the original situation" (p. 25). During the interviews participants were asked to review their performances in the questionnaire and two DCTs. Following the review, the interviewer asked questions concerning the participants' reasons for using certain strategies in terms of their attitudes of learning English, awareness of L2 pragmatics, and experiences of past events as an NNEST. As interviews in this study were conducted through direct questioning about the participants' thoughts and attitudes toward L2 pragmatics, discussion over certain speech act strategies they employed, and any related experience of English teaching was expected; therefore, there was no time limitation for these interviews. Basically one interview session was conducted with each participant, but if needed, additional interviews were conducted, for example due to lack of time or the need for further examination. The interview method, stimulated recall, has meaningful usefulness in L2 research. Gass and MacKay (2000) pointed out three reasons for using stimulated recall in L2 research.

...1) it can help to isolate particular 'events' from the stream of consciousness. In so doing, it can help to identify the type of knowledge a learner uses when trying to solve

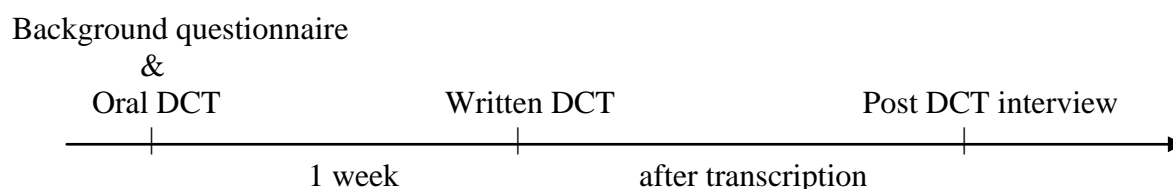
particular communicative problems, when making linguistic choices or judgments or just when generally involved in comprehension and/or production; 2) Stimulated recall can also help to determine if this knowledge is being organized in specific ways. ... 3) Stimulated recall can be used to help determine when and if particular cognitive processes, such as search, retrieval or decision making are being employed (p. 21)

Researchers have claimed that qualitative interviews are a process of finding what participants feel and think about the world (Weiss, 1994; Maxwell, 1996; Kvale, 1996). Furthermore, Atkinson and Silverman (1997) point out that confessional properties of interviews not only construct individual subjectivity but, more and more, deepen and broaden the participants' experiential truth. The aim of qualitative interviewing is to ascertain diverse qualities or meanings in people's experiences and their social organization (Gubrium & Olstein, 2002, p. 57). The interview questions are direct, rather than elicited in that, if we want to find out participants' views, opinions, and attitudes toward a certain aspect of speech behavior they employ, we need to ask them directly (Kasper & Rose 2002). As interviews are conversational discourse between speakers (Kvale, 1996; Mishler, 1986), and are mainly useful for attaining the perspectives of interviewees (Maxwell, 1996), it is hoped that indicators of L2 pragmatic awareness or metapragmatic awareness are found as participants notice what they did and why they chose a certain strategy for a given situation.

### **Procedures of Data Collection**

Each participant and I had at least three meetings, for background questionnaire and oral DCTs, written DCTs, and an interview. As the time to fill out a background questionnaire is not long enough to have a separate meeting, the background questionnaire and oral DCTs were conducted at the same meeting. Written DCTs followed one week after the first meeting. When

all data were collected, transcribed, and analyzed, I had a meeting with each participant for an interview. The data from the questionnaire was collected at the beginning of the first meeting for oral DCTs. The following data collecting methods were conducted after one week. First, I administered background questionnaires and oral DCTs and then transcribed the data. Then, one week after the oral DCTs, I administered the written DCTs and analyzed the data from both DCTs. I had interviews with participants after completing the transcriptions. Figure 7 shows the sequence of data collecting sessions.



*Figure 7.* Timeline of data collection.

The reason for conducting the oral DCT prior to the written DCT is based on the assumption that when questions across the data collection methods are identical, there can be a distracting influence of recalling the questions from previous data collection sessions. In addition, objects tend to last longer when they are committed to memory by writing than by other methods such as reading (Intelegen Inc., 2000). If the written DCTs were conducted first and oral DCTs follow, then participants would recall easier and better what they did in the written session than if the oral DCTs were conducted first. In addition, it is important to collect data over a relatively short period of time in order to avoid another distracting influence of participants' longer exposure to the target language.

For oral DCTs, pairs of depiction cards were prepared, in English and Korean, in case participants didn't understand the situations in English. When they understood the situations and

were ready to respond, they gave the researcher a cue or a nod to start recording. If they didn't understand the situations in English, they could ask the researcher for a further description, in Korean if needed. A small digital tape-recorder borrowed from the library equipment center was used for the oral DCTs and interviews. There was no time limit for participants to finish each situation. The data was collected in a group study room in the university library or another place that was agreeable to the participants. In order to confirm that each situation in the tasks was convincing in American culture, five college-educated U.S. citizens were asked to confirm that the situations are likely to occur with respect to life in the United States.

### **Background Questionnaire and Oral DCTs**

At the beginning of the first meeting, each subject was asked to sign a consent form. Before they signed the consent form, I explained that the research is intended to collect information on L2 pragmatics. However, the detailed research goal was not revealed so that it could not affect the participants' performance. After the consent form was completed, each participant was asked to fill out the background questionnaire. While they were filling out the background questionnaire, they were free to ask about what they didn't understand in the questions. For the sake of better understanding the questions, the questions and answers could be given in Korean, the L1 of me and the participants.

After the questionnaire was completed, oral DCTs follow. Each participant was given a set of eight DCT cards and asked to read the instructions and situations depicted on them. For each situation, separate DCT cards were given to the participant (see Appendix VI). There was no time limit for the participants to read and understand the given situations. As they are oral DCTs, the data was recorded with a small digital recorder.

An example of an oral DCT card



*Instruction: Please read a conversational situation on the card. When you understand it and are ready to say, please say what you would say in the situation.*

Situation 1.

You are in a class, but have forgotten your notebook. You ask your friend for some paper.

What would you say? (Bardovi-Harlig, 2008, p. 221)

## Written DCTs

The procedure of the written DCTs is the same as in the oral DCTs, but the participants are asked to give responses in written form on the DCT cards. After written DCTs are over, the DCT cards are collected by me for the next step of the study.

An example of a written DCT card

*Instruction: Please read a conversational situation on the card. When you understand it and are ready to say, please write what you would say in the situation.*

Situation 2.

You are working on a final term paper in the college library. It is late at night and most library users are quiet and hard-working as it is almost the end of the semester. But a couple of students near you keep talking and it is loud enough to interfere with your work. You have cast unpleasant glances to them to be quiet but they don't stop talking. Now you walk to them and say,

“ \_\_\_\_\_ ”

## Interviews

When the data from the questionnaires and DCTs were transcribed and analyzed for a participant, an interview was conducted for the participant. At the beginning of each interview, the interviewer asked the participants' permission to review their data from the DCTs together. The review of the DCT data provided the interviewer with questions concerning the reason of the participants' choice of a certain strategy for the realization of a request speech act and the participants' pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic knowledge about L2 requests, their attitudes toward learning English, and more importantly, their metapragmatic awareness of cross-cultural differences between English

and Korean as an ESL learner and a former teacher. The interviews will be recorded by a small digital recorder. Examples of questions in the interview might be:

Q1. Why did you say “Excuse me” first in your request?

Q2. Did you consider the social distance between you and the hearer?

Q3. If so, and even if not, what do you think is the effect of the social distance on your request strategy?

Q4. Why did you change the tone when you requested in Situation 6?

(for more examples, see Appendix VII)

### **Data Analysis Procedure**

While the data is collected in three different fashions: questionnaires, DCTs, and interviews, integrated analysis of the three data for each participant is conducted to find out and figure out a unique theme for each participant. First, the responses of the background questionnaires are analyzed to provide a narrative portrait of each participant’s demographic information concerning their experience of teaching and learning English. Second, the analysis of the DCT responses has two sections: (1) analysis of Pragmatic Factors and (2) analysis of Pragmatic Strategies. In particular, for tasks in DCTs, eight request situations are used to elicit requests. These eight situations are created by combining three variables: Social Power, Social Distance, and Imposition, of cross-cultural pragmatic research with +/- variations of each variable with reference to the variable distribution across test. The eight request situations are borrowed from Hudson, Detmer, and Brown (1995) and revised to fit in the purpose of this study.

#### **Analysis of Pragmatic Factors of Requests**

In the analysis of speech acts in terms of politeness, many scholars considered three social factors as important factors in determining pragmatic properties of speech acts; Power (P),

Social Distance (D), and Degree of Imposition (I) (Brown & Levinson, 1987; Hudson, Detmer, & Brown, 1995; Leech, 1983; Thomas, 1995; Watts, 2003) because the factors subsume pragmatic properties of speech acts and play a principal role in choosing speech act strategies. Although using different degrees of directness in requests is universal, “Individuals and cultures vary widely in how, when and why they use an indirect speech act in preference to a direct one” (Thomas, 1995, p.124). Still, the theoretical proposition overarching these studies is that the greater the distance between the speaker and the hearer, the higher social status/the greater social power of the addressee, and the greater the imposition of the task of a speech act, the more polite the speaker will get by choosing the less direct forms or strategies.

#### *Social Power (P)*

Social power is a pragmatic factor which affects the degree of (in)directness of a request speech act with people who have power or authority in the social relationship between the speaker and the hearer. +P means speaker has a higher rank, title, or social position, or is in control of the assets in the situation. –P means speaker has a lower/lesser rank, title or social position, or is not in control of the assets in the situation.

#### *Social Distance (D)*

Social distance is a pragmatic factor which affects the degree of (in)directness of a request speech act when “it is best seen as a composite of psychologically real factors (status, age, sex, degree of intimacy, etc.) which ‘together determine the overall degree of respectfulness’ within a given speech situation” (Thomas, 1995, p.128). +D means speaker does not feel close each other. –D means speaker feels close to the hearer and comfortable to make a request to the hearer.

#### *Size of Imposition (I)*

The size of imposition of a request means how difficult or easy the request is to be done. + I means great expenditure of goods, services, or energy required by hearer to carry out the request. – I means small expenditure of goods, services, or energy required by the hearer to carry out the request.

Table 11.

*Combination of P, D, and I in the Request Situations*

variables	Request situations							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
Power (P)	+	-	-	+	+	+	-	-
Distance (D)	-	+	-	+	-	+	+	-
Imposition (I)	+	+	+	+	-	-	-	-

In this study, I investigated each participant's understanding of these social factors which may affect their responses in DCT questions and will criticize Hudson, Detmer and Brown's (1995) argument about these social factors in request speech acts.

**Analysis of Request Strategies and Directness**

Blum-Kulka, House and Kasper (1989) provided L2 pragmatics researchers with nine request strategy types on the scale of degree of directness (See Appendix VIII). Trosborg (1995) provided further detailed categories of request strategies and their supportive moves from the nine categories. Byon (2006) modified these nine categories of request strategies into three segments of a request speech act: Opener, Supportive move, and Head Act. I integrated and rearranged them into two categories: Head Acts (the core of a request) and Supportive Moves. Head Acts are the very utterance of a request, and Supportive Moves are all the other utterances employed to maximize the plausibility and justifiability of the request and to minimize the request's face-threatening effects. Head Acts are arranged into three subcategories by levels of directness, and Supportive Moves are arranged into two subcategories: Head act modifications

and external modifications (See Appendix VIII for the full range of request strategies and supportive moves compiled from Blum-Kulka et al., 1989; Byon, 2001, 2006 and Trosborg, 1995).

- A. Request Head Acts (= request strategy): the minimal unit which can realize a request, the core of the request sequence, e.g. “Can I borrow the book for a week?”, “Help me”, or “Why don’t you leave me alone?” Depending on the degree of directness of a request, there are three levels of directness;
1. Direct request strategies (least polite): imperatives, explicit performatives, hedged performatives, locution derivable, want statements
  2. Less direct request strategies (polite): Conventionally indirect request strategies, e.g. suggestory formula, preparatory
  3. Least direct request strategies (more polite): Non-conventionally indirect request strategies, e.g. strong hints, mild hints
- B. Supportive moves: modifications to maximize the plausibility and justifiability of a request and to minimize the face threatening effect of a request
1. Head Act modification: in-sentence (modal) markers of a Head Act<sup>26</sup> to modulate a request, such as requestive syntactic structures, and lexical items for request speech acts, e.g. conditional clauses “I would like to borrow your pen if you don’t mind” or “Will you do that?” vs. “Would you do that?”
  2. External modification: any supporting statements to “persuade the requestee to carry

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<sup>26</sup> Because of the formal similarities between request strategies and Head Act modifications, often times it is hard to distinguish in-sentence modifications from request strategies. However, Supportive Moves are divided into two categories – Head Act Modifications and External modifications, because there are a lot more request strategies than Head Act modifications.

out” (Trosborg, 1995, p. 215) the speaker’s request, e.g. “Excuse me”, “please”, “I need this information for my exam tomorrow” or “May I ask you a favor?”

Based on the distribution of request strategies according to a scale of directness in the CCSARP (Blum-Kulka, et al., 1983), request strategies are characterized as direct (D), conventionally indirect (CI), and non-conventionally indirect (NCI). The strategies used in DCTs and their degree of directness are examined to investigate how the participants understand situations and cultural factors in English requests and the influence of the choice of request strategies.

In addition to the analysis of the directness and strategies of requests, various devices were analyzed which modify the impact of a requestive utterance. Whether a participant used an Opener, an external or internal modification, or an adverb was examined to figure out how the participant understood the requestive situation and how their experience of teaching English is related to their responses. The analyzed data from the DCT responses were used for an integrated analysis of data along with demographics of participants’ teaching experience, their pragmatic competence revealed in the DCT responses (degree of directness, used modifications including openers and adverbs) and their understanding and perception of L2 pragmatics revealed in the interviews following the DCTs.

### **Analysis of Interview Data**

The interviews in this study are not for data collection of certain request speech act strategies or its distribution. Rather, the interviews are intended to initiate participants’ awareness of L2 pragmatics and their attitude toward L2 learning with respect to L2 pragmatic competence. During the interviews, participants and I reviewed the recorded data<sup>27</sup> from DCTs before they were asked questions. Each participant and I listened to the recorded data together

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<sup>27</sup> Some of the participants didn’t want to review audio data, so those participants reviewed written data only.

and stopped playing the recording device for each response to discuss the responses initiated by the researcher's questions. The questions were not invented and fixed yet. Rather, they emerged from the review of the previous data to lead the participants to become aware of L2 pragmatics, which is different from that of L1, and for each response, sociopragmatic awareness was examined in terms of social factors (P, D, I), and pragmalinguistic knowledge was examined in terms of their request strategies and modifications. If needed, a brief explanation of the social factors, P, D, and I was given to the participants. The interview questions were direct, and the questions were sometimes accompanied by further discussion about the participants' awareness of L2 pragmatics, their employment of L2 speech act strategies and their attitude toward the acquisition of L2 pragmatics as an NNEST. For example, "Why did you say X instead of Y?" (strategy), "Have you taught your students such an expression before?" (experience), "Have you thought about the appropriateness of the expression you gave in the situation?" (appropriateness), and "Did you know the social factors, P, D, and I, when you gave the response?", "Did you consider such social factors when you gave the response?" (awareness), or "Have you taught socio-cultural differences of pragmatic use between English and Korean?" (metapragmatic awareness).

In the following chapters, I report the results of the analysis. First, I examine the possible diversity of the participants' educational, social and familial aspects in English learning as an L2. Specifically by reporting and discussing each participant's data, I winnowed the data by creating a text of important categories and themes in relation to the participants' experience of teaching English, attitudes toward teaching and learning English before and after coming to America (effective learning/teaching English and being a good NNEST), and awareness of crosslinguistic differences and metapragmatic difference between L1 and L2 (perception and understanding of

their own pragmatic competence in L2). Doing this analysis, their educational background, motivations of becoming an English teacher, life as an English teacher, attitude toward effective English learning and teaching, and their metapragmatic awareness in terms of their experience of teaching English were closely investigated and discussed.

Since the data analysis is not just a sum of information but an integration of the whole history and experience of one person's L2 pragmatic acquisition, I analyzed the participants' actual responses provided in the data collection to find any pattern or strategies, unique to a specific participant, and the differences and similarities between participants and the assumed reason in terms of the aspects of their metapragmatic awareness. Using pragmatic features and factors of request speech acts, I illustrate how each participant has become to understand and be aware of the L2 pragmatics and metapragmatic differences. Through the illustration, categories and patterns of their awareness and understanding are provided and these lead to pedagogical implication and educational suggestions for Korean English educational circumstances.



## CHAPTER IV: THE RESULTS FROM THE PARTICIPANTS

This chapter presents the results and findings of the data collected in three different methods: background questionnaire, discourse completion tests (DCT) and interviews. This study aims to account for five Korean NNESTs' perceptions of metapragmatic differences in teaching and learning English, and the relationship between the experience of teaching English and pragmatic competence in English as an L2. Therefore, this study considers the effects of the five Korean NNESTs' awareness of aspects<sup>28</sup> in L2 pragmatics and the influence of their English teaching experience on their L2 (English) pragmatic competence.

This chapter has four sections. First, I represent their narrative demographic portraits based on the information gathered from the background questionnaire. These demographics provide each participant's educational background as a learner and a teacher of English at the same time. Second, based on the analysis of the responses in the DCT questionnaire and their perceptions of pragmatic aspects in L2 under Research Question 1, each participant's metapragmatic awareness is narrated in terms of the three social factors (See page 86) and their use of pragmatic properties and strategies in English requests. In the third section, the relationship between experience of English teaching and L2 pragmatic competence is narrated based on the analysis of dialogues in the interview under Research Question 2. In the fourth section, as the data collected in DCT questionnaires has two different modes – oral and written, the differences between the two modes of non-native English speakers' responses are investigated as a supporting data or a counter example to previous research.

As stated in Chapter III, five Korean former or current NNESTs took part in the current study as volunteer participants. All of the participants' identities are anonymous even though two

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<sup>28</sup> Such as social factors (social distance, power relationship, and imposition of a request), pragmatic properties (Head Acts and Supportive Moves), and pragmatic strategies (degree of directness of a request). See pp.88-89 for more information.

of the participants mentioned that they would not care if their real names were used. For this reason, each participant has been assigned an “ethnic pseudonym” (Park, 2006), which reflects their Korean ethnic identity. I reminded each participant that their personal information and responses in the questionnaires and interviews would not be released in any circumstances without their permission.

### **Demographics**

Five Korean NNESTs were selected from among other Korean NNESTs in the graduate school of the English department of an American university in western Pennsylvania based on five conditions: 1. volunteering to participate in the current study; 2. a former or current Korean NNEST; 3. A registered graduate student in the American university; 4. having at least five years of English teaching experience as a certified or accepted teacher; and 5. having no English native speaker roommates or housemates.

Table 12 presents a summary of the five Korean NNESTs’ profiles with a brief narrative portrait of each participant’s educational background in English learning and teaching. The participants’ profiles are in alphabetical order of their real names.

Table 12.

*Five Korean NNEST Participants' Profiles*

Participant	Age	Gender	Program	Previous Degrees	Length of teaching English	Length of stay in U.S.
EUNJOO	40	Female	M.A. TESOL	B.A. in English education	11 years in secondary schools	1 year and 10 months
KEUMJOO	39	Female	M.A. TESOL	M.A. in English education	10 years in secondary schools	1 year and 10 months
YOOSUN	41	Female	M.A. TESOL	ABD in English language and literature	13 years in post-secondary schools	4 years
GUISUN	36	Female	PhD in Lit. & Criticism	M.A. in English literature	9 years in secondary schools	6 years
JOOHEE	43	Female	PhD in Lit. & Criticism	M.A. in English language and literature	6 years in post-secondary schools	4 years

**Narrative Portraits of Participants' English Teaching and Learning Experiences**

**EUNJOO** is an English teacher and a 41-year-old woman from Korea, who is studying in a master's program in the English department of a western Pennsylvanian public university while she is on sabbatical from her school in Korea. She had taught English language for the first time in her life as a tutor when she was a freshman. Her official experience of teaching English began in 1993 when she was first appointed as an accredited teacher of a middle school in Korea.

Among the four areas of language, she taught speaking, listening, and reading. In particular, she taught daily conversation of English and English grammar. She had not been abroad to an

English speaking country, so this was her first visit to an English speaking country, the U.S. She came to the U.S. in 2009. As she came to the U.S. with her two daughters, she does not have any housemate who speaks English as his or her mother tongue. She is not involved in any American institution where she interacts in English only. As her status in the U.S. is a student in a graduate program of a western Pennsylvanian University, her average time of exposure to English is not regularly distributed during the week. When she has a class, she uses English, and when she does not have a class, she barely uses English. The average hours she spends using English per week is four hours. Her highest official TOEFL score was 90 in the IBT format (577 in the PBT format).

**KEUMJOO** is a 45-year-old woman from Korea, who is a doctoral student majoring in English literature in the English department of a western Pennsylvanian public university. She was a part-time lecturer at colleges in Korea. She had taught the English language for the first time in her life as a tutor when she was a freshman. Her experience of teaching English as an English teacher began when she was a graduate student in Korea. She taught all of the four areas of the language, speaking, reading, listening, and writing. In particular, she had taught daily conversation of English and English grammar. She has experience of teaching English at elementary, secondary, and post-secondary level schools in Korea. Before she came to the U.S., she got her master's degree in English literature. She came to the U.S. in 1997 to study. She returned to Korea in 2007 and came back to the U.S. in 2010 to finish her doctoral degree in a public western Pennsylvanian university. She lives with a native speaker of English, her second son, but she speaks in Korean with him. She is not involved in any American institution where she interacts in English only. As she is working on her dissertation in a doctoral program of the English department at her university, her average time of exposure to English is 4 hours a day,

20 hours a week, but this exposure to English is mainly with reading and writing only. Her highest official TOEFL score was more than 600 in the PBT format, taken in 2000.

**YOOSUN** is an English teacher and a 40-year-old woman from Korea, who studies in a master's program in the English department of a western Pennsylvanian public university while she is on sabbatical from her school in Korea. She had taught the English language for the first time in her life as a tutor when she was a freshman. Her official experience of teaching English began in 1995 when she was first appointed as an accredited teacher of a middle school in Korea. She taught all four areas of the language, speaking, reading, listening, and writing. As she was an English teacher at a middle school in Korea, she taught English in general. She had not previously been abroad in an English speaking country, so this was her first visit to an English speaking country, the U.S. She came to the U.S. in 2009. As she came to the U.S. with her two sons, she does not have any housemate who is not her family member but speaks English as his or her mother tongue. She is not involved in any American institution where she interacts in English only. As her status in the U.S. is a student in a graduate program of a western Pennsylvanian University, her average time of exposure to English is not regularly distributed throughout the week. When she has a class, she uses English between one and two hours a day; when she does not have a class, she barely uses English, using it less than an hour a day. The average hours she spends using English per week is six hours. Her highest official TOEFL score was 97 in the IBT format (593 in the PBT format), taken in 2009.

**GUISUN** is a 37-year-old woman from Korea who is a doctoral student majoring in English literature in the English department of a western Pennsylvanian public university. She was an English teacher in a high school in Korea and came to the U.S. to study while she is on sabbatical. She taught the English language for the first time in her life as a tutor when she was a

freshman in 1994. Her official experience of teaching English began in 2000 when she was first appointed as an accredited teacher of a middle school in Korea. Among the four areas of language, she taught speaking, listening, and reading. In particular, she taught English grammar and English reading comprehension. She got her master's degree in English literature when she was in the U.S. from 2004 to 2006. She does not have any house-mate who speaks English as his or her mother tongue. She is not involved in any American institution where she interacts in English only. As her status in the U.S. is a student working on her dissertation in a graduate program of a western Pennsylvanian University, her average time of exposure to English is more than an hour a day but this is English reading only. She uses spoken English for only an hour per week. Her highest official TOEFL score was 550-600 in the PBT format.

**JOOHEE** is a 41-year-old woman from Korea, who is a graduate student in the master's program of TESOL in the English department of a western Pennsylvanian public university. Her experience of teaching the English language as an English teacher began when she was a part-time lecturer in a general English program of a college when she got her master's degree in English literature. Among the four areas of language teaching, she taught speaking and reading. In particular, she had taught daily conversation of English, business English, current English, English-Korean translation, and TOEIC. Before she came to the U.S., she was an ABD in English literature. She stayed in the U.S. for a year in 2003 as a visiting scholar to the department of English at the University of California at Los Angeles. She does not have any house-mate who speaks English as his or her mother tongue. She is not involved in any American institution where she interacts in English only. As her status in the U.S. was a student in a graduate program of a western Pennsylvanian University, her average time of exposure to

English is between one and two hours a day. Her highest official TOEFL score was 500-550 in the PBT format, taken in 2008.

### **Metapragmatic Awareness and Pragmatic Factors**

Since Research Question 1 is about the participants' perceptions of metapragmatic awareness, each participants' DCT responses are analyzed in two sections: social factors (power relationship (P), social distance (D), size of imposition (I)) and request strategies (Head Acts and Supportive Moves).

#### **Three Pragmatic Factors (Power Relationship, Social Distance, and Size of Imposition)**

The results of the analysis of the participants' perceptions of the pragmatic factors in L2 speech acts significantly demonstrated that each participant tended to have a particular socio-cultural norm with which they produce the speech act utterances. Even though some of the selections of the social factors' values are identical, the reasons why they chose the values are quite different. Moreover, according to Table 13, there is not a single participant whose interpretation of the relationships matches the given values of the DCT situations. While qualitatively discussing the results, I describe briefly each participant's interpretation of the social factors.

Table 13.

*Each Participant's +/- Values in P, D, and I Relationships*

DCT situation	1 Carpeting	2 Confirming call	3 Asking your boss	4 Applica-tion	5 washing machine	6 napkin	7 menu	8 mowing the lawn
Pragmatic factors	P D I	P D I	P D I	P D I	P D I	P D I	P D I	P D I
Given value	+ - +	- + +	- - +	+ + +	+ - -	+ + -	- + -	- - -
EUNJOO	+ + +	- + +	- + -	+ + -	+ + +	+ + -	- + -	- + +
KEUMJOO	+ + +	+ - -	+ + -	- - +	- + +	+ - -	- - -	- + +
YOOSUN	+ - +	- + +	- - +	+ + +	+ - -	+ + -	- + -	- - +
GUISUN	+ - -	- + -	- - -	+ + +	+ - -	- + -	- + -	- - +
JOOHEE	+ - +	- + +	- + +	+ + -	+ - -	+ + -	- + -	- + +

**EUNJOO's the burden of the request task and the right to issue the request.**

In EUNJOO's interview for her metapragmatic awareness, her most important pragmatic consideration in making English requests was the burden of the request task (how hard the request is to do) and the right to issue the request (how plausible the request is). She said she knew that there are linguistic differences between English and Korean, but social manners might be the same. She also addressed that requestive manners are different across cultures.

*In DCT situation 1 (moving furniture for new carpeting),*

Interviewer: Why did you take an indirect form of a request, "Can you...?" while you could use others?

EUNJOO: I thought it was a difficult request. I know the social relationship between I as a lease holder and the listener as a tenant in the DCT situation 1, but even though my social Power value is [+] in the social relationship, the task in the request feels too difficult for me. The task in the request is moving all the furniture out of the tenant's room. I think it is a big deal.



Interviewer: Did you think it was in Korea or in America?

EUNJOO: I tried to take it as a situation in America, and I think it would be different if it is in Korea.

Interviewer: What would be different?

EUNJOO: The relationship between a house lease holder and a tenant is a little bit more hierarchical in Korea. I mean, in Korea, owning a house is a big pride and a house is a big part of one's property, so it means that tenants are likely to be passive in the relationship between a lease holder and a tenant, and it is hard for them to decline a request from the lease holder or a landlord. In addition, it is for new carpeting. It is not for the lease holder, but for the tenant. Why not move the furniture?

*In DCT situation 8 (asking the lease holder to mow the lawn),*

Interviewer: Why did you take the requestive form?

EUNJOO: I thought it was a difficult request.

Interviewer: Why is it difficult?

EUNJOO: First, it is my job. Mowing the lawn is on the lease contract. As I told you in the situation 1, the relationship between a lease holder and a tenant is a little more hierarchical in Korea. A lease holder has more social power or has a bigger voice than a tenant does in Korea. So, the social relationship makes it more difficult to make the request. ...

**KEUMJOO's social condition.**

In KEUMJOO's interview for her metapragmatic awareness, her most important pragmatic consideration in English requests was the social condition, in other words, the context

of a request. She didn't consider the influence of the three Pragmatic Factors on the selection of request forms. Rather, she highly regarded the flexibility of the power relationship in various contexts. For example:

*In DCT situation 1 (moving furniture for new carpeting),*

Interviewer: You used "please" a lot in this situation. Can you tell me why?

KEUMJOO: I knew the lease holder has [+] Power value. In the situation, I am the one who need the house, so it makes me [-] Power, ... but, in reality, if we look into it in detail, the more important thing is whether I am a right person for the place or if I can be a good neighbor and a tenant than who has the power in the relationship. In reality, I would say something more to convince the landlord, such as "I will be a good tenant, I promise"...

*In DCT situation 4 (requesting resubmission of an application)*

Interviewer: Generally, the tone and forms used in this situation is less polite than in situation 3, why?

KEUMJOO: In this kind of situation, we need to let people know that thing clearly so that the listener may not have disadvantage in otherwise situation. This is for the applicant, not for me. The reason I didn't use "Could you type it again?" is that I don't need to. An unreadable application means that the applicant is not doing the minimum requirement for the application. According to my experience, this can reveal the applicant's faithfulness or conscientiousness. This is pretty much Korean. Pointing out what is wrong in an applicant's application is for the applicant. It is Korean solicitude. I know the social distance is far ([+]), but as an

experience of the application procedures, I was giving the applicant advice.

Regardless of Imposition, if it should be done, it should be done.

However, she tended to say things showing her misconception of American culture. Sometimes she made overgeneralizations about Korean or American culture. For example;

*In DCT situation 3 (Asking your boss at work for information)*

Interviewer: You marked [-]s for all of the three Pragmatic Factors in situation 3. Why is that?

KEUMJOO: I thought it was very natural for the boss to help me, because it was an official matter and it should not be difficult. And if it is in American situation, it is more natural for the boss to help me, because they are more likely to keep their private and public life separate than in Korea. If it is in Korea, I think it would be difficult for my boss at work to help me, because it would be a request to my boss at work...

**YOOSUN's social manners.**

YOOSUN has a unique but solid attitude toward requestive speech performances. She understands the three Pragmatic Factors in requests and she said she always considered social hierarchy (Power relationship), social distance, and the size of imposition in a request. She put emphasis on the nature of the speech act of a request, that is, asking someone to do something for the speaker. Her most important social/pragmatic factor in requests is social manners depending on the requester's position.

She also addressed that even if the requestee is younger than she is, she didn't think she would use less polite or more direct expressions, e.g. *Help me* instead of *Could you help me?* If it is not a very close relationship, she would like to use polite forms. Although she, basically

considered social hierarchical relationship<sup>29</sup>, social distance, and the size of the imposition when making requests, she said that she would try to use polite forms as a person who makes a request cross-culturally and cross-linguistically.

Interviewer: Do you think you would consider the pragmatic factors – social power, social distance, and imposition of a request in a different culture?

YOOSUN: Many people think that Korean language has honorifics and English doesn't.

But I think that English is a language with which considers the position of the listener as much as with Korean. I think in English, the speakers use polite forms by the ways of sentential structures and selections of right words or phrases. I think, the core of requests in Korean language is not much different from that in English language. Although the forms to express respect and consideration to others may be different, the goal to show respectful manners to others through language should be the same. Especially in requests, the person who makes a request should learn and have politeness, because it is a request...

#### **GUISUN's responsibility of a request task.**

It was hard to find metapragmatic understanding in GUI SUN's interview. She doesn't have cross-cultural and cross-linguistic consideration in request situations. In particular, she didn't understand the functions of the Pragmatic Factors. Rather, for her, whose responsibility of the task in a request is most important in her consideration of politeness of a request. For example:

*In comparison of DCT situation 5 (Staying home for a washing machine fixation) with DCT situation 4 (requesting resubmission of an application),*

Interviewer: Unlike in situation 4, you added "I really appreciate it" in the responses to

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<sup>29</sup> Her interpretation of Social Power is social hierarchical relationship.

situation 5. It got more polite than in situation 4. Why do you think it is?

GUISUN: I don't know... sometimes I speak good English and sometimes I don't.

Maybe I spoke a good English at that moment.

Interviewer: By adding this kind of expression, a request could have a big difference in the force of asking someone to do something for the speaker. Have you considered this factor and taught students before?

GUISUN: I told them to say "Thank you". But I don't think I taught the situation and pragmatic factors. I think the situation is special. The task in the request is not difficult, but it is wholly my responsibility. In other words, in situation 5, I have to stay home until the repairman comes to fix the broken washing machine because it is natural that it is the lease holder's job, but I am trying to shift the responsibility to the tenant. Therefore I have to be more polite when I make the request, because it is not the tenant's responsibility. ...

Interviewer: What about in situation 4, the application resubmission?

GUISUN: It is different. I know the imposition is big and the task is difficult. But in situation 4, it is the applicant's job whether the task is difficult or easy to retype the application and resubmit it if the applicant wants to get hired. It is a matter of a responsibility. So I didn't use a polite form in situation 4. On the other hand, in situation 5, the task is not big. But the responsibility is mine, so I should be more polite when I make the request although the imposition is not big... This is also the case in situation 8. The task is my job, my responsibility whether it is difficult or easy to do. So I thought that I had to be more polite and I used "I'm sorry but..."...

*In DCT situation 1 (moving furniture for new carpeting)*

Interviewer: Did you consider the three social/pragmatic factors in situation 1 when you responded?

GUISUN: I think the relationship between a landlord and a tenant in America is much different from the relationship in Korea. I think I responded thinking that it was in Korea.

Interviewer: How is it different in Korea?

GUISUN: In the relationship between a landlord and a tenant in Korea, the landlord has much bigger power than in America, I think. For example, if a landlord asks the tenant to move out of the house, the tenant should leave. But I don't think it is the case in America.

*In DCT situation 2 (requesting a confirmation call within 3 days to the landlord)*

Interviewer: In this situation, you marked [-] Imposition. Did you think the task of the request was not difficult?

GUISUN: It's just giving a call, not a big deal. What is difficult with that? In Korea, giving such a call is not considered as a big deal.

*In DCT situation 4 (asking your boss at work for information),*

Interviewer: Your marks of social/pragmatic factors were unique in that you thought the imposition of the request was not big in situation 4. The requestee is your boss and the thing you asked the boss to do would take more than an hour, but it still is not a big deal?

GUISUN: No, I thought it was not a big request. If you are a teacher in Korea, other

teachers in the teacher's room are all my colleagues. Of course there is expected order of ranks among teachers, but it is not much serious as in a company. There are a principal and a vice-principal but they are not considered as teaching jobs and as a colleague, so they are not included in the consideration of collegueship in the teacher's room. There are head teacher in each department but they are considered as colleagues and sometimes they have much more jobs to do than they do with teaching only. I thought it was my teacher's room back in Korea where all teachers work together regardless of order of ranks in teachers, when there is a task...

Interestingly, while GUI SUN considers responsibility as the most important thing, she made an overgeneralization talking about the poor service of American airlines in terms of responsibility again.

*In DCT situation 6 (asking for napkin on an airplane)*

GUI SUN: Korean airlines are nice and kind, but American airlines are not. They are rude and mean. Once I took an American Airline, I saw a Korean flight attendant. Since I was short, I could not put my bag onto the overhead bin, so I asked him to help me to put the bag onto the overhead bin. But he declined my request because, he said, there were too people in the aisle to pass through. He said that I could ask someone near me for help. Ridiculous! He should have come to me. He was the flight attendant and it was his job, his responsibility to help people aboard. American airlines are no manners at all. They are badly mean.

**JOOHEE's hesitation governed by L1 pragmatic factors.**

JOOHEE showed an interesting and unique attitude toward requestive speech performances. Her DCT responses were mostly governed by the combination of all of the three pragmatic factors in L1 consideration. In other words, she had the understanding of the social/pragmatic factors in requests but the deciding values were influenced by her L1 pragmatic norm. She showed many cases of hesitation to speak out a requestive utterance in the DCT situations because of her consideration of the combination of all three factors. This consideration made her choose non-conventionally indirect forms of requests most frequently, and sometimes it led her not to use clear Head Act request forms. For example:

*In DCT situation 1 (Moving out furniture for new carpeting),*

Interviewer: When a request is difficult, the utterance tends to get longer. In this situation, you didn't actually speak out your request. ... You didn't explicitly give the core request or Head Act, for example, "Move your furniture". Why?

JOOHEE: Because it is difficult.

Interviewer: What is difficult?

JOOHEE: The task in the request is too difficult to ask someone to do it.

Interviewer: Too difficult to ask?

JOOHEE: I thought the relationship between the listener and I was very close. And this made me feel more uncomfortable when I made the request to him.

Interviewer: Is it in Korean consideration or American?

JOOHEE: I tried to think everything in the situations in American style.

Interviewer: So ... you couldn't speak out the request? Because it was a very difficult request?



JOOHEE: Yes. The hearer would have a very hard time or trouble.

Interviewer: So you couldn't say that?

JOOHEE: Yes. I was like ... when I say something indirectly or imply something indirectly, I want and expect the hearer to understand my intention of a request and do it for me.... Moving furniture is hard to do. It is a tough request.

In particular, she applied expected social etiquette or expected social manners in L1 to choose the forms in her request responses. For example:

*In DCT situations 3 (Asking your boss at work for information) and 4 (Requesting resubmission of an application),*

Interviewer: In situation 3, I think this is your personality, as in situation 1, you didn't say the core request or the Head Act. Why? Because it is a difficult request again?

JOOHEE: Yes. When I gave the response, I pretended I was a new face to the office.

Interviewer: That's possible.

JOOHEE: So it was a difficult request.

Interviewer: And ... you said, "Can I start it tomorrow?" to avoid the difficult situation.

JOOHEE: I did. Because it was a very difficult request.

Interviewer: It was too difficult for you to make the request?

JOOHEE: Yes. And he is my boss at work. That makes it more difficult. But I need to tell you this. When I read the situation scripts, I pretended I was a real new face who started that day. It was my first day at work and I wanted to work properly but things were screwed up beyond my guess.

Interviewer: You tried to think over the situation to be polite, didn't you?

JOOHEE: Yes. ... But I didn't like the situation 4, about the person in the situation who

didn't do the application form correctly.

Interviewer: Here you were too direct and domineering, by saying "Can you see? Can you read, you should ...".

JOOHEE: Right. It is a job application, and it is a requirement to get the job.

Interviewer: You were too authoritative and commanding. Why?

JOOHEE: I didn't think the applicant got a right attitude. It is like "Do you want to submit this horrible application? Do you think you can get a job with that?" I thought the applicant was insincere. I thought it was pathetic.

Interviewer: Were you considering a kind of social etiquette?

JOOHEE: Yes.

Interviewer: In situation 1 is also social etiquette.

JOOHEE: Yes. In a sense, in situation 4, it was giving another chance. I could receive the poor application saying nothing and discard it behind the desk, but it is giving the applicant another chance.

Interviewer: And your imposition value was [-].

JOOHEE: It is [-]. It is not difficult.

Interviewer: Because it should be done?

JOOHEE: Yes.

Interviewer: However it will take time?

JOOHEE: It doesn't matter. You cannot submit your application? Then forget it! You don't want to get the job, I would think.

As described above, each participant has their own unique interpretation of request situations in English. This means that more factors are needed in the consideration of social factors in requestive speech acts. A further discussion about social factors will be provided in chapter 5.

### **Request Strategies**

The general agreement in request research is that the greater the social distance between the requester and the requestee, the greater power of the addressee, and the greater the imposition of the task in a request, then the more polite a strategy the speaker will employ. Before I move into each participant's responses, I will provide the examples of the strategies used by the participants among the variety of request Head Acts and Supportive Moves (See Appendix VIII for the full range of request strategies and supportive moves).

Table 14

*Actual Examples of Head Acts and Supportive Moves Used by the Participants*

	Categories	Examples used by participants		
	Degree of directness	Subcategories	Example	
Request Head Acts	Direct	Imperative	Give me all the information	
		Performative	We need to move out your bedroom's furniture	
		Locution derivable	You have to retype it	
		Simple words or phrases	Napkin, please	
	Conventionally Indirect	Possibility	Can/Could I get the menu? Can/Could you please stay home instead of me?	
		Conditionals	Would you give me a call within three days? If you tell me within 3 days, I really appreciate it.	
	Non-Conventionally Indirect	Strong hint	I need your help to get information to finish my assignment. I think this application form has some problems.	
		Mild hint	Are you done with the menu? There's another customer coming.	
	Supportive Moves (modification)	Head Act Modification	Subjectivizer	<u>I'm sorry but</u> would you ...?
			Request intensifier	I <u>really really</u> wanna have your call.
Politeness marker			Please, ... Can/Could/Will/Would you please...?	
External modification		Opener	Hello, Ms. Morris, Excuse me.	
		Grounder	I'll put new carpets in all the rooms.	
		Disarmer	I'm sorry to say like that. I know I am responsibility for mowing the lawn, but... I know it's my responsibility, but... I'm supposed to do it, but...	
		Gratitude intensifier	I'll really appreciate it.	
		Preparator	I want to tell you one thing. I need to ask you one thing.	
		Precommitment	Could you do me a favor?	
		Promise & reward	I promise I will be a good resident. I'll pay 50 bucks.	

In discussing the pragmatic strategies of request speech acts, in what follows, I discuss the (a) request Head Acts with regard to the degree of directness and (b) Supportive Moves in terms of the ways of supporting the Head Acts.

### **Head Acts.**

The results of the analysis of the participants' request Head Acts in L2 speech acts demonstrated that all of the participants showed a strong tendency to use Conventionally Indirect (CI) forms of requests as their Head Acts. Preparatory formulae<sup>30</sup> is the most frequently used CI form, e.g. *Could you ...? Can you...?* Table 13 shows each participant's Head Acts categories used in each situation by their degree of directness.

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<sup>30</sup> Preparatory formulae is a strategy asking about the requestee's ability, willingness and possibility for the achievement of the task in a request (See APPENDIX VIII).

Table 15

*Summary of Head Acts*

DCT situations	response mode	Participant				
		EUNJOO	KEUMJOO	YOOSUN	GUISUN	JOOHEE
1 Carpeting	Oral	Direct+CI	Direct	Direct	CI	Direct
	Written	CI	Direct+CI	Direct	NCI	Direct
2 Call request	Oral	CI	Direct	Direct	CI	CI
	Written	CI	Direct	CI	CI	CI
3 Asking a boss	Oral	Direct	CI	CI	CI	NCI
	Written	NCI	NCI	Direct	CI	NCI
4 Retyping	Oral	CI	Direct	CI	CI	CI+Direct
	Written	CI	Direct	CI	Direct	Direct
5 Washing machine	Oral	CI	CI	CI	CI	CI
	Written	CI	CI	CI	CI	CI
6 Napkin	Oral	CI	Direct	CI	CI	CI
	Written	CI	CI	CI	CI	Direct
7 Asking a menu back	Oral	CI	NCI	CI	CI	CI
	Written	CI	NCI	CI	CI	NCI
8 Mowing the lawn	Oral	CI	CI	CI	CI	CI
	Written	CI	CI	CI	CI	NCI
Number of CI		14	7	12	14	8

*Note.* See Appendix X for Head Acts by each participant.

Although the Conventionally Indirect (CI) Head Acts forms are most frequently used over all, there is a substantial difference between KEUMJOO, JOOHEE and EUNJOO, YOOSUN, GUI SUN in the diversity of request strategies. Significantly more CI Head Act forms are used by EUNJOO, YOOSUN, and GUI SUN than by KEUMJOO and JOOHEE (14, 12, 14 vs. 7, 8 out of 16 responses). In other words, KEUMJOO and JOOHEE employed more diverse Head Act forms than the other three participants. The meaningful difference between the two groups comes from their different teaching experiences. EUNJOO, YOOSUN, and GUI SUN are current English teachers in secondary schools in Korea while KEUMJOO and JOOHEE were teaching English in post-secondary schools (colleges and universities) in Korea. In terms of the diversity

of the content in their English classes, college and university English teachers in Korea teach more diverse contents than secondary school English teachers in Korea do. The educational goal of English teaching in secondary schools in Korea is getting a higher score in exams. Therefore, finding a correct answer for the given questions is the main content of teaching English in secondary schools in Korea, not the consideration of the nature of communication or understanding of cultural differences. This leads the English teaching of secondary schools in Korea to the blinkered, score-oriented teaching of English; thus, there is less diverse use of strategies in English requests.

On the other hand, KEUMJOO and JOOHEE taught many different kinds of English classes. According to their demographics and interviews, although they did not cover all of the four areas of language teaching, the English courses they taught were of a great diversity because they were part-time lecturers in Korean universities, and the major goal of Korean college English education is not teaching English test-taking skills. In sum, the three secondary school English teachers have not taught English as a language, but as a subject of the Korean College Entrance Exam. Therefore, they taught students how to get a higher score in tests and exams without any consideration of the nature of the language, such as the social factors in requests.

### **Supportive Moves.**

The results of the analysis of the participants' Supportive Moves in L2 requests demonstrated that, all of the three Pragmatic factors have significant, functional meanings in the participants' use of Supportive Moves. As mentioned earlier, none of the participants' values in the Pragmatic factors matches the given values. While each participant has their own, unique sociocultural norms in determining the degree of directness in request strategies, they showed the inability to map pragmatic knowledge to the proper application of the social categories.

First, this inability occurred most frequently with the Pragmatic factor of Power. For example, participants marked a [-] value of Power, but the value of the participants' Supportive Move was Direct, which entails [+] Power. Table 11 also reveals these participants' inability. In Table 11, YOOSUN's value for Power in the asking a boss situation is [-], but her response (Supportive Move) is Direct, "I'll wait for you to find the data for me". GUI SUN's value for Power in the retyping situation is [+], but her response (Supportive Move) is fairly Indirect, "I'm sorry but I couldn't read your application form and ...". When this discrepancy was pointed out and discussed during the interview, they were a little bit surprised to know that they made this discrepancy between the values of Pragmatic factors and thought over the English they taught in Korea.

EUNJOO: In everyday English, there is not many opportunities to use different types of request expressions. And I've learned that people don't use direct expressions very much in American English. But I taught students that indirect and polite forms are usually used in request situations.

KEUMJOO: I didn't recognize the situational differences when I taught English before I came to America. I don't think I taught students that different expressions with different degrees of directness should be considered in English conversation. It is difficult to teach and learn many things in a short English conversation class.

YOOSUN: I taught students polite expressions as much as possible, but I didn't recognized that there are many different expressions for one request situation with many different degrees of directness or politeness. I think I just taught a limited range of different request forms such as "Help me, please" instead of "Help me"



or “You should”, “You must”, “I want you to”, “Could/Would you...?” I think this is it.

GUI SUN: I don’t know why I used the form, which has different directness from the Power value. I might have thought that it would be polite with “could” instead of “can”, but I’m not sure why I did that. In everyday life, I think I use all of them without any difference among “Could you ...”, “would you ...”, and “please...”.

JOOHEE: Honestly, I didn’t know what to respond for the situation. ... I didn’t want to say like that but, because I didn’t know what to say to deliver my feeling guilty and awkwardness. ... I know it was not polite when it needs to be polite but it didn’t come easy to me. The polite expression doesn’t come easy.

As shown above, although they have linguistic knowledge about pragmatic forms, they haven’t acquired or developed the ability to apply their pragmatic knowledge to given contexts.

Secondly, the participants employed the most Supportive Moves in situations 8, 5 and 3 out of the eight eliciting situations. The Pragmatic factor the three situations have in common is Distance and its given value is [-].

Table 16

*Number of Supportive Moves by Situations*

	DCT situation							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
<u>P</u>	+	-	-	+	+	+	-	-
<u>D</u>	-	+	-	+	-	+	+	-
<u>I</u>	+	+	+	+	-	-	-	-
Mode	O W	O W	O W	O W	O W	O W	O W	O W
Number of SM	9 10	7 9	9 11	10 9	11 13	5 5	6 5	14 16
	19	16	20	19	24	10	11	30

*Note.* O = Oral response, W = Written response, SM = Supportive Move

These three situations have the given value of [-] Distance, which means the social relationship in the situation is close. Although the participants saw the Pragmatic factor as important during the interviews, many of the participants had different interpretations of the Pragmatic factor (Distance) from the given value (See Appendix XI).

JOOHEE: (talking about situation 3 [asking your boss])...because it was a very difficult request. ... and he is my boss at work. That makes it more difficult. ...

EUNJOO: (in situation 5 [washing machine]) ... it might be a little different from Korea, but it is asking my boss at work for something. It is not easy at all. Even though the languages are different, significant politeness is needed in this kind of situation.

KEUMJOO: (in situation 8 [mowing]) ...this is the thing I have to feel sorry about. ... and this is violation of the contract and ... the Distance is definitely [+], and I think it is not good to have a close relationship in this kind of situation. I have not seen any close relationship between a house lease holder and a tenant.

Thirdly, the participants' interpretation of Imposition is the most different from the given value among the three Pragmatic factors (See Table 13). In particular, in situation 8 (mowing), the given value is [-] Imposition, but all of the participants show the value of [+] Imposition in the employment of Supportive Moves. As investigated earlier in the *Three Pragmatic Factors* (page 103) section, each participant has a unique reason why their Imposition value is [+]. In other words, although the participants' binary value of Imposition is identical, the reasons why they chose the value vary a lot according to each participant's metapragmatic awareness and understanding of cultural difference in request situations.

EUNJOO: This is a tough request to ask. ... the relationship with the house lease holder

would be most important but I think it should be easier to request in Korea. In Korean culture, people are likely to return someone's kindness or favor and, I think Koreans are more compliable with requests.

KEUMJOO: The task in the request in this situation is supposed be mine according to the contract, so I have to reward the requestee with something. ... My understanding is that the lease holder replaced a certain amount of money out of the rent with the labor of mowing provided by the tenant. Therefore any reward should be given and even if I pay some money as a reward, this is a thing that I have to feel very sorry about, because it is a contract violation...

YOOSUN: Basically I try to say with manners in everyday conversations. I think we have to have good manners even if we are talking to younger people than I am or even minors. We cannot say directly just because the hearer is young.

GUISUN: It is my job, my responsibility. I felt so guilty for the request that I said "I'm sorry...". I was asking someone else to do my task. That was difficult.

JOOHEE: It is my job, my responsibility but I cannot do it for my personal reason. It was part of my rent lease as my job. If it was the landlord's job, he should do it. But it is my job according to the lease. So, I felt sorry about that.

In short, again, the participants' own socio-cultural norms function as an important factor in the application of request strategies and the production of requestive forms in English.

### **Relationship between English Teaching Experience and L2 Pragmatic Competence**

Research Question 2 is about the relationship between the participants' experience of English teaching and their pragmatic competence in English. The participants' DCT responses and interviews are analyzed in two sections: the relationship between English teaching

experience and English pragmatic competence, and their attitudinal change after their ESL learning experiences.

It is natural for teachers to need to know what they teach. The participants showed imbalanced L2 pragmatic competencies between (pragmalinguistic) knowledge and (sociopragmatic) application. All of the participants have, to some extent, knowledge of pragmatic variations, norms and metapragmatic information, since they have many years of English teaching experience, but their applications of the knowledge to speech production in the L2 showed discrepancies between their knowledge and the applications.

### **The Discrepancy of Directness**

The directness of the participants' requestive speech performances is not properly estimated by Head Acts only. The Head Acts together with Supportive Moves revealed the discrepancy of directness between the two. The participants' Head Acts are direct when the Supportive Moves are indirect in certain situations, and vice versa in other situations. Since there is not a detailed scale for the degree of directness for Supportive Moves, three degrees of directness are used for Supportive Moves: Direct, Conventionally Indirect, and Non-Conventionally Indirect<sup>31</sup>. This discrepancy of directness is interpreted as the participants not having the information of situational appropriateness and/or didn't have the information of the application of their L2 pragmatic knowledge in a given situation in the L2, and their L2 pragmatic competence not being fully developed yet. Table 15 shows the discrepancy of directness between Head Acts and Supportive Moves by each participant<sup>32</sup>.

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<sup>31</sup> This degree of directness for Supportive Moves is double checked by three native speakers of American English.

<sup>32</sup> The full scripts of the participants' DCT responses are given in Appendix XI.

Table 17

*Examples of the Directness Discrepancy between Head Acts and Supportive Moves*

Participants	Situations (Social factors)	Strategies	
		Head Acts	Supportive Moves
EUNJOO	Asking a boss P(-) D(+) I(-)	<b>Direct:</b> Please give me all the information	<b>Conventionally Indirect:</b> Excuse me, sir (Opener)
KEUMJOO	Asking a boss P(-) D(-) I(-)	<b>Conventionally Indirect:</b> Please would you try to find the data for me?	<b>Direct:</b> You need to find the data (Performative).
YOOSUN	Asking a boss P(-) D(-) I(+)	<b>Conventionally Indirect:</b> Could you give me some information to complete this project?	<b>Direct:</b> I'll wait for you to find some information for me. (Aggravator)
GUISUN	Retyping P(+) D(+) I(+)	<b>Direct:</b> Please retype and submit it by next week.	<b>Conventionally Indirect:</b> I'm sorry but I couldn't read your application form and ... (Disarmer)
JOOHEE	Retyping P(+) D(+) I(-)	<b>Conventionally Indirect:</b> Would you submit another one?	<b>Direct:</b> I can't read this form. Can you see? Can you read? (Aggravator)

To give an interpretive reading of the table with an example, in the situation of “asking a boss”, YOOSUN’s Head Act has a polite form by the degree of Conventionally Indirect, “Could you give me some information to complete this project?” while her Supportive Move is not polite, “I’ll wait for you to find some information for me”. All the other participants showed the same inconsistency of the directness between Head Acts and Supportive Moves.

**Lack of Experience, Lack of L2 Pragmatic Competence**

As pointed in the difference of Head Acts between EUNJOO, YOOSUN, GUISUN and KEUMJOO, JOOHEE, the number of Conventionally Indirect forms in Head Acts used by the former three participants is much more than the other two participants. The three participants are current English teachers in secondary schools in Korea and they have taught “test-oriented” or

“score-driven” English classes. They have no authority in the choice of the textbooks in their English classes in that the government-designated textbooks for English teaching are given as mandatory textbooks for the class. Even though there are many different English textbooks<sup>33</sup> which are authorized or designated by the government, all classes of the same grade in a secondary school in Korea should use the same textbook for all the English classes in the school. This causes the English teachers to have uniformed and non-diverse teaching strategies and contents in English classes, which leads English education in Korea to focus on teaching test-taking skills, not teaching a language per se. EUNJOO, YOOSUN, and GUI SUN gave the same, quite negative opinion about English education in Korean secondary schools:

GUI SUN: I haven’t taught such differences as degrees of directness because I am a high school English teacher. They might be taught in middle schools... I was once a middle school English teacher for three years and the textbook had short dialogues at the end of chapters, but we skip them in high schools. [...] There is an English listening class per week but the English teachers teach students the skills to find a right answer for Korean College Entrance Exam., not the idea of communication in English. [...] We don’t even think about social factors and degrees of directness at school.

EUNJOO: There was no speaking class in middle school English textbooks in Korea. They had a little bit of dialogues but that was never enough. [...] I think I tried to help students practice English speaking. But the amount of time I spent for the speaking practice was not enough. [...] It is not enough. English teaching in Korea is reading-centered [...] I tried to let the students have relatively more time

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<sup>33</sup> For example, as of spring 2012, there are 25 English textbooks which are authorized and designated by the Korean government for 7<sup>th</sup> graders (1st graders of middle school in Korea)

to practice English speaking but the general teaching in my English classes were reading-centered because of the national curriculum for English in public schools. [...] there are nearly forty students in a class and it is hard to have interactional English conversation class in Korea.

YOOSUN: When I found myself who taught English in the same way as I was taught when I was young and not good at English communication, I didn't think that I taught English much. [...] It's more than 20 year's of teaching English, but my English teaching was mainly about translation and grammar. [...] (When) I was a senior high English teacher, I didn't work on the textbook at all, [...] We chose a workbook and worked on it. That was not what I wanted but everyone taught English in that way. [...] sometimes I felt that I was teaching test-taking skills, not English language. Just like teaching formulae ... in fact, it doesn't have any meaning. That way, students cannot learn an expression and even cannot use what they learn in class when they have a real English situation. [...] My English teaching was grammar, reading, tests, cramming skills and memorizing by rote without consideration of contexts.

On the other hand, the other two were part-time lecturers of various English courses in Korean colleges and universities, and English educators in post-secondary schools in Korea have relatively more authority<sup>34</sup> to choose the textbooks for their English classes depending on what they teach, such as business English, English conversation, practical English, and practice English listening or writing. In addition to the difference in the numbers of Conventionally Indirect forms, the difference of English teaching experience is also salient in the variety of

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<sup>34</sup> Not all of the English departments in Korean colleges and universities allow this for part-time lecturers of general English courses.

Supportive Moves. Table 16 shows the variety of Supportive Moves employed by each participant.

Table 18

*The Variety of Supportive Moves Employed by Each Participant*

	Participants				
	EUNJOO	YOOSUN	GUISUN	KEUMJOO	JOOHEE
Supportive Moves	Opener	Opener	Grounder	Opener	Opener
	Grounder	Grounder	Imposition	Grounder	Grounder
	Precommitment	Disarmer	minimizer	Politeness marker	Imposition minimize
	Aggravator	Preparator	Subjectivizer	Promise	Precommitment
	Imposition minimizer	Gratitude intensifier	Gratitude intensifier	Disarmer	Promise
	Subjectivizer		Disarmer	Precommitment	Regeret intensifier
	Disarmer		Promise	Preparator	intensifier
				Reward	Disarmer
				Imposition minimize	Aggravator
				Gratitude intensifier	Preparator
				Politeness marker	
				Subjectivizer	
Number of Supportive Moves	7	5	7	10	11

As seen in the Table 16, KEUMJOO and JOOHEE employed different Supportive Moves with more variety than the other three participants did. In other words, they have more information of the wider variety of Supportive Moves, and they can apply the variety to the strategies in request situations in the L2.

In sum, all of the participants' English proficiency is fairly good enough to study in a graduate program of an American university, and their experience of teaching English as credited or accepted English teachers in Korea is likely to help equip them with good knowledge of English grammar and idiomatic expressions, i.e. pragmalinguistic knowledge of English. However, their understanding of intercultural communication shows deviated pragmatic use in



requestive speech performances from time to time. In other words, their sociopragmatic knowledge is not as good as their pragmalinguistic knowledge.

### **Unawareness of the Lack of L2 Pragmatic Competence**

Despite the review of their DCT responses and the analyses with me, the participants were still unaware of the metapragmatic and cultural differences between different languages and their importance in L2 learning. They knew that their pragmalinguistic knowledge was better than their sociopragmatic ability, but through the review of the DCT responses and recall interviews over the responses, they showed that their lack of confidence came from their strong bias toward speaking-focused competence in their judgment of English proficiency. Although they knew the importance of intercultural/cross-cultural awareness in language learning, none of them specifically mentioned the importance and the effects in English teaching and learning. Rather, interestingly, all of them gave a negative response to the question *Do you think you are/were a good English teacher?* The reason for the negative response is their lack of confidence in their spoken English.

#### **Good at speaking is good at English.**

All of the participants said that being good at speaking in English is being good at English. Although they agreed that all of the four areas of language learning, speaking, listening, reading and writing, are important in language learning, they think of verbal communicative ability as a representative skill in the judgment of English proficiency. However, none of them mentioned and recognized the relationship between English proficiency and metapragmatic awareness in L2 learning.

#### ***EUNJOO's English speaking proficiency as a requirement of an English teacher.***

EUNJOO studied teaching English at college and acknowledged the importance of the four areas

of language learning but didn't think that she had a proper education or teacher training for English at college because she has never been satisfied with her English speaking proficiency. She showed a strong bias toward English speaking.

I thought (English) speaking is the basic skill that an English teacher should have to teach English... Communication skill is the basic requirement of an English teacher. ... Other areas, such as reading and vocabulary, were okay when I finished college with English teaching major, but the amount of time for speaking in English was not enough even at college. ... Other areas like reading and writing at college were good enough for me to be prepared to be an English teacher but speaking was not enough. ... an English teacher should be able to speak a certain level of English. ... This is so basic and if you major in English at college, then you have to have a certain level of speaking skill in English.

She also had a strong negative opinion about English textbooks in Korean secondary schools. This made her want to teach English speaking more when she taught English in Korea.

There is no speaking in English textbooks. They have a little bit of dialogues, but that is never enough. So, I finished the English textbook one month earlier than the end of the semester and spend the remaining one month teaching English speaking. ... when the month passed, all the students came to me and said that it was good and they were happy to have had those kind of intensive speaking sessions in English class at school.

This experience of teaching English speaking also gave her a good impression in her teaching career. She seems to think that it was an achievement she made in class.

***KEUMJOO's importance of English pronunciation and writing.*** KEUMJOO also put emphasis on speaking in the consideration of English proficiency. In particular, she focused on

pronunciation practice when she taught English because she wanted to teach pronunciation so that people could understand the students when they spoke in English.

In conversation class, I had the students speak in English as much as possible. I had them speak at least one word in English in the class. ... I taught them the differences in sounds of English and this difference can cause a communication breakdown. I told them that pronunciation is important for communication.

Interestingly she put emphasis on the importance of speaking along with writing, two productive skills of language learning, rather than receptive skills (listening and reading).

I ask students to write a lot in class. If I am applying for an English teaching job now, I would let students speak more and write more in English. ... In an English conversation class, I asked them to write more in English than in other classes. The correction is helpful for their speaking as well.

For her, productive skills (speaking and writing) are more important than receptive skills (reading and listening) in language learning.

*YOOSUN's verbal interactions as communication.* YOOSUN put emphasis on spoken skills in language learning, i.e. speaking and listening. She thought that verbal interactions were important in language education.

When in college, speaking and listening in English were not emphasized. That was always unsatisfactory. There was one native speaking English teacher but it was only one semester and it was not enough. ... Once I was thinking of applying for a graduate school of interpretation and translation. In retrospect, I think I felt that I was not good at English speaking and listening...

Interestingly, one of the reasons for her studying in the U.S. was to improve her verbal communication skills, especially her listening comprehension proficiency.

Rather than reading and grammar, which I was good at, I wanted to teach English speaking and listening, which I didn't think was good at. One of the reasons I came to study abroad is this. If I feel confident in this, I think I can feel more comfortable in teaching English.

She participated in many activities of English learning in Korea and she thought these activities were good for her to improve her English, especially her verbal communication skills.

In English camps in Korea, I had to co-teach with a native speaker of English, so I needed to speak in English more than outside of the camp, and I needed to improve my English communication skills. In those circumstances, I could find the limitation or weak points of my English.

***GUI SUN's imbalanced English teaching and imbalanced English proficiency.***

Compelled by English speaking, lack of confidence, and desire for speaking proficiency, GUI SUN came to America to study, and as in YOOSUN's case, to improve her English proficiency, especially her spoken English proficiency. She is currently an English teacher at a high school in Korea, and she thought an English teacher's proficiency in spoken English is important in the qualifications for an English teacher in Korea. She has always been unsatisfied with her spoken English proficiency. This makes her feel uncomfortable because of her imbalanced English proficiency between productive skills (reading and listening) and receptive skills (speaking and writing) in English.

Preparing for the Korean teacher's credential test, I went to a private English conversation hakwon<sup>35</sup> in Korea from time to time because I thought my English speaking was not good. ... It is awkward when you majored in English at college but you are not good at it, so I went to the hakwon to improve my spoken English to be good at English. Actually, I came to America for that. I came to America to study English in a language learning institute during my sabbatical year. However, I thought to myself at that time that it would be hard for me to master spoken English within a year, so I applied for an MA program here.

She seemed to be confused about what she has to know to teach as an English teacher in Korea and what she wants to teach. She has to know grammatical knowledge in teaching exam English in Korea, but what she wants to teach is:

... I believe that the teacher's authority comes from the professional knowledge. I think that I have to be good at teaching and knowledgeable in my field. Students like teachers who teach "Exam English" and grammar. They prefer knowledgeable teachers. If a teacher has a poor teaching skill, they don't respect the teacher.

... I want to teach literature, English literature. ... I cannot teach what I really want to teach. (But) I want to practice my spoken English with Americans here, but I don't have time to have English speaking practice. I always sit in the library doing my study in American English literature and I do reading and writing only. I think I have to do something else.

During the interview, she recognized the importance of cultural understanding in English learning. During her talk with the interviewer, she finally noticed the influence of the cultural differences on politeness in English use.

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<sup>35</sup> A private institute, academy or cram-school for learning test skills which is prevalent in South Korea.

I thought communicational skills and understanding culture were most important in English learning even before I came to America, but since I came here it became clear. It is hard to experience the cultural difference in Korea and they don't teach that because they don't know of it. ... When you are not aware of the cultural difference, you can sound impolite.

***JOOHEE's lack of confidence from a low level of spoken English proficiency.***

JOOHEE thought that a proper English teacher in Korea should be a qualified English teacher. This opinion came from her experience when she taught English at colleges in Korea where she saw quite a few English teachers who were not good at spoken English, including herself. She believes that a qualified English teacher is a teacher who speaks good English. This good English means confidence in speaking English. She thought that she herself was also an unqualified English teacher because she was not good at English speaking.

I taught English conversation classes in colleges in Korea but I rarely did English speaking. I had to teach the course because the courses were just given to me. I was so nervous that I didn't know how to teach the English conversation course at all. ... some of the students at that time asked me to teach them in English only in the class, but I was not confident in my English because, first of all, I was not good at English speaking. It was a big burden in my mind. I can say I am "non-qualified". But as I saw many a lot less qualified English teachers around me, I was not good enough to teach English conversation courses but I tried hard to be ready for the classes. The "less qualified" teachers were worse than I was in speaking English. When a native speaking English teacher came in the room, they left. ... I don't think I was a desirable English teacher because I was not good enough in speaking English, not qualified.

Apart from their feeling incompetent in spoken English, the participants became more aware of the importance of cultural understanding in teaching and learning English as the interviews went by.

EUNJOO: Before I came here I thought my English speaking was not good, but now I have lived in the U.S. for two years and I think I have more cultural experience in America so I can use this cultural experience in my future teaching.

KEUMJOO: Learning how to speak does not necessarily having a good communication skill. For example, when Korean kids study TOEFL, there are questions which they cannot find the answers only by linguistic knowledge. I thought to myself that only the people who have been in the English speaking countries can answer the questions.

YOOSUN: One of the good things in reading kids' storybooks in English is that you can learn idiomatic expressions and culture. ... If I can teach with an American, I can learn their culture and life styles.

GUISUN: Generally, I think understanding communication through understanding culture is most important in learning English, and this idea became clear when I came to America.... When you are not aware of the cultural difference, you can sound impolite and the same to your listener.

JOOHEE: If I were to apply for an English teaching job now, I would practice English speaking, grammar, and I would become much more interested in English culture because a language teacher's cultural awareness of the teaching language is one of the qualifications of an English teacher.

However, the idea about culture in English teaching and learning was still vague, and it was not solid enough to change and influence their teaching philosophy, and they still related the importance of cultural understanding to spoken English only.

### **Attitudinal Change toward Teaching and Learning English**

All of the participants showed significant changes in their attitudes toward teaching and learning English before and after they came to America to study as well as before and after they had the reviews of their DCT responses and the interviews. First, KEUMJOO, YOOSUN, and JOOHEE showed their overcoming of “native speakerism”.

KEUMJOO: I know I have problems in my English, but that is the difference between nativeness and non-nativeness. That is fixed and we cannot change that. ... There are things we cannot do about in learning English as a non-native English speaker of English. ... Now I know that English is a difficult language.

YOOSUN: Before I came here, I thought that someone with a good pronunciation would be good at English. This “good pronunciation” means American English pronunciation, and someone who is fluent in English and who speaks fast. But now it is different. Although someone’s speaking is slow and the pronunciation is not native-like or American-like, if the listener would understand the speaker, it is a good English. ... When I taught third grades at a high school in Korea, I gave them “exam English” only for higher scores in exams. ... Now I believe that I cannot hurt students’ self-esteem for the sake of teaching English for scores. Language is language, not a personality nor a value. Now I can think about my identity as an English teacher. My identity is not stable but it is getting better and progressing to a positive direction.



JOOHEE: Before I came to America, I thought that people who were fluent in English were people who were good at English. But now I think I am fluent. I can talk in English. But I don't think I am good at English. With coherence, logical argument and advanced vocabulary... and if I have a talk in English and I can say exactly what I want to deliver to mean, then I would say I am good at English.

Unlike the other participants, EUNJOO and GUI SUN showed their obsession with native-speakerism, especially in terms of English speaking proficiency.

GUI SUN: I think I am a learner and a teacher of English at the same time, and since I am not a native speaker of English, I am not perfect, so I have to learn English.

Interestingly EUNJOO showed a contradictory attitude towards English learning and teaching with regard to native speakerism. In other words, she said that she overcame her obsession with native speakerism;

EUNJOO: Being good at speaking alone cannot mean being good at English. ... the biggest change before and after I came to the U.S. regarding "being good at English" is that I now know that I don't need to try to be like a native speaker of English. ... What I figured out about English learning is that I can never be a native speaker or native-like speaker of English and I don't need to be.

But in her interview about difficulties that she had in teaching idiomatic expressions in English, she showed her bias towards native speaking English teachers:

EUNJOO: For example, there is an expression that students are interested in, but I cannot teach them in correct English because I am not a native English speaker. I'll try to give them my best answer but I cannot be sure of it. ... because I am not a native

speaker of English and I haven't been exposed to "native English circumstance" such as a life in America.

Second, in addition to EUNJOO, YOOSUN, and GUI SUN's negative opinion about Korean English education in secondary schools in the middle of this chapter, all of the participants showed sympathy for Korean English students and anger towards the risible system of Korean English education. They had the negative opinions before they came to America, but the idea became clearer through the DCTs reviews and the interviews regarding their awareness of L2 pragmatics and their experiences of teaching English. They recognized that their lack of confidence in English comes from the imbalanced competence of English caused by reading-centered English education in Korea.

EUNJOO: I tried to help students practice English speaking, but the amount of time I spent for the speaking practice was not enough. It is not enough. English teaching in Korea is reading-centered, but I encouraged them to try to speak in English more.

KEUMJOO: I always feel sorry that Korean educational system has lots of problems, ... when I see those Korean young students who are exhausted by teaching by rote, I feel sorry.... There are lots of corruptions in English education in Korea. It is like a business. It is much more than the collusion between the politics and business.

YOOSUN: Current English teaching in Korea is about neither grammar nor communicative skills. I'm really confused. ... the problems of Korean English education is its frequent changes of the policies. ... and policies should reflect reality, but in Korea, it is not the case.

GUISUN: I don't like Korean English fever<sup>36</sup>. I think the educational system in Korea has to be changed, especially the policy of the college entrance exam. ... There is no English conversation in the college entrance exam. I think it is a waste of time. ... They say "whole-rounded education" all the time, but English education in Korea should be changed to teach all of the four areas in English language.

JOOHEE: For the students in my English conversation classes, I feel sorry because I studied cultural things in teaching English conversation but I had no experience, so I could not give them enough information about it. So, I feel sorry for them. My English was not good enough to teach them English conversation. ... I taught English conversation most, but I hated it because of my poor English proficiency.

In sum, all of the participants, to some extent, want to teach English speaking as well as wanting to improve their spoken English proficiency. Since spoken English is the most salient form of communication in judgment of communicational competence, they want to improve their English pragmatic competence by enhancing their spoken English competence.

### **Comparison of the Oral and Written Modes of Responses**

This section investigates the comparison of the two modes, written and oral, in data collection using the Discourse Completion Test (DCT). Three important findings came out from the comparison in terms of the length of utterances and the range of the strategies used in the requests, and the reasons for the findings are given through the analysis of the interviews with the participants.

#### **Length of Utterance**

The comparison of the two modes shows that there is no significant relationship between the modes of data collection and the length of utterance in the DCT situations for requests.

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<sup>36</sup> Overenthusiasm for English education in Korea (Kim, 2002)

Table 19

*Longer Responses for Each Situation by Each Participant*

participant	DCT situation							
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
EUNJOO	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	W
KEUMJOO	O	O	O	W	W	W	O	W
YOOSUN	W	W	O	O	O	O	O	O
GUISUN	W	W	O	W	W	W	W	W
JOOHEE	O	O	O	O	O	O	O	O

*Note.* O = oral response is longer than written response in the given DCT situation, W = written response is longer than oral response in the given DCT situation

Table 17 shows the inconsistency of the longer responses between the oral and written modes of the DCT. Only JOOHEE gave longer responses to all of the situations in the oral mode. Notably, KEUMJOO and GUISUN gave longer responses more in written mode than oral mode. They had their preference to written responses because they felt more comfortable in the written mode. Their major is American literature and the majority of their current English language use is written mode. GUISUN said that literature classes have less opportunities to speak in English than TESOL majors.

GUISUN: Because I am not good at English speaking, I felt comfortable when I wrote the response and we, literature majors don't have many opportunities to speak in class than in TESOL program. We just write essays as assignment or homework.... The reason of the longer response is that I was nervous, because it was awkward to speak in front of someone in English, but I knew that my English speaking was not good while I felt a little more comfortable when writing the responses.

## Range of Strategies

Some of the participants gave longer responses in oral mode in some of the elicited situations but for all of the participants, the number of strategies is by and large the same or more in written mode.

Table 20

### *The Range and the Number of the Used Supportive Moves by Each Participant*

	EUNJOO	KEUMJOO	YOOSUN	GUISUN	JOOHEE
Oral	Opener, Grounder, Preparator Imposition minimizer	Opener Grounder Disarmer Polite marker Preparator	Opener Grounder Preparator Disarmer	Grounder Preparatory Subjectivizer Gratitude intensifier Disarmer	Opener Grounder Imposition minimize Request intensifier Aggravator Polite marker Disarmer Subjectivizer
Number of SM	4	5	4	5	8
Written	Grounder Precommitment Aggravator Subjectivizer Disarmer	Opener Grounder Promise Polite marker Disarmer Precommitment Promise & reward	Opener Preparator Grounder Gratitude intensifier Disarmer	Opener Grounder Imposition minimize Subjectivizer Disarmer Promise & reward	Opener Grounder Promise & reward Imposition minimize Preparatory Disarmer Polite marker Sunjectivizer
Number of SM	5	7	5	6	8

Through the elicited eight request situations, the overall length of the responses is longer in oral mode, but the range of the strategies has a wider variation in written mode for all of the participants.

## Consistency of the Lack of L2 Pragmatic Competence

All of the participants have pragmalinguistic knowledge of English that certain forms of English is used to stand for (im)politeness in English requests, but their application of the forms

doesn't follow the knowledge in the comparison of the two response modes. For example, in her interview, JOOHEE knew that past forms of modal verbs are more polite than their simple present forms, and she taught her students this. However, her interpretation of the situation in terms of the Social Factors doesn't match her use of polite forms in request strategies

In DCT situation 2 (requesting a confirmation call within 3 days),

JOOEE's Oral Response: Okay, Mrs. Morris. **I think I can wait your call.** I really really wanna have your call. ... Actually I really really want to have an apartment, because I love this place. But actually **I don't have enough time ... if I cannot get this place, I should find another place.** ...

JOOHEE's Written Response: Mrs. Morris. I really get a rent of this place. You know, I'm a new person here. **I should find a place to stay ASAP.** And I love this place, **but if this place is not available for me, I should find another place ASAP.** **And I want to settle down.** ...

JOOHEE's interpretation of the social factors is not deviated from what is normally expected. In other words, when you (-Power) meet a landlord (+ Power) for the first time (+ Distance), it would be difficult or impolite to request an early confirmation call from the landlord while other potential tenants are waiting, too (+ Imposition). She knew she should be polite in the request in Situation 2, but she could not find the correct forms to correspond with the degree of politeness/directness because of her lack of L2 pragmatic competence.

JOOHEE: I knew that it was not polite, but I thought I had to explain my situation to get the rent or avoid a potential problem. ... It doesn't come easy. The polite expression doesn't come easy.

This occurred in the oral and written mode responses for all of the participants. The participants' L2 pragmatic competence doesn't show any difference between the oral and written modes of responses.

### **Chapter Summary**

In this chapter, the results and findings of the data collected were presented through the demographic analysis of the background questionnaires, the narrative analysis of the responses of the DCTs and the interviews with regard to the participants' L2 pragmatic competence in request speech acts. The findings are, first, there is no big difference in Head Acts of requests in terms of the degree of directness. The Conventionally Indirect Head Act forms are most frequently used overall. Second, Supportive Moves show the salient differences in the use of the strategies of the requests. Along with Head Acts, Supportive Moves reveal the directness of the participants' request strategies and their L2 pragmatic competence, which is imbalanced between pragmalinguistic knowledge and sociopragmatic application. Third, this imbalanced L2 pragmatic competence resulted from their imbalanced teaching experience. The reading-centered, score-oriented English teaching practice in Korea is attributed to the discrepancy of the L2 pragmatic competence. Fourth, four out of five participants had attitudinal changes toward teaching and learning English since they became aware of their imbalanced L2 pragmatic competence through the experience of the DCTs and the review of their responses. Fifth, all of them have sympathy for Korean students and a strong antipathy to the current educational system in Korea, which originates from the imbalanced English teaching in Korea. They wish to change the Korean educational system and improve their spoken English proficiency, in particular. Sixth, there is no significant co-relationship of the DCT responses between the oral and written modes. Two participants gave longer responses in the written mode and the others in the oral mode

because in each mode they felt more comfortable answering the questionnaires. Rather, they showed the consistency of the lack of L2 pragmatic competence in both oral and written modes. In chapter V, I discuss the major themes emerging from the results and the findings from the analyses of the data.



## **CHAPTER V: DISCUSSION OF THE THEMES, CONCLUSION, AND REFLECTIONS**

This study was designed to investigate the relationships between five Korean non-native English speaking teachers' (NNESTs) prior teaching experience and their L2 pragmatic competence. Its uniqueness as a study is that it focused on the participants' prior teaching experiences and their awareness of the importance of intercultural and cross-cultural understanding in English language teaching and learning, which has not been considered as important until recently. In particular, their attitudinal changes toward teaching and learning English are discussed along with the results of the analysis of their narratives. Given the paucity of qualitative studies in the field of Korean NNESTs' L2 pragmatic competence, especially regarding its relationships with their prior English teaching experience, inquiring into their awareness and understanding of cross-cultural and intercultural pragmatics in English is quite meaningful in order to gain a profound and detailed understanding about how Korean NNESTs perceive the meaning of teaching and learning L2 pragmatics in English education in Korea.

### **Purpose of the Study Revisited**

The main purpose of this study was to gain an understanding of five Korean NNESTs' L2 pragmatic competence and awareness of intercultural pragmatics in English. Highlighting their L2 pragmatic competence and awareness through their experience of English teaching, this study explored the Korean NNESTs' perceptions and understandings of intercultural differences in L2 pragmatics.

To achieve the main purpose of this study, I made up two main research questions with two sub-research questions for each (See p. 18). The first research question is about the participants' metapragmatic awareness, and the second research question is about the relationship between the participants' prior teaching English experience and L2 pragmatic

competence. Among the four sub-research questions, to answer the first sub-research question *In terms of the three Pragmatic factors, how do they understand and perceive the awareness of pragmatic differences between their L1 and L2?*, the data was collected and analyzed from two different modes, the DCT questionnaires and reflective interviews. The crafting of their DCT responses and narratives utilizing the reflective interviews both deepened and enriched the understanding of the participants' L2 pragmatic competence and their teaching experiences. In addition to the DCT questionnaires and the interviews, a background questionnaire was conducted to characterize each participant's English teaching career demographically. Their demographic portraits served as a general approach to each participant's experiences of teaching English, courses they taught, their current English learning habits, and English proficiency by their TOEFL scores.

To answer the second sub-research question *In terms of the pragmatic strategies of request speech acts, how do they understand and perceive metapragmatic awareness between their L1 and L2?*, DCT responses were analyzed in terms of the Pragmatic Factors and request strategies. With the results of the analysis of the DCT responses, I had interviews with each participant in the format of stimulated recall. By recalling the responses in their DCT questionnaires, each participant figured out their reasons for using certain forms of request strategies and the degrees of directness in the request responses.

The third sub-research question is, *What is their attitude toward English teaching and learning in terms of pragmatic competence of NNESTs and how it has changed?* The answer was obtained through listening to their experiences of English teaching in Korea and learning in the U.S. The analysis of their narratives utilizing the comparison of their attitudinal changes toward English teaching and learning before and after they came to the U.S. helped me understand and

figure out the rationale of their attitudinal changes toward English teaching and learning, and their overcoming of native-speakerism. Narrative approaches in research of language teaching and learning have positive functions by allowing the researchers to present holistic experiences of the participants with their complexity and richness. Canagarajah (1996) argued that narratives open up possibilities to participate in knowledge construction in the academy. Bell (2002) provided three advantages of using narrative in language research: (1) “Narrative allows researchers to understand experience, (2) Narrative lets researchers get at information that people do not consciously know themselves, (3) Narrative illuminates the temporal notion of experience, recognizing that one’s understanding of people and events changes” (p. 209). The results and analyses of the data in this study provided a better understanding of the participants’ experiences of English as a teacher in Korea and as a learner in America by using narrative inquiry during the interviews. The narratives of their rationale and knowledge about L2 pragmatics also let the participants become aware of the importance and understanding of cross-cultural/cross-linguistic awareness in teaching and learning English as an L2, which they did not consciously recognize themselves. In addition, the narrative used in this study illuminated not only their experiences as a teacher and a learner of English and their understanding of L2 pragmatics but also their attitudinal changes toward English teaching and learning.

The answer to the fourth sub-research question, *What might be brought into the English classroom and teacher training curriculums in Korea in the future?* is given in the section *Implications for teaching and teacher education* later in this chapter.

### **Brief Overview of the Study**

This study was designed to explore five Korean NNESTs’ L2 pragmatic competence and its relationship with their teaching experiences using the DCT questionnaires of English request.

L2 learners' pragmatic competence often shows pragmatic inappropriateness in the use of the language, and L2 pragmatic competence is one of the requirements of a language teacher (Goto Butler, 2004; Ishihara, 2010; Phillipson, 1992). However, since the importance of teaching and learning L2 pragmatics in English education has not been seriously taken into consideration in Korea, this study aims at drawing a brief sketch of the recruitment of Korean English teachers in secondary and post-secondary schools in Korea, and the relationship between Korean English teachers (NNESTs)' teaching/learning experience and their L2 pragmatic competence in English. The participants are graduate students of an English department in an American university, who are/were accredited or accepted<sup>37</sup> English teachers in secondary or post-secondary schools in Korea for more than five years.

This study in particular examined (1) five Korean NNESTs pragmatic competencies in English requests, (2) the relationship between their English teaching and learning experience and L2 pragmatic competence, and (3) their perceptions and attitudinal changes toward English education in terms of cross-linguistic/cross-cultural understanding of pragmatic differences between their L1 (Korean) and their L2 (English). The general rationale of the study is, if pragmatic competence is essential in successful communication, it is also essential for L2 language teachers to acquire the L2 pragmatics and metapragmatic knowledge or at least to be aware of its importance in the L2.

Three pragmatic theories served as the theoretical background of this study: Indirect speech acts, Politeness, and Implicature, all of which are about implicit meaning of what is said in communication. The theories are about different ways of saying the same thing according to the contexts. Since the contexts entail socio-cultural settings in a speech community, different

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<sup>37</sup> Secondary school English teachers are accredited by the Korean ministry of education, and post-secondary school English teachers are accepted by each college or university (See page 15 for more information)

socio-cultural settings have different modes of polite expressions (Austin, 1962; Keenan, 1976; Jespersen, 1933; Kachru & Smith, 2008; Lakoff, 1976, 2004; Searle, 1969), and awareness of the differences is important in teaching and learning a language.

In order to collect data to answer the research questions of this study, three trends of data collection methods were employed: a background questionnaire, discourse completion tests (DCTs), and interviews. The background questionnaires provided the participants' demographic backgrounds of their learning and teaching English. The DCT responses revealed the participants' pragmatic competence in terms of three Pragmatic Factors and requestive strategies they used. Along with the review of each participant's DCT responses, the interviews unveiled the participants' prior experiences of English education as a learner and a teacher of English, and their perceptions and attitudes toward English education in general and in Korea. In what follows, I discuss the themes emerging from the five Korean non-native English teachers' DCT responses and narratives as a way to explicate the overarching themes related to their L2 pragmatic competencies, teaching and learning experiences of English, and their metapragmatic awareness. Then, this chapter concludes with a discussion of implications for English teaching and English teacher education in Korea as well as future research directions.

### **Thematic Discussions: Insights from the Participants' DCT Responses and Narratives**

The DCT responses and the narratives of the five Korean non-native English teachers who have matriculated in graduate programs in the U.S. revealed complex aspects of their L2 pragmatic competence in English and their inadequate understanding of the importance of language teachers' metapragmatic awareness. The analyses of their DCT responses, as grounded in the three pragmatic theories of non-literal meaning, revealed the interconnectedness between their experiences of teaching and learning English and L2 pragmatic competence in English. The

combination of the review of the DCT responses and the narrative inquiry surrounding the mental and emotional states of the participants provided in-depth interpretation of numerous aspects of their L2 pragmatic competence. Through the triangulation of the methods in the study, more validity is addressed with its in-depth and rich interpretation of the data. Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2011) pointed that “Exclusive reliance on one method ... may bias or distort the researcher’s picture of the particular slice of reality she is investigating” (p.195). Researchers also need to be confident that the data are not simply generated artifacts of one specific method of collection to seek convergence, corroboration and correspondence of results from different methods (Lin, 1976; Greene, Caracelli & Graham, 1989). The review of DCT responses provided the patterns and distributions of certain requestive strategies and each participant’s manner of choosing a specific value of a Pragmatic Factor. The narrative inquiry regarding the DCT responses revealed the participants’ perceptions and understanding of L2 pragmatic competence in English requests.

In particular, the participants’ narratives tell a multitude of stories. Narrative approaches are useful in exploring contexts in language teaching and learning research. The contextualized inquiry highlighted the necessity of “placing context at the heart of the profession” (Bax, 2003: 278) in that it enabled us to explore the numerous aspects of the participants’ particular, local contexts as well as the wider sociocultural/sociopolitical contexts by emphasizing the *Particularity* (Kumaravadivelu, 2006: 69) of language teaching.

Their stories about learning and teaching English will help Korean English teachers understand the importance of L2 pragmatics in English teaching and enable Korean teacher training programs to reconceptualize their own curricula (Bell, 2002; Gary, 2008; Kumaravadivelu, 2006). Gary (2008) argued that “When teachers articulate and interpret the

stories of their practice, their own practice, they develop their personal practical knowledge to the extent that they act in the future with insight and foresight” (p.233). Ishihara (2010) emphasized language teachers’ self awareness of their teaching;

Teacher beliefs reflect their personal, cultural, educational, and political values and are known to influence and be influenced by a range of experiences in and outside of classroom. Teachers’ investigation of these sources of their own beliefs is likely to promote critical reflection of their experiences, which can trigger a deeper understanding of their teaching. (p. 26)

Although I was not one of the participants in this study, my experiences of teaching and learning English were intertwined with theirs through sharing similarities and differences during the interviews. Park (2006) recited Foster (1994) that “... the disclosure of my own experiences, as I conversed with these women, helped them (participants) to understand that their experiences, though different, were not necessarily unique to them” (p. 207, parenthesis by the author).

### **Theme One: Inconsistency of Politeness as Incompetent L2 Pragmatics**

Much has been written on the defective features in the analysis of single sentences as a typical unit of a speech act as well as in the criticisms of speech acts, politeness and implicature (Geis, 1995; Ellis, 1994; Garfinkel, 1967). In other words, the analysis of a single sentence for the degree of directness is not adequate to get a valid interpretation of the data in that meaning making in communication is the product of social and negotiable interaction (Firth & Wagner, 1997; Ishihara, 2010). The interpretation of conversational meanings should be made through the analysis of multi-turn sequences in conversations or a holistic analysis of the entire chunk of discourse unit of utterances. For the participants, the degree of directness was not stable and

settled. In the analysis of requestive strategies in the DCT responses, Head Acts or Supportive Moves alone cannot be a desirable parameter for the degree of directness in request speech acts.

As revealed in Table 15, the degrees of directness are not consistent between Head Acts and Supportive Moves. The CCSARP (Blum-Kulka, Kasper, & House, 1989), one of the seminal studies in interlanguage pragmatics, did investigate the degrees of directness in requests among eight languages or language varieties, such as Australian English, American English, British English, Canadian French, Danish, German, Hebrew, and Russian, with the comparison of data from native and non-native speakers. However, it didn't examine the consistency of directness over the two categories in request strategies, Head Acts and Supportive Moves. We cannot make a proper judgment of an utterance's feasibility until we understand the on-going procedures of meaning making. Even in foreign or second language communication, these meaning making procedures should be taken into the consideration of the interpretability and pragmatic appropriateness. In particular, in the analysis of the judgment of pragmatic directness of requests by an L2 learner/user, we need to move away from the simple segmentation of communication (Ford, 2006; Ford, Fox, & Thomson, 1996; Sacks, Schegloff, & Jefferson, 1974; Selting, 2000) but toward analysis of the entire body of the utterance chunk to have a wider view of politeness of the L2 learner/user and to increase the interpretability of the L2 learner/user's awareness of cross-cultural/cross-linguistic differences. The decision of a certain value of a Pragmatic Factor in requestive performances is made based on each participant's experience of teaching and learning English. Therefore, the in-depth and intensive investigation of the relationship between the two is important along with cultural specific pragmatic factors, such as gender difference, age difference and responsibility of the requestive task.



Specifically, the politeness scale in Blum-Kulka, House, and Kasper's (1989) CCSARP needs to be reconsidered and reconstructed in terms of the L2 learners' inconsistency of directness between Head Acts and Supportive Moves. Moreover, as Blum-Kulka (1987) pointed out, indirectness does not have the same connotation as politeness. According to the directness scale in CCSARP request strategies (Appendix VIII), the more indirect a request strategy is, the more polite the strategy is. However, as revealed in Table 15, the degrees of indirectness of Supportive Moves are different from the degrees of Head Acts. To provide a more explicative interpretation of politeness of request speech acts in L2 learning, both strategies should be analyzed and interpreted together in terms of politeness.

### **Theme Two: Multi-layered Identities as NNESTs in Korea and in America**

Within the English language teaching professions, the identity of the five Korean English teachers in this study were socially constructed as non-native English speaking teachers (NNESTs). Varghese, Morgan, Johnston, and Johnson (2005) looked at how language teacher identities are related to each other by reviewing the identity construction with three perspectives. The three reviewed perspectives indicated "(1) identity as multiple, shifting, and in conflict; (2) identity as crucially related to social, cultural, and political contexts; and (3) identity being constructed, maintained, and negotiated primarily through discourse" (p.35). Adopting their view over teacher identity, in what follows, the five Korean English teachers' identities are addressed by each of the three perspectives above.

#### **Identity as multiple, shifting, and in conflict.**

First, their NNEST identities have multi-layers of aspects in their formations and shifts in their careers as teachers and learners of English. Their teaching experiences in Korea provided them with opportunities to claim "privileged-class identities" (Park, 2006, p. 215). Their

profession is a teacher of English, one of the major subjects in the college entrance examination in Korea. EUNJOO, YOOSUN, and GUI SUN are secondary school English teachers in Korea, and their socioeconomic status in Korea is far from low. The three secondary school English teachers' motivations to become an English teacher are also connected to its high social reputation in Korea. The other two participants are also proud of their jobs as college English teaching professionals working in the higher education system in Korea. Second, their NNEST identities in contrast with native English speaking teachers (NESTs), were negative self-images in that they thought their authority as English teachers was not delegated because of their English proficiency, which they didn't think was excellent. They thought that NNESTs are imperfect in teaching English. Furthermore, despite a significant increase of NNESTs in the TESOL profession (Alatais & Straehle, 1997; Canagarajah, 1999), Korean school administrators and students consider NNESTs as less qualified than NESTs because of their obsession with native speakerism and the native speaker model (Choe, 2005). Third, they have experienced the shift of their identities from EFL teachers to ESL learners and users in America. This shift is intertwined with their English learning and using in conflicts. The three secondary school English teachers, EUNJOO, KEUMJOO, and YOOSUN are current English teachers in Korea and their English proficiency has not been seriously challenged because they didn't need to be equipped with fully developed English proficiency under the English educational system in Korea, which focuses on the college entrance examination. However, in ESL contexts, after the reviews of their DCT responses and the narrative inquiries, they found that they became aware that their experiences in teaching English didn't help them much in communicating in English as a second language in America. They found that they had to change their habitual English usage and make themselves adjusted to a new sociocultural setting, which is the same as I did.

**Identity as crucially related to social, cultural, and political contexts.**

Their identities are crucially related to social, cultural, and political contexts. Their ESL learner identity is formed through their involvement in the speech community they are in and through their experiences in a new culture in America. Their NNEST identity has two important, simultaneous facets: assigned identity – the identity imposed by others (Buzzelli & Johnston, 2002), and claimed identity – identity or identities one claims or acknowledges for oneself (Gee, 1996; MacLure, 1993). This two folded identity as an NNEST in Korea is formed by the inter-related connections of social, cultural, and political contexts of the English education system in Korea. In particular, their two identities have the same manifestation as English teachers in Korea, but their practices are different in each identity. Their assigned identity has the practice of teaching English for the college entrance examination in Korea and teaching English for college students' improvement of English test scores. This practice has a conflict with the practice which their claimed identity has, that is teaching English language, what they wish to do in their classes. This conflict functions as a provoking factor for their awareness of the NNEST identity in a wider setting in the English teaching professions in Korea.

**Identity being constructed, maintained, and negotiated primarily through discourse.**

The five Korean English teachers' multi-layered identities as NNESTs were not formed until they came to a different socio-cultural context. Their identities were constructed through their on-going interactions with their local practices, recognition of their past teaching experiences, and awareness of the negotiated identities through the processes of identity construction, maintenance, and negotiation. Varghese, Morgan, Johnston, and Johnson (2005) argued that:

There needs to be a recognition that in language teacher education we must incorporate

simultaneously a focus on shared practices in communities as well as individual “meta-awareness” (Ramanathan, 2002) and critical reflexivity in future teachers’ roles as co-creators of the knowledge that is produced (p. 39).

In the new discourse setting of ESL environment, their identities were formed through their communication in English and their identity formation will be reconstructed, maintained, and negotiated when they are located in a new discourse setting, such as Korea, when they return after they finish their studies.

### **Theme Three: English as a Symbolic Value for Ascension of Social Status**

The college entrance examination in Korea functions as a gate-keeping device for university entrance (Butler, 2004; Nunan, 2003; Park, 2006), and English is one of the major subjects in the preparation for the examination. For the participants, the college entrance examinations serves as ideological practices in their educational experiences both in learning and teaching English. Song (2011) argued that “English language education must be recognized as part and parcel of the primary ‘mechanism of elimination’ designed, under cover of meritocracy, to conserve the established social order in South Korea” (p. 36).

Since South Korea went through major international events such as the Olympic games in 1988, Daejeon Expo in 1993 and the FIFA<sup>38</sup> World Cup in 2002, the idea of globalization became a major issue of education under governmental initiative in Korea, and English became the heart of the Korean globalization projects (Park & Abelman, 2004). Owing to the abnormal emphasis of English proficiency in South Korea, unlike other major subjects in the college entrance examinations, such as Korean and mathematics, English is considered as a good and easier means to ascend social status (Song, 2010; Sorensen, 1994). English proficiency is one of the most important factors in the recruitment of the major companies in Korea. This can be

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<sup>38</sup> Fédération Internationale de Football Association

characterized as the dominant ideology. Song (2010) pointed out that “English has been ‘conveniently recruited, in the name of globalization, to reproduce and rationalize the ‘hierarchy of power relations’” (p. 36). Bourdieu and Passeron (1990) stated that:

The mobility of individuals (between social statuses or ranks) ... can help to conserve that (established hierarchical) structure, by guaranteeing social stability through the controlled selection of a limited number of individuals - modified in and for individual upgrading - and so giving credibility to the ideology of social mobility whose most accomplished expression is the school ideology of “*l'Ecole Liberatrice*”, the school as a liberating force. (p. 176, words in parenthesis by the author)

On the other hand, among the participants, secondary school English teachers got high scores on the college entrance examinations, which “provided them with access to prestigious universities in Korea” (Park, 2006, p.210) and this enabled them to teach English for the first time in their English teaching careers. All of the participants, except KEUMJOO, did not become English teachers simply because they wanted to or were good at it. EUNJOO wanted to become an English teacher because she thought it would be easier to find a good job when she majored in college. YOOSUN wanted to go to an oriental medical school in Korea but couldn't because her college entrance examination score was not good enough to apply for it. Being English major in college was her second choice. GUI SUN also wanted to go to a college of pharmacy, and her score was not good enough to apply for the pharmacy major. JOOHEE majored in physics as her undergraduate major and changed to English literature when she entered an MA program in a Korean university because, as EUNJOO did, she thought it would be helpful to find a better job.

## **Theme Four: Spoken English Proficiency and Changing Consensus in English Language Teaching and Learning**

Native-like pronunciation or accent may be one of the points which determines the proficiency of an L2 learner. Krapp (1909) stated that “It is plain that the question of good English may arise with reference to any of the different sides of language. Thus, the point to be determined may be one of sound or pronunciation; ...” (p. 325). Among the four skills of language, productive skills, speaking and writing, are more salient than receptive skills, listening and reading, in the judgment of L2 proficiency just because speaking and writing proficiency in the L2 can be determined simultaneously during the production of speech while listening and reading proficiency needs to be checked by seeing if the listener or the reader understands what is spoken or written in the L2.

Even though all of the participants’ general English proficiency is good enough to matriculate in a graduate program of an English department in an American university, all of the participants think that their spoken English proficiency is not good as an English teacher as well as a learner and want to improve it most among the four skills. The participants’ obsession with native-speakerism is closely bound to the proficiency of spoken English. They want to improve their conversational skills in English to become legitimate members of the English language learning and teaching communities (Lave & Wenger, 1991; Wenger, 1998). However, they “experienced a disconnect between how they learned English in their native countries and how they wanted to learn English with a focus on the conversational components” (Park, 2006, p.210). This pedagogical gap shows up between their ESL experiences in America and their EFL teaching contexts in Korea (Braine, 1999, 2010; Canagarajah, 1999).

In particular, the three secondary school English teachers in Korea paid more attention to

English pronunciation and their Korean accent in English conversation, and they wanted to have an American English accent. The standardized image of American English in Korea results from the socio-political background of English education in Korea, whose contact to Western culture has largely been with America (Flattery, 2007; Park & Abelmann, 2004; Song, 2010). However, pronunciation or accents in L2 learning should not be a crucial factor in judgment of L2 proficiency. Marinova-Todd, Marshal, and Snow (2000) argued that:

Rarely,..., have researchers clearly established either the exact margins of what is considered a standard accent in the target language or the degree of variability among native speakers. Most of the studies designed to examine the foreign accent of L2 learners have used judges who are adult native speakers of the language in question. Yet these studies have often ignored the fact that native speakers themselves may have accents that vary from the standard. (p. 19)

Moreover, the traditional dichotomy of natives vs. non-natives in the professions of English education is now changing to have a new consensus regarding English language teaching in general. Canagarajah (2005) suggested new pedagogical practices in the shifts in professional discourse and structure of English language teaching.

Table 21

*Shifts in professional discourse and structure*

Practices	Hierarchical approach	Leveled approach
Norms	Native and nativized Englishes Native and non-native speakers “Native” norms as target	Global English as a plural system Experts and novices in each variant Local norms of relevance
Expertise	Established knowledge Unilateral knowledge flow Researcher and scholar generated	Local knowledge Multilateral knowledge flow Practitioner generated and collaborative
Curriculum	Innovative and change Top-down	Continuity Ground-up
Pedagogy	Methods-dominated Skills-based	Post-method practices Project-based
Materials	Authenticity Published in the center	Relevance Locally generated

*Note.* Borrowed from Canagarajah, 2005, xxvii.

From the perspective of L2 pragmatic research with regard to cross-cultural awareness in the era of World Englishes<sup>39</sup>, “English as a global lingua franca forces us to go beyond notions of teaching fixed language and cultural context as adequate for successful communication” (Will, 2011, p. 69). Pennycook (2010) also stated that “Globalization needs to be understood not only in terms of reactions to global movements from above, made possible by new media, institutions and technologies, but also in terms of local movements being made global...” (p. 4).

### **Theme Five: Distrust of Korean English Educational System; Sympathy and Antipathy**

All of the participants, to varying degrees, conceded systematic problems of English education in Korea. The participants revealed a deep, negative attitude toward the educational system of English in Korea. Especially, owing to the influences of their English teaching experiences for the college entrance examination in Korea, the three secondary school English teachers had a more negative attitude toward the English educational system in Korea than the

<sup>39</sup> Localized and indigenized varieties of English under diverse sociocultural contexts around the world (Bolton & Kachru et al., 2006; Kachru et al., 2009; Kachru & Smith, 2008).



other two. They were sympathetic toward Korean secondary students learning English in Korea in general and their students in the past as well. The former is contributed by the Korean educational system which makes students compete all the time, forces teachers to teach students test-taking skills only, and ignores problematization and questioning of knowledge construction<sup>40</sup>. The latter is caused by their English proficiency which is not fully developed. When they were students at secondary schools, they were trained only for high scores in the college entrance examination. Even after they became English teachers, they taught students as they had been taught “without problematizing how the knowledge was constructed” (Park, 2006, p.209).

This has a significant pedagogical implication because, although they have much experience of teaching English, they didn't show confidence in their English proficiency because they were not exposed to a practical environment of using English. In particular, their lack of exposure to ESL settings and the imbalanced experience of teaching English hindered them from employing a variety of strategies in communication. Although they acknowledged the importance of all of the four areas in language, they had a strong bias to wanting to learn and teach speaking English. The reason is that the Korean English educational system drives English teachers to pay the most attention to reading and listening comprehension skills in English because of the patterns of the questions in the college entrance examination in Korea. The English textbooks in Korea contain dialogues and English conversations at the end of each chapter, but their portion in the college entrance examinations is very small. Therefore, most Korean English teachers in secondary schools skip them or let the students study by themselves.

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<sup>40</sup> People's ways and processes of creating and learning the world through a series of individual constructs (Vygotsky, 1978, 1986; Murphy, 1997)

Teaching speaking skills, strategies of communication, and socio-cultural consideration are rarely found in English education at Korean secondary schools (Choi & Lee, 2008).

In short, in Korea, English teaching is governed by the result-oriented and score-centered educational system. In English requests, it doesn't matter whether an English learner can use a variety of strategies. Rather, the important thing in Korean English education is how to find correct answers in an exam or a test so that the test taker can get a higher score. In principle, the ways of meaning delivery are limitless<sup>41</sup> – direct or indirect, polite or impolite, and generating different implicatures; therefore, teaching English cannot be teaching skills to find a correct answer in a given exam or a test. All of the participants agreed that Korean English education is problematic in terms of the imbalanced and biased focus on reading and listening comprehension skills only.

### **Implications for Teaching and Teacher Education**

Although research has been conducted on L2 pragmatics and its instruction to L2 students (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001; Kasper, 1997; Kasper & Rose, 2002; Olshtain & Cohen, 1989; Rose, 2005; Rose, 2005), research on L2 language teachers' pragmatic competence have not been conducted yet. Because teachers must become change agents (Fullan, 1993), in order to change the system of Korean English education, the teachers must be changed first. The change should incorporate a serious consideration of teaching L2 pragmatic competence in the educational system of English in Korea.

This study argued that L2 pragmatic competence should be considered as one of the essential requirements of L2 teachers to let them be equipped with balanced L2 competencies. In particular, the analysis of five Korean NNESTs' L2 pragmatic competence through the DCT questionnaires of request strategies and the narrative inquiries and analyses about their English

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<sup>41</sup> See the examples of (indirect) speech acts, politeness and implicature in Chapter 2.

teaching and learning experiences revealed that understanding and awareness of cross-cultural/cross-linguistic metapragmatic information is crucial in language teaching, and this should be included in the curriculum of English language teachers in Korea. Kasper (1997) emphasized the role of (L2) pragmatics in language teacher education.

...in order to identify learning tasks, it is not sufficient to know only how members of the target community act and interact linguistically in various contexts; it is also necessary to know how L2 learners go about acquiring pragmatic competence, what kind of L2 pragmatic information are easy or difficult to learn, to what extent learners rely on their L1 pragmatic knowledge to help them acquire pragmatic competence in L2, how successful pragmatic transfer can be in terms of communicative outcomes, and what developmental paths learners go through in their acquisition of pragmatic competence. Information about these questions is crucial in order for teachers to make informed pedagogical decisions (p.113).

### **Methodological, Theoretical, Pedagogical, and Ethical Reflections**

Before I conclude, I share final reflections on theoretical, methodological, pedagogical, and ethical perspectives in my study. I had questions long before I came to America to study TESOL: *Does being an English teacher help learning and using good English? Can many years of English teaching experience guarantee the mastery of English as a second or foreign language?* These questions were, fundamentally in turn, about myself as an English teacher and learner, which has self-reflective significance in my study: *Am I a good English teacher since I have been teaching for more than 15 years? Is my English good enough to teach?* To obtain the answers, I adopted the idea of a turn from “big stories (narrative inquiry)” to “small stories (narrative analysis)” (Bamberg, 2007). Vasquez (2011) claimed the need for the small story

research because a narrative inquiry has different analytic characteristics from narrative analysis. Vasquez (2011) pointed out, “narrative inquiry scholars usually focus more on what *the content of the narrative* [emphasis added] reveals about the self, whereas narrative analysis examines more closely *the features of the discourse* [emphasis added] to identify facets of the self” (p. 540).

In the analysis of the data in this study, I employed both of them. I investigated *the content* of the participants’ narratives during the narrative inquiry in the interviews about their teaching and learning English; whereas, I examined and analyzed *their features* of the discourses during the interviews about the DCT responses. Talmy (2011) explained, “Analyzing not only the whats, or the *product* of the interview, but also the hows, or the *process* involved in the coconstruction of meaning, has significant implications for data analysis” (p. 132, emphasis in original). Notably and importantly in my study, I took a step further to figure out each participant’s whys, or the *rationale* in choosing certain forms of English requests.

Based on this qualitative methodology, in this section, I underscore my critical review of this study from four different angles, the data collection and its analysis methods, the theories in the background, pedagogical implications for Korean English education, and the ethical consideration of this study in general. I would like to credit the development of this section to my dissertation committee with regard to what they have pointed out about my study and what they shared with me in polishing and advancing my work.

### **Methodological reflection.**

With the growing interest in matters of identity of TESOL professionals, the notion of English teachers’ identity is frequently paired with narrative in the research of English language teaching (Bamberg, 2007; Georgakopoulou, 2007; Park, 2009; Vasquez, 2011). Narrative

research has obtained an important methodological implication in the research of English language teaching and teacher education (Bamberg, 2007; Barkhuizen, 2008; Bell, 2002; Jalongo & Isenberg, 1995; Josselson, 1996; Talmy, 2010). Vasquez pointed out (2011), “The majority of the stories that we, as humans, tell are small stories. ... So in some sense, big stories are simply not as representative of ‘what we are’ in terms of quotidian realities” (p. 538).

The participants in my study were coincidentally all women and younger than I am. Since the Korean community where I chose the participants from was not big and I was the president of the Korean students association in the western Pennsylvanian university, all of the participants knew me even before I started my dissertation. At the beginning of the data collection, I felt an awkward distance between me and the participants because of the nature of the data collection and the different social status between them and me. Although I had a positive reputation in the Korean community, my being older than the participants<sup>42</sup>, my different sex, different majors<sup>43</sup>, and different types of graduate study<sup>44</sup> gave them apprehension anyhow. Technically, during the DCT meetings, I could not explain the details of the purpose of the study and the theoretical concepts and ideas employed in the study because it might have influenced their responses. However, they became accepting of me once they understood the idea of the study and the purpose of the DCT questionnaire.

There were two issues that made the data collection awkward at the beginning. First, it was inevitable to evaluate the participants’ English proficiency, especially their L2 pragmatic competence. This might have brought apprehension and language anxiety to them when speaking in English to me, who was going to evaluate their English proficiency.

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<sup>42</sup> Only KEUMJOO was older than I.

<sup>43</sup> KEUMJOO and GUI SUN were literature majors in American English.

<sup>44</sup> EUNJOO, YOOSUN, and JOOHEE were graduate students in master’s programs while I was a doctoral student.

Thanks to my positive reputation and dedication to the Korean community, the participants decided to help me in this study. However, even after they signed the consent forms, some of the participants didn't seem comfortable at the beginning of the data collection. For example, GUI SUN was most apprehensive about revealing her English limitation, especially in speaking because she hardly speaks in the English language as her major is American English literature (See p. 139). During the interview, she asked me to explicate that her spoken English proficiency is not good. KEUM JOO was most resistive about revealing her English proficiency. I encountered challenges with her during the data collection. She questioned the purpose of the study and asked me to explain to her the possible dedication of my study to English teaching in Korea.

Later, however, they became more accepting of me "as an insider" (Park, 2006, p. 241) and began to share more of their experiences of teaching and learning English when I tried to share my experiences of teaching and learning English with them first, especially when I revealed my trial and errors in teaching English in Korea. Interestingly and importantly, all of the participants and I were singing from the same hymn sheet and I became more than an insider when talking about the problems of Korean English education system.

I tried not to wield much power over the participants and tried hard to remove coercion from the participants, if any. Although all of the participants understood the rationale of the study and agreed with me studying the need for L2 pragmatics in Korean English education at the end of the data collection, I hope that I was not perceived as wielding too much power over them.

### **Theoretical reflection.**

*In what ways does my study promote the awareness of the importance of cross-cultural pragmatics in Korean English education, especially in English teacher education programs and curriculum development?* This is a question to myself now, as the study is being finalized.

Among the multi-layered identities of non-native English speaking English teachers, they are learners and teachers of English at the same time. This implies that they need both the teacher and learner's pragmatics in English. Ishihara and Cohen (2010) pointed out:

Teacher beliefs reflect their personal, cultural, educational, and political values and are known to influence and be influenced by a range of experiences in and outside of the classroom. Teachers' investigation of these sources of their own beliefs is likely to promote critical reflection of their experiences, which can trigger a deeper understanding of their teaching. ... Because teachers' knowledge and beliefs are linked to multiple layers of their experiences in complex ways, we first encourage readers – and teacher readers in particular – to better understand their own beliefs and practices by asking why they decide to teach what they teach and why they teach it the way that they do in the classroom. ... Why does she teach the way she does? It is important to ask this question because if she does not teach according to what she believes and is actually a bit uncomfortable with how she currently teaches and why she teaches that way, she may consider changing her practices (pp. 26-28).

Ishihara (2010) also noted, “teacher's knowledge, beliefs, and practice can shift dynamically throughout their career as their understanding of language learning and teaching develops” (p. 30).

With the results of this study, NNESTs can find a way to figure out how to make an inquiry of their knowledge and experience in English teaching and learning. NNESTs' inquiries into their knowledge, beliefs, and practice can be pursued through narrative reflections just like in this study, and it can promote their professional development (Barkhuizen, 2008; Bell, 2002; Talmy, 2010). As mentioned earlier, I investigated and examined not only the contents of what the participants gave in the data collection, but also the features and characteristics of how and why they produced certain responses in the questionnaires. This will shed light on building a bridge between pragmatic theories, such as politeness, speech acts and implicature, and their applications to teaching and learning English, especially in NNESTs' teacher education.

### **Pedagogical reflections.**

What was of paramount importance for me as a researcher from a pedagogical standpoint was that I found a clearer distinction between Head Acts and Supportive Moves in requests. Furthermore, I suggested a sketchy measurement of politeness in L2 request speech acts with the comparison of the two pragmatic strategies of requests. The reason why all of the participants showed an inconsistency of directness in English requests was probably because their sociopragmatic proficiency did not develop as well as their pragmalinguistic proficiency did. The different ranges of requestive strategies between the participants who have English teaching experience in secondary schools in Korea and who in post-secondary schools in Korea indicated their imbalanced teaching experiences and the need of English education in terms of cross-cultural and intercultural awareness in language teaching and learning.

In fact, the pedagogy of L2 pragmatics is a significant issue discussed by many previous researchers (Bardovi-Harlig & Mahan-Taylor, 2010; Blum-Kulka, 1991; Ishihara, 2009, 2010;



Ishihara & Cohen, 2010; Kasper, 2007). Ishihara and Cohen (2010) concluded in their pedagogical suggestion about teaching and learning L2 pragmatics:

... teachers can benefit from becoming fully aware of the knowledge and beliefs that they have about pragmatics. Once they have heightened their awareness, they have a better chance of making informed choices about how to link their beliefs to daily practices (p. 321).

This study revealed that the five Korean NNESTs have imbalanced L2 proficiency among the four skills of language, and L2 pragmatic competence is necessary for them to become more competent language teachers with a better communicative competence in English. To have them become more competent in L2 pragmatics, I suggest the following pedagogical reflections in teaching English and English teacher education in Korea.

*Assessment of L2 pragmatic competence in English.*

The five Korean English teachers' DCT data revealed that much needs to be done with regard to the recruitment of Korean English teachers in terms of the assessment of English proficiency. Specifically, the Korean National English Teacher Credential Test (KNETCT) needs to be kitted out with appropriate methods to assess the Korean English teacher candidates' L2 pragmatic proficiency in that it has not seriously taken L2 pragmatic aspects in language teaching into consideration so far (Appendix I).

This study sheds some light on generating a tool, though limited within English requests strategies, to assess L2 pragmatic competence with the scale of Head Acts and Supportive Moves in requestive speech performances in English.

***Understanding personal biography.***

The five Korean NNESTs' narratives revealed the prevalent problems in the Korean English educational system. Their biographies have "a wealth of information about their educational history and their prior learning experiences" (Park, 2006, p. 225) that could begin to assist teaching English and English teacher education programs in Korea in truly knowing the reality of English education in practical classrooms. This is important because it is about understanding their identity constructions and how their identities have been constructed, maintained and negotiated through their experiences as ESL learners. By understanding the biographies of NNESTs who have experienced the identity shift, "this should enable (the English teaching and English teacher education programs) to become professionally accountable to the learning and future teaching needs of all pre-service (and in-service English teachers), as opposed to adhering to a 'one-size-fit-all' approach in English teacher education" (Park, 2006, p. 226, parenthesis added by the author).

***Highlighting multiculturalism, locality, and globalization in English education.***

Insights from the five Korean NNESTs' narratives pointed to the importance of the awareness of cross-cultural, cross-linguistic differences in pragmatic aspects in language education and the possibility of changes in future English teacher education programs in Korea with reconstructive questions: *What is the main goal of English education? What are the requirements for the Korean National English Teacher Credential Test? What is the rationale of the English teacher candidates to want to become English teachers? How should the Korean Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology align with their local educational organizations and institutes?* Additional research into ascertaining the answers to the questions above would help teacher educators in English teacher training programs in Korea in not only understanding

their teacher trainees' backgrounds, but also beginning to understand how English language is being perceived by Korean English teachers.

**Ethical reflection.**

Throughout the study, there was a question which was ever-present in my mind, in terms of the way the participants may have and how I may have influenced the way they saw me as also an English teacher and a scholar as well. *Am I really neutral when I am collecting data and having an interview, and a narrative talk with each participant? Am I taking advantage of their life stories?* I believe these reflections added important perspectives to the research of relationships between the narrative and identity of the participants in this study. Now I realized that I was lucky and the participants were so helpful that I could finish the data collection without any big problem or challenge, even when I was intruding into their lives.

It was not easy for me and the participants to acknowledge to each other the importance of what we did together. ...I am using their lives in the service of something else, for my own purposes, to show something to others. ... We must at least try to be fully aware of what we are doing" (Josselson, 1996, pp. 69-70).

As Vasquez (2011) claimed, "interviews are never contextually neutral" (p. 543), narrative researchers cannot be neutral and need not be. By paying close attention to the contents and features of the language in narratives, we, as narrative researchers, can position ourselves in revealing how we see ourselves and how we view ourselves with respect to others. However, we should know what we are doing, because we can harm someone, we are intruders into their lives, and we are using their lives to achieve academic success.

## **Limitations of the Study**

After the data collection and its analyses, I found that the current study has a couple of limitations in the research design.

### **Design Limitation**

The primary limitation of this study was the data collection method. Initially, to collect the DCT responses from the participants, role-plays were included in the methods of data collection. However, it was thought that the responses from oral DCT questionnaires would not be much different from those from role-plays, so it was excluded. During the data collection and the review interviews with each participant, some of the participants felt a lot of anxiety when using English in the DCT responses and this led to less naturalness of the data. It seems now that the burden of English responses was too heavy on the participants. The DCT questionnaires could have been equipped with small props to enhance the naturalness of the DCT situations so that the participants could reduce their language anxiety.

### **Population Limitation**

The limitation in population was more technical and logistical than a lack of participants. One of the research goals was to examine L2 pragmatic competence using the DCT questionnaires about English request strategies. Initially, I wanted to try to find more participants from both genders, Korean male and female English teachers, to compare and investigate the difference of L2 pragmatic competence between the two. However, the research site was a middle-sized university in western Pennsylvania, which is not well-known to Korea, so it was difficult to find Korean male English teachers who matriculated in American graduate programs.

### **Future Research Directions**

This study was conducted by a qualitative method with the combination of DCT questionnaires and narrative inquiry, which is rarely found in the field of L2 pragmatic research, suggesting that more qualitative methods should be applied to investigate Korean NNESTs' L2 pragmatic competence and the relationship with teaching experience. This study also recommends further study of some important issues mentioned or not mentioned by the participants.

Findings from this study shed light on additional research opportunities in the field of interlanguage or L2 pragmatics. Further research studies need to be designed for Korean NNESTs in Korean primary schools because this study treated Korean NNESTs in secondary and post-secondary schools only. Specific research foci should be directed to issues of the detailed procedures of Korean National English Teacher Credential Test and its intersectional relationship with Korean educational government and its policy making procedures for English education in Korea. In addition to the broad research directions above, I suggest specific research interests resulting from this study.

First, a promising avenue of research would be to explore the issues of Korean NNESTs' English proficiency, and the ways of improving in terms of L2 pragmatic competence. Given the paucity of research on Korean NNESTs' L2 pragmatic competence, and the findings of the present study, there is a clear and ongoing need for more exploration of Korean NNESTs' L2 pragmatic competence issues in Korean public English education. This research would benefit by expanding the perspectives to a variety of institutions in Korea. Moreover, given the growing importance of English education in Korea, and the lack of competent Korean NNESTs in Korean

public education, it is desirable that this study may serve as an example for English teacher training programs in Korea.

Second, since other East Asian countries such as Japan, China, and Taiwan were not included in this study, it would be beneficial for subsequent studies to be done to explore the L2 pragmatic competence of NNESTs in these countries and their teaching experiences along with their educational systems for English teaching and teacher credential tests in each country. Since the countries share, to some extent, similar styles and patterns of educational systems, a comparison of the NNESTs' L2 pragmatic competence, their teaching experiences and educational systems would lead to a better understanding of each country' NNESTs' positioning as a language teacher, which in turn would offer additional insights to support English teacher education programs in general.

Lastly, to conclude this study, I attempt to answer this study's originating inquiry – what is the relationship between L2 pragmatic competence and prior teaching experiences? Based on my data, analyses and findings, my answer is that prior teaching experience plays a crucial role in L2 pragmatic competence. Specifically, prior teaching experiences are closely tied to the educational system governed by the Korean Ministry of Education, Science, and Technology. Now I have more emerging questions from the results of this study; *How will the five Korean NNESTs experience their attitudinal change and identity shift when they go back to Korea and teach English again?, How will they apply what they learned and become aware of the experience of this study to their future English classes?*

In order to answer the questions above, I propose to do follow-up studies with the same participants. Upon arrival at Korea after their studies in the United States, the three secondary school English teachers will return to their jobs and start teaching. In fact, two of them have

already returned to Korea as I'm writing this chapter. One of the two former college English part-time instructors in the participants also returned to Korea last month. Still, they are my friends and keep in touch with me, so "I intend to deepen my understanding of how they perceived their experience with my study and how they will recognize their new teaching context and new identity as a NNEST in Korea" (Park, 2006, p. 235). This will contribute to a better understanding of Korean NNESTs' perceptions of L2 pragmatic competence and their teaching practices in the Korean educational system.

### **Concluding Remarks: Re-thinking L2 Pragmatic Competence**

What is L2 pragmatic competence? With the notion of L2 pragmatic competence, what is a good English teacher? Through the DCT responses and narrative inquiries from these five Korean NNESTs, much was revealed in the current English teachers' perceptions about L2 pragmatic competence and the qualifications of a good English teacher in Korea. Personally, there were many occasions when I did enjoy the moments with the participants when we shared our experiences of teaching and learning English in Korea as well as in the United States. Such moments gave me the momentum to push through to the end of this study, and their encouragement and multiple dimensions of teaching English added to my personal perceptions about teaching English in general. I believe the participants also felt encouraged by their awareness of the importance of L2 pragmatics in L2 language teaching and learning, and further, the important role as a language teacher they have to play when back in Korea.

Concluding my dissertation now, I would like to share one funny story which I read more than a decade ago.

#### **Last Vignette: taking a taxi**

We are four. OK?

Three Korean college students just arrived in the United States for the first time. One of them studied English at a college in Korea, but he was not confident in English. A Korean pastor came to the airport to guide them to a place to stay. When they tried to catch a taxi, they realized that they were four, which was too many to take one taxi. As they didn't want to take two taxis, the one with an English major recognized that the others were looking at him with pleading eyes. The English major student tried his best to make English sentences in his mind and rehearsed speaking them out smoothly. He was practicing English sentences; such as, "Excuse me. I know it is illegal for four people to take a taxi, but we just arrived here and we are very tired. ...". All of a sudden, the pastor walked to a taxi driver and said loudly, "We are four. OK?" They took the taxi. The pastor's directness rather than the student's verbose politeness was more appropriate in the situation. Language is real and it is practices of linguistic acts. Without doing and using it, it can never be a language per se.



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## APPENDICES

## Appendix I

An overview of the format and question contents  
in Korean national English teacher credential test for secondary schools (from 2002 to 2011).

Year	Test type	Test format						Intercultural or crosslinguistic content in questions	Questions on L2 pragmatics of English
		No. Of Qs	Time (min.)	Question type	language				
					Question	Text	Answer		
2002	NW	19	140	MC/SA	Kor	Eng	K/E		
	S/I	17	140	MC/SA	K/E	Eng	K/E	2 questions on L2 pragmatic failure	
2003	NW	19	140	MC/SA	Kor	Eng	K/E	1 question about "speaker's meaning"	
	S/I	16	140	MC/SA	Kor	Eng	E/K	1 question about teaching another culture in class	
2004	NW	20	140	MC/SA	Kor	Eng	K/E	1 question about implied meaning	
	S/I	16	140	MC/SA	Eng	Eng	E/K	1 question about e-mail exchange with American	
2005	NW	25	150	MC/SA	Kor	Eng	E/K	"NNS" is used	1 question about sociopragmatic knowledge in English
	S/I	28	150	MC/SA + P-W	Eng	Eng	E/K	"native" and "non-native" distinction	1 question about sociolinguistic difference between NS and NNS
2006	NW	24	150	MC/SA	Kor	Eng	E/K		1 question about finding a semantic/pragmatic inappropriate answer
	S/I	28	150	MC/SA + P-W	Eng	Eng	Eng	1 question about teaching heterogeneous classes	
2007	NW	24	150	MC/SA	Kor	Eng	E/K	"EFL/ESL" is used	
	S/I	21	150	MC/SA + P-W	Eng	Eng	Eng	e-mail excerpt from an English textbook	1 question about the difference between utterance, locutionary, and illocutionary acts
2008	NW	21	150	MC/SA + P-W	K/E	Eng	K/E		1 question about conventional indirect speech act (request)

	CP/D	22	150	MC/SA	Kor	Eng	E/K		
2009	1 <sup>st</sup>	40	120	MC (8 LQs)	English				
	2 <sup>nd</sup>	2	120	Essay writing	English				
2010	1 <sup>st</sup>	40	120	MC (8 LQs)	English			Questions about communicative skills	1 question about comparison between Korean and American resume
	2 <sup>nd</sup>	2	120	Essay writing	English				
2011	1 <sup>st</sup>	40	120	MC	English			1 question about Thanksgiving vs. Chuseok 1 question about cultural difference	1 question about English routine expression
	2 <sup>nd</sup>	2	120	Essay writing	English			1 question about writing a recommendation letter to an exchange student going to a high school in Australia	

Notes.

- Abbreviation: NW – nationwide  
 S/I – Seoul and Incheon area only  
 MC – multiple choice  
 SA – short answer  
 P-W – writing a paragraph  
 LQs – listening questions  
 Kor – Korean  
 Eng – English  
 K/E – answer in Korean, in English only when directed  
 E/K – answer in English, in Korean only when directed
- test type – 2002~2008: two different test sets (nationwide and Seoul/Incheon only)  
 [in 2008, nationwide and Choongchung province/Daejeon only]  
 2009~present: unified test format nationwide

## Appendix II.

Trends and changes of topics and issues in *TESOL Quarterly*.

	Main topics, issues in teaching English	New topics, changing issues in teaching English
1960s	[1967-1970] Methodological studies; trying to find “one-size-fit-all” style teaching method Mainly grammar teaching	Influenced by Chomskyan theory of Universal Grammar
1970s	Application of linguistics in TESOL (applied linguistics in language teaching) Error analysis	Comparative studies between languages Psycholinguistics came into TESOL
1980s	Globalized English and teaching global English Diverse topics: refugee English, socio-political, socio-economical approach in English teaching	Cross-cultural approach of language teaching came into TESOL Neurolinguistics came into TESOL CALL (Computer-Aided Language Learning)
1990s	Enhancement of communicative competence in language teaching and learning Integrated methods across disciplines Criticism on traditional methodology: One size doesn't fit all	Identity and diversity in language teaching Post-method in English teaching (Kumaravadevelu) Ownership of English (Widdowson) Critical pedagogy (Canagarajah)
2000s	[2001-2011] Methodology for Web-based language teaching and learning Emergence of NNESTs issues: recruitment discrimination and marginalization Intercultural identities of English learners	Corpus-based English teaching

**Appendix III**  
 IRB approval letter and informed consent form I and II.



Indiana University of Pennsylvania

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Institutional Review Board for the  
 Protection of Human Subjects  
 School of Graduate Studies and Research  
 Stright Hall, Room 113  
 210 South Tenth Street  
 Indiana, Pennsylvania 15705-1048

P 724-357-7730  
 F 724-357-2715  
[irb-research@iup.edu](mailto:irb-research@iup.edu)  
[www.iup.edu/irb](http://www.iup.edu/irb)

June 2, 2011

Seung Ku Park  
 1790 Lisa Drive, Apt. #5  
 Indiana, PA 15701

Dear Mr. Park:

Your request for continuing review for your research project, "Adult Korean ESL learners' imbalance of pragmatic competence and the effects of English teaching experience," (Log No. 10-112), has been reviewed by the IRB and is approved as an expedited review for the period of June 2, 2011 to June 2, 2012.

It is also important for you to note that IUP adheres strictly to Federal Policy that requires you to notify the IRB promptly regarding:

1. any additions or changes in procedures you might wish for your study (additions or changes must be approved by the IRB before they are implemented),
2. any events that affect the safety or well-being of subjects, and
3. any modifications of your study or other responses that are necessitated by any events reported in (2).

Should you need to continue your research beyond June 2, 2012 you will need to file additional information for continuing review. Please contact the IRB office at (724) 357-7730 or come to Room 113, Stright Hall for further information.

This letter indicates the IRB's approval of your protocol. IRB approval does not supersede or obviate compliance with any other University policies, including, but not limited to, policies regarding program enrollment, topic approval, and conduct of university-affiliated activities.

I wish you success as you pursue this important endeavor.

Sincerely,

John A. Mills, Ph.D., ABPP  
 Chairperson, Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects  
 Professor of Psychology

JAM:jeb

xc: Dr. Gloria Park, Dissertation Advisor

## **Informed Consent Form I**

Research title: Effects of experience of teaching English  
on L2 pragmatic competence in English requests.

You are invited to participate in this research study. The following information is provided in order to help you to make an informed decision whether or not to participate. If you have any questions please do not hesitate to ask.

The purpose of this study is to examine what influence experience of teaching English has on comprehension and realization of requests in English. Participation in this study will involve: one individual background questionnaire, one oral DCT (Discourse completion task), one written DCT, and one interview with the principal investigator. Meetings for the study will be administered in one week time intervals. The background questionnaire and oral DCT will be administered in the same meeting. Each meeting will no longer than 30 minutes.

During the meetings, you are asked to give responses to tasks written on a card given to you. You will be provided sufficient information in Korean for full understanding of the process in the data collection.

Your responses in oral DCTs will be recorded by a digital voice recorder and interviews are recorded by a digital camera. Your responses in the background questionnaire and written DCTs will be collected in written mode. During the interviews you and the principal investigator will review your responses in the previous meetings and have a talk about your English learning strategies and attitudes toward learning English pragmatics. There are no known risks or discomforts associated with this research.

You may find the participation in this study enjoyable, and you will have a clear awareness of L2 pragmatic competence reviewing what you have learned, are learning in English as an English teacher in Korea. You will also have an objective observation of what you do when you request in English. This will provide you an opportunity to have a critical consideration of your English learning.

Your participation in this study is voluntary. You are free to decide not to participate in this study or to withdraw at any time without adversely affecting your relationship with the investigator or IUP. Your decision will not result in any loss or benefits to which you are otherwise entitled. If you choose to participate, you may withdraw at any time by notifying the principal investigator of the study.

Upon your request to withdraw, all information pertaining to you will be destroyed. If you choose to participate, all information will be held in strict confidence and will no bearing on

your academic standing or services you receive from the University. Your response will be considered only in combination with those from other participants. The information obtained in the study may be published in academic journals or presented at academic meetings but your identity will be kept strictly confidential.

If you are willing to participate in this study, please sign the statement below. You will be given an extra unsigned copy of this form.

Principal investigator: Seung Ku Park,

PhD Candidate, Indiana University of Pennsylvania

Department of English,

Leonard Hall, Room 110

421 North Walk Indiana, PA 15705-1094

724-357-2261 (Cell: 724-599-5687)

gffp@iup.edu

Research Director: Dr. Gloria Park

201F, Leonard Hall

Room 110, 421 North Walk

Indiana University of Pennsylvania

Indiana, PA 15701

724-357-2981

This project has been approved by the Indiana University of Pennsylvania Institutional Review Board for the Protection of Human Subjects (Phone: 724-357-7730).

**Informed Consent Form II**

## VOLUNTARY CONSENT FORM:

I have read and understand the information on the form and I consent to volunteer to be a subject in this study. I understand that my responses are completely confidential and that I have the right to withdraw at any time. I have received an unsigned copy of this informed Consent Form to keep in my possession.

Name (PLEASE PRINT)

---

Signature

---

Date

---

Phone number or location where you can be reached

---

Best days and times to reach you

---

I certify that I have explained to the above individual the nature and purpose, the potential benefits, and possible risks associated with participating in this research study, have answered any questions that have been raised, and have witnessed the above signature.

---

Date

---

Investigator's Signature



## Appendix IV

### Background Questionnaire

(1) Gender: male \_\_\_\_\_ / female \_\_\_\_\_

(2) Age: \_\_\_\_\_ years old

(3) When was the first time you taught English in Korea? \_\_\_\_\_

(Please circle one) (a) In which institution did you teach?

middle school, high school, college (2 year/4 year),

other (please specify - \_\_\_\_\_ )

(b) Which skill(s) of English did you teach?

Speaking, listening, writing, reading, (please specify - \_\_\_\_\_ )

(c) What kind of English classes have you taught?

Daily conversation, grammar, business English,

Other (please specify - \_\_\_\_\_ )

(4) What is your highest degree in terms of teaching English?

B.A \_\_\_\_\_ M.A. \_\_\_\_\_ PhD \_\_\_\_\_ other \_\_\_\_\_

(5) Is this your first time living in an English speaking country? Yes \_\_\_\_\_ No \_\_\_\_\_

If no, please specify – when \_\_\_\_\_

where \_\_\_\_\_

how long \_\_\_\_\_

for purpose \_\_\_\_\_

(6) How long have you been in an English speaking country?

\_\_\_\_\_ years \_\_\_\_\_ months

(7) Do you live with any native English speaker(s) who is not your family? E.g. house-mate

Yes\_\_\_\_\_No\_\_\_\_\_

If yes, please check the average time you spend speaking in English with him/her:

a. none      b. less than an hour      c. between 1 and 2 hours      d. more than 2 hours

(8) Are you involved in any American institution where you interact in English only?

If yes, please specify the purpose of the involvement:

a. study    b. business    c. family business    d. other \_\_\_\_\_

If yes, please check the average time you spend speaking in English a day:

a. none      b. less than an hour      c. between 1 and 2 hours      d. more than 2 hours

(9) The average hours you read in English daily:

a. none      b. less than an hour      c. between 1 and 2 hours      d. more than 2 hours

(10) The average hours you watch TV and listen to the radio in English daily:

a. none      b. less than an hour      c. between 1 and 2 hours      d. more than 2 hours

(11) How many hours do you use English a day? \_\_\_\_\_ hours

(12) Have you ever taken TOEFL? Yes \_\_\_\_\_ No \_\_\_\_\_

If yes, when was it? \_\_\_\_\_

what was the best score?

a. less than 500   b. 500 – 550   c. 550 – 600   d. more than 600

**Thank you.**

## Appendix V

### The Five types of Discourse Completion Test (DCT) (summarized in Nurani, 2009, pp.668-669)

1. Classic format: the prompt is ended by a rejoinder and/or initiated by interlocutors' utterance.

Example:

*Walter and Leslie live in the same neighborhood, but they only know each other by sight. One day, they both attend a meeting held on the other side of town. Walter does not have a car but he knows Leslie has come in her car.*

Walter : \_\_\_\_\_

Leslie: I'm sorry but I'm not going home right away. (Blum Kulka , House, and Kasper1989)

2. Dialogue construction: this may be commenced by an interlocutor initiation. However, the rejoinder is not present.

Example:

*Your advisor suggests that you take a course during summer. You prefer not to take classes during the summer.*

Advisor : What about taking a course in the summer?

You : \_\_\_\_\_ (Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford 1993)

3. Open item-verbal response: Participants are free to respond without any limitation from an interlocutor initiation and rejoinder. However, they are required to provide verbal response.

Example:

*You have invited a very famous pedagogue at an institutional dinner. You feel extremely hungry, but this engineer starts speaking and nobody has started eating yet, because they are waiting for the guest to start. You want to start having dinner. What would you say? (Safont-Jordà, 2003, cited in Nurani, 2009, p.668)*

4. Open item free response construction: Participants are free to give verbal response or non-verbal response and even allowed not to respond at all.

Example :

*You are the president of the local chapter of a national hiking club. Every month the club goes on a hiking trip and you are responsible for organizing it. You are on this month's trip and have borrowed another member's hiking book. You are hiking by the river and stop to look at the book. The book slips from your hand, falls in the river and washes away. You hike on to the rest stop where you meet up with the owner of the book.*

You: \_\_\_\_\_ (Hudson, Detmer, and Brown 1995)

5. New version of DCT (developed by Billmyer & Varghese (2000)): This “new” type is actually a modification of open item-verbal response. The difference is that in the new version, situational background is provided in details as seen in the following example.

Example: Old version

*A student in the library is making too much noise and disturbing other students. The librarian decides to ask the student to quiet down. What will the librarian say?*  
(Billmyer and Varghese 2000)

New version

*It is the end of the working day on Friday. You are the librarian and have been working in the University Reserve Room for two years. You like your job and usually the Reserve Room is quiet. Today, a student is making noise and disturbing other students. You decide to ask the student to quiet down. The student is a male student who you have often seen work on his own in the past two months, but today he is explaining something to another student in a very loud voice. A lot of students are in the library and they are studying for their midterm exams. You notice that some of the other students are looking in his direction in an annoyed manner. What would you say?(Billmyer and Varghese 2000)*

## Appendix VI

### DCT situations for oral and written DCTs

#### Situation 1

You live in a large house. You hold the lease to the house and rent out the other rooms. Next weekend 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 next weekend. You are sitting in the kitchen when your house-mate enters the room.

You say, "\_\_\_\_\_".

#### Situation 2

You have recently moved in a new city and are looking for an apartment to rent. You are looking at a place now. You like it a lot. The landlord explains that you seem like a good person for the apartment, but that there are a few more people who are interested. The landlord says that you will be called next week and told if you have the place. However, you need the landlord to tell you within the next three days.

You say, "\_\_\_\_\_".

#### Situation 3

You work for a small department in a large office. The assistant manager of the office gave you a packet of materials to summarize for tomorrow. However, when you start working on the assignment, you realize that you do not have all of the information. You know that the head of the department has the information. You need to get the information, but you know it will take the head of your department about an hour and a half to locate it. You see the head of the department.

You say, "\_\_\_\_\_".

#### Situation 4

You are the personnel officer in an office that is now hiring new employees. The application form is quite long and takes most applicants several hours to complete. The form must be typed. An applicant comes in and gives you a completed form. However, it has been typed with a very faint ribbon. The application needs to be retyped.

You say “\_\_\_\_\_”.

### **Situation 5**

You live in a large house. You hold the lease to the house and rent out the other rooms. The washing machine is broken. It is Saturday and the repairman is scheduled to fix it this morning. However, you will not be home because you have to pick up your parents at the airport. You want one of your house-mates to stay home this morning. You are in the kitchen when a house-mate walks in.

You say, “\_\_\_\_\_”.

### **Situation 6**

You are on an airplane. It is dinner time. The flight attendant sets your food on your tray. You need a napkin.

You say, “\_\_\_\_\_”.

### **Situation 7**

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.

You say, “\_\_\_\_\_”.

### **Situation 8**

You rent a room in a large house. The person who holds the lease lives in the house as well. You are responsible for mowing the lawn every week, a job that takes you about two hours to do. You want the lease-holder to mow the lawn for you this week because you are going out of town. You are in the living room when the lease-holder walks in.

You say, “\_\_\_\_\_”.

## Appendix VII

### Interview questions

#### SECTION I.

The questions are not invented and fixed until I and each participant have a review of the previous data from the questionnaire, oral and written DCTs. Rather, they will be emerging from the review of the previous data to lead the participants to become aware of L2 pragmatics, which is different from that of L1, and for each response, sociopragmatic awareness is examined in terms of social factors (P, D, R), and pragmalinguistic knowledge is examined in terms of their request strategies and modifications.

Examples of interview questions;

Q1. Why did you say “Excuse me” first in your request?

Q2. Did you consider the social distance between you and the hearer?

Q3. If so, what do you think is the effect of the social distance on your request strategy?

Q4. Why did you change the tone when you requested in Situation 6?

#### SECTION II.

##### A. Beginning of an English teacher’s life

1. 언제 영어선생님이 되어야겠다고 마음 먹으셨습니까?

When did you decide to be an English teacher?

2. 영어선생님이 되고 싶다는 결정을 한 계기, 동기, 이유? [실질적인 이유]

What was the main motivation, reason, or momentum to want to be an English teacher?

2.1 영어를 잘해서? 잘하고 싶어서 영어선생님이 되고 싶었나요?

Did you want to be an English teacher because you wanted to be good at English or because you were good at English?

3. 영어선생님이 되는 것에 가장 큰 영향을 준 사람을 셋 꼽는다면?

Who are the three people who most affected your decision to become an English teacher?



## 3.1 이유는? Why?

## 4. 영어선생님이 되기 위해 무엇을 준비했나요?

To become an English teacher, what did you do?

## 4.1 그 중에서 중점을 두고 준비한 부분은? 왜?

What was the most important part in the preparation to be an English teacher?

## 5. 처음 영어를 가르친 순간을 기억하십니까? 교사로서? 교사가 되기 전?

When was the first time you taught English? As a teacher? Before you became a teacher?

## 5.1 무엇을 가르치셨나요?

What did you teach when you taught English for the first time?

## 5.2 처음 영어를 가르친 순간의 본인의 영어는 어떤 수준이었나요?

말하기/읽기/쓰기/듣기/점수의 관점에서

What do you think was the level of your English proficiency when you first began teaching English?

In terms of speaking/reading/writing/listening/test score

## 5.3. 왜 그렇다고 생각하나요?

Why do you think it was?

## 5.4 가장 기억에 남는 영어를 가르친 순간이 무엇인가요? 수업내? 수업외?

긍정적으로/부정적으로 기억에 남는 순간은? (각각)

When was the most impressive moment in your teaching English life? In the class? Out of the class?

## 5.5 When was the best and worst moment in your teaching English life?

## B. Review of life as an English teacher

1. 영어의 무엇을 가르쳤나요? 말하기/읽기/쓰기/듣기/기타

What kind of English classes did you teach? Speaking/reading/listening/writing/etc.

2. 가르치고 싶었던 것은 영어의 무엇이었고 가르치기 싫었던 것은 무엇이었나요?

What kind of English class did you want to teach? Which did you not want to teach?

2.1 왜? Why?

2.2 가르치기 쉬웠던 것과 어려웠던 것, 왜?

What part of English was easy and difficult to teach?

3. 지금까지 본인이 가르쳐온 영어는 정의내린다면? 한 문장으로. 단어를 5-10 개 들라면?

If you were to define the English you taught so far, what would it be? (In a sentence and in 5-10 words)

4. 본인을 바람직한/바람직하지 않은 영어선생님이었다고 생각하나요? 왜?

Do you think you were/are a desirable or undesirable English teacher? Why?

5. 본인이 영어학습자라고 생각하시나요, 영어화자(혹은 사용자)라고 생각하시나요? 왜?

Do you think you are an English user or a learner? Why?

5.1 본인이 좋은 영어학습자라고 생각하시나요? 왜?

Are you a good English learner?

5.2 당신은 좋은 영어화자(사용자)인가요?

Are you a good English user?

5.3 어떤 환경이 좋은/이상적인/바람직한 영어학습환경인가요?

What is a good/effective/desirable circumstance for English learning?

6. “영어를 잘한다”를 한 문장으로 표현하면?

What is “being good at English” in one sentence?

6.1 “영어를 잘한다”는 말을 듣고 연상이 되는 단어들 5-10 개?

What words or phrases are reminiscent of the phrase “good at English”? (5-10 words or phrases)

7. “영어를 잘한다”는 개념이 미국에서 영어를 공부하는 학생이 되기 전과 후에 차이가 있나요?

Is there any change regarding “being good at English” before and after becoming a student in the U.S.?

7.1. 있다면 무엇? 왜? 없다면 왜? why?

8. 지금 다시 영어선생님이 되기 위한 준비를 한다면 예전에 하던 준비와 다를까요?

If you apply for an English teacher job again now, what would be the difference from what you did?

8.1 왜? Why?

9. 본인이 중고등학생때 배운 영어와 본인이 가르쳤던 영어가 다른/같은가요?

Is the English you taught the same as or different from the English you learned?

9.1 같다면/다르다면 얼마나? 무엇이? 왜?

What is the same/different? Why?

C. Awareness of the differences between pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic competencies

1. 영어의사소통에 문제가 있었던 적이 있나요? 한국에서/미국에서

Have you ever had any communicational difficulties in English? In Korea? In the U.S.?

1.1 있다면 주로 영어의 어느 부분이 문제였나요? 예를 들면 문법적 지식, 미문화의 이해 부족 등.

What was the reason for the difficulties? E.g. grammatical knowledge, lack of cultural understanding, etc.

1.2 이 문제를 극복하기 위해 본인이 특별히 투자하는 시간이나 노력이 있나요?  
무엇?

Did/Do you spend time or effort to overcome the difficulties? What did/do you do?

1.3 이 경험이 훗날 영어를 가르칠때 도움이 된다고 생각하시나요? 왜?

Do you think the experience in 1.2 will be helpful in teaching English in the future?

2. 영어로 의사소통을 할 때 본인이 인식하는/남이 지적한 특이한 버릇이 있나요?

Do you have any habit you are (un)aware of when speaking in English?

3. 영어를 배울때 가장 중요한 것이 무엇이라고 생각하시나요?

What do you think is most important in learning English?

3.1 미국에 오기 전과 후, 이 가장 중요한 것에 대한 생각의 차이가 있나요?

Since studying in the U.S., have you changed your opinion about what the most important thing is?

3.2 있다면 무엇? 왜? What is it? Why?

19. 좋은 영어선생님이란 무엇인가요?

What is a good English teacher?

20. 한국에서 영어를 가르쳐본 사람으로서 한국의 영어교육에 문제점을 지적한다면?

In your opinion, what is the problem of Korean English education? As an English teacher.

20.1 해결책을 제시한다면?

What would your solution be?

감사합니다. Thank you.

### Appendix VIII

#### Request strategies (Head Acts) (Blum-Kulka & Kasper, 1989, pp. 278-280)

Degree of directness	Request strategies	Definition	Example
Direct	1 Mood derivable (prototypical form is the imperative)	The grammatical mood of the locution conventionally determines its illocutionary force as a request	Leave me alone Clean up the kitchen Please move your car
	2 Explicit performative	The illocutionary intent is explicitly named by the speaker by using a relevant illocutionary verb	I am asking you to move your car
	3 Hedged performative	The illocutionary verb denoting the requestive intent is modified, e.g., by modal verbs or verbs expressing intention	I must/have to ask you to clean the kitchen right now
	4 Locution derivable	The illocutionary intent is directly derivable from the semantic meaning of the locution	Madam you'll have to/should/must/ought to move your car
	5 Want statement	The utterance expresses the speaker's desire that the event denoted in the proposition come about	I'd like to borrow your notes for a little while
Conventionally indirect	6 Suggestory formula	The illocutionary intent is phrased as a suggestion by means of a framing routine formula	How about cleaning up the kitchen? Why don't you get lost?
	7 Preparatory	The utterance contains reference to a preparatory condition for the feasibility of the Request, typically one of ability, willingness, or possibility, as conventionalized in the given language	Could you possibly get your assignment done this week?
Non-conventionally indirect	8 Strong hint	The illocutionary intent is not immediately derivable from the locution; however, the locution refers to relevant elements of the intended illocutionary and/or propositional act	(Intent: getting a lift home) Will you be going home now?
	9 Mild hint	The locution contains no elements which are of immediate relevance to the intended illocution or proposition, thus putting increased demand for context analysis and knowledge activation on the interlocutor	(Intent: getting hearer to clean the kitchen) You've been busy, haven't you?

## Modifications for Head Acts and Supportive Moves

### A. Internal modification

1. Syntactic downgraders: interrogative, conditionals, negation, aspect markers
2. Lexical downgraders: politeness marker (please, do you think you could ...?)
  - Hedgers (somehow, kind of ...)
  - Downstaters (a little, a bit, ...)
  - Subjectivizer (I'm afraid, I wonder, I think/suppose/believe, I'm sorry but ...)
  - Downtoner (possibly, perhaps,...)
  - Cajoler (you know, well...)
  - Appealer (Tags, OK?)
3. Lexical upgraders: intensifier (terribly, very, really..)
  - Commitment indicator (I'm sure/certain/surely/certainly...)
  - Expletive (damn, fuckin', bloody...)
  - Time intensifier (now/right now, immediately...)
  - Lexical uptoner (*Clear up that mess!*)
  - Determination marker ( ... and that's it!)
  - Repetition (Get lost! Leave me alone!)
  - Orthographic/suprasegmental emphasis (pause, stress, intonation...)
  - Emphatic addition (Go and do it)
  - Perjorative determiner (Clear up *that* mess!)

### B. External modification = Supportive Moves

1. Opener: *Hi, Mr. Smith, Hello, ...*
2. Preparator: *I'd like to ask you something, May I ask you a favor?...*
3. Getting a precommitment: *Could you do me a favor? Can I ask you a favor?*
4. Grounder: *I missed a class yesterday, so ...*
5. Disarmer: *I know you are very busy now but ...*
6. Promise & reward: *I'll ... for you later.*
7. Imposition minimize: *Only if you are willing to ..., If you don't mind ...*
8. Aggravating supportive move: insult (*you've always been late. Be on time*)
  - Threat (*Be on time, if you don't want an F!*)
  - Moralizing (*People usually help in this kind of situation, ...*)
9. Gratitude intensifier: *I really appreciate it.*
10. Mode: neutral (*Excuse me, could you give me a ride?*)
  - marked (*Could I possibly beg your pardon?*)

## Appendix IX

### Summary of Supportive Moves

DCTs	Participant		EUNJOO	KEUMJOO	YOOSUN	GUISUN	JOOHEE	Number of Supportive Move	
	response mode	mode							
1 Moving furniture out for carpeting	Oral	Grounder	Opener Grounder Imposition minimizer	Disarmer Grounder		Grounder	Opener Grounder Imposition minimizer	9	19
	Written	Grounder	Opener Grounder	Preparator Grounder		Grounder Imposition minimizer	Opener Grounder Promise & reward	10	
2 Requesting a confirming call within 3 days	Oral	Grounder	Disarmer Polite marker (please)	Grounder			Opener Request intensifier Grounder	7	16
	Written	Grounder	Promise Polite marker (please)	Grounder Gratitude intensifier		Grounder	Opener Imposition minimizer Grounder	9	
3 Asking your boss at work for information	Oral	Opener Grounder	Grounder	Grounder		Preparator Grounder	Opener Grounder Imposition minimizer	9	20
	Written	Precommitment	Grounder Disarmer Gratitude intensifier	Opener		Subjectivizer Grounder	Opener Grounder Preparator Disarmer	11	
4 Requesting retype of an application	Oral	Opener Grounder	Grounder	Disarmer Grounder		Subjectivizer Grounder	Opener Grounder Aggravator	10	19
	Written	Aggravator Grounder	Grounder Polite marker (please)	Grounder		Subjectivizer Grounder	Opener Grounder	9	
5 Staying home for fixing a washing machine	Oral	Opener Grounder	Opener Grounder	Preparator Grounder		Grounder Gratitude intensifier	Opener Grounder	11	24
	Written	Precommitment Grounder	Opener Precommitment Polite marker (please)	Preparator Grounder		Grounder Gratitude intensifier	Opener Preparator Grounder	13	
6 Asking for napkin on an airplane	Oral	Opener	Polite marker (please)	Opener			Opener Polite marker (please)	5	10
	Written	Opener	Opener			Gratitude intensifier	Opener Polite marker (please)	5	
7 Asking a	Oral	Opener Imposition minimize	Grounder	Opener			Opener Grounder	6	11

menu back from a customer	Written	Subjectivizer			Subjectivizer Grounder Gratitude Intensifier	Opener	5	
8 Asking the lease holder to mow the lawn	Oral	Opener Grounder	Preparatory Disarmer	Opener Preparatory Disarmer Grounder	Disarmer Grounder	Opener Disarmer Grounder Subjectivizer	14	30
	Written	Precommit- ment Disarmer	Opener Grounder Promise & reward	Preparator Disarmer Grounder	Subjectivizer Disarmer Grounder Promise & reward	Opener Disarmer Grounder Polite marker (please)	16	



### Appendix X.

Head Acts employed by each participant and their degrees of directness

(CI = Conventionally Indirect, NCI = Non-Conventionally Indirect)

EUNJOO

DCT situation	Mode of response	Used Head Acts	Degree of directness
1 Moving furniture out for carpeting	Oral	We need to move out your bedroom's furniture. Can you help me?	Direct + CI
	Written	Can you move all your furniture from your room?	CI
2 Requesting a confirming call within 3 days	Oral	Please can you call me within 3 days?	CI
	Written	Could you let me know if I can rent it or not within the next 3 days?	CI
3 Asking your boss at work for information	Oral	Please give me all the information.	Direct
	Written	Could you help me? I need your help to get information to finish my assignment.	NCI
4 Requesting retyping of an application	Oral	Can you make it again?	CI
	Written	If it's possible, can you retype it?	CI
5 Staying home for fixing a washing machine	Oral	Can you stay at home instead of me?	CI
	Written	Could you please stay home instead of me?	CI
6 Asking for napkin on an airplane	Oral	Can you give me a napkin, please?	CI
	Written	Can I have a napkin?	CI
7 Asking a menu back from a customer	Oral	Do you mind giving me the menu?	CI
	Written	Can I have your menu?	CI
8 Asking the lease holder to mow the lawn	Oral	Can you do that for me?	CI
	Written	Could you mow the lawn for me this week?	CI

## KEUMJOO

DCT situation	Mode of response	Used Head Acts	Degree of directness
1 Moving furniture out for carpeting	Oral	We need to move all this furniture.	Direct
	Written	We need furniture out to put new carpet. Can you help me next week?	Direct + CI
2 Requesting a confirming call within 3 days	Oral	Please contact me in three days, please.	Direct
	Written	Please contact me in three days.	Direct
3 Asking your boss at work for information	Oral	Please, would you try to find the data for me?	CI
	Written	I have to have the packet you have.	NCI
4 Requesting retyping of an application	Oral	Type it again and bring it back to me.	Direct
	Written	You have to retype it.	Direct
5 Staying home for fixing a washing machine	Oral	Would you stay at home while he is working?	CI
	Written	Would you please stay at home?	CI
6 Asking for napkin on an airplane	Oral	Napkin, please.	Direct
	Written	Can I get a napkin?	CI
7 Asking a menu back from a customer	Oral	There's another customer is coming.	NCI
	Written	When you are ready, I'll right back.	NCI
8 Asking the lease holder to mow the lawn	Oral	Can you mow the lawn for me?	CI
	Written	Would you mow the lawn for me this week?	CI

## YOOSUN

DCT situation	Mode of response	Used Head Acts	Degree of directness
1 Moving furniture out for carpeting	Oral	You need to remove your furniture.	Direct
	Written	We need to move all of the furniture out of your room for new carpeting.	Direct
2 Requesting a confirming call within 3 days	Oral	Please let me know within next three days, if this apartment is available or not.	Direct
	Written	If you tell me within three days, I really appreciate it.	CI
3 Asking your boss at work for information	Oral	Could you give some information to complete this project?	CI
	Written	Can you give me the information about that?	CI
4 Requesting retyping of an application	Oral	You need to retype this application.	Direct
	Written	Can you type again?	CI
5 Staying home for fixing a washing machine	Oral	Could you stay at home instead of me to help the person to fix the washing machine?	CI
	Written	Can you stay at home instead of me?	CI
6 Asking for napkin on an airplane	Oral	Can I have a napkin?	CI
	Written	Can you give me a napkin?	CI
7 Asking a menu back from a customer	Oral	Can I have the menu, if you ordered your food?	CI
	Written	Would you mind handing me the menu?	CI
8 Asking the lease holder to mow the lawn	Oral	Could you mow the lawn instead of me?	CI
	Written	Can you mow for me this week?	CI

## GUISUN

DCT situation	Mode of response	Used Head Acts	Degree of directness
1 Moving furniture out for carpeting	Oral	Could you move out of your furniture?	CI
	Written	It is okay to move all the furniture in your room?	NCI
2 Requesting a confirming call within 3 days	Oral	Could you tell me within 3 days if there is a place for me?	CI
	Written	Would you tell me if there is a place for me within three days?	CI
3 Asking your boss at work for information	Oral	Could you get some information for me?	CI
	Written	Would you get the information for me?	CI
4 Requesting retyping of an application	Oral	Could you retype it and submit it again?	CI
	Written	Please retype and resubmit by next week	Direct
5 Staying home for fixing a washing machine	Oral	Could you stay at home?	CI
	Written	Would you stay at home?	CI
6 Asking for napkin on an airplane	Oral	Could you give me a napkin?	CI
	Written	Would you get me some napkins	CI
7 Asking a menu back from a customer	Oral	Could you give the menu back to me?	CI
	Written	Can I have the menu back?	CI
8 Asking the lease holder to mow the lawn	Oral	Could you mow the lawn for me this week?	CI
	Written	Would you mow the lawn for me this week?	CI

## JOOHEE

DCT situation	Mode of response	Used Head Acts	Degree of directness
1 Moving furniture out for carpeting	Oral	We need to move all furniture.	Direct
	Written	All of the furniture in your room need to be moved out before next weekend.	Direct
2 Requesting a confirming call within 3 days	Oral	Would you give me a call within three days?	CI
	Written	Would you give me a call if I get this space or not?	CI
3 Asking your boss at work for information	Oral	I need more information for complete this assignment	NCI
	Written	Without these ones, I don't think I can complete the work.	NCI
4 Requesting retyping of an application	Oral	Would you submit another one. Actually you should.	CI + Direct
	Written	I need clear information about you.	Direct
5 Staying home for fixing a washing machine	Oral	Can you stay at home for the man?	CI
	Written	Would you stay at home for this?	CI
6 Asking for napkin on an airplane	Oral	Would you give me some paper napkins, please?	CI
	Written	Paper napkins, please.	Direct
7 Asking a menu back from a customer	Oral	Can I get the menu, please?	CI
	Written	Are you done with the menu?	NCI
8 Asking the lease holder to mow the lawn	Oral	Would you please do that instead of me?	CI
	Written	I think I can't mow the lawn this week.	NCI

## Appendix XI

DCT responses by each participant

EUNJOO

### Situation 1

You live in a large house. You hold the lease to the house and rent out the other rooms. Next weekend 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 next weekend. You are sitting in the kitchen when your house-mate enters the room.

You say, "\_\_\_\_\_".

(oral) Mary, next weekend I'm going to carpet all our bedrooms, so we need to move out your bedrooms' furniture. Can you help me?

(written) I need to put new carpeting in your bedroom. Can you move all your furniture from your room?

Power [+ / - ],      Distance [ ± / - ],      Imposition [ ± / - ]

### Situation 2

You have recently moved in a new city and are looking for an apartment to rent. You are looking at a place now. You like it a lot. The landlord explains that you seem like a good person for the apartment, but that there are a few more people who are interested. The landlord says that you will be called next week and told if you have the place. However, you need the landlord to tell you within the next three days.

You say, "\_\_\_\_\_".

(oral) You mean, you call next week if I have the place or not, but you know, I don't have enough time to wait until next week. Because now I have two daughters and I don't have enough time. Please can you call me within three days?

(written) I really like your apartment. Could you let me know if I can rent it or not within the next three days?

Power [ + / - ],      Distance [ + / - ],      Imposition [ ± / - ]

### Situation 3

You work for a small department in a large office. The assistant manager of the office gave you a packet of materials to summarize for tomorrow. However, when you start working on the

assignment, you realize that you do not have all of the information. You know that the head of the department has the information. You need to get the information, but you know it will take the head of your department about an hour and a half to locate it. You see the head of the department.

You say, “\_\_\_\_\_”.

(oral) Excuse me, sir. I need your help because I need to summarize, I need to ... materials... I need to summarize materials for tomorrow but I don't have all the information. So please give me information. I know it takes an hour or so But I can't wait, please give me all the information.

(written) Could you help me? I need your help to get information to finish my assignment.

Power [ + / - ],      Distance [ ± / - ],      Imposition [ + / - ]

#### **Situation 4**

You are the personnel officer in an office that is now hiring new employees. The application form is quite long and takes most applicants several hours to complete. The form must be typed. An applicant comes in and gives you a completed form. However, it has been typed with a very faint ribbon. The application needs to be retyped.

You say “\_\_\_\_\_”.

(oral) Hello, Miss. You completed your form and you submitted it to me. But you know it's too vague, so I can't read it. Can you make it again? If you can do it, I'll really appreciate it.

(written) Your application is very important for you to get a job. However, it's not clear to read. If it's possible, can you retype it?

Power [ ± / - ],      Distance [ ± / - ],      Imposition [ + / - ]

#### **Situation 5**

You live in a large house. You hold the lease to the house and rent out the other rooms. The washing machine is broken. It is Saturday and the repairman is scheduled to fix it this morning. However, you will not be home because you have to pick up your parents at the airport. You want one of your house-mates to stay home this morning. You are in the kitchen when a house-mate walks in.

(oral) Lynn, would you do me a favor? You know, the washing machine is broken and the repairman is appointed this morning. But I need to go to the airport to pick up my parents, so can you stay at home instead of me?

(written) Could you help me? I have to pick up my parents at the airport. But repairman will come here to fix the washing machine. Could you please stay home instead of me?

Power [ + / - ],      Distance [ + / - ],      Imposition [ + / - ]

### Situation 6

You are on an airplane. It is dinner time. The flight attendant sets your food on your tray. You need a napkin.

You say, “ \_\_\_\_\_ ”.

(oral) Excuse me. Can you give me a napkin, please?

(written) Excuse me. Can I have a napkin?

Power [ + / - ],      Distance [ + / - ],      Imposition [ + / - ]

### Situation 7

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.

You say, “ \_\_\_\_\_ ”.

(oral) Thank you, ma’am. Do you mind having me the menu?

(written) Sorry but can I have your menu?

Power [ + / - ],      Distance [ + / - ],      Imposition [ + / - ]

### Situation 8

You rent a room in a large house. The person who holds the lease lives in the house as well. You are responsible for mowing the lawn every week, a job that takes you about two hours to do. You want the lease-holder to mow the lawn for you this week because you are going out of town. You are in the living room when the lease-holder walks in.

(oral) Mary, I have one thing to discuss with you. As you know, we need to mow the lawn. But this week, maybe I can’t, because I’ll be out of town. So can you do that for me?

(written) Would you do me a favor? I know it’s my responsibility to mow the lawn. But I have to go out of town this week. Could you mow the lawn for me this week? If you help me, I will help you next time.

Power [ + / - ],      Distance [ + / - ],      Imposition [ + / - ]



## KEUMJOO

**Situation 1**

You live in a large house. You hold the lease to the house and rent out the other rooms. Next weekend 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 next weekend. You are sitting in the kitchen when your house-mate enters the room.

You say, “\_\_\_\_\_”.

(oral) Hello. I think I need to something to tell you, ... and next day we remove this old carpet. ... and ... we need to move all this furniture. Are you OK with it?

(written) Hi, how are you today? We need furniture out to put new carpet. Can you help me next week?

Power [+ / - ]      Distance [+ / - ]      Imposition [+ / - ]

**Situation 2**

You have recently moved in a new city and are looking for an apartment to rent. You are looking at a place now. You like it a lot. The landlord explains that you seem like a good person for the apartment, but that there are a few more people who are interested. The landlord says that you will be called next week and told if you have the place. However, you need the landlord to tell you within the next three days.

You say, “\_\_\_\_\_”.

(oral) I think it's... this is very right place for me, please contact me. I know uh... this is a nice place, so other people have uhm be interested in this place, too. Please contact me in three days, please.

(written) Please contact me in three days. I promise I will be a good resident.

Power [+ / - ]      Distance [ + / - ]      Imposition [ + / - ]

**Situation 3**

You work for a small department in a large office. The assistant manager of the office gave you a packet of materials to summarize for tomorrow. However, when you start working on the assignment, you realize that you do not have all of the information. You know that the head of the department has the information. You need to get the information, but you know it will take the head of your department about an hour and a half to locate it. You see the head of the department.

You say, “\_\_\_\_\_”.

(oral) You need to find the data. I need the data. I have to work a little bit until tomorrow. Please would you find ... try to find the data for me?

(written) I need to summarized it, and I have to have the packet you have. I know it will take time for you to get it. I'll really appreciate it.

Power [ + / - ]      Distance [ + / - ]      Imposition [ + / - ]

#### Situation 4

You are the personnel officer in an office that is now hiring new employees. The application form is quite long and takes most applicants several hours to complete. The form must be typed. An applicant comes in and gives you a completed form. However, it has been typed with a very faint ribbon. The application needs to be retyped.

You say “\_\_\_\_\_”.

(oral) You need to make it ... this application clear. The print is not clear. So type again and bring it back to me.

(written) In your application, the print is faint. You have to retype it, or else we cannot read your application. Please let us read your application.

Power [ + / - ]      Distance [ + / - ]      Imposition [ + / - ]

#### Situation 5

You live in a large house. You hold the lease to the house and rent out the other rooms. The washing machine is broken. It is Saturday and the repairman is scheduled to fix it this morning. However, you will not be home because you have to pick up your parents at the airport. You want one of your house-mates to stay home this morning. You are in the kitchen when a house-mate walks in.

You say, “\_\_\_\_\_”.

(oral) Hi, I need to go to airport today to pick up my parents, but uhm... the workman will come to fix the washing machine today. Would you stay at home while he is working?

(written) Hi. How are you today? I need to ask you one thing as you know our washing machine is broken. A repairman will come in the morning, but at that time I have to go to airport to pick up my parents. Would you please stay at home Saturday morning?

Power [ + / - ]      Distance [ + / - ]      Imposition [ + / - ]

**Situation 6**

You are on an airplane. It is dinner time. The flight attendant sets your food on your tray. You need a napkin.

You say, “\_\_\_\_\_”.

(oral) Napkin, please.

(written) Hello. Can I get a napkin?

Power [ + / - ]      Distance [ + / - ]      Imposition [ + / - ]

**Situation 7**

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.

You say, “\_\_\_\_\_”.

(oral) There’s another customer is coming. I’ll be back when you are ready. Or if you call me.

(written) When you are ready, I’ll be right back.

Power [ + / - ]      Distance [ + / - ]      Imposition [ + / - ]

**Situation 8**

You rent a room in a large house. The person who holds the lease lives in the house as well. You are responsible for mowing the lawn every week, a job that takes you about two hours to do. You want the lease-holder to mow the lawn for you this week because you are going out of town. You are in the living room when the lease-holder walks in.

You say, “\_\_\_\_\_”.

(oral) May I ask a favor today? This weekend I’m out of town. So can I mow the lawn for me. I know it’s my responsible just a may I ask a favor?

(written) Hi. How are you? I need to say one thing. This week I’ll be out of town, so I would not be able to mow the lawn. I’ll pay 50 bucks. Would you mow the lawn for me this week?

Power [ + / - ]      Distance [ + / - ]      Imposition [ + / - ]

## YOOSUN

**Situation 1**

You live in a large house. You hold the lease to the house and rent out the other rooms. Next weekend 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 next weekend. You are sitting in the kitchen when your house-mate enters the room.

You say, “\_\_\_\_\_”.

(oral) I'm so sorry to say like that. I think you need to remove your furnitures because I have to put new carpeting

(written) I want to tell you one thing. We need to move all of the furniture out of your room for new carpeting. Can you help with that?

Power [ + / - ]      Distance [ + / - ]      Imposition [ + / - ]

**Situation 2**

You have recently moved in a new city and are looking for an apartment to rent. You are looking at a place now. You like it a lot. The landlord explains that you seem like a good person for the apartment, but that there are a few more people who are interested. The landlord says that you will be called next week and told if you have the place. However, you need the landlord to tell you within the next three days.

You say, “\_\_\_\_\_”.

(oral) I'm really interested in this apartment. Please let me know within three, next three days, if this apartment is available or not.

(written) I don't have enough time to wait until next week, because I have little kids. If you tell me within three days, I really appreciate it.

Power [ + / - ]      Distance [ + / - ]      Imposition [ + / - ]

**Situation 3**

You work for a small department in a large office. The assistant manager of the office gave you a packet of materials to summarize for tomorrow. However, when you start working on the assignment, you realize that you do not have all of the information. You know that the head of the department has the information. You need to get the information, but you know it will take the head of your department about an hour and a half to locate it. You see the head of the department.

You say, “\_\_\_\_\_”.

(oral) I got this packet from the office assistant manager but I could not understand ... I could not understand it to finish this project. Could you help me, could you give some information to complete this project. I think ... maybe you will need some time to you find some information. I'll wait for you to find some information for me.

(written) Sir, I need your help for summarizing materials. Can you give me the information about that?

Power [ + / - ]      Distance [ + / - ]      Imposition [ + / - ]

#### Situation 4

You are the personnel officer in an office that is now hiring new employees. The application form is quite long and takes most applicants several hours to complete. The form must be typed. An applicant comes in and gives you a completed form. However, it has been typed with a very faint ribbon. The application needs to be retyped.

You say “\_\_\_\_\_”.

(oral) I'm so sorry to say like that. Your application form is not clear for me to read. I think you need to retype this application. But it will take ... longer time than you expected. But please understand this situation. Your application form is very important.

(written) Thank you for your application. But I can't read your form. It's too faint. Can you type again?

Power [ + / - ]      Distance [ + / - ]      Imposition [ + / - ]

#### Situation 5

You live in a large house. You hold the lease to the house and rent out the other rooms. The washing machine is broken. It is Saturday and the repairman is scheduled to fix it this morning. However, you will not be home because you have to pick up your parents at the airport. You want one of your house-mates to stay home this morning. You are in the kitchen when a house-mate walks in.

You say, “\_\_\_\_\_”.

(oral) Would you give me a favor? This morning I have to go to the airport to pick up my parents. But somebody will be ... my house, my apartment to fix washing machine, So could you stay at home instead of me to help the person to fix the washing machine?

(written) Will you do me a favor? Repairman for washing machine is going to visit this morning, but I need to go to airport to pick up my parents. Can you stay at home instead of me?

Power [ ± / - ]      Distance [ + / - ]      Imposition [ + / - ]

### Situation 6

You are on an airplane. It is dinner time. The flight attendant sets your food on your tray. You need a napkin.

You say, “ \_\_\_\_\_ ”.

(oral) Excuse me. Can I have a napkin?

(written) Can you give me a napkin?

Power [ + / - ]      Distance [ + / - ]      Imposition [ + / - ]

### Situation 7

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.

You say, “ \_\_\_\_\_ ”.

(oral) Excuse me. Can I have the menu, if you ordered your food?

(written) Would you mind handing me the menu?

Power [ + / - ]      Distance [ + / - ]      Imposition [ + / - ]

### Situation 8

You rent a room in a large house. The person who holds the lease lives in the house as well. You are responsible for mowing the lawn every week, a job that takes you about two hours to do. You want the lease-holder to mow the lawn for you this week because you are going out of town. You are in the living room when the lease-holder walks in.

You say, “ \_\_\_\_\_ ”.

(oral) Excuse me. Would you give me a favor? I know it’s my responsibility to mow the lawn. But the problem is that I have to go somewhere because I have to meet somebody. It’s very important. So could you mow the lawn instead of me?

(written) Will you do me a favor? This week I can’t mow. Because I’m going out of town. Can you mow for me this week?

Power [ + / - ]      Distance [ + / - ]      Imposition [ ± / - ]

## GUISUN

### Situation 1

You live in a large house. You hold the lease to the house and rent out the other rooms. Next weekend 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 next weekend. You are sitting in the kitchen when your house-mate enters the room.

You say, "\_\_\_\_\_".

(oral) I'm going to put you carpet in your room. Could you move out of your furniture?

(written) I'll put new carpets in all the rooms. So, it is okay to move all the furniture in your room?

Power [ + / - ]      Distance [ + / - ]      Imposition [ + / - ]

### Situation 2

You have recently moved in a new city and are looking for an apartment to rent. You are looking at a place now. You like it a lot. The landlord explains that you seem like a good person for the apartment, but that there are a few more people who are interested. The landlord says that you will be called next week and told if you have the place. However, you need the landlord to tell you within the next three days.

You say, "\_\_\_\_\_".

(oral) Could you tell me ahm...within the three days if you ...ahm ... if there is a place for me?

(written) I like the place a lot. Would you tell me if there's a place for me within three days? Otherwise, I have to look at another place.

Power [ + / - ]      Distance [ + / - ]      Imposition [ + / - ]

### Situation 3

You work for a small department in a large office. The assistant manager of the office gave you a packet of materials to summarize for tomorrow. However, when you start working on the assignment, you realize that you do not have all of the information. You know that the head of the department has the information. You need to get the information, but you know it will take the head of your department about an hour and a half to locate it. You see the head of the department.

You say, "\_\_\_\_\_".

(oral) Could you do me a favor? I couldn't find any information about it. Ah... could you get some information for me?

(written) I'm sorry but would you get the information for me? I couldn't find it.

Power [ + / - ]      Distance [ + / - ]      Imposition [ + / - ]

#### Situation 4

You are the personnel officer in an office that is now hiring new employees. The application form is quite long and takes most applicants several hours to complete. The form must be typed. An applicant comes in and gives you a completed form. However, it has been typed with a very faint ribbon. The application needs to be retyped.

You say “\_\_\_\_\_”.

(oral) I'm sorry but I couldn't read, read your application form. Ah... could you re... retype it and submit it again?

(written) I'm sorry but I couldn't read your application form and it needs to be retyped. Please retype and resubmit it by next week?

Power [ + / - ]      Distance [ + / - ]      Imposition [ + / - ]

#### Situation 5

You live in a large house. You hold the lease to the house and rent out the other rooms. The washing machine is broken. It is Saturday and the repairman is scheduled to fix it this morning. However, you will not be home because you have to pick up your parents at the airport. You want one of your house-mates to stay home this morning. You are in the kitchen when a house-mate walks in.

You say, “\_\_\_\_\_”.

(oral) Could you stay at home? The repairman will be here to fix the washing machine. I'm going to pick up my parents at the airport. I really appreciate it.

(written) Would you stay at home? The repairman is supposed to be here this morning to fix the washing machine. But I have to pick up my parents at the airport now. I'll really appreciate it.

Power [ + / - ]      Distance [ + / - ]      Imposition [ + / - ]

#### Situation 6

You are on an airplane. It is dinner time. The flight attendant sets your food on your tray. You need a napkin.



You say, “\_\_\_\_\_”.

(oral) Could you give me a napkin?

(written) Would you get me some napkins? Thanks.

Power [ + / - ]

Distance [ + / - ]

Imposition [ + / - ]

### Situation 7

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.

You say, “\_\_\_\_\_”.

(oral) Could you give the menu back to me?

(written) I'm sorry but can I have the menu back? Another customer is waiting for me to take his order. Thank you.

Power [ + / - ]

Distance [ + / - ]

Imposition [ + / - ]

### Situation 8

You rent a room in a large house. The person who holds the lease lives in the house as well. You are responsible for mowing the lawn every week, a job that takes you about two hours to do. You want the lease-holder to mow the lawn for you this week because you are going out of town. You are in the living room when the lease-holder walks in.

You say, “\_\_\_\_\_”.

(oral) Could you mow the lawn for me this week? Actually I'm supposed to do it but I, I'm going to be out of town.

(written) I'm sorry but would you mow the lawn for me this week? I know it's my turn but I'm going to get out of the town this week for business work. If you can do so, I'll do it for you when it's your turn.

Power [ + / - ]

Distance [ + / - ]

Imposition [ + / - ]

## JOOHEE

**Situation 1**

You live in a large house. You hold the lease to the house and rent out the other rooms. Next weekend 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 next weekend. You are sitting in the kitchen when your house-mate enters the room. You say, "\_\_\_\_\_".

(oral) Hi Lynda. How are you today? I'm not sure you already know about the house's new carpeting. So next week maybe yesterday? Next weekend, I'd like to ... we put, we have new carpet on the floor. So we ... we need to move all furnitures, I mean your furniture, the furniture in your room and the furnitures in the house, we should move ... all that one to move, all that one move to another place. So is it okay?

(written) Hi Linda. How are you? I'm not sure if you already remember about new carpeting. Oh, you remember. OK. Good. The guys are going to do it next weekend. That means, all of the furniture in your room need to be moved out before next weekend. Okay? If you need help for moving out furniture, just tell me. I know somebody to help you.

Power [+ / - ]      Distance [ + / - ]      Imposition [+ / - ]

**Situation 2**

You have recently moved in a new city and are looking for an apartment to rent. You are looking at a place now. You like it a lot. The landlord explains that you seem like a good person for the apartment, but that there are a few more people who are interested. The landlord says that you will be called next week and told if you have the place. However, you need the landlord to tell you within the next three days. You say, "\_\_\_\_\_".

(oral) Okay, Mrs. Morris. I think I can wait your call. I really really wanna have your call. But ... if you don't mind, and ... if you don't mind, would you give me, would you give me, would you let me know if I have a place or not. Actually I really really wanna have, I really want to have an apartment, because I love this place. But ... but actually I don't have enough time, because I'm a new, I'm a new person at here, and if you, if I cannot get, rent, I mean this place, this house, this apartment, I should find another place. So would you give me a call within three days. I mean, this Thursday because now is Monday, please, please.

(written) Mrs. Morris. I really wanna get a rent of this place. You know, I'm a new person here. I should find a place to stay ASAP. And I love this place, but if you it, this place, is not available

for me, I should find another place ASAP. And I want to settle down, I mean. Looking for a space to live is so hard. If you don't mind, would you give me a call if I get this space or not?

Power [ + / - ]      Distance [ + / - ]      Imposition [ + / - ]

### Situation 3

You work for a small department in a large office. The assistant manager of the office gave you a packet of materials to summarize for tomorrow. However, when you start working on the assignment, you realize that you do not have all of the information. You know that the head of the department has the information. You need to get the information, but you know it will take the head of your department about an hour and a half to locate it. You see the head of the department. You say, “\_\_\_\_\_”.

(oral) Hello, Mary. I think I have problem to complete this assignment because ... actually I need more information for complete this assignment. The information, I mean, the material you gave me. It doesn't have enough information for me to work for that. So ... but ... I know you need the time to find that materials. So if you don't mind, can I work, can I start, can I start this work for tomorrow? If you don't mind, and if it is available, I mean, if it is available, or is there any good... any ... is there another way to ... another way that I choose?

(written) Excuse me, Mary. I don't think I have enough information to do the assignment. I know it will take time for you to find materials that I need. But without these ones, I don't think I can complete the work, so would you give me a favor?

Power [ + / - ]      Distance [ + / - ]      Imposition [ + / - ]

### Situation 4

You are the personnel officer in an office that is now hiring new employees. The application form is quite long and takes most applicants several hours to complete. The form must be typed. An applicant comes in and gives you a completed form. However, it has been typed with a very faint ribbon. The application needs to be retyped. You say “\_\_\_\_\_”.

(oral) Excuse me. Miss Jane. I think, I think this application form has some problems because I can't read, read this form. Can you see? Can you read? Because the ink ... I think I can't read because the typing is too faint, too faint, so I as well as another persons, we can't read what ... what information, what this form has information about you. So would you give me, would you give ... would you submit another one? Actually you should.

(written) Miss Jane. I can't read the paper. The typing is so faint. I need clear information about you.

Power [ + / - ]      Distance [ + / - ]      Imposition [ + / - ]

**Situation 5**

You live in a large house. You hold the lease to the house and rent out the other rooms. The washing machine is broken. It is Saturday and the repairman is scheduled to fix it this morning. However, you will not be home because you have to pick up your parents at the airport. You want one of your house-mates to stay home this morning. You are in the kitchen when a house-mate walks in. You say, “\_\_\_\_\_”.

(oral) Hi Ann. Something happened to home. The washing machine is broken, so someone will come home this morning for fixing, to fix the washing machines. But you knows, my parents will come today. This morning actually. So I should go to the airport for pick up my parents. So can you stay, can you stay ... stay at home and ... can you stay at home ... for the man? I mean this, the man, the guy who fix for, fix the washing machine? So if you cannot stay at home this morning, I should call the man ... because we, because I should, I should postpone the schedule. I mean, I should reschedule for fixing the washing machine with him.

(written) Hi, Ann. Would you give me a favor? You know, my parents come to my place today. So I should go to the airport to pick up them. But a fixman will come to fix the washing machine this morning. Would you stay at home for this? I mean would you handle the washing machine problem?

Power [+ / - ]      Distance [ + / - ]      Imposition [ + / - ]

**Situation 6**

You are on an airplane. It is dinner time. The flight attendant sets your food on your tray. You need a napkin. You say, “\_\_\_\_\_”.

(oral) Hello, excuse me. I ... would you give me some paper napkins, please?

(written) Excuse me. Paper napkin, please.

Power [+ / - ]      Distance [+ / - ]      Imposition [ + / - ]

**Situation 7**

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. You say, “\_\_\_\_\_”.

(oral) Excuse me. Can I get the menu, please? Actually another persons, another table need that menu, if you done, if you are done.

(written) Excuse me. Are you done with the menu?

Power [ + / - ]      Distance [ + / - ]      Imposition [ + / - ]

### Situation 8

You rent a room in a large house. The person who holds the lease lives in the house as well. You are responsible for mowing the lawn every week, a job that takes you about two hours to do. You want the lease-holder to mow the lawn for you this week because you are going out of town. You are in the living room when the lease-holder walks in. You say, “ \_\_\_\_\_ ”.

(oral) Excuse me, Mrs. Jenifer. Today, actually I today, I should go ... I should go some wheres, it is, I should go, I should ... be out of town this week. So ... because I have something to do in another towns, in another towns. So actually I know I should, I am ... responsible for the mowing the lawn every week. But actually this weekend, I'm not available, I'm not available to do it. So would you please do that instead of me? I'm so sorry.

(written) Mrs. Simpson. I think I can't mow this week. Because I'm going to New York.

Power [ + / - ]      Distance [ + / - ]      Imposition [ + / - ]