The Effect of Explicit Instruction on Developing Appropriate Spoken Pragmatic Language Choices in Female Saudi Arabian English as a Foreign Language Students

Thesis submitted in accordance with the requirements of the University of Liverpool for the degree of Doctor in Philosophy by Albandary Ibrahim Alhammad

Date: 26/09/2022

Acknowledgements

Several people have helped me bring this work into its present form. First, I must express my gratitude to God, Whose blessings and guidance have given me the strength and enabled me to complete this work well on time. I have indeed been blessed with a wonderful guide, Professor Christian Jones. I thank him dearly for all he has done to keep me motivated and for the valuable guidance that has made my task smooth and well-directed. I am thankful to Professor Siobhan Chapman, my second supervisor, for her support in giving me a great chance to teach with her in the English department and for her support and encouragement.

I am grateful to Dr Hanan Aljohani and Dr Mona Aldossary from Prince Sattam University, who helped and supported me during my work.

I dedicate this work to my loving mother, Ibtisam, my dear husband, Raed, and my dear sons, Fahad, and Salman. I am also grateful to my uncle Abdulla, who was a great father figure. All my prayers go to my late father, Ibrahim, and brother, Abdulrahman. I hope they are proud of me. Many thanks to my sisters, Dr Alanoud and Sarah, who always supported me.

Albandary Alhammad

Abstract

This study assessed the effects of providing explicit pragmatic instruction on the development of spoken pragmatic competence as exhibited in the understanding and production of appropriate spoken pragmatic language choices. The intervention in the study was conducted in an English as a foreign language (EFL) context with students studying/using English for academic purposes in a non-English environment (Saudi Arabia). Specifically, the study focused on the understanding and production of specific appropriate pragmatic language choices; i) conversational implicatures, ii) politeness strategies, iii) direct/indirect requests, along with iv) a number of appropriate formulaic expressions.

The data was collected from 70 Saudi female participants who were at B1(CFER) level learning English as a foreign language EFL in the English department at a Saudi university. The study employed an experimental design, comparing the results of an experimental group, which received ten hours of explicit interventional instruction, and a control group, whose members did not receive instruction. The instruction focused on appropriate language choices in using English language, in particular, the understanding and production of pragmatically appropriate language choices in common conversational contexts that they may encounter in their everyday academic life. This included a focus on the understanding of conversational implicatures, including how to understand cooperative principles and their maxims; politeness strategies, including direct or indirect politeness, and the production of speech acts focusing on direct and indirect requests and explicitly introducing some common formulaic expressions.

Performance was measured based on a pre-, post-, and delayed tests designed using a Computer-Animated Production Task (CAPT). The data were collected using two methods: i) a production task to assess the production of appropriate pragmatic language

choices of direct and indirect requests and formulaic sequences, and ii) a recognition task to assess the appropriate understanding of conversational implicatures and politeness strategies. The effects of instruction were measured (i) immediately after instruction and (ii) four weeks after instruction to examine the immediate influence and changes over time. The results showed that explicit instruction facilitated the development of pragmatically appropriate language choices in the experimental group, which performed significantly better than the control group in both the post- and the delayed tests. The study demonstrates that explicit instruction to develop pragmatic competence can be effective.

Table of Contents

List of Figures

List of Tables

List of Key Terms

ANOVA Analysis of variance

CALL Computer-assisted language learning

CAPT Computer-animated production task

CEFR Common Europe framework of reference for languages

DCT Discourse completion task

DGBVL Digital game-based vocabulary learning

DLL Digital language learning

EAP English for academic purposes

EFL English as a foreign language

ESL English as a second language

FS Formulaic sequence

FTA Face-threatening act

GTM Grammar-translation method

HE Higher education

ICT Information and communication technology

IELTS International English language testing system

ILP Interlanguage pragmatics

ISLA Instructed second language acquisition

L1 First language

L2 Second language

MDCT Multiple-choice discourse completion task

MMR Mixed methods research

NNS Non-native speaker(s)

NS Native speaker(s)

ODCT Oral discourse completion task

PLS Pre-school language scales

SLA Second language acquisition

SPSS Statistical package for the social sciences

WDCT Written discourse completion task

Chapter One: **Introduction to the Thesis**

1.1. Chapter introduction

This introductory chapter aims to give an overview of the thesis by introducing the main research areas. In this chapter, I first present the motivation in 1.2, research problem in 1.3, the aim of the study in 1.4, the research question and research goals in 1.5, and finally the contribution to knowledge in the field in 1.6.

1.2.The motivation for the current study

In my experience as a lecturer in Saudi Arabia, most of the teaching material in a non-English environment (hereafter EFL) tends to have a lexico-grammatical focus, looking at grammar, vocabulary, direct meaning, and deal with serious topics such as environment. There is a tendency to ignore the socio-pragmatical contexts; how in real-life contexts the speaker needs to talk about casual matters or ask about specific things they care about. In real-life situations, some of the utterances used by native speakers are incomplete or implicit, and yet the participants in a conversation manage to understand the interaction despite this. It is believed that all languages depend on the context in which they are used (Cheng, Warren, and Xun-Feng, 2003). This could explain how native speakers understood what is going on in a conversation.

I became interested in developing the pragmatic competence of non-native speakers after taking a job as a teaching assistant (TA) at a Saudi university in 2011. I noticed that my students in the English department failed to understand indirect language, and I assumed this was due to their lack of proper English proficiency. However, I learned later that all the students in the English department were required to pass an English proficiency test with a minimum B1 CFER, which is defined as the following:

Can understand straightforward factual information about common every day or job-related topics, identifying both general messages and specific details, provided speech is clearly articulated in a generally familiar accent. Can understand the main points of clear standard speech on familiar matters regularly encountered in work, school, leisure etc., including short narratives (Council of Europe 2018, p.55).

I, therefore, wondered why my students failed to understand a simple joke, an indirect request, or even exaggerations in some contexts. It was clear to me that the students in the English department could not appropriately understand or make pragmatic use of language. Conversely, making culturally appropriate choices when interacting with various people may result in more positive experiences, increased motivation, and desirable outcomes for students (Siegel, 2016). I also noticed that most of the materials taught in the early levels of the English department had a lexico-grammatical focus, and the students used a GTM (grammar translation method) in studying the materials in their subjects rather than a sociocultural interest (see section 1.3). This might explain why students were getting relatively high marks in written exams but failing to format simple spoken questions. As a result, I started to be interested in developing the second language pragmatics and pragmatic competence of non-native speakers studying English in a non-English EFL environment.

Day-to-day communication is not merely an expression of thoughts and ideas, and it goes beyond this to reflect the intended meaning of linguistic choices. Thus, when there is a difference between the literal and intended meaning of a message, the responsibility is on the hearers to infer the intended meaning. A set of principles comes into play in this inferring of meaning: the hearer might think about the underlying meaning of the sentence by analysing the context and his or her relationship to the speaker. Therefore, in this

study, I am interested in developing appropriate spoken pragmatic language choices for Saudi learners because, in my opinion, some Saudi EFL classes do not give attention to delivering appropriate language choices, instead focusing on grammar, translation, and direct language. While these skills are important, it is also important to provide explicit instruction to raise non-native speakers' awareness of pragmatic competence by teaching them how to produce and understand appropriate spoken pragmatic choices. Appropriate pragmatic language choices are interpreted in this study as choices showing *awareness* of conversational implicatures, maxims and cooperative principles, politeness strategies, and the *production* of speech acts of requests and some awareness of some formulaic sequences. These are discussed in more detail in Chapter Two and Three.

EFL learners in Saudi Arabia need to be aware of appropriate pragmatic language choices for various reasons, of which the most important is to gain employment. According to Al-Seghayer (2012), Saudi students need to learn English to find jobs, acquire knowledge, understand others' cultures, study abroad, and travel worldwide. He argues that learning English is necessary as it is regarded globally as the primary language in the fields of science and business. As a result, applicants are often required to have a strong command of the English language to be considered for a suitable job in Saudi Arabia. Also, one of the sustainable development goals in Saudi Arabia is to enhance the quality of education. Because it is the language used in teaching most of the subjects in Saudi universities, English has become a major component of the educational system in Saudi Arabia. Alshahrani and Al-Shehri (2012) state that English is the language of communication in many professions, such as medicine, the petroleum sector, and aviation.

Consequently, most Saudi universities use English as the main language for teaching subjects such as science, medicine, engineering, health, and other technical subjects. So,

in order to learn other subjects, Saudi learners need to master English (Al-Tamimi, 2019). Hence, in this research, I have tried to test a method to improve the English learning experience for non-native speakers trying to learn English in a non-English environment, usually described as EFL, keeping in mind that enhancing appropriate understanding and production of English might help EFL students to access education in the mentioned fields and thus achieve the fourth goal of the sustainable development goals. The third reason is related to the 2030 vision of Saudi Arabia, in which tourism is encouraged (Saudi Vision 2030, n.b.). The Vision of 2030 encourages tourism to contribute to Saudi Arabia's economy by unlocking new sectors and opening up the Kingdom to the world, which creates new economic and educational opportunities for young people in Saudi Arabia to help them realise their full potential. English is an international language for communication, so fluency in English should be promoted to achieve this vision. McKay (2003) notes that English is an international language and the second or third language for many speakers worldwide. Thus, my main focus in this study is to see how effective explicit instruction is in developing appropriate spoken pragmatic language choices in female Saudi EFL students, to help the learners find jobs, learn other subjects that are mainly taught in English, and contribute to the 2030 vision.

1.3. Problems of EFL teaching in Saudi Arabia

The main problems in teaching English to Saudi EFL students can be summarised into four main aspects: i) the dominance of Arabic outside of classrooms; ii) the English curriculum in textbooks is about Saudi culture; iii) the prevalence of rote learning; and iv) the traditional Grammar Translation Method GTM of teaching (Elyas & Picard, 2010). These four problems can combine to hinder the development of pragmatic competence in EFL Saudi learners.

To explain these problems in detail, I am starting with the first issue in EFL Saudi learners: limited exposure to English inside and outside the EFL classroom (Alrabai, 2018 & Ashraf, 2018). Due to the dominant Arabic language, Alharbi (2015) says that most Saudi EFL learners lack access to authentic English learning materials to enhance their communicative skills outside of the classroom due to the dominant Arabic/first language. Khan (2011) believes that teaching English in Saudi Arabia is regarded only as an academic subject because most Saudis interact using their native language, Arabic, with their family, peers, friends, and classmates, which creates few opportunities for students to speak English in daily language usage. Ashraf (2018) argued that teaching in Saudi Arabia differs from teaching in the United Kingdom or China. Saudi students belong to an age group in which they have an excess of interesting sources on social media, which plays a dominating role in distracting their attention from studying. Some may argue that students can use their English or learn it from the internet. However, in my opinion, the main problem with online exposure is that the internet users in Saudi Arabia can translate all the websites into Arabic, which limits their exposure to English. Therefore, it is the instructors' primary obligation to create a contemporary learning environment that successfully engages their students to be interested in learning an appropriate pragmatic language in the classrooms.

According to Alrabai (2018), another problem that faces Saudi EFL learners is the curriculum in the English language teaching textbooks, referred to as *English for Saudi Arabia,* which is provided by the Ministry of Education in Saudi Arabia and is the dominant curriculum in many EFL classrooms in Saudi Arabia (e.g., Batra & Nawani 2010). This curriculum includes three materials: a textbook, a workbook for students, and a teaching manual for the teacher; it is specifically designed to reflect the views, traditions, values, and practices of the Saudi Arabian community and is comparable at

each grade level throughout the country. However, it can be problematic: Al-Seghayer (2014) believes that the fact that this curriculum is imposed on all Saudi EFL learners at public institutions can deter students from the natural use of English in real-life situations because of the design of the lessons, which seem to be more a reflection of the designers' perceptions and intuitions rather than students' actual needs, goals, desires, and real-life concerns (AlSubahi,1991).

The third difficulty facing EFL Saudi learners arises from their early years of learning, which depends heavily on rote learning: repeating the information until the students memorise it. According to Alrashidi and Phan (2015), most learners in Saudi EFL classes use memorisation as their only strategy for learning, so they memorise everything they learn, including paragraphs, grammar rules, or vocabulary, without necessarily understanding their meanings or how to use these forms in other situations. This way of learning is encouraged among Saudi EFL learners by language testing at Saudi public schools and universities, which almost solely targets memory-based learning.

Furthermore, most Saudi EFL teaching follows Grammar Translation Method (GTM), which applies explicit instruction of L2 grammatical rules and then translates sentences from L2 to L1 (Elyas & Picard, 2010; Alkubaidi, 2014; Almutairi, 2008; Alrabai, 2014a; Fareh, 2010; Rajab, 2013; Alrabai, 2018, etc.). Many Saudi EFL learners have developed inadequate learning techniques because of their extended exposure to the GTM and other inefficient teaching methods, such as rote learning (Alkubaidi, 2014; Almutairi, 2008; Alrabai, 2014a; Alrabai, 2018). Alshammari (2011) studied the effects of using Arabic in teaching English in EFL Saudi classrooms. The results were as follows: 60% of EFL Saudi teachers said that using Arabic is vital to shortening the time required for instruction. Nearly 69% of these instructors said that they used Arabic to clarify complex ideas or explain new grammatical issues to their students in English language lessons.

Alhawsawi (2013) and Rabab'ah (2005) explain that the reason for using Arabic in Saudi EFL classrooms is either the teachers' lack of English proficiency and confidence or their wish to simplify their work.

Previous studies have established the positive role of explicit pragmatic instruction in addressing these problems and directing learners' attention to the target forms in developing their pragmatic competence (Rajabia & Azizifara, 2015; Sykes & Cohen, 2018), while other studies have shown that developing certain pragmatic aspects is not automatic (Alcón, 2005; Gholmia & Aghaib, 2012). In this study, I tried to come up with and test an explicit instruction method to improve the pragmatic competence of Saudi English speakers by making them more aware of the appropriate ways of using pragmatic language in EFL setting.

1.4.The aims of the study

This research aims to observe the effects of providing explicit instruction in developing appropriate spoken pragmatic language choices for Saudi B1 female students in an EFL non-English environment. As will be further discussed in Chapter Two and Three, pragmatic competence is defined here as communicating while using the target language in socially appropriate ways (Bachman, 1990; Thomas, 1983). Also, for this study on using language appropriately, "appropriateness" is defined as "the knowledge of the conventions of communication in a society, as well as linguistic abilities that enable learners to communicate successfully in L2." (Taguchi, 2006, p.513).

There are four main aims of the study. The first is to expand the existing research by examining the effects of explicit instruction on understanding and producing appropriate spoken pragmatic language choices. One of the essential goals is to test the effects of explicit instruction on the learning experiences of non-native speakers in the early stages

of learning English in EFL. It was noted that non-native students learn indirect language, e.g., conversational implicatures, slowly if they have not been explicitly taught how to observe these conversational implicatures (Bouton, 1994). Raising the students' awareness of the appropriate language choices might improve their learning experience in the early stages of learning in a non-English environment. Therefore, L2 instructors are encouraged to develop pragmatic competence in their courses in order to improve L2 learners' pragmatic competence besides enhancing their students' understanding of grammar, vocabulary as well as writing, reading, listening and speaking.

The reason for choosing conversational implicatures, politeness strategies, and requests while teaching some formulaic sequences as the main appropriate spoken pragmatic choices in this research is to improve non-native speakers' abilities in selecting appropriate communicative forms of L2. These concepts include many aspects that can improve the pragmatic competence of non-native speakers. Understanding conversational implicatures, for instance, requires thinking about the literal and non-literal meaning of the utterance while considering the relationship between the participants in a certain conversation as well as the context, the role, and the power of the interlocutors, which incorporates thinking about the appropriate politeness strategy, which leads to choosing one of the speech acts. It also includes direct, conventionally indirect (using a positive politeness strategy), non-conventionally indirect (hinting), internal and external modification devices. Also, knowing when and how to use formulaic expressions and how to use them correctly in different situations can help learners understand the meaning behind them and give them ready-to-use sentences that help them respond to certain situations in the right way, as I will cover in Chapter Two and Three.

A second aim of the study is to employ technology in collecting the data in teaching and testing, using a virtual role-play as data-collection tool that has not been used in EFL

Saudi classrooms, which is Computer Animated Production Task (CAPT), that was introduced by Halenko (2013). I used computer animation characters to evaluate and enhance second language learners' perception and production of appropriate spoken pragmatic language forms. It is a way to bring semi-authentic contexts (materials that were created based on original language materials but adapted to fit curricular needs) to the classrooms. Thus, the goal of the study is to fill a gap in research by using technology to teach and test the right pragmatic choices in language.

Another aim of the study is to fill the gap in the previous studies in the Saudi context, where they reported a lack of using a control group, so the students' results were compared to native speakers. What is interesting in this study is that I included a control group to compare having instruction versus exposure which is rarely applied in this contest. I evaluated the appropriate answers by hiring two native English speakers to achieve the study's goal. The final aim of the study is to set a delayed test in order to measure the long-term effects of explicit instruction for a short intervention period (ten hours). I will further discuss these aims in section 1.6 and 3.9.

In searching these four aims, I can fill the previous EFL Saudi studies gap by introducing the current study. In the next section, I will offer the research questions.

1.5. Research questions and goals

The present study was carried out to fill the gap in the previous studies, which did not research the effect of providing explicit instruction to comprehend and produce the appropriate spoken pragmatic language choices to develop pragmatic competence, specifically concerning Arab female Saudi speakers studying in Saudi Arabia (a non-English environment) at B1 level. This research also aimed to use technology to improve the spoken production and understanding of non-native students in non-native English-

speaking countries. I also included a control group and set a delayed test to see the effects of explicit instruction against exposure over time. The following research questions (RQ) were therefore formulated:

1. How effective is explicit instruction in developing the *production* of appropriate spoken pragmatic language choices in Saudi English female learners at a Saudi higher education institution in the short- and long-term? (RQ1)

2. How effective is explicit instruction in developing the *recognition* of appropriate spoken pragmatic language choices in Saudi English female learners at a Saudi higher education institution in the short- and long-term? (RQ2)

The specific research goals (RG) were the following:

- To investigate the effectiveness of a ten-hour explicit instructional period for developing pragmatic competence in *producing* appropriate pragmatic language choices amongst Saudi female English learners at a Saudi university in the short- and long-term (RG1).

- To investigate the effectiveness of a ten-hour explicit instructional period for developing pragmatic competence in *recognising* appropriate pragmatic language choices amongst Saudi female English learners at a Saudi university in the short-and long-term (RG2).

Two groups of non-native speakers of EFL (CEFR B1) were divided into experimental and control groups and were compared at three different stages; before giving the experimental group explicit instruction on how to be aware of appropriate pragmatic language choices to develop their pragmatic competence (a pre-test), then immediately after giving the experimental group the instruction (a post-test), and after a month of

providing the instruction (delayed test). The experimental group participants were trained before taking the post-test, while the other group remind free of any intervention, so they acted as the control group. An oral Computer-Animated Production Task CAPT was used teaching and testing, and then a quantitative and qualitative analysis of the results was applied. This methodology is discussed in more detail in Chapter Five and Six.

1.6.Original contribution

This study's original contribution is that it contains a unique combination of the understanding of conversational implicatures by designing a recognition task along with designing a production task to produce direct, conventionally indirect, non-conventionally indirect, internal, and external modification devices for requests and formulaic sequences focused on high/low size of impositions by introducing EFL students to the mentioned strategies along with politeness strategies. I designed this study to fill the gap in most available studies, which only focus on testing and analysing L2 learners' knowledge of speech acts, such as in requests and suggestions structures. However, pragmatic competence develops beyond these structures and includes more significant issues such as conversational implicatures and politeness strategies.

Furthermore, from a methodological perspective, previous studies in the Saudi context suffer from some commonly reported limitations, such as a lack of a control group and delayed post-test evaluation (see section 3.8). In order to mitigate these disadvantages and increase the range of research in the field of pragmatics, this study aimed to investigate the effects of explicit instruction on the comprehension and production of appropriate pragmatic language choices among a sample of CEFR B1 level Saudi female EFL learners using two groups and three different times. Additionally, most of the previous studies in the same context were interested in B2 level students, while this study aimed to investigate the appropriacy of learners with lower proficiency in foreign

language setting at B1 proficiency level. In the same line, most of the EFL Saudi studies compared the students' progress to other native speakers. However, this study compares the students' progress to the exposure and evaluates the students' progress using native-speaker raters. Finally, and most importantly, to my knowledge, no other study in the Saudi EFL context used a virtual Role-Play instrument; CAPT as a tool for collecting the data. This study will be the first to use this virtual tool in the Saudi context to teach and test the participants.

1.7. Outline of the thesis

This introductory chapter is followed by theoretical background of the study (Chapter Two). Then Chapter Three offers a literature review covers the main concepts of the current study. (Chapter Four) describes a test of the methodology in a pilot study, followed by a full explanation of the research methodology in Chapter Five. Chapter Six discusses the quantitative data and qualitative data and reviews the results of the production and recognition tasks. In Chapter Seven, I present the discussion to answer the research questions. Finally, Chapter Eight discusses the original contribution of the research, the recommendations and limitations, and suggestions for future adaptations.

Chapter Two: **Theoretical background to language learning**

2.1.   Outline of the chapter

This chapter provides the principles and concepts primarily connected to pragmatic-focused language that support the current thesis. Section 2.2 provides some theoretical background on language learning. Section 2.3 focuses on pragmatics and SLA to enable a better understanding of the current study.

2.2.   Theoretical background to language learning

In this section, I start by giving an overview of communicative competence. Hymes (1972) was the first sociolinguist to present the theory of communicative competence in first language (L1) acquisition in an essay where he argued for a linguistic theory which could focus on "the capacities of persons, the organisation of verbal means for socially defined purposes, and the sensitivity of rules to situations" (p. 292). According to Hymes, communicative competence includes the communicative ability demonstrated by language users when combining their linguistic knowledge, such as syntax, semantics, and phonology, with their social awareness of the appropriate ways of using certain utterances in certain situations. For example, when your friend closes the window in response to your statement, "It's a cold day," or when s/he replies, "There's a shop on the corner," when you say, "We're out of coffee!"

The term "communicative competence" was coined by Hymes to challenge Chomsky's (1965) view, which separated linguistic competence and performance. Hymes, who was interested in first language acquisition, stated that it is impossible to separate competence from performance, as Chomsky suggested, and asserted that linguistic competence should be recognised as a part of communicative competence, which is a combination of competence and performance. That is mainly because the use of language is impossible

without knowing the forms (grammatical knowledge), as well as how and when they are used (social knowledge), so that learners develop the underlying system of the language, i.e., linguistic competence, along with other elements of language required for successful communication, i.e., communicative competence as referred to by Hymes (1972).

Ellis (1991) linked Hymes's example of L1 acquisition to second language (L2) acquisition by arguing that learners of L2 must merge the knowledge of grammatical rules in the target language with what is suitable to use in their real-life conversations. Thus, it is not enough for L2 learners to learn only grammatical rules; rather, to gain communicative competence, L2 learners must be able to combine their linguistic knowledge with what is appropriate to use in a particular situation. So, the argument here is that in order for language users to show their communicative competence, they should link their declarative knowledge (the knowledge about the language) to their procedural knowledge (the ability to use it). The distinction between declarative and procedural is discussed further in a later section 3.4.

Along the same lines, Canale and Swain (1980), Canale (1983), Bachman (1990), and Bachman and Palmer (1996) tried to illustrate the primary elements of communicative competence in second language acquisition (SLA). Canale and Swain (1980) focused on the ability of L2 users to develop communicative competence rather than focusing merely on L1 acquisition; Hymes did not pay much attention to L2 acquisition. Canale and Swain's model was also the first to explain specific parts of the idea of communicative competence and try to figure out what those parts were.

According to Canale and Swain (1980), the term "grammatical competence" as defined by Hymes was not clear enough and needed more explanation in relation to L2 language users, but their view of communicative competence is similar to Hymes. They practically

viewed communicative competence as "the interaction between grammatical competence: knowledge of the rules of grammar; and sociolinguistic competence: knowledge of the rules of language use" (1980:6). Figure 2.1 is an illustration of communicative competence according to Canale and Swain (1980):

Figure 2.1: Communicative competence theory, according to Canale and Swain (1980)

Communicative competence

Grammatical competence | Sociolinguistic competence | strategic competence

phonology | syntax | morphology | semantic | lexis | discourse | cross-cultural rules | verbal and non-verbal strategies | grammatical competence | sociolinguistic competence
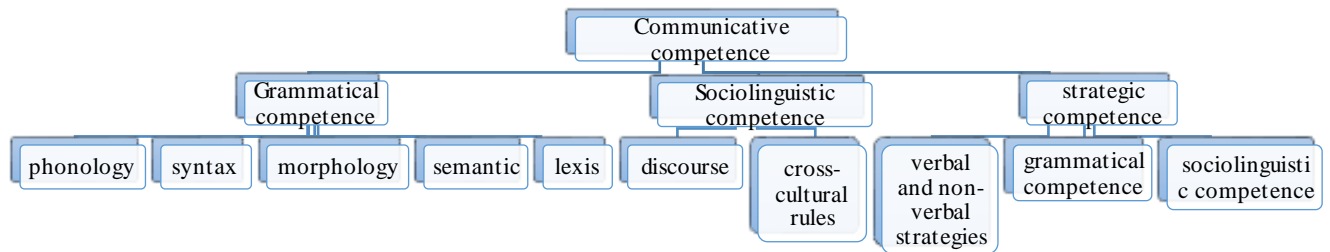
However, Canale (1983) tried to define communicative competence as the underlying systems of knowledge and skills needed for communication, or, as he described it, the knowledge that can be performed or can be employed in actual contact. Hence, Canale shifted from Chomsky's knowledge-oriented approach to a more skill-oriented system. According to Canale, if the learners had 'knowledge', they should be able to apply it in authentic situations (Canale, 1983). In other words, for new learners to be successful users of a second language, they should merge their knowledge with the application of this knowledge in authentic situations. Figure 2.2 shows a representation of communicative competence according to Canale (1983):

Figure 2.2: Communicative competence according to Canale (1983)
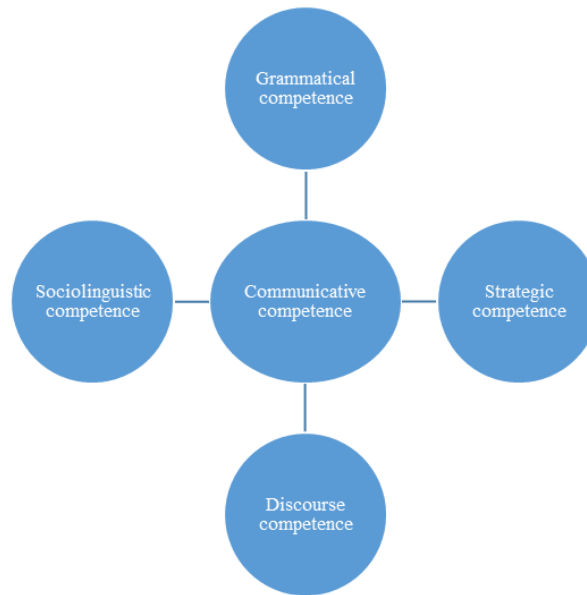
Despite this development of frameworks and theories of communicative competence, scholars such as Canale and Swain (1980) and Canale (1983) did not present pragmatic competence explicitly but included appropriacy in sociolinguistic competence. Bachman and Palmer (1982) and then Bachman (1990) were the first authors to talk about pragmatic competence in a clear way.

Bachman (1990) also presented a theory of language ability. He noted that knowledge is divided into two components: organisational knowledge and pragmatical knowledge. These two components are complementary to each other in achieving communicatively effective language use. See figure 2.3 below:

Figure 2.3: Bachman's (1990, p. 87) components of language ability
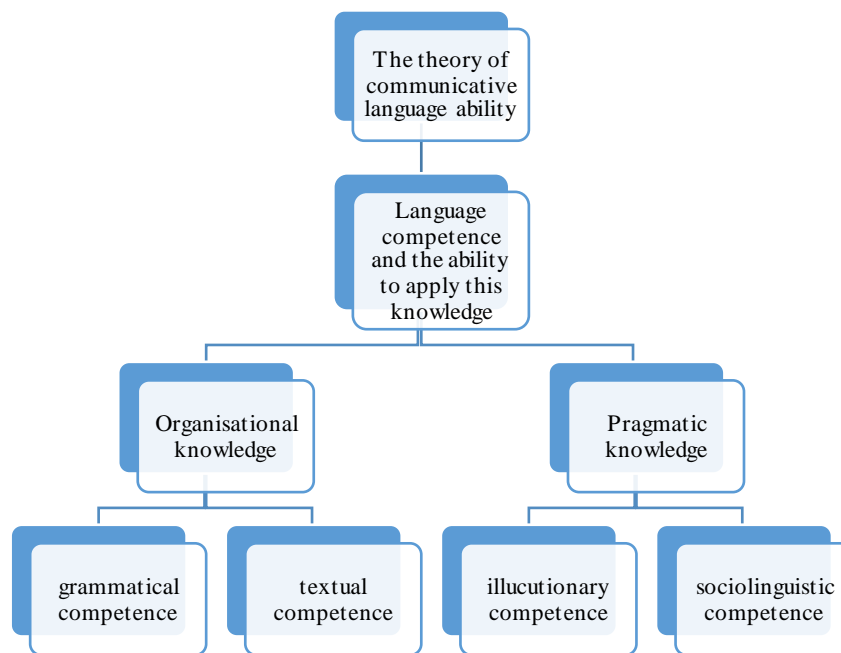
In Bachman and Palmer's (1982) model, organisational knowledge includes abilities related to control over formal language structures, such as grammatical and textual knowledge. On the other hand, pragmatic knowledge reveals the ability to produce and interpret discourse. It contains two areas of knowledge. The first is the knowledge of pragmatic conventions for representing adequate language functions and understanding the illocutionary power of utterances or discourse (functional/illocutionary knowledge). Hence, Bachman (1990) defined sociolinguistic competence as the conventions for creating and interpreting language utterances appropriate in a context of language use with interlocutors to express certain language functions or personal wants and needs.

Respecting the theories presented above, I will adopt Jones's et al.'s (2018) definition of communicative competence, which defines it as follows:

"1. Linguistic competence is the ability to practice language efficiently. The language in this context includes lexis, grammar, lexico-grammar, and phonology.

2. Strategic competence refers to the capacity to correct mistakes while interacting and how to obtain appropriate reactions (verbal and non-verbal) in conversations.

3. Discourse competence refers to building and connecting language over lengthened conversational shifts.

4. Pragmatic competence is concerned with appropriately applying language in sociolinguistic contexts" (Jones et al., 2018, pp. 14–15)."

The concept of communicative competence influenced the view of second language learning, which caused a shift from focusing on merely the acquisition of grammatical forms to the knowledge of the use of forms in social contexts. As mentioned above, communicative competence combines forms with an understanding of "social" rules for using these forms. It is an appropriate companion to declarative knowledge (what you know about the language) and procedural knowledge (how you use your language in real-life situations) (see section 3.4.). Applied to the context of the non-native learner of English in a non-English environment, it also shows the capacity to connect what is received in a classroom with the real-life context. Thus, by taking Hymes' understanding of a competent language user and applying it to L2, we can say that a competent language user can appropriately apply the language in real-life situations. For example, when asked, "Has the guest arrived?" a competent language user may reply, "I see a car in the driveway."

Many researchers have pointed out that knowledge of a foreign language is essential, but what matters is its application in real life (Lewis, 2012). This implies that knowing how to use the second language in real-life situations is more

important than just knowing the rules of this language. It is believed that a lack of knowledge of appropriate applications can explain why some learners with a high degree of expertise in a specific field may not be successful users of their knowledge in an authentic situation and vice versa. For instance, in my workplace, I met an Arab lecturer in the physics department who had a PhD in her field from the United States of America. However, she failed to communicate in English with an English friend during a casual meeting, and she was unable to reply to simple questions in English, about her children and talk about her favourite restaurants. Kecskes (2000) argues that language learners of "high grammatical proficiency will not necessarily show concomitant pragmatic skills" (p. 145), and Thomas (1983) said that "although grammatical errors may reveal a learner to be a less than proficient language user, pragmatic mistakes reflect badly on him or her as a person" (p. 97).

Pragmatic competence is one of the many abilities that fall under the umbrella of communicative competence, and this term is frequently used in the field of second and foreign language acquisition and teaching. The notion of pragmatic competence was early defined by Chomsky (1980) as the "knowledge of conditions and manner of appropriate use (of the language), in conformity with various purposes" (p.224). Grammatical competence, in Chomskyan terms, "the knowledge of form and meaning," was seen as a counterpoint to this concept. Canale and Swain (1980) incorporated pragmatic competence into their model of communicative competence in a more contextualised manner. Pragmatism and sociolinguistic competence were identified in this model and defined as the ability to use appropriate language in a given context (Canale & Swain, 1980; Canale, 1983). It was later clarified by Canale (1988) to include "illocutionary

competence, or the ability to perform acceptable language functions in a given context, and sociolinguistic competence, or knowledge of the sociolinguistic conventions necessary to perform language functions appropriately in a given context" (p.90).

In Bachman's (1990) model of language competence, the pragmatic competence component is the main interest, incorporating the ability to use the language to express a wide range of functions and interpret their illocutionary force according to discourse context. Rose (1999) proposes a practical definition of pragmatic competence, which has been widely accepted by researchers in interlanguage pragmatic ILP (see 2.3.2). His definition of the term "pragmalinguistics" is "the study of how to make effective use of available linguistic resources within the context of a given social group, strategies like directness and indirectness, routines, and a wide range of linguistic forms that can intensify or soften communicative acts" are all part of pragmalinguistics" (p.1). On the other hand, sociopragmatics refers to the social perceptions of communicative actions. Kasper and Rose (2002) claim that pragmalinguistic knowledge is based on the shaping of form and meaning as well as force and context, which may be obligatory whether routines are used or not. To be aware of pragmalinguistics, one must have three qualities: 1) the ability to use language for different purposes; 2) an understanding of the rules by which utterances come together to create discourse; and 3) command of the rules by which utterances can get past the language and understand the speaker's real intentions.

Despite the positive role of developing pragmatic competence in EFL classrooms found in many studies (e.g., Halenko, 2017), raising the awareness of pragmatically appropriate language choices is rarely discussed in the Saudi EFL

context. Studies have suggested that developing pragmatic competence is difficult and needs specific attention to certain aspects (Cohen, 2008). Taguchi (2019) tried to explain why developing pragmatic competency in L2 pragmatics might be challenging for non-native speakers. One of the reasons is that developing pragmatic competence is a long-term process affected by L1 pragmatics, L2 proficiency level, the understanding of the social practices, the norms, the context of language and experience in the target community. Adult learners face many challenges in trying to develop their pragmatic competence. One of these is that they already have pragmatic competence in their first language, so they have some basis of it, but may not be able to judge if their L1 pragmatic competence can be applied appropriately in their L2. Bialystok (1993) claimed that L2 learners must expand their new understanding of the forms above their pre-existing pragmatic illustrations while re-learning new relationships between linguistic forms and social contexts.

In L1, we develop pragmatic competence, or knowledge about how to use our native language appropriately over time. It is not normally something we are conscious of. However, sometimes the underlying meanings are different depending on the culture and the norm in the L1 context, which creates inappropriate use of the forms in L2. Kecskes (2015) says that pragmatic competence in L1 performs corrections, improvements, and supplements to L2 pragmatic skills. Pragmatic competence is developed in the first language through language socialisation, so language is developed alongside social progress in the first language. Thus, it is challenging to change pre-existing sociopragmatic standards and conventions related to appropriateness in L1 that have been developed over a long time. So, more exposure to a new language and culture is

not enough to improve pragmatic competence in L2, because developing pragmatic competence requires a long time and much attention. Acquiring the norms and culture of L2 requires conscious actions by the language learner to receive and develop them.

The second difficulty that L2 learners encounter in developing pragmatic competence is the sociocultural nature of pragmatics. Wolfson (1989) states that non-native speakers who are trying to develop their pragmatic competence cannot judge some situations because they are unable to observe the degree of familiarity, formality, or relationship between the participants by just looking at a specific conversation. According to Kecskes (2015), as mentioned above, pragmatic competence is developed in the first language through language socialisation, so language and social progress in the first language develop simultaneously. The case is different when trying to develop a second language. Pragmatic abilities in the second language are adjustments, corrections, and supplements to the already existing first language pragmatic competence. Learners require various linguistic sources and the knowledge of how to assess utterance meaning in L2. They also need to choose relevant sources and apply them efficiently in authentic communication in order to have pragmatic competence (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001; Kasper & Rose, 2002; Thomas, 2014).

A number of second language studies have investigated the ability to understand speakers' intentions in producing specific sentences without expressing the intended meaning explicitly (Bouton, 1999; Bouton, 1992, 1994; Carrell, 1984; Cook & Liddicoat, 2002; Garcia, 2004; Kasper, 1984; Schmidt, 1993; Taguchi, 2003, 2005, 2007, 2008, 2015; Taguchi, Li, & Liu, 2013; Taguchi & Yamaguchi, 2019). These researchers concluded that learners need to depend on the levels of

hidden indirectness in the statements and their general knowledge of the target language L2 to understand implied meanings successfully, which shows the important role of explicit instruction in developing the awareness of pragmatic competence.

Despite the positive role of intervention in solving the proposed problem, it is not easy to decide what to teach (see 3.6). The researchers should select the appropriate L2 norm in the second language setting within various social classes, genders, and ages (Kasper, 2000). Second, as highlighted above, research has shown that developing pragmatic knowledge is a long process, specifically without instruction. It is believed that L2 speakers can achieve their communicative goals without using complex or accurate language (e.g., Kuiken, Vedder & Gilabert, 2010; Revesz, Ekiert & Torgersen, 2014).

For the reasons above, this thesis adopts a standpoint of testing how effective it is providing explicit instruction on developing the appropriate understanding and production of conversational implicatures, direct and indirect request speech acts, along with using and understanding politeness strategies, in addition to focusing on specific formulaic sequences. In the next section, I talk about pragmatics and language learning and teaching.

2.3. Introduction to pragmatics and language learning and teaching

For many EFL students, the ability to speak naturally and appropriately with others in a variety of contexts is a vital goal (Siegel, 2016). Since speaking is associated with interpersonal interaction and the use of language to accomplish goals (e.g., ordering food, making friends, and requesting favours), it is critical in developing the pragmatic competence of L2 students to improve their appropriate pragmatic language choices

(Culpeper & Kytö, 2000). EFL learners should be aware of the different linguistic and strategic options accessible to them in a variety of situations. Pragmatic competence reflects the ability to use complex forms of language, appropriate for the language users and context of utterance (Taguchi, 2015).

Appropriate pragmatic language choices are necessary based on the nature of the speakers' relationship, including the length of connection. Additionally, the expectations and desired outcomes of a conversation may influence the linguistic and strategic choices made regarding what to say. When using L2, pragmatic competency is realised by one's ability to account for and adapt to a variety of expected situations. So, according to Taguchi (2015), pragmatic competence emphasises speaker-hearer interaction in a sociocultural framework, suggesting that pragmatic competence corresponds to one's knowledge of linguistics, norms, and social conventions, as well as the capacity to apply this knowledge based on "socially-bound" interactions (p.1). Hence, having grammatical knowledge alone is not enough to be a competent language user: L2 learners also need the acquisition of functional and sociolinguistic control of language. For example, when asking someone for help, learners need adequate procedural knowledge of how to enact the request by considering its acceptability in light of the overall social context, the specific situation, the kind of help they need, and the person from whom they are asking for help (see sections 3.2 and 3.3). The importance of social aspects of interaction is echoed by many researchers, who argue that successful communication in L2 requires developed pragmatic competence (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001; Kasper & Rose, 2003; Rose, 2005; Ren, 2018; Alsuhaibani, 2022). The next sections explain pragmatic competence (2.3.1.), second language pragmatics and ILP (2.3.2.), the cultural impact on learners (2.3.3.).

2.3.1. Pragmatic competence

Developing pragmatic competence is an essential aspect of communicative proficiency and is now considered an important area in second language acquisition, including the knowledge of pragmatic meaning (Fernández Guerra & Martínez Flor, 2003). In order to show the development of pragmatic awareness, learners are required to understand the meaning on two levels: the utterance's literal meaning and the speakers' purpose behind uttering the words (Thomas, 1995). From a pragmatic viewpoint, the hearer should understand what the speaker planned to achieve by uttering a sentence in order to understand the speaker's intended meaning successfully, and whether the speaker delivers the meaning explicitly or implicitly.

Speakers perform various communicative decisions, both verbal (linguistic content) and non-verbal (paralinguistic cues such as gestures), which they perform for strategic purposes. The speaker's choices may not always be clear to the hearer precisely because the meaning is not always explicit. Therefore, it is an essential part of a hearer's pragmatic competence to understand the speaker's purpose in different implicit and explicit forms and to make correct assumptions about a speaker's communicative intention, which is the intended meaning of the utterance (Taguchi, 2005). An everyday example of this is the interrogative greeting, "How are you today?" In a context where the speaker and hearer are strangers, such as at a store's payment counter, this question is not intended to elicit a detailed account of how the hearer has actually been feeling. Knowing this and replying appropriately with a nod or a brief non-committal response requires pragmatic competence on the part of the hearer.

Thus, pragmatic competence covers both pragmalinguistic competence, which explicitly refer to the linguistic knowledge of forms and speaking procedures for proper language usage, and sociopragmatic competence, which refers to understanding the social

requirements dictating language use (Rose, 1999). Leech (1983) differentiates between sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic knowledge. Sociopragmatic knowledge includes knowledge of the social rules of language use, such as appropriateness, the meaning of situational and interlocutor factors, and social conventions and taboos. Pragmalinguistic knowledge encompasses the linguistic tools required to implement speech intentions and relies heavily on general knowledge of the target language. According to Roever (2009), both aspects of pragmatic knowledge must be developed and accurately matched to one another. If a language user has the sociopragmatic knowledge to recognise that a polite request is required in a given situation but lacks the pragmalinguistic knowledge of modals, interrogatives, and conventionalised formulae to utter it, pragmatic failure is likely to occur. Conversely, if a language user has a command of pragmalinguistic tools but is unaware of sociopragmatic usage rules, she or he may produce well-formed sentences that are so non-conventional that they are inexplicable or have different consequences. Thus, in the process of developing pragmatic competence, learners need pragmatic knowledge, which includes a variety of characteristics involving linguistic knowledge, the ability to use the cooperative principles and their maxims, some knowledge of politeness strategies and speech acts, along with the rules of language use and sociocultural standards of communication, these characteristics will be examined further in this chapter.

Some elements in the development of pragmatic competence are connected to intentional learning. For example, learners are required to understand indirect statements in order to identify the vocabulary and grammar of the sentences along with the culturally specific usages, customs, and rules of pragmatic language use attached to the statements. In relation to how to respond to a compliment, for instance, the speaker needs to be aware of the cultural boundaries that are directly related to the specific setting (Shahsavari,

Alimohammadi, & Rasekh, 2014). For example, in Saudi culture, giving a compliment can be used as an introduction to criticism, while the usage might differ in other cultures.

As previously mentioned in 2.2, Bialystok (1990, 1993) argued that adult L2 learners already have developed pragmatic competence such as the ability to produce and understand speech acts and conversational implicatures in their native language, so in their L1 they identify their thoughts and understand an indirect meaning. However, the difficulty for adult non-native speakers is in determining how to form proper functions related to L2. So, they are required to learn new phrases and rules, as well as the social status and settings in which they occur. Therefore, developing pragmatic as well as linguistic competencies demands conscious learning. Using the earlier example of the interrogative greeting "How are you?" in British culture, asking this to a friend is considered a phatic expression, so the hearer should not provide any further details, while in French culture, it is a real question and it would be considered rude if the person only replied, "I am fine." For a non-native speaker, this difference might be challenging because it is assumed that French and British English carry the same underlying meanings (Paltridge, 2012).

On the other hand, other knowledge aside, linguistic, and pragmatic knowledge are easier to be carried over from L1. For example, Sperber and Wilson (1986) claim that the relevance assumption is essential in human communication, so it exists in both L1 and L2 processing (p. 697). In addition, when patterns and customs are shared between L1 and L2, if learners have adequate linguistic knowledge to understand the statements, meaning could be interpreted almost automatically. According to these arguments, accuracy in developing pragmatic competence is regarded as the underlying knowledge that is either recently learned in L2 or carried over from L1. Conversely, the rate of developing pragmatic competence is a feature of overall skill performance. It implies that

the knowledge of principles becomes procedural through comprehensive training and performance, and that learners have acquired adequate and rapid control over the knowledge (Bialystok, 1990; Cook & Liddicoat, 2002; Garcia, 2004; Holtgraves, 2007; Taguchi, 2003, 2007).

Nevertheless, it has been demonstrated that grammatical and pragmatic competence do not always coincide, it is unknown to what extent grammatical competence limits the learner's value of the input (Bardovi-Harlig, 1999; Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford, 1990; House, 1996; Olshtain & Blum-Kulka, 1985). Proficiency appears to have little effect on pragmatic competence and performance, as the strategies employed by intermediate and advanced learners were found to be similar (Kasper & Schmidt, 1996). Even though the subsequently published studies have not included low proficiency learners (Kasper, 1996; Kasper & Schmidt, 1996; Kasper & Rose, 1999; Rose & Kasper, 2001), Rose and Kasper (2001) speculate that beginner language learners may be unable to use certain strategies due to a lack of linguistic knowledge.

The development of pragmatics and grammar has been linked in two ways. One holds that L2 speakers cannot develop pragmatic competence without a command of the grammatical structures expected by native speakers, while the other hold is that learners can manage to be pragmatically appropriate without having command over grammar. It is a mistake to assume that adults who are learning a second language (L2) or a foreign language (FL) are unable to transfer their L1 pragmatic competence to their new language. L2 and EFL learners are able to distinguish between ordinary and institutionalised speech; recognise conversational implicature as well as politeness conventions; distinguish between speaking and writing as well as specific communicative acts; and identify major realisation strategies for communicative acts and routine formulae for managing recurrence. Kasper and Rose (2002) state that this ability to notice

sociopragmatic variability and make linguistic choices accordingly allows speakers to recognise the role of discourse in the construction of social identities and relationships through universal pragmatic competence. A grammatical competence is not required for pragmatic development, according to Bardovi-Harlig (1999, 2001), who shows advanced L2 learners using perfect target language (TL) grammar in a pragmatically non-target-like manner.

A grammatical structure or element can be demonstrated, but it is not used to express or modify illocutionary force by learners (Salsbury & Bardovi-Harlig, 2001; Takahashi, 1996). Learning to express pragmatic functions that are not conventional in the target language requires understanding and using grammar structures (Bodman & Eisentein, 1988; Takahashi & Beebe, 1993). Pragmalinguistic form-function mapping is put to non-target-like sociopragmatic use by learners who demonstrate knowledge of the grammatical structure and its pragmalinguistic functions (Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford, 1991; Scarcella, 1979; Kasper & Rose, 2002). Studies like Schmidt's (1993) study on pragmatic and interactional competence show that a restricted interlanguage grammar does not necessarily prevent language learners from developing pragmatic and interactional competence, especially when they are acculturated to the target language community.

Pragmatic competence involves using the language with flexibility and thus having better social conversations. The pragmatic competence of an L2 learner would also have some influence from L1, making it complex for learners to understand L2. The influence of L1 is reflected in using inappropriate forms of L2, and teachers use several techniques to overcome these pragmatic failures. In order to overcome the challenges resulting from the learners' undeveloped pragmatic competence, which leads to poor language delivery and the use of inappropriate forms in different situations, EFL classes should explicitly

raise the awareness of the appropriate use of conversational implicatures, speech acts, and politeness strategies in L2. The application of these techniques in EFL classes could effectively improve the usage of L2.

Al-Qahtani (2020) argues that there is a need to incorporate pragmatic competence training into daily classroom activities and focus on the L2 abilities of speaking, listening, reading, and writing. EFL students create their own L1 pragmatic perspective mostly through their parents, friends, and the social setting in which they live. They have already developed pragmatic competence in instructions, requests, apologising, and other sorts of speech actions when they approach their English lessons and interact with their English professors, but only within L1. The conflict arises when L2 pragmatic features are applied, causing uncertainty in terms of incorrect responses and inappropriate pragmatic failure in daily interactions.

Thus, raising the awareness of appropriate language choices to develop pragmatic competence is challenging because it involves three primary aspects to consider before designing the materials. The first one is Grice's maxims: quality, quantity, relation, and manner. Grice's cooperative principles and their maxim help individuals in deriving their conversations effectively (see 3.2.1.). The second way to improve appropriate language choices is through the understanding of politeness strategies because they involve interactions that save the speaker's face in a conversation. It can show how to use appropriate techniques in deciding the strategies, such as the size of imposition, power, and the interlocutor's role in a conversation. It links conversational implicatures and their indirect meanings with speech acts and shows when to use the direct forms appropriately and when to use them (see section 3.2.2.). The third important theory is speech acts. In learning how to apply speech acts, L2 learners can form appropriate pragmatic language (see section 3.2.3.). In this study, I was specifically interested in direct and indirect

requests, which I think are very important as most learners tend to be direct in using their L2 in all contexts (Al Masaeed, Waugh & Burns 2018).

The challenges in developing pragmatic competence are rarely discussed in the Saudi context. As such studies are conducted with a smaller number of students, results can often not be made as a conclusive decision to implement further in real-time studies. Moreover, developing pragmatic competence would differ from one language to another, and the necessary techniques used to improve pragmatic competence would not be strongly related. For example, this study is based on Saudi Arabian students who learn English as their L2, and the implications of the native language would have some interlanguage effect on their L2. So, in a study based on other language learners, especially when the experiments are subjected to a smaller number of participants, the students' appropriacy of pragmatic language choices could be raised in different ways depending on the needs of the students in a particular culture.

Hence, I decided to raise awareness of these pragmatic language choices that are needed to appropriately respond to the six scenarios in the production task and the other six in the recognition task. Moreover, understanding the linguistic competence, pragmatic competence, and sociopragmatic competence of a specific scenario helps learners to comprehend the same aspects in other scenarios. So, using limited scenarios while teaching to create awareness about linguistic and pragmatic competence becomes necessary. On apologising strategies, Al Masaeed, Waugh, and Burns (2018) used limited scenarios for L2 learners to improve their ability and use of their L2 language. Using limited scenarios would encourage the learners to learn to use the L2 effectively and could reduce the complexity and difficulties in learning the L2.

Having introduced pragmatic competence, in the next section I move to explain what I mean by second language pragmatics and interlanguage pragmatics.

2.3.2. Interlanguage pragmatics

In this study, I am trying to find the interlanguage gap in the students' language in order to explicitly provide instruction on what they need to develop. When we talk about pragmatic competence in L2, we have to talk about second language pragmatics, which is also known as interlanguage pragmatics (ILPs). Interlanguage pragmatics is a subfield of second language acquisition (SLA) that has been defined as the area of study which can conjoin two broader fields: a) second language acquisition and b) pragmatics (Taguchi (2019).

In my study, the concept of "interlanguage" is important to show the effects of the first language on the second language, which produce "a separate linguistic system." The American linguist Larry Selinker coined the term "interlanguage" (IL) in 1972 to refer to "a separate linguistic system" resulting from "the learner's attempted production of a target language norm". It is the linguistic system demonstrated when an adult second language learner seeks to communicate meanings in the language being studied. Interlanguage is considered a distinct linguistic system, distinct from both the learner's "native language" (NL) and the target language TL being acquired but connected to both the NL and TL through the learner's interlingual identifications (P. 210). I wrote the next example to show what I mean about interlanguage in this study. The example illustrates a conversation between a Saudi student and a British tutor:

> Saudi student: Thank you for explaining this to me.
>
> The tutor: Don't mention it!
>
> Saudi student: OK, I will not tell the other students!
>
> The tutor: No, I mean, it is my job!

From a linguistic perspective, I can say that the sentences in this example are correct. However, the misunderstanding comes from failing to understand the underlying meaning.

Selinker (1972) described the influence of interlanguage pragmatics on the language produced by the learners. He agreed first that the influence of the first language on the second language is acceptable sometimes because languages are transferable, especially the rules of conversation and politeness strategies. Second, learners usually overgeneralise the rules of the target language, so they might use one rule to apply to all the situations, such as saying please before ordering. Also, these learners convey their training exactly as they learnt it in the classroom, so they generalise all the aspects and rules they learn in their EFL classes. The final point is that learning a second language requires both tactics: the procedure of learning to recognise the strategies to master the materials in the second language and the methods of communication in order to be able to communicate with other native speakers of the target language.

Nowadays, research on SLA have paid greater attention to interlanguage pragmatics (ILPs), as L2 learners. Even those with high proficiency, frequently face difficulties in their communication due to their lack of pragmatic competence. Research demonstrates that L2 learners' pragmatic failures are perceived to be more undesirable than their linguistic errors by English native-speakers (Blum-Kulka, 1997). In fact, the history of ILP research in SLA dates to no earlier than the late 1970s (Kasper, 1992). Cai & Wang (2013) believe that studies have questioned the fact that research on interlanguage pragmatics has concentrated mostly on comparing the differences between L2 learners' production of speech acts and those of native speakers, with few studies focusing on the acquisition and development of ILPs (Bardovi-Harlig, 1996; Kasper, 1992; Kasper & Schmidt, 1996; Kasper & Rose, 2002; Daives & Tyler, 2005).

Therefore, in this study, I am reviewing some recent studies that show the interlanguage effect on the second language and how these studies can help in forming the scope of the current study in table 2.1.

Table 2.1: An overview of ILPs' studies

Research study	Outcomes
Caldero and Sun (2021)	A study on web chat and email conversations. The results showed that poor English pragmatic awareness and the transfer of polite requests from L1 to L2 may show the learners as impolite while using their L2.
Mohammad and Ahmed (2021)	The study concluded that the participants faced pragmatic failures where there was a need to show a negative face. They also failed to identify appropriate politeness strategies in the context of the cultural orientation of English.
Siddiqa and Whyte (2021)	The study examined the meta-pragmatic input of understanding ILPs at French secondary schools. The study found that the gap between academic research and implementing the same classroom pedagogy was challenging for the teachers.
Ashraf and Ali (2021)	In a study with Pakistani English as a Second Language (ESL) students, failure in pragmatics was linked to bad pragmatics instruction.
Shleykina (2021)	The study explored pragmatic failure analysis among EFL learners in the Russian context and discussed some pedagogical implications. The revisited study showed slightly fewer pragmatic failures than the original study. Both studies produced results that indicate further research is needed into implementing effective strategies for effective communication. One finding was that, while teaching pragmatics, teachers should focus more on the negotiation strategies than on the speech acts.
Bi (2021)	The study qualitatively analysed retrospective verbal reports (RVR) to study participants after task completion and found that learners deployed their cognitive and pragmatic strategies while conversing. The study concluded that the pragmatic strategies from their L1, which were based on their own culture, highly influenced their conversations and were able to assist in establishing conversational implicatures.
Araujo Portugal (2020)	The study discusses the importance of teaching implicatures and understanding their influence on learners when teaching L2. The discussion on the best way to achieve pragmatic competence and the materials that could be included to produce better outcomes for EFL learners could reveal some necessary insights for teachers of EFL.
Yuan and Zhang (2018) and Tagizadeh (2017)	They studied the development of pragmatic competence in longitudinal studies in the EFL context. These studies affirmed that pragmatic awareness could be developed explicitly.
Taguchi (2007)	The study investigated the development of understanding of indirect refusals and opinions among Japanese EFL learners. The results showed that the participants' understanding of indirect rejections was more reliable and faster than their understanding of indirect opinions.
Bouton (1992)	The learners' comprehension of the related implicatures became native-like after four and a half years. However, the understanding of the learners related to sequence implicatures, 'Pope question' implicatures such as showing agreement by saying "Is the Pope Catholic?" presented less development in L2 acquisition.

Bouton (1994)	The students' understanding was examined for 17 months. After this period of time, four kinds of implicatures remained challenging: indirect criticism; Pope questions; sequence implicatures; and irony.

From the above analysis of recent studies, I can conclude that L1 affects the progress of developing L2. So, in finding the interlanguage gap, I can choose form to focus on in my study. The results showed that there is a need to pay attention to the influence of interlanguage pragmatics, which made me investigate interlanguage in my study. In the next section, I investigate studies on the cultural impact of second language acquisition SLA.

2.3.3. Cultural impact on L2 learners

It is apparent that the principles at play in interpreting underlying meaning may not be the same in different cultures. Keenan (1976) noted that for this reason, communication in different cultures might pose social and situational barriers. This claim was supported by Bouton's (1988) cross-sectional study with speakers of different L1s in diverse cultures placed in the second language SL context of English. The study focused on participants' interpretation of conversational implicatures in English, wherein their language proficiency was similar. He discovered that the non-native speakers' interpretation of implicatures was different from that of the native speakers as well as from their peers who were from other cultural backgrounds. This led him to conclude that rather than language proficiency (which the participants shared), differences in interpretation of implicatures in SL were attributable to the varied cultural backgrounds. Further, it could be deduced that the differences in outputs could be the reason for difficulties in SLA, and pedagogical intervention was called for to enhance learners' comprehension of the pragmatic features of the target language.

Furthermore, non-native speakers have problems choosing the appropriate politeness strategy in the target language (see 3.2.2.). Lakoff's politeness principles (1973) are used

to avoid offending others and avoid imposing on others. These principles were further developed by Brown and Levinson (1987) by adding the concept of *face*. Thus, these students show cultural effects mirrored from L1 to L2, which can interfere with their choice of strategies. The students have to be aware of the other person's *positive face*:

> 'The person's desire to be autonomous, not imposed by others, and for others to respect her/his time, privacy and possessions, and the *negative face*: the person's need to be accepted, liked by others and treated as a member of the group, to avoid (Face threading acts) FTAs: any reaction threats either the positive or the negative face' (Brown & Levinson, 1987:63).

For example, in Saudi culture, one can ask other people personal questions. For instance, it is acceptable to ask a colleague about her salary or marital status, and such questions would be considered friendly. In contrast, British culture is a negative face-based culture, where such questions might be considered intrusive. Saudi students in a British context sometimes cannot use an appropriate strategy to ask simple questions, even in situations that exist in their native language, and sometimes they fail to understand the underlying force. Dalmau and Gotor (2007) explained this situation: when native speakers of a positive face-based culture encounter speakers from a negative face-based culture, they usually use inappropriate speech acts; this will be discussed further in section 3.2.3.

Therefore, it is important to provide students with linguistic tools that allow them to comprehend linguistic action in a context-appropriate manner when developing pragmatic competence. Learning the target language's culture as an ongoing process rather than an end product is key here; language is both the source of and the recipient of the task at hand. Authors like Byram and Morgan (1994), Cortazzi and Jin (1999), Fantini

(1997) and Kramsch (1998) share this view of culture, emphasising the fact that language expresses, embodies, and represents cultural reality. Kramsch's (1998) view of 'culture seen as discourse', where language and culture are intrinsic to people's interaction and thus susceptible to contextual factors, such as relative power and social distance, is certainly framed by this idea; negotiable and changeable through conversational dynamics, the way things are said can change. For the avoidance of doubt, Kasper (1997) and Kasper and Schmidt (1996) point out that complete conformity to these standards is not always desirable. It is difficult to present the English native speaker as a homogeneous entity; it is impossible to achieve native-speaker competence in an EFL context because of, for example, critical period issues and the lack of quality and quantity of contact with the target language TL; and native speakers of a given language can perceive total convergence from foreigners. These are some of the considerations for preferring optimal convergence. Bardovi-Harlig (2001) states that:

> 'The role of instruction may help the learner encode her/his own values (which again may be culturally determined) into a clear, unambiguous message, without asking a learner to compromise her/his values and adopt those of the target culture' when discussing the pragmatics of pedagogical intervention (p.31).

According to Bardovi-Harlig (2001), Jorden (1992), and Saville-Troike (1992), EFL and L2 curricula should provide students with information on the TL's sociocultural rules, allowing students to decide to what extent they wish to conform to native speakers NS norms.

The intense interest in the influence of L1 and culture on L2 learning may reflect the close relationship between IL and cross-cultural pragmatics studies (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001). According to Kasper (1997), this influence is referred to as pragmatic transfer,

which can be either positive or negative. A positive transfer occurs when the forms and functions in the L1 map onto the target language (Rose & Kasper, 2001). This results in successful interactions, whereas when learners incorrectly assume a correspondence between the two languages, namely negative transfer, the result may be the use of non-target expressions or their avoidance (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001). Adult learners, in particular, can use their universal or L1-based pragmatic knowledge to acquire L2 pragmatics. Regrettably, learners do not always transfer their prior knowledge and strategies to target language contexts, which also applies to certain pragmatic aspects (Rose & Kasper, 2001). sting also has an effect on the communication of second language pragmatics.

Without a doubt, L2 students who learn the language in the target language environment (ESL) have an advantage over EFL learners who learn the language in a non-target language environment. ESL learners' success in learning is typically evaluated by test scores and success in communicating with native speakers or non-native English speakers' teachers. However, the success of EFL learners is limited to the results of grammar-oriented tests (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001). Thus, the inclusion of pragmatic ability as a learning objective in curricula will be ineffective unless pragmatic ability is considered an integral part of language tests (Rose & Kasper, 2001). It appears that learners who are immersed in a target language's culture have an advantage over those in an EFL context. Learners in an EFL environment will lack pragmatic competence (Niezgoda & Röver, 2001). Non-native speakers learning in a non-English environment face a lack of exposure to the English language outside of the target language classroom.

Further, other studies show that sociocultural awareness has a central role in learners' comprehension, understanding, and effective meaning interpretation (Taguchi, 2012). This implies that pragmatic development is multidimensional, with learners' linguistic,

sociocultural, and discourse knowledge being active. In a similar vein, Van Dijk (1977) emphasised the importance of context and utterance analyses in the theory of pragmatic comprehension, arguing that if learners seek to achieve accurate comprehension and ensure that they interpret speakers' intentions, feelings, and attitudes appropriately, they must develop awareness not only of societal rules, conventions, and physical setting but also of an utterance's structural meanings (see 2.2).

In the next section I move to recent studies of L2 learners, which commonly discuss the importance of developing speech acts, pragmatic competence in early stages, and the occurrence of pragmatic failures while speaking. Recent studies among L2 EFL learners provide useful perceptions for creating the methods or techniques to be followed to improve the pragmatic competence of these learners. The following table reviews some of these studies:

Table 2.2: An overview of the cultural effects' studies

Research study	Overview
Speech acts research in Saudi Arabia	
Alghamdi and Alqarni (2019)	The study offered a sociolinguistic view of Saudi and American females' use of refusal strategies. It investigated the refusal methods utilised by Saudi and American female students when they were invited to events or asked for favours. Since speakers' refusal performances varied, the study explores the content of semantic formulae and their frequency of occurrence in the speech acts of these females when dealing with a variety of interlocutors of varying social standing. Interestingly, while Saudis use the word "no" less frequently in their refusals than Americans, they use "regret" and "explanation" more frequently than their American peers. Because of the cultural differences between Saudis and Americans, it is possible to see these differences as reflections of the Saudis' collectivistic culture and the Americans' individualistic culture.
Al-Gahtani and Roever (2013)	The study tested the ability to engage in extensive interactions in requests of L2 low proficiency Saudi learners. They compared the low-proficiency Saudi speakers to intermediate and advanced-level learners and discovered that interaction was a critical component of L2 proficiency but had received little attention. They found that low proficiency learners were less likely to delay their request and were less likely to use explanations or accounts prior to the request. These students needed a more collaborative role in the interaction, suggesting possible explanations and accounts for the learner to confirm. This example of the expected order of requests opens up new ways to teach in the classroom, especially when combined with meta-pragmatic awareness-raising.

Teaching methods and approaches to pragmatic competence	
Leclercq (2021)	The study used a functional approach with 26 L2 learners to examine pragmalinguistic competence and the development of assertiveness. Analysis of the results showed that L2 learners demonstrated less assertive performance while conversing in L2 than native speakers. Later, the development of their interactional strategies showed improvements in pragmatic competence.
Olsson (2021)	The study investigated three primary schools from Sweden and made two groups of students, where the experimental group of students was trained using the content and language integrated learning (CLIL) method to improve the students' vocabulary academic. The study was conducted on 230 students for a period of three years. The research considered the academic vocabulary improvements of the students who were taught via the CLIL method. Here, the research study used a specific technique to improve the pragmatic competence of the L2 learners by teaching them using the CLIL method and providing a better understanding of the appropriateness of the L2 language. Also, the differences between the three different schools impacted the students' outcomes. The medium of instruction used for teaching was one factor determining the progression in vocabulary.
Skarpaas and Hellekjær (2021)	The study used the vocational orientation method to inspire the students' interest in learning English as an L2. The study recommended observing the students' feedback because most of the unique programmes were conducted by the teachers and analysed according to their perceptions. Students' feedback must be investigated to understand the teaching method further.
Sang and Hiver (2021)	The study tried to improve the reticence of L2 learners of English by using a language socialisation mechanism for Chinese students. The study discusses how L2 reticence impacts L2 learners. Moreover, the study showed a correlation with the teacher's speech, which also influenced the students. The discussion on pragmatic perception in the study was reflected similarly on producing appropriate L2 language. Again, the pedagogical implications could suggest new aspects and understanding of teaching methods.
Sánchez-Hernández and Martínez-Flor (2021)	They found that the pragmatic competence of EFL Spanish learners was improved in the instructional group that received a specific set of instructions, compared with the control group that did not receive any specific instructions. The instructional group showed varied usage of words, and their level of appropriateness was better than the control group.
Zand-Moghadam and Samani (2021)	The study was conducted on 60 EFL learners to examine the effectiveness of pragmatic competence development after task-based instructions were given. The learners were classified into three groups to analyse information gaps, reasoning, and opinions. The researchers found that learners in the group based on the information gap were able to produce better pragmatic competence than those in the reasoning gap or opinion gap groups. Also, the learners from the information gap were able to show better meta-pragmatic awareness.
Mirzaei and Parhizkar (2021)	The study investigated Iranian L2 learners and showed that the L1 influenced the pragmalinguistic competence of the learners. Moreover, the study revealed that the male learners showed less interest in adapting to the L2, whereas the female learners tended to adjust the L2 and try to understand the pragmatic aspects. It was concluded in the elements of post-structuralism that language learning ability is affected by social and cultural factors.
Sabuin (2022)	The study discussed pragmatic competence among L1 and L2 learners in America in the American context. The research study found that the L1 speakers chose strong responses and the L2 speakers chose passive responses. Also, the

	study further discussed how cultural aspects could affect the learning of another language. The study recommended that the teachers capitalise on the students' cultural backgrounds to learn English better.
The occurrence of pragmatic failures while speaking	
Amoah and Yeboah (2021)	The study explored the request strategies applied by Chinese who were learning English. It analysed the learners' cross-cultural impacts on learning and interlanguage effects produced during their conversation. The core aim of the study was to explore the impact of L1 on the pragmatic failure of L2. Seventy-two students were used to collect the data, which was analysed quantitatively. They revealed that students showed some of their L1 traces in L2 conversations. This causes pragmatic failures, such as the use of commanding words instead of using formal words to make requests. The low pragmatic competence was influenced by L1 dialects and cultures. The study suggests that learners should use more relevant request strategies to improve their L2 language skills.
McConachy (2021)	The study investigated the impact of cultural stereotypes of the L2 language among EFL Japanese learners by discussing the relations between linguists and cultural backgrounds. It also evaluated the meta-pragmatic abilities of the L2 learners while considering the relationship between social cognition and language use. The research concluded with a statement that the sociocultural behaviours of L1 influence learners' L2 pragmatic awareness.
Malmir and Derakhshan (2020)	The study examined the relationship between pragmatic competence and the identity processing style of L2 learners and discussed various aspects and challenges among EFL learners. The research used 122 Iranian students to engage in speech act-based tasks in order to analyse the various identity processing styles for the correlational features in the learners' pragmatic competence. The study concludes that the identity processing style of the learners could influence pragmatic competence.

To conclude, pragmatic awareness is required to grasp the intended meaning of what is uttered because some utterances have unclear meaning. This is also at the heart of pragmatics, which examines how interlocutors express and receive meaning from unclear utterances, as well as the receiver's systematic interpretation of the addresser's intended but sometimes unclear message (Levinson, 1983). For example, conversational implicatures, alongside indirect speech acts, contribute to the development of pragmatic competence by explaining how words communicate indirect meanings. As a result, implicature fills the gap between words' literal and intended meanings. The impact of teaching methods and approaches on enhancing EFL students' pragmatic competence will be discussed later in this chapter.

2.4. Conclusion

This chapter has provided principles and concepts connected to pragmatic-focused language, referring to the existing literature throughout. The theoretical background in section 2.2 was followed by a discussion of pragmatics and SLA in section 2.3. I covered the historical development of pragmatic competence. I move in the next chapter to cover appropriate language choices and the aching.

Chapter Three: **Literature review**

3.1. Introduction

This chapter provides an overview of appropriate pragmatic language choices in section 3.2., covering conversational implicatures in section 3.2.1., politeness strategies in 3.2.2., and the speech acts of requests in 3.2.3. I explain a formula-based approach in section 3.3. Section 3.4. continues with an introduction to declarative and procedural knowledge, followed using technology in 3.5. and the importance of providing explicit instruction in section 3.6. Then I discuss classroom research in section 3.7. In the last part of the chapter, section 3.8., I talk about studies from Saudi Arabia about developing pragmatism. Then, I conclude with the research gaps that I identified in L2 Pragmatics research to date in section 3.9.

3.2. Appropriate spoken pragmatic language choices

For the purposes of this study, and as I mentioned in section 1.2, "appropriateness" is defined as "the knowledge of the conventions of communication in a society, as well as linguistic abilities that enable learners to communicate successfully in L2" (Taguchi, 2006, p.513). In this study, I am trying to see if EFL teachers should explore materials that can be implemented in a current curriculum to explicitly assist students in learning appropriate ways to understand and produce appropriate language in L2. EFL students should be aware of the numerous linguistic and strategic options that are available to them in various circumstances (Siegel, 2016). According to Taguchi (2015), in order to speak in a pragmatically appropriate way, EFL users must take into consideration not just the form and function of a second language but also the situation. As I mentioned in section 2.2, special conversational choices are also required depending on the nature of the relationship between the speakers, including how long they have known each other.

Additionally, the expectations of the conversation and the desired outcomes might influence the linguistic and strategic decisions that are made about what to say. When using a second language, one's pragmatic competence is measured by how well they can deal with different situations and adapt to them.

In this study, I designed materials where I provided explicit instruction to an experimental group, and then I used a recognition task to evaluate the understudying of conversational implicatures as well as a production task to evaluate the production of direct and indirect requests, along with evaluating the use of politeness strategies. In the following sections, I look at specific areas to develop spoken pragmatic competence that can enhance the development of appropriate pragmatic language choices in an EFL setting. In section 3.2.1., I talk about conversational implicatures; then in section 3.2.2., I introduce the "politeness theory"; and finally, I talk about the "speech acts theory" in section 3.2.3.

3.2.1. Conversational implicatures

In my study, I explicitly raised the awareness of conversational implicatures to measure the understanding of appropriate spoken pragmatic language choices. Conversational implicatures refer to the inference a hearer makes about a speaker's intended meaning, which arises from their use of the literal sense of what the speaker said, the cooperative principle (CP), and its maxims (Paltridge, 2012, p. 50). Grice introduces the CP in the following way: "make your contribution such as required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange in which you are engaged" (Grice, 1975, pp. 45-46). Grice (1975) deliberately adopted the word "implicature", which was from his coinage, to include any meaning that is implied, i.e., carried indirectly or through hints, and understood as implicit in what is said without being explicitly stated (Green, 1989). The speaker intentionally produces an implicature, so the hearer uses the

language and the context to work out the meaning. The hearer may or may not understand the intended meaning provided in the speaker's utterance (Thomas, 2014).

Grice (1975) distinguishes between two types of implicatures: conventional and conversational. Conventional implicatures are based only on the usage of specific linguistic forms, whereas conversational implicatures are more context-dependent and derived from understanding the conversational maxims. The comprehension of conversational implicatures is defined as " the ability to i) recognise a mismatch between the literal utterance and the intention of the utterance and ii) comprehend the intention of the utterance" (Taguchi, 2008, p. 435).

Conversational implicature is the conveyed messages that are expressed indirectly in a conversation (Grice, 1975). Participants in a discussion, according to Grice, expect each other to be honest, relevant, clear, and appropriately informative in their contributions. Assuming that the literal meaning of something spoken misses the mark of their expectations, hearers try to figure out what else the conversation could signify in that situation. For example, someone might say to their friend in a gathering while food is being served, "There is nothing to eat." From the context, his friend would assume that the indirect meaning is that their friend did not like the food. The interlocutors assume the interpretation of the message the speaker intended to express if they find one. Thinking about the conversational implicatures would be an effective technique if the speaker and the hearer share a common understanding of these expectations and see the utterance and its context in a similar way.

Studies have reported that conversational implicatures are essential and critical aspects of developing pragmatic competence (Taguchi & Yamaguchi, 2019). They are also considered as a primary source of difficulty in students' understanding of speakers'

intentions and opinions. Therefore, in EFL settings, conversational implicatures must be taken into consideration by teachers and learners as a form of contextualised inference, which is the process of making context information explicitly available from other context sources (Jiang, 2016).

Bouton (1988) and Taguchi (2005) demonstrated that non-native speakers often encountered difficulty in interpreting conversational implicatures in English, even if these L2 learners were at an intermediate level of proficiency in the second language. For developing EFL learners' abilities to overcome such difficulties, there should be real integration for the learners in context with native or native-like speakers, or at least they should be explicitly instructed in such implicatures.

The development of conversational indirectness where the interpreted meaning is implied presents problems for EFL Saudi learners. This evidence suggests that this difficulty affects even those L2 learners who have acquired an advanced level of English. Therefore, the subject is significant at the level of L2 English instruction as identifying the factors that might contribute to these non-native conversational implicature difficulties may provide the impetus for teaching strategies that aim to reduce these problems. Bouton (1988) found that non-native speakers had trouble interpreting conversational implicatures, especially non-conventional indirect implicatures such as irony and hints (see table 5.5).

Grice (1975) introduced the conversational maxims of the cooperative principles CP to make sense of how the interlocutor expects conversations to develop and take place. The CP consists of four maxims that participants follow: maxims of quality, quantity, relation, and manner. The maxim of quality can be identified when the speakers try to make the contribution as accurate as possible and avoid saying what lacks evidence. For instance,

when a person says, "I am hungry," when he/she is actually hungry, the maxim of quantity can be identified when the speakers make their contribution as informative as required and never say more or less than needed. For example, when a person asks for directions to reach a certain place, the hearer has to include adequate information for the other to get there. The maxim of relations can be identified when the contribution to the conversation is relevant. For example, when a person responds: "I am not hungry" when someone asks him/her: "Are you hungry?". Finally, the maxim of manner can be identified when the contribution to the conversation is clear by avoiding obscurity or ambiguity and using brief, orderly sentences; for instance, when someone says: "Close the second window on the left wall. These maxims are a broad set of rules or conventions which govern conversations; they include ideas such as relevance and audience, and thus they can define the expectations that the interlocutor has in any given speech situation.

Human life is built on the foundations of communication and appropriate interaction. Individuals use a variety of conversational patterns and procedures, including the CP, to convey ideas and opinions, express wants and needs, and develop social relationships. As Grice (1975) explains, sometimes the CP is flouted by individuals, particularly when speakers intend to communicate their intentions indirectly or to persuade hearer to draw certain inferences from their utterances. For example, when someone tells a joke, writes a book, makes a film, or engages in polite situations, he or she may flout one or more maxims in order to persuade individuals and leave a lasting impression (Khusna, Aliyah & Asyifah, 2021).

Grice (1975) argues that interlocutors are expected to follow the cooperative maxims in a conversation. Nevertheless, speakers do not always obey or follow these maxims when making certain decisions, which are evaluated in terms of how they flout or violate conversational maxims. The speaker does not intend to mislead the hearer but does

anticipate that the hearer will infer an implied meaning that differs from the one conveyed. On the other hand, violating a maxim occurs when a speaker disobeys a conversational maxim to deliberately generate false implicature in a discourse. When a speaker believes that the hearer will not realise the truth and will only know the expressed meaning of what is spoken, he is said to violate a conversational maxim (Thomas, 1995).

Despite the widespread application of Grice's maxims, the maxims have been questioned by several scholars for their English content focus (Kecskes, 2019) and their validity for wider application to different languages (Thomas, 1995; Stokke, 2016). According to Thomas (1995 & 2014), these maxims have some problems. One problem is related to the imperative tone of maxims, which is usually misinterpreted as an order to instruct people in how to act in a certain way on a regular basis. However, the form of the maxims is not the only problem. One of the main issues is that one utterance can be construed in a variety of ways, and determining which interpretation is correct can be challenging. According to Thomas, is that an utterance is accessible to a variety of interpretations, and it is difficult to figure out what is implied but not explicitly articulated. The speaker tends to communicate to the audience beyond or instead of what has been literally spoken (Robinson, 1989). Furthermore, it appears that the maxims are used differently depending on cultures, beliefs, and nature when they are intentionally produced in communicative environments, such as hearing sessions in a courtroom, where there is no spontaneous language and communication is highly restricted (Namy Soghady & Vahid Dastjerdi, 2020).

To account for violations of maxims, Leech (1983) proposed the notion of politeness strategies. However, there may be occasions when the politeness principle and maxims overlap (Jia, 2010), as we will see in section 3.2.2. On many societal occasions, the interlocutors are forced to either flout or violate the maxims in favour of the politeness

principle, not because they do not want to collaborate. For example, in a military situation, "Yes Sir!" is a standardised response given by a subordinate to be polite to their superiors, regardless of their actual desire to obey the command (Jia, 2010).

According to Hadi (2013), Grice's maxims have played an important practical role in the field of pragmatics because this theory separates pragmatics from linguistics. She claims that, despite its limitations, Grice's work remains at the core of pragmatics disciplines, and the importance of his work in this field cannot be underestimated. However, Hadi suggests that we should be cautious in interpreting what "cooperation" means in Grice's maxims. Grice's concept of cooperation is not the same as what most people think of when they think of cooperation. Ladegaard (2009) believes that Grice's theory has limited theoretical implications since it ignores social settings and only analyses speaker-hearer interaction in an ideal setting. Maxims are also applied equally despite social aspects such as sex, power relationships, social class, and age. So, I agree with Ladegaard, and one aim of this study is to raise awareness of this aspect.

Modern research has attempted to adapt Grice's maxim for use in language teaching and learning despite the critiques. Some of these studies are listed in the next section.

Maxims of conversation in L2 implicature comprehension research

This section will list studies that have followed Grice's model in examining L2 understanding of conversational implicature. Recent research has focused on conversational implicatures in English as L2 (Köylü, 2018); violation of Gricean maxims (al-Zubeiry, 2020); and the CP (Derakhshan et al., 2014). Some studies explicitly mentioned Grice's maxims by examining comprehension over various implicatures, such as relevance-based and scalar implicatures (Bouton, 1999; Bouton, 1992, 1994; Roever, 2005; Roever, Wang, & Brophy, 2014). Some research has concentrated on speech acts

by analysing direct and indirect speech acts (illocutionary acts conducted indirectly), while others have focused on irony, which often demonstrates the most significant difference from the literal meaning by saying the opposite of what is expected (Ellis, Zhu, Shintani, & Roever, 2021; Shively, Menke, & Manzón-Omundson, 2008; Taguchi & Bell, 2020; Yamanaka, 2003). Most studies employed a reading instrument by offering the L2 learners a reading dialogue or a sentence and then asking them to reply to a multiple-choice question to evaluate their understanding. While Garcia (2004) used audio input and applied a listening test, other studies used video clips (Derakhshan & Eslami, 2020; Shively et al., 2008).

A shared result was apparent from the previous studies in relation to the level of proficiency that influences comprehension. Some studies determined that students with high proficiency levels outperformed students with low proficiency levels in awareness of irony. High proficiency students were able to identify the difference between the actual sentence and the intended meaning to recognise the ironic purpose of the statement. In contrast, students with low proficiency levels understood ironic statements in their literal sense (Shively et al., 2008; Yamanaka, 2003).

The influence of proficiency was observed in these studies, indicating that understanding conversational implicatures is formed in the early stages of L2 learning and experiences. Learners rely on their linguistic devices such as grammar and vocabulary to understand an indirect meaning. Understanding utterances' intended meaning is necessary for implicature comprehension, as well as other indirect signs that might help in the understanding process. Students with low proficiency levels might find it challenging to understand if a speaker has failed to follow a maxim because of their restricted linguistic knowledge and abilities. As a result, they have difficulty understanding the utterance's intended meaning. In contrast, advanced-level students have adequate linguistic devices,

which help them understand the meaning of an utterance and further investigate the underlying meaning of the statements (Taguchi & Bell, 2020).

The influence of the level of L2 proficiency is most evident in the broader spectrum of indirectness, which informs SLA so that as language develops, the performance in implicature comprehension develops (Taguchi, 2018). The longitudinal studies showed a connection between the level of L2 proficiency and the kind of implicature. Bouton (1992, 1994, 1999) examined L2 English learners' comprehension of different implicature types (relevance implicature; 'Pope questions' to convey an obvious thing; irony; indirect criticism; and sequence implicature). He concluded that relevance implicatures were more straightforward to gain. Nevertheless, Pope questions, irony, indirect criticism, and sequence implicatures were more difficult to receive, even after living more than a year in the US.

It can be concluded that the greater the gap between the utterance-level meaning and the intended meaning, the more difficult the comprehension would be for the students. To demonstrate that, Cook and Liddicoat (2002) concluded that advanced students had trouble with non-conventional requests (hints), which showed a larger mismatch between the external form and request purpose than with conventional requests. Investigations in irony by Bouton (1992, 1994, 1999) and Yamanaka (2003) revealed that irony has a rhetorical design in which the propositional and intended meanings are contradictory. The general difference from the literal meaning of irony raises the difficulty in understanding the implications, as evident in Bouton's (1994, 1999) participants, who spent more than a year in the target community but could not acquire irony. The difficulty related to irony suggests that L2 learners may not be familiar with irony in their own culture or have it but with a different understanding.

Having discussed conversational implicatures, I move now to the concepts of politeness and their impact on language usage are discussed in greater detail in the following sections.

3.2.2. Politeness theory

A part of knowing how to be appropriate in using any language is knowing how to use politeness strategies. The scientific investigation of politeness as a linguistic phenomenon began in the early 1970s with a study by Robin Lakoff (1973) that used a Gricean framework to describe linguistic politeness. Politeness is a universal phenomenon that can be defined, according to Lakoff (1990), as "a system of interpersonal relations designed to facilitate interaction by minimising the potential for conflict and confrontation inherent in all human interchanges" (p. 34). In social interactions, politeness includes the speaker's desire not to offend the hearer. Because politeness is such an important notion in interpersonal communication, studies have presented various explanations and perspectives for politeness.

Generally speaking, politeness is a term that refers to "appropriate" social behaviour and standards for speech and behaviour that derive from high-status individuals or groups. These conceptions vary from polite formulations like "please" and "thank you," welcomes and farewells, and so on, to more complex routines for table etiquette or formal event protocol. In this approach, politeness is traditionally associated with certain linguistic patterns and formulaic expressions, which may be taught to students and may differ greatly among languages and cultures (Huang, 2017).

In addition to Grice's CP, Leech (1983) suggests a politeness principle, with the six maxims of tact, generosity, approbation, modesty, agreement, and sympathy, to minimise the expression of impolite beliefs. According to Leech's theory, cross-cultural

communication produces a unique effect owing to the different importance that cultures attach to specific maxims, which provide pragmatic scales that are "very widespread in human societies, but their interpretation differs from society to society, just as their encoding differs from language to language" (Leech 2007, p.200).

Politeness includes "face", which was defined by Goffman (1955, p.338) as "the positive image you seek to establish in social interactions." From a sociological point of view, "face work" is at the centre of politeness. A person is obligated to protect his own face and the faces of others in social interactions (Goffman, 1955, 1967). Goffman (1967) defines face as the positive social value a person claims for himself based on the line that others assume he has taken during a certain engagement, saying that "face is a picture of ego in terms of approved social characteristics" and "The person's face is certainly not stuck in or on his body, but rather is located in the sequence of events in the encounter and becomes evident only when these occurrences are analysed and evaluated for the assessments contained in them" (p. 577). Brown and Levinson (1987, p. 61) describe the face as "the public self-image that every member seeks to claim for himself/herself," using Goffman's social self-concept. Goffman, Brown, and Levinson suggest that in social encounters, face is something that must be established, conserved, and enhanced, and if misplaced, must be recreated.

Brown and Levinson (1978, 1987) developed a face model of politeness, defining positive and negative faces. Positive face refers to the desire to be approved of, appreciated, liked, and validated, and negative face refers to the desire not to be imposed upon, to be unobstructed in one's actions. Negative and positive faces are the two types of needs that save face. Brown and Levinson developed a model of how speakers construct polite utterances in different contexts based on assessments of three social factors: the speaker's and addressee's relative power (P) in the context, their social

distance (D), and the intrinsic ranking (R) of the face-threateningness of an imposition. P, D, and R are viewed as abstract social dimensions that represent different types of social relationships (P and D) as well as cultural values and definitions of impositions or dangers to confront (R).

A Face Threatening Act (FTA) refers to a communication act that causes a threat to the individual's expectations regarding self-image (Yule, 1996, p.61). Goffman (1955, p.215) uses different terms to describe such situations; for instance, "in the wrong face," "to be out of face," "shamefaced," and "threats to face". Brown and Levinson (1987, p.65) divided FTAs into two main elements: "whose face is being threatened (the speaker's or the addressee's), and which type of face is being threatened (positive or negative face)". They also define five main forms of politeness strategies, ranging from completely avoiding an FTA to performing it but indirectly, "off-the-record". On-the-record adoption of an FTA can be accomplished without any overt redressal action. It can be done using positive redress, which is fundamentally approach-based, addressing the hearer's positive face desires by stressing connection and unity.

There are diverse ways of performing politeness in different cultures is acknowledged as one of the most significant sources of pragmatic miscommunication. For example, the notion of directness (Searle, 1975) serves as the foundation for both Leech's (1983) and Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness theories, both of which are widely recognised. Both comment on the tight relationship that exists between politeness and indirectness in many Western traditions, even though this is not true in all cultures. However, when this cross-cultural variance is applied inappropriately to the target culture, it poses a challenge for L2 communication, as shown in many of the experiments covered in this chapter. For example, when it comes to compliments as a polite speech act, Pomerantz (1978) observed that the ideal response among Americans is to take the compliments gracefully,

but that there is pressure on Americans to avoid displaying ego by using replies that avoid the compliments. This is not always the case in Saudi culture, where it is also not always genuine. According to Al Amro (2013), who conducted research on compliments in Saudi culture, speakers implicitly accept the compliment that is given to them when they are speaking by redirecting the compliment to the speaker who paid them this compliment. Moreover, in the course of my current research, I noticed that in the Saudi Arabian culture, compliments are frequently used as an indirect approach to criticising someone politely.

There have been criticisms of Brown and Levinson's theory (1978, 1987), primarily focusing on the absence of attention to cultural factors, but few investigations have questioned the validity of their formal model. Because of the universal nature of the model, the theory has achieved good status in the field of politeness studies in sociolinguistics. Brown and Levinson's idea has been supported by several research studies that have presented empirical evidence. For example, Blum-Kulka, Danet, and Gherson (1985) found that in daily discussion, speakers with relatively high power were less polite than speakers with relatively low power, demonstrating the existence of a connection between politeness and power in everyday conversation. Brown and Gilman (1989) discovered that the level of politeness was directly related to the level of imposition of a task on the individual. Hymes (1986) emphasised the importance of the universal framework included in Brown and Levinson's theory in the field of language studies.

In politeness research, a replacement account of politeness that is as accessible and detailed in its description as the original has yet to be offered (Culpeper & Haugh, 2017; Halenko, 2017; Leech, 2014). A second advantage of using this approach is that it ensures that cross-study comparisons are maintained. This model, which is the most popular in

ILP research, is also used to situate the current findings within the framework of prior investigations into appropriate language choices. The following sections discuss speech acts and their impact on language usage in greater detail.

3.2.3. Speech acts

The roots of second language pragmatics can be found in the work of Austin (1962), *How to Do Things with Words* (1962) and Searle (1969), *Speech Acts* (1969). These authors argued that language is used to "do things" (Paltridge, 2012). Their work led the way to describing what is appropriate to do in a social context. Austin (1962) points out that language is more than making statements of fact; it also serves a performative function in carrying out social actions. For example, "I apologise" serves both linguistic and social purposes.

Within the same speech act, Austin distinguishes three different acts: locutionary, illocutionary, and perlocutionary. The locutionary act is the act of saying something; the act of uttering certain expressions, well-formed from a syntactic point of view and meaningful (Austin 1975, p.98). An illocutionary act is a way of using language, and the performance of an act in saying something as opposed to the performance of an act in saying something. The perlocutionary act corresponds to the effects brought about by performing an illocutionary act, to its consequences (intentional or non-intentional) on the feelings, thoughts, or actions of the participants (Austin 1975, p.118).

Adapting Austin's (1962) classifications of illocutionary acts, Searle (1969) revised the classification system, which is based on functional characteristics and combines five major groups: representatives such as assertions; directives such as requests; expressive such as apologies; commissive such as promises; and declarations such as vows. According to Searle (1975), speech acts are often performed indirectly due to the

expectation of politeness or humour, which might be observed during verbal engagement with others, among other things. Trosborg (1995) argues that requests can be viewed as illocutionary acts, where a speaker expresses to a hearer his or her desire to the hearer to undertake an action that will benefit the speaker. This can be a request for a spoken response, an action, or an object or service (Trosborg, 1995). It is considered a pre-act because it is anticipated that the act will occur in the immediate or near future. As the request imposes on the recipient, it is also an FTA by interpretation. By creating this imposition, according to Brown and Levinson's (1987) theory of politeness, a request specifically threatens the hearer's negative face, that is, the freedom to be unimpeded by others (see above, section 3.2.2.).

Several strategies can be employed to moderate the request while promoting politeness to mitigate this FTA. The head act consists of three primary indirectness-increasing strategies: direct, conventionally indirect, and non-conventionally indirect. The basic classification system of requests upon which this study is based includes i) direct strategies, e.g., "Give me a pen" (direct); ii) conventional indirect, e.g., "Could you give me a pen?" (less direct); iii) non-conventionally indirect strategies, e.g., "I need to write down your number" (least direct), see table (5.5). This classification system is influenced by the theories of Austin (1962), Searle (1976), and Brown and Levinson (1987), but it also depends heavily on the works of Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1986) and Trosborg (1994, 1995). Chapter Five of this thesis will provide a comprehensive table 5.5 to show the classifications utilised in this study. The core component of a request, the head act, which conveys the speaker's desire/s, is one of the most common places where a request can be greatly reduced through indirection.

First, direct strategies may be used when the speaker wishes to explicitly state the illocutionary act of the utterance using performative verbs, for example, "I request a pen

from you"; imperatives, or modals expressing obligation, for example, "You must give me a pen." They are deemed impolite because they do not provide the hearer with any options.

Next, conventionally indirect strategies question the ability and willingness of the hearer to comply with the request, e.g., "Could you give me a pen?" In this instance, compliance is not assumed, and an opt-out option is provided, reducing the possibility of the speaker losing face by increasing indirectness. The conventionally indirect techniques often include formulae that are memorised, and the ones that are hearer-oriented, such as "Could you...", are generally deemed more polite because they allow an opportunity to comply with the protocol.

The third strategy is known as non-conventionally indirect or "hints," and it is used when the speaker does not want to specify the desired action directly but would rather make a statement or pose a question. It is up to the hearer to determine how the speaker intends his or her message to be interpreted. For example, the statement "I need to write down your number" should prompt the hearer to consider offering the speaker a pen. In addition to these levels of directness and indirectness, the request can also be analysed from a variety of different perspectives, such as the hearer-oriented perspective (e.g., "Can you give me a pen?"), the speaker-oriented perspective (e.g., "Can I have a pen?"), or a joint perspective (e.g., "Could we search for a pen?"), or in an impersonal manner, such as in the question "Is there any nearby bookstore?"

Before determining the proper request structure, it is necessary to make observations regarding the context and social environment. Internal and external modifiers are included to soften the request. Internal modifiers are those that are part of the head act and include softeners, which reduce the negative force (e.g., "Could you possibly...");

fillers, which are used to fill in the gaps of the utterance (e.g., "Could you, er, possibly..."); and alerters, which serve to gain the interlocutor's attention (e.g., "Excuse me..."). In contrast, exterior modifiers encompass the main request and serve to further absorb the coming imposition's impact. These include preparatory, which are used to introduce the request (e.g., "Dr Richard, I have a question concerning my test") and grounders, which are employed to provide a justification or explanation for the request (e.g., "Could you be quiet? I have to study.").

After exploring the speech act of request, I now turn to exploring some of the studies on speech acts, such as Azwan (2018); Taguchi et al. (2021); and Tai & Chen (2021). Azwan's (2018) study aims to evaluate the sociopragmatic competence of Ambonese learners in the Indonesian ethnic group and how it affects social relationships. In the Ambonese learning, the refusal strategies were difficult. The data analysis revealed that learners practically used two or more strategies while having real-time conversations. The use of politeness strategy among Ambonese speakers varied with person and situation, but they tended to utilise a positive attitude for a stranger's conversation and more intimate politeness for people they were acquainted with.

Taguchi et al. (2021) studied the prosodic analysis, rhythm, and intonation of Japanese English learners, observing the data from 47 Japanese students engaged in two speech acts with a delayed period of 8 months. The analysis results showed that prosodic properties had improved among the students, whose language proficiency changed over time. Furthermore, Tai and Chen (2021) examined the pragmatic proficiency in speech acts among 33 high-proficiency learners and 41 low-proficiency learners involving a pragmatic aspects-based task and found that the high-proficiency group showed different strategies. Also, the low proficiency group could not produce accurate responses to the tasks.

Moreover, highly proficient learners used a wide range of request strategies and delivered accurate conversations, while the low proficiency group used repetitive words and did not stretch their strategies. These findings indicate that pragmatic proficiency improves based on the distinct usage of requests and responses. Similarly, the study of Al Masaeed et al. (2018) on apologising strategies used scenarios for L2 learners to improve their ability and use of their L2 language. The materials included in the study were based on politeness strategies. As the learners were from a non-native English medium, they could show some of their L1 influence, which might be reflected in an impolite conversation for a hearer. This method of teaching elements could be used in L2 learner-based language teaching, in situations where the necessity of learning L2 was affecting self-esteem in learning and often ending in dropouts. The study found that the students were mostly focused on the pragmatic appropriateness of the L2 and ignored the grammatical aspects, indicating their involvement in the learning process. These studies show the importance of raising the awareness of requests as an appropriate language form.

In the following sections, I discuss a formula-based approach to developing appropriate pragmatic language, which is a part of my research where I raise awareness of six specific formulaic sequences.

3.3. Formula-based approach to developing appropriate pragmatic language

The mastery of idiomatic expressions, such as idioms, collocations, and sentence structures, is an essential feature of successful language learning. In this study, the term "formulaic sequence" (FS) is identified as creating highly routinised language chunks that save time (Pawley & Syder, 1983) and effort (Wray, 2000). Formulaic language, for example, can conserve mental capacity that can be more effectively employed to internalise syntactic norms (Wang, 2011), alleviating the burden on memory, which may assist L2 acquisition (Weinart, 1995), and is thought to promote fluency (Fillmore, 1979).

For these reasons, formula-based language acquisition can be a successful way of learning. Interlocutors also readily recognise formulaic language and, in fact, anticipate its use to speed up successful communication in a variety of professional and informal circumstances.

While much of the teaching of requests has focused on the correct structure (e.g., the use of the modals "can" and "could"), EFL teachers frequently overlook the fundamental motivations for request strategies derived from negative politeness, with the "purpose of mitigating, reducing or eliminating possible causes of offence" (Leech, 2014, p.11) (see section 3.2.2). Therefore, when EFL learners formulate requests, they should be taught how to demonstrate consideration, provide justification, enhance the respondent's appearance, and convey gratitude. This can be accomplished in one of the following ways:

1. Consideration is demonstrated. This may be direct or indirect, and it includes acknowledging that the requester is consuming the hearer's time, inquiring about his or her availability, and making an assumption about his or her motivation to understand. Consideration can be expressed in the following manner: "Can you give me a second?" (direct) and "Are you busy at the moment?" (indirect). Preparators can be: "I need you to do me a favour" (direct) and "I would really like to ask you something" (indirect). Getting a pre-commitment can be achieved by: "Please don't say no"(direct), and "Is there any chance of you doing me a favour?" (indirect); and minimising the imposition: "This will only take a minute of your time" (direct), and "I know you are a really busy person" (indirect) (Ishihara, 2010).

2. Concentrating on the reason for the request as the speaker seeks compliance via the use of grounders: "I came away from home without my wallet"; downgrading

the imposition: "I see you are not using your calculator at the moment. Any chance of using it? " (Spencer-Oatey, 2008).

3. Trying to enhance the respondent's impression through rapport building by making the addressee feel good (Lakoff, 1973). This can be done through sweeteners: "If there is someone I can always count on for help," and "Everyone says you're the right person to ask."

4. Trying to demonstrate a willingness to compensate by promising to pay back the respondent: "Just ask me any time, and I'll help you with anything you need"; by displaying indefinite gratitude: "I will be eternally grateful"; or by offering actual payment: "I'll pay you for your time" (Ishihara, 2010; Spencer-Oatey, 2008), (see table 5.5).

The use of these pragmatic devices in forming FS enables target language users to convey requests in the least offensive manner possible, which may need to be explained to EFL learners. I tried to investigate the students' frequencies of using six formulaic sequences (*Would you please, I was wondering, Would it be possible? I apologise/Many apologies, Can I /could I, I am sorry*) in specific.

Concerning the teaching approach and acquisition rules for FS, the studies focused on ways to make it easier for learners to store and extract them. Zhou (2014) examined the impact of remembering and phonemic repeating on the acquisition of L2 formulaic sequences. Wu (2014) explored the role of task-based FS instruction and training in college English instruction. She emphasised the importance of task-based instruction in English classes, with FS acquisition as the primary goal, teachers as the primary role model, and students as the acquirers, in order to cultivate students' ability to internalise the language, increase their learning initiative and decrease their reliance on teachers.

Additionally, studies have been conducted to determine the efficacy and practicality of FS training in the areas of English vocabulary, listening, speaking, translation, and writing. Wang (2012) proposed a vocabulary teaching strategy centred on FS to broaden teachers' and students' thinking. Xiao (2011) experimented with using FS to improve speaking. According to Xu (2011), the input and output of high-frequency FS are critical channels for improving L2 writing fluency, which was reflected in a successful experiment using written FS to improve speaking. Wang and Yang's (2015) experiment began with language acquisition, assisted students in studying FS in-depth, and highlighted FS through the multimodal improvement of instruction. It was discovered following the trial that learners' listening comprehension might be greatly improved. Li and Zhao's (2019) research demonstrated that prefabricated pieces result in an unmarked interpretation technique, increasing communication efficiency and reducing cognitive strain during interpretation.

In summary, there are evidence that formula-based approach to language teaching can be extremely effective. Additionally, the fact that L2 learners often have a limited repertoire of formulaic phrases and may be uninformed about how to apply them effectively indicates the need for additional research into the benefits of a formula-based approach to pragmatic training. The following section turns to talking about declarative and procedural knowledge, which I tested in this study.

3.4. Declarative and procedural knowledge

In this research, I am planning to search declarative and procedural knowledge because I wanted to know if the students benefited from the treatment. The field of cognitive psychology explains the difference between accuracy and processing speed. As a result, this is interpreted in skill acquisition models. Anderson (1983) represented a skill acquisition model known as the adaptive control of thought (ACT). In this model, he

declared that skill acquisition requires a shift from the stage of declarative knowledge to the stage of procedural knowledge (Anderson, 1983; Anderson et al., 1998). Declarative knowledge presents the knowledge of "what is something", and this knowledge is conscious and can be analysed. For instance, declarative knowledge reflects the person's idea and knowledge that 2+3 is 5. On the other hand, procedural knowledge refers to the knowledge of "how to do something". This knowledge requires transferring the knowledge to actual behaviour. An example of procedural knowledge is learning how to drive a car; the learner struggles to understand until they have driven the car for some time. Once the person has figured it out, it quickly becomes automatic knowledge; the type of knowledge that is hard to explain as it is subconsciously stored in the person's mind.

Consequently, skill acquisition is a theory of acquisition in which declarative knowledge is converted to be procedural through a middle stage where rules are practised regularly in a steady process. The goal of performing the skill acquisition process is to achieve a degree of knowledge where rules are used automatically and unconsciously. Anderson (1982) also introduced the skill-building theory to explain the three stages that learners have to go through to acquire new habits; these three stages are:

a) A cognitive stage in which the student makes an active effort to learn the target language (present).

b) An associative phase in which the student converts declarative knowledge to procedural knowledge(practise).

c) An independent stage in which the student uses the language automatically (produce).

So, in the process of building a new skill, the learners go through three phases: present, practise, and produce (Jones, 2011).

Recent research has investigated the roles of two long-term memory systems, declarative and procedural memory, in L2 learning (Morgan-Short and Ullman, 2012; Ullman, 2005; Ullman, 2015). These memory systems differ in several dimensions, including their relationships with awareness, the computations they perform, and the neural substrates that serve them (Eichenbaum, 2002; Eichenbaum & Cohen, 2001). For example, declarative memory supports learning general facts and knowledge (i.e., semantic memory) and autobiographical events from one's life (i.e., episodic memory). Declarative memory is also argued to support both explicit (i.e., with awareness) and implicit (i.e., without awareness) forms of knowledge (Ullman, 2005). On the other hand, procedural memory supports cognitive skill learning (Knowlton & Moody, 2008) and appears to underlie the acquisition and execution of sequential skills, such as learning to play a musical instrument. Learning and forgetting in this system are thought to be slower than in declarative memory. Procedural memory consists of implicit knowledge since the knowledge contained is difficult to verbalise.

Many researchers have identified a link between these two long-term memory systems in the language function of children and adults. Paradis (2004, 2009) and Ullman (2001, 2004, 2005, & 2015) have argued that declarative and procedural memory play a role in acquiring lexicon and grammar, respectively. For instance, Ullman's declarative and procedural models hypothesise that declarative memory underpins the acquisition and representation of information stored in the lexicon, such as words and grammatically complex forms, memorised in chunks due to their frequency in the learners' L1. Procedural memory is thought to support aspects of grammar that are believed to rely on

combinatorial processing, such as morphosyntax and syntax. The situation is hypothesised to be somewhat different during L2 development. As with L1, it is argued that L2 lexical development dependents on declarative memory. However, unlike L1, early L2 grammatical development is argued to be dependent on declarative memory, and this reliance may persist for some time.

It is important to understand the differences between declarative and procedural knowledge, as I intended to teach the students in this research explicitly. So, differentiating between what the students already knew and what they learned in the classes is essential. The next section will cover the use of technology in teaching and learning a second language.

3.5. Using technology to provide pragmatic instruction

The use of technology has positively enriched classroom instruction and evaluated pragmatic abilities. Studies have shown that adopting technology in developing L2 pragmatic competence enhances students' progress in acquiring L2. Some studies have reflected the positive effect of using technology in assessing and teaching English. These include studies in Arabic (Ward et al., 2007); Chinese (Halenko, 2017; Taguchi, Li, & Tang, 2017); Japanese (Cohen & Ishihara, 2005; Utashiro & Kawai, 2009); Russian (Furniss, 2016); and Spanish (Sykes & Cohen, 2006). However, using technology in teaching and assessing L2 in curricula or classrooms remains largely neglected, even though it is considered essential in their development. Sykes and González-Lloret (2020) argue that it is essential to promote digital tools because it is important to deliver L2 pragmatic content and students communicate with the materials, such as multimedia capabilities, immersive game environments, and virtual reality.

For the interest of this research, the next section will examine four studies: Taguchi et al. (2017); Halenko (2017); Ward, Bayyari, and Mughazy (2007); and Nugroho and Fitriati (2021). The first two were chosen because they are similar to the current study in exploiting technology, while the latter two were chosen because they were conducted on Arab students. Subsequently, I will consider four of the most recent studies in second language learning that have utilised the use of technology: Thomesen (2021), Li and Lan (2021), Chen (2021), and Torres and Yanguas (2021). The reason for reviewing these studies is to how be using technology can be effective in EFL setting in comparison to other traditional ways of teaching. The following table shows an overview of the mentioned studies:

Table 3.1: An overview of studies that used technology in teaching L2

Research study	Outcomes
Taguchi et al. (2017)	The study employed digital games to teach formulaic expressions in Chinese. The game was manipulated to investigate the learners' understanding of these forms by employing a character who works in a restaurant where the participants were asked to complete a task in built-in situations from various social contexts. The results of using this game in teaching formulaic expressions showed that the students mentioned that the game setting was motivating because it connected them in an interactive and engaging situation that gave them a purpose for using the language. However, half of the participants did not notice the practice aims because most of the implicit instruction was provided.
Halenko (2017)	The study measured the explicit instruction effects, focusing on the speech acts of requests and apologies, using two different tasks: DCT and CAPT. She used academic scenarios that students might encounter in their everyday lives. Results revealed that explicit instruction was extremely efficient, with the group using computer-based tasks outperforming the other groups.
Ward et al. (2007)	The study attempted to teach Arab students back-channelling using technology-enhanced tools. In the study, the prosodic feature and the pitch-down dash were measured to identify Arabs' use of back-channelling. The result showed that providing the participants with rules for interrupting a conversation at the appropriate time benefited the participants.
Nugroho and Fitriati (2021)	The study explored using flipped learning to teach English to accounting students to improve their pragmatic competence. The participants were studying while deploying the discourse completion test and focus group discussion. The results showed that the students achieved better improvements in pragmatic competence after they had trained through flipped learning. The group discussion revealed that the learners' attitudes toward flipped learning had developed, and they felt comfortable learning through the flipped learning methods.

Li and Lan's (2021)	The research used digital language learning for L2 teaching and provided an empirical analysis of the usage of the DLL framework for teaching L2. It produced some interesting insights. The DLL revealed some new perceptions for teaching L2 to children and adults, and characteristics of the methods could be implemented theoretically. The practical implementation showed that there was a correlation between the learner's behaviours and socio-cognitive abilities and the learning process of a new language in DLL pedagogy interaction. The DLL approach added a new boost to the L2 pedagogy as new technology emerged. The research study was able to demonstrate the purpose of information and communication technology in teaching L2, and learners' involvement in learning the language was improved.
Thomesen (2020)	The study aimed to distinguish the language diary differences used in online and offline video games to evaluate the English proficiency of 9th-grade students. The results showed that there was a strong relationship between online gaming and proficient vocabulary skills. The usage of gaming as a learning tool among the 9th-grade students showed a gender difference, as the male participants tended to show more interest in participating in the game while the female students did not show any interest in participating in the game tasks. Thus, male participants were able to deliver more proficient vocabulary results than female participants during the game-based task. The qualitative analysis showed there was a marginal difference between the male and female participants in producing efficient vocabulary skills.
Torres and Yanguas (2021)	The study aimed to inspire the enthusiasm of L2 learners by involving more information and communication technology. The fifty-two Spanish-based L2 learners were selected to engage in several audio and text activities, and the results revealed that the participants engaged in the audio-based tasks showed more interest than the participants engaged in the text-based tasks. In addition, the learners' interest in task engagements revealed ICT usage for teaching L2 language. The research study demonstrated the purpose of ICT in teaching L2, and learners' involvement in learning the language was improved.
Chen (2020)	The study focused on whether appropriate planning of pre-tasks could improve EFL learners in a virtual class environment. The tasks were planned based on the real-time scenarios of the participants based on their day-to-day activities. The task results showed that EFL learners exhibited improvement in grammatical complexity as their syntactic levels were elevated, and they showed improved linguistic competence. Additionally, the authors suggested that a 3D environment setting, which was part of the pre-planning of the tasks, improved the L2 learners. The real world-oriented tasks combined with ICT usage to create new pedagogical elements for the EFL learners, which added several discussions on acquiring knowledge.

After reviewing the previous studies, I concluded that technology can positively help in raising the awareness of appropriate pragmatic language choices. In the next section, I move to discuss explicit instruction, which I used in this study.

3.6. Explicit pragmatics instruction

Generally speaking, research that examined the outcomes of giving explicit instruction in the form of metapragmatics confirmed that the learners who had received explicit instruction gave a better performance than the learners who had received implicit

instruction. This suggests that teaching appropriate pragmatic language choices should be delivered explicitly. In my study, I planned to offer explicit instruction to the students where these learners were aware of what are they learning and what is expected from them by the end of the instructional period.

The presence of pragmatic input in instructional contexts affects the development of pragmatic competence, which can be provided through teachers' input and/or materials (Alrabai, 2018). However, textbooks are frequently unable to provide reliable pragmatic input because this input is not always presented to language students in a realistic and contextualised manner (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001). More precisely, Bouton (1990) found that conversational implicatures (see section 3.2.1) were rarely discussed explicitly in ESL and EFL textbooks. Providing authentic input to learners should be a goal of pedagogy in order to attempt to bridge the pragmatic divide between learners and native speakers (Takahashi, 2001).

This means that pragmatic instruction must accomplish three main goals in the EFL classroom: 1) expose students to appropriate target language (TL) input; 2) raise students' pragmatic and meta-pragmatic awareness of the instructed aspect; and 3) provide authentic opportunities for students to practice pragmatic knowledge. Longer instruction periods, with sustained focused input on pragmatic and metapragmatic aspects instilled through collaborative practice activities and metapragmatic reflection, can compensate for the limited opportunities for learning TL pragmatics in EFL settings (Ohta, 2001; Kanagy & Igarashi, 1997). Studies show that corrective feedback, in combination with communicative practice, improves students' ability to notice and focus on the needs of the person they are speaking to. Continued exposure to the language helps students' interlanguage systems gain access to sociopragmatic and pragmatic knowledge faster and with greater efficiency. Kasper & Rose (2002) added that unless students intentionally

observe the complex interaction between language use and social context, they will barely ever comprehend the pragmatics of a new language (see section 3.4).

In a review of interventional empirical pragmatics studies by Rose and Kasper (2001), the role of explicit instruction in pragmatics was established as being positive. Two conversational implicature studies may be cited here that support this belief. Bouton (1994) tested whether implicatures can indeed be taught and concluded that explicit instruction was effective in the case of those implicatures which were challenging to recover. Further, in a study examining the role of instruction in interpreting implicatures, Kubota (1995) replicated Bouton's study only to reach a different conclusion. It may be noted that compared to Bouton, the duration of Kubota's treatment was brief. Rose and Kasper (2001) noted this and other differences in terms of language proficiency, learning environment, and motivation (see section 3.2.).

I wanted to see how effective providing explicit instruction would be in developing appropriate pragmatic choices in a non-English environment. However, this could be challenging because, after analysing the studies of Bouton (1994) and Kubota (1995), I can establish the fact that the L2 context places learners in a better position, as Kubota (1995) exposed learners to more volume as well as wider contexts of the language, unlike Bouton (1994), where language use and situations outside the class were fewer. From this, we can notice that EFL learners face more difficulties than ESL learners because of the non-English setting. So, the role of instruction in developing pragmatic competence is critical as a tool for adding to EFL learners' knowledge and strengthening their basis in awareness of appropriate language choices. This can also motivate the L2 learner to develop their L2 pragmatic competence, since the acquisition of new forms of L2 does not necessarily guarantee the appropriate use of existing knowledge, frequently leading to a literal interpretation of utterances and a failure to exploit contextuality (Rose &

Kasper, 2001). In the following table, I review some studies to show the effectiveness of explicit instruction:

Table 3.2: An overview of studies that used explicit instruction in teaching L2

Research study	Outcomes
Luijkx et al. (2021)	The study investigated German L2 learners aiming to develop their pragmatic awareness. The data was collected from 16 business emails from Dutch learners, and 99 German professionals then evaluated the data. While concluding the study, it was stated that the pragmalinguistic issues were considered more serious potential issues than morphological errors. The pragmalinguistic conventions broken during the business encounters caused more friction while speaking L2; therefore, the authors recommended that teachers focus on pragmalinguistic infelicities while teaching L2. The discussion on pragmatic perception in the study was similarly focused on producing the suitability of the L2 language. Also, the study was based on a different language. However, the research study used a specific technique to improve the pragmalinguistic competence of L2 learners. Analysing their pragmalinguistics using professional mechanisms gave them a better understanding of the appropriateness of the L2 language. It also provided a fruitful insight into the importance of business conversation for the learners.
Dockrell (2021)	The study investigated the use of explicit instruction in raising pragmatic competence awareness among English L2 Greek Cypriot learners. The study showed that it was important to explicitly teach pragmatics. As a result, the participants learned to use the indirect strategy while having conversations. The participants had a stronger perspective on hearing influenced by the L1. The research study concluded that Greek-speaking students' usage of lexical modifiers was way less than that of native English speakers.
Luijkx, Gerritsen and Mulken (2021)	The study focused on the impact of explicit teaching of pragmatic awareness on developing requests in the target language. The study recruited 22 second-grade Turkish students from a private school. The participants were grouped into "control" and "experimental". The experimental group was taught for four hours on some pragmatic elements, while the control group did not receive any explicit treatment. Quantitative analysis revealed that there was no relationship between the learners' pragmatic awareness and requesting L2. Also, a difference between pragmatic awareness and pragmatic factors was observed during the analysis.
Zarrinabadi et al. (2021)	The study examined pragmatic behaviours in L2 based on the language mindsets of individuals and showed that two different mindsets regarding the understanding of language, 'fixed' and 'growth', played an important role while learning. However, the study did not evaluate the students' pragmatic competence; instead, it tried to reveal a link between the mindsets and observed behaviours of the learners. Teachers were recommended that it was positive to keep the learners in a growth mindset when teaching a new language.
Alkhrisheh et al. (2021)	The study investigated the relationship between language use, critical thinking, and linguistic competence. The study presented an elaborate discussion about influence-based learning and its implications. The study employed 52 students for the data collection. The data were statistically analyzed, and the students' performances were evaluated using TOEFL scores

	to determine their level of proficiency. The overall evaluation of the study showed that there was a significant relationship between language use and linguistic competence. The debate on pragmatic perception in the study was reflected similarly on producing appropriateness in the L2 language. Also, the pedagogical implications could draw on new aspects and understanding of teaching methods.
Hsieh and Chuang (2021)	The study focused on pre-service teachers' ability to teach sociolinguistics. The study found that they did not have appropriate sociolinguistic competence and exhibited a lack of confidence while teaching sociolinguistic skills. Due to sociocultural factors, the teachers exhibited inadequate sociolinguistic competence and low confidence in teaching sociolinguistic skills.
Tulgar (2021)	The study collected data from instructor notes and unstructured observations by the researcher. The data revealed the conventional content that the participants were able to adapt the global-local identities from the influence of their local identity awareness. Also, participants went through three-stage pragmatic developments, during which reflections of their global-local identities were observed.
Li (2021)	In this study, it is believed that the conversational implicatures strategy could improve English listening comprehension, and this teaching strategy also improved students' pragmatic competence. The students effectively carried out pragmatic reasoning, and they could understand the contextual meaning of the language better after learning the importance of the conversational implicatures. This study examined how L2 English learners understood and produced conversational implicatures from two perspectives: the appropriateness of pragmatic aspects and the types of linguistic expressions used. The appropriateness of pragmatic aspects is used to observe the pragmatic approach's effectiveness in improving students' understanding abilities while learning the English language. The linguistic expressions would give us an understanding of an individual's language. So, the approach's effectiveness in importing students' pragmatic ability was measured using experimental and control groups. Both groups' performance was measured in the pre-, post-, and delayed tests.
Tajeddin and Bagherkazemi (2021)	This study recruited 245 students to perform tasks on discourse completion tests and speech acts. The principal component analysis revealed the three-factor structures, showed the implicit/explicit methods dichotomy in suggestions for pragmatic development, and discussed the potential advantage of using explicit strategies for pragmatic knowledge.
Qari (2021)	The study aimed to test whether explicit instruction of various L2 request forms could be a useful measure in developing Saudi learners' linguistic and pragmatic competencies. Consequent to explicit instruction, improvement was evident in learners' overall understanding of the appropriate use of request forms in different request situations. They also showed better output in proper employment of request strategies in English, recognition of request function names, and the ability to assign correct functions to linguistic realisations.
Chong-yuan (2021)	The domain of pragmatic competence covers the appropriate and effective use of language in sociocultural communicative contexts. Which was covered by this study, which advocated explicit speech act instruction as a crucial component in developing EFL learners' pragmatic competence. The study further recommended explicit instruction in teaching speech acts in context and increasing speech act input and strategies as part of the explicit instruction.

Bukhari (2020)	The study examined the effect of explicit instruction of the speech act of suggestion in English on the development of pragmatic competence in the context of Pakistani ESL teaching. Findings indicated that explicit instruction in English speech acts was not just recommended but necessary, especially with equal emphasis on the rules of grammar and sociocultural aspects.
Derakhshan and Eslami (2020)	The study evaluated the intervention on EFL learners and added some hints regarding pragmatic development. The prominent issue in EFL teaching is facilitating learners' pragmatic development. Fifty-one students were subjected to instruction as part of the interventions, which involved showing a series of tapes that could improve the students' L2 pragmatic awareness. The training material comprised video clips from the sitcom series Friends and Desperate Housewives. As a result of the intervention, the students who underwent the intervention session performed better than those who did not receive any intervention.
Plonsky and Zhuang (2019)	The study reviewed 50 studies in their analysis that revealed that pragmatic instruction was sufficient; however, most of the studies recommended a longitudinal study to show better results.
Irshad and Ahmadian (2018)	The study was conducted to evaluate the impact of the instruction method as it interacted with learners' working memory capacity (WMC). The study concluded that explicit instruction of refusal strategies equalised learning opportunities for all learners, with different levels of WMC. Explicit instruction for expressions of disagreement is relatively less common but can be significant for L2 learners, given their potential as FTAs.
Garcia-Fuentes and McDonough (2018)	The study with Columbian EFL learners explored the learners' use of politeness strategies in disagreement. In contrast to learners who received explicit instruction only, learners who received explicit instruction and practised through task repetition used significantly more politeness strategies. This result can have major implications for instruction in EFL settings and pragmatic training.
Talati-Bagsiahi and Sarani (2017)	The study shed light on the efficacy of explicit instruction in improving EFL learners' pragmatic knowledge of hedging devices in terms of acquisition and use of English modals as hedging strategies. Participants' linguistic and pragmatic use of these showed significant improvement as a result of the outright teaching of modals.
Yang (2017)	The study experimented with explicit instruction in expressing gratitude in a Chinese as a Foreign Language learning scenario via a self-access website. Participants' self-reflection journal entries showed promising possibilities for using the electronic mode as a tool for teaching foreign language pragmatics.
Zavialova (2016)	The participants reported feeling more confident in their L2 communication skills following explicit instruction in refusal and thanking formulaic expressions. The study also showed that treatment of oral performance became more contextually appropriate and accurate as a result of explicit instruction.
Takahashi (2005)	The study examined bi-clausal request forms in four treatment groups, and in doing so, he designed one of the most complex investigations. These groups were: an "explicit" group taught by a teacher who provided meta-pragmatic knowledge; a "form comparison" group that had learners match request forms in transcripts to their request forms; a "form search" group that was expected to search for request forms in transcripts; and the last one was a "meaning-focused" group that listened to and read information, including the target forms, before replying to comprehension questions. The results showed that the explicit group presented better performance than all the other groups in the

	use of target forms in both their pre-test and the post-test DCT. The students of the form comparison group presented a not significant application of the target forms.
Rose and Ng (2001)	The study was the first to investigate the impact of implicit and explicit instruction in responding to compliments in English in three groups, with three different ways of obtaining the datasets. The study recruited a control group and two instructed groups, one called the "inductive" group and the other the "deductive" group. Also, three methods were used to collect the data: a self-assessment questionnaire, a meta-pragmatic assessment questionnaire, and a DCT. The self-assessment and the meta-pragmatic assessment questionnaires did not reveal any distinctions across the levels of the members in the groups, but the DCT showed that the two instructed groups had better outcomes in providing and responding to compliments than the control group. However, the distinctions between the two instruction groups were not clear. The reason may be associated with the fact that the group members were advanced students, so both groups performed well while using syntactic formulae for giving and responding to compliments.
Tateyama, Kasper, Mui, Tay, and Thananart (1997	The study provided 50 minutes of instruction to beginner learners of Japanese as a foreign language. The instruction for the implicitly instructed group was implemented indirectly while they were role-playing, practising metapragmatics to teach them the various uses of the expression "sumimasen". The results determined that the explicitly instructed group outperformed the implicitly instructed group.
Wildner-Bassett (1984)	The study focused on manoeuvrability to examine the different ways of expressing agreement and disagreement in a business context. The explicitly instructed group's results were better than the implicitly instructed group's, even when they were encouraged to look for certain pieces of guided information.

The previous representations of the studies registered positive outcomes of providing explicit instructions to teach a target feature in a specific language. Most of the studies presented in the field of pragmatics have examined whether it is sufficient to give second language SL learners instruction on how to understand some features of pragmatics or merely let them be exposed to the target language. Some of the studies hypothesised that providing explicit instruction to SL learners on some language features would benefit them in acquiring language more effectively and sufficiently and therefore I decided to adopt explicit instruction method in developing appropriate spoken pragmatic language choices in B1 EFL students.

To summarise, in the previously discussed studies, I observed the effects of providing instruction in L2 explicitly, implicitly, or no instruction. It can be concluded that, first,

many components in L2 pragmatics can be teachable, such as requests , apologies and politeness strategies (e.g., Luijkx et al., 2021; Zarrinabadi et al., 2021; Alkhrisheh et al., 2021; Hsieh & Chuang, 2021; Tulgar, 2021; Li, 2021; Derakhshan & Eslami, 2020; Plonsky & Zhuang, 2019; Wildner-Bassett, 1984). Secondly, the results showed that learners who received explicit instruction used more appropriate pragmatic language than those who did not receive any instruction (e.g., Bouton, 1994; Cohen & Tarone, 1994; Lyster, 1994; Wishnoff, 2000). The results showed that it is necessary to include instruction when teaching second language pragmatics (e.g., Luijkx, Gerritsen & Mulken, 2021; Tajeddin & Bagherkazemi, 2021; Rose & Ng, 2001; Tateyama, Kasper, Mui, Tay, & Thananart, 1997). Without explicit instructions, most second-language learners would fail to develop their awareness of some aspects of pragmatics in the TL (e.g., Dockrell, 2021; Qari, 2021; Chong-yuan, 2021; Bukhari, 2020; Irshad & Ahmadian, 2018; Garcia-Fuentes & McDonough, 2018; Talati-Bagsiahi & Sarani, 2017; Yang, 2017; Zavialova, 2016; Takahashi, 2005; Bardovi-Harlig, 2001). Thus, the current study is designed to see the impact of giving explicit instructions on increasing the awareness of non-native speakers of a specific component in pragmatics, i.e., appropriate pragmatic language choices. In the next section, I talk about classroom research where I applied my explicit instruction.

3.7. Classroom research

The design of the main study followed a classroom research design introduced by Nunan (2005), who defined classroom research as empirical research conducted in the language classroom. Kasper and Roever (2005, p.322) called this procedure "interventional classroom research" to investigate how classroom intervention may support developing pragmatic competence for English language learners. The design adopted in this research can be classified under the range of instructed SLA, mainly because this research

investigates the outcomes of providing explicit instruction in acquiring some features in the L2 (Nunan, 2005).

Williams (2012) provided some features of classroom research settings: (i) an educational purpose is present; (ii) an instructor is present; and (iii) more than one learner is present. So, the role of the teacher and the influence of learners' communication are important in this type of research. One of the advantages of classroom research is that it can provide various data collection methods to give context-specific changes (Mackey, 2006). For example, in the current study, I asked the students about the pragmatic problems they faced in their academic life in the pilot study, so I could design materials to tackle the problem in their class, such as the best way to ask to borrow books from the library.

To see the effectiveness of using classroom research, I reviewed the following studies in the below table.

Table 3.3: An overview of studies that used explicit instruction in classroom research

Research study	Outcomes
Al-Qahtani (2020)	The study asserted that pragmatic competence training should be integrated into daily classroom activities to focus on L2 abilities such as speaking, listening, reading, and writing. When EFL teachers seek appropriate responses from their students, they should attempt to stimulate their interest by expanding L2 inputs and cultural features.
Yousefi and Nassaji (2019)	The study utilised 39 studies, revealing that face-to-face instruction produced a smaller effect than computer-assisted instruction regarding the effects of instruction and explicit feedback on L2 pragmatics. Face-to-face teaching was more effective than computer-assisted instruction.
Badjadi (2016)	The study examined 24 studies on the impacts of pragmatic instructional tasks on the production and comprehension of outcome criteria inside and outside of a classroom. The results showed that the treatments in which learners participated in meta-pragmatic discussion or contributed to recasting resulted in larger effect sizes.
Rajabia, Azizifar, and Gowhary (2015)	In an investigation of the effect of explicit instruction in a classroom on appropriate performance of request speech acts across two proficiency levels regarding two social variables, namely, status and distance, the study concluded that explicit instruction in a classroom is an effective facilitative tool in developing L2 learners' pragmatic competence. Further, L2 proficiency positively influences the overall appropriateness of speech act production.
Moody (2014)	The study explored whether the rules for pragmatics should be taught in a study with L2 beginner learners of Japanese as a foreign language. The author concluded that explicit instruction in a classroom might be best seen as a starting point for

preparing a space to engage with the target language and modify students' knowledge base to develop more individualised nuanced understandings of the target language.

The previous studies show that the classroom method was effective. Alcón (2005) claimed that the best context for developing pragmatic competence is in the classes of L2. Therefore, it is believed that employing pragmatic features such as speech acts and conversational implicatures in EFL classes can benefit L2 learners in the learning process. For instance, providing explicit instruction would help to avoid confusion in inferring conversational implicatures or using a certain speech act. Generally speaking, the research which examined the outcomes of giving explicit instruction in the form of metapragmatics (giving learners explicit information about form and function relationships) in a classroom confirmed that the learners who received explicit instructions performed better than the learners who had received implicit instructions. For instance, Wildner-Bassett (1984) worked on manoeuvrability to examine the different ways of expressing agreement and disagreement in a business context. The explicitly instructed group's results were better than the implicitly instructed group's, even when they were encouraged to look for certain pieces of guided information.

The quality of learning output is directly (but perhaps not exclusively) related to the quality of instruction. As opposed to traditional research, classroom research occurs when the researcher and the teaching practitioner are one and the same. Classroom research generates data that can be used to adjust curriculum, course content, delivery, and instructional practices. Furthermore, it usually follows certain steps such as identifying a problem, collecting data on prevalent classroom practice and their outcomes, trying an intervention, and evaluating the results. The present study has unique features which cast it perfectly in the mould

of classroom research. One of the main goals of this study is to develop the pragmatic competence of students who live in non-English environments. Kasper (1997) states that developing students' pragmatic competence is a main goal in EFL classrooms.

Furthermore, several studies have focused on raising awareness of pragmatic features to improve EFL students' pragmatic competence (Alcón & Martínez-Flor, 2008; Tateyama, 2019). Bardovi-Harlig (2016) conducted a study that likewise addressed the necessity for teaching pragmatic features to promote the acquisition of pragmatic knowledge in FEL environments. The lack of exposure to English outside the classroom in a non-English environment hinders the students' development of pragmatic features. So, to solve this specific problem, teachers are recommended to employ explicit instruction in an instructed classroom.

Another reason for using instructed classroom research is that most EFL contexts fail to develop pragmatic knowledge because most instructors and learners share the same L1 as well as the same social background in the process of pragmatic learning. Hussein and Albakri (2019) discussed several problems, one of which was the restricted variety of cultural interactions among students and teachers in the non-English-environment classroom. Others arose from the fact that their conversations were less complex in their structures and organisation, with less politeness in the general curriculum.

Besides, the current research encourages developing pragmatic competence explicitly in EFL environments by raising awareness of appropriate pragmatic language choices, as the pragmatic aspect covers most of the features in the

pragmatic field, such as politeness strategies, maxims, etc. Most of the studies presented in this field have recommended instructional classroom research to develop the acquisition gain in various areas (Bardovi-Harlig, 2016; Bardovi-Harlig, Griffin & Butler, 2005; Rose, 2005). Therefore, EFL teachers should implement pragmatically appropriate language features in their teaching to improve students' ability to use English appropriately. They should be encouraged to develop pragmatic competence explicitly in their classrooms for their English learners, especially those who are not exposed to enough input from native speakers and, consequently, are not provided with the possibility to acquire pragmatic features (Achiba, 2003; Edwards & Csizer, 2004).

Furthermore, Taguchi (2018) argued that instructional studies propose some perceptions in the development of pragmatic competence. Instructional studies are concerned with progress and the circumstances influencing the development, specifically with direct instruction as a factor, in order to measure its influence on learning results in the change in pragmatic knowledge from before the intervention to after it.

There has been a perception in the past that language classrooms are not ideal environments for learning pragmatics because they lack the functional and linguistic resources necessary for this type of learning. This statement has less to do with the way these learning environments are designed than with how SL and EFL classrooms are used. For example, Cook (2001) points out that EFL classrooms are characterised by limited input and practice because of two factors: first, the target language tends to be studied and not used for socialisation or communication purposes; and second, classroom organisation is teacher-led. As a result, one of the functions of pragmatic instruction is to compensate for the

incomplete or misleading input provided to learners by academic talk, instruction, and L2 learning materials. Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford (1996) have characterised traditional teacher-student talk as an unequal status encounter, where the teacher's speech does not serve as a good model for the learners' speech.

Similarly, Mir (1992) found that instruction sometimes emphasised one semantic formula over others, encouraging inappropriate overuse of some formulae. It is also common for L2 learning materials to be lacking in real-world examples of speech and language functions. For L2 students, and especially for those learning English as an L2, contextualised, pragmatically appropriate input is essential from the beginning of the learning process.

The role of explicit pragmatic instruction becomes even more important in EFL classrooms where opportunities for the full range of human interactions are limited, and as a consequence, learners have more difficulties in acquiring appropriate language use patterns (Rajabia & Azizifara, 2015; Sykes & Cohen, 2018; Kasper & Schmidt, 1996). Schmidt (2001) argued that pedagogical intervention is based on these ideas, which aim to make learners aware of their prior knowledge and how to use it in appropriate sociopragmatic contexts; and second, to help learners pay attention to both the linguistic forms of utterances and the relevant social and contextual features with which they are associated.

Grammar and literacy can be learned in SL and EFL contexts, but the development of pragmatic discourse and sociolinguistic ability has not been observed in the same way. For students, Kasper and Rose (2002) note that classrooms offer two modes for developing pragmatics: (1) students learn from

exposure and production through instructional activities not necessarily intended for the development of a pragmatic aspect; or (2) learners learn as a result of planned educational activities specifically directed toward the acquisition of pragmatics.

According to research, learning and teaching can be affected by the environment in which they are being conducted. Learning is supported in SLA contexts due to prior exposure to pragmatic aspects that are reinforced by instruction. Students can learn both in and out of the classroom in this way: in the classroom, by raising their awareness of the aspect under instruction; and outside, by focusing their attention on real occurrences of the targeted aspect, as well as by searching for opportunities to practice their skills (Kasper, 1997a, 1997b; Rose, 1999). As Kasper (2001) notes:

> "The great potential of L2 teaching for developing learners' pragmatic ability lies in its capacity to alert and orient learners to pragmatic features encountered outside the classroom, encourage them to try out new pragmatic strategies, reflect on their observations and their own language use, and obtain feedback" (p.56).

Foreign language learning contexts, on the other hand, are less favourable learning environments because they do not allow students to interact with native speakers of the target language. Since the traditional classroom format cannot meet these increased demands for language instruction, this constraint poses a serious problem. Authentic communication in the target language requires "linguistic action" that is not provided by classroom interaction, according to Kasper (1998). Since it has been established that EFL

classrooms do not provide enough conversational practice, regardless of how communicative and learner-cantered they are (Kasper & Rose, 2002), these limitations are specifically attributed to EFL classrooms. As a result,"...learners find it difficult to develop the processing control in utterance comprehension and production required for effective conversation participation" (p.26). In the next section, I show studies in the Saudi context that were interested in developing pragmatic competence.

3.8. Developing pragmatic competence studies in Saudi Arabia

Many studies have been conducted in the Saudi context regarding developing pragmatic competence. In the next section, I will review the most recent ones, starting with Almegren's (2022) study, then Qari's (2021) study, Qadha et al.'s (2021) study, Aljasir's (2021), Al-Qahtani's (2020) study, and Alsuhaibani's (2022) study:

Table 3.4: An overview of studies on developing pragmatic competence in the Saudi context

Research study	Outcomes
Almegren (2022)	The study investigated the level of pragmatic awareness among 56 male and female Saudi EFL intermediate to advanced learners. The findings of the study reported that these Saudi EFL learners had a medium level of awareness and there were no differences amongst the participants because of gender. The study urged EFL teachers to create a good learning environment to increase learners' pragmatic abilities. The limitation of this study came from the instruments, so the advised using different tool.
Qari (2021)	The study explored the impact of explicit instruction on developing Saudi EFL abilities in making requests. The study recruited 30 female students during the foundation year. The study used an experimental design, pre- and post-tests and found that, after the treatment, the Saudi EFL learners achieved great progress. Thus, explicit teaching of pragmatic elements can participate in developing learners' competence in pragmatics. The limitation of this study is that the teaching session was only provided once.
Qadha et al. (2021)	The research studied the effect of social media platforms in developing Saudi EFL learners' use of requests. The study of 40 students in pre- and post-tests showed that the experimental group outscored the control group. One of the limitations reported in this study is the need to include qualitative data to further elicit students' views and attitudes towards the use of social networking tools for learning English,
Aljasir (2021)	The study recruited 212 Saudi participants to use discourse completion analysis (DCT), role play, and interviews in giving advice. The results showed that the pragmatic performance was influenced by the pragmatic and linguistic competence of the learners. One of the reported limitations in this study is the lack of delayed test.

Alsuhaibani (2022)	This study focused on the effect of consciousness-raising instruction and corpus-based instruction on EFL students' development of compliment responses. It employed a quasi-experimental design with 136 EFL university students divided between three groups: control, consciousness-raising, and corpus groups. And used DCT as a pre- and post-test with all the groups to investigate any significant differences between them. The results showed the effectiveness of pragmatic instruction of compliment responses through both consciousness-raising instruction and corpus- based instruction. One reported limitation in this study was the use of DCT.
Al-Qahtani (2020)	The study investigated the need for teaching pragmatic competence to Saudi EFL learners. He explored 160 Saudi instructors' implementation of pragmatics while teaching. The study also examined the difficulties teachers face while applying such language elements. The study reported that Saudi teachers were aware of the importance of developing pragmatic competence in their students. However, the level of implementation of the pragmatic elements in the classroom was not satisfactory. One reported limitation in this study came from the segregation nature followed in the Saudi teaching system.

As stated above, many studies have considered the Saudi EFL context of pragmatics. However, no study to my knowledge has explored the impact of explicit teaching to develop female learners' abilities in understanding and producing appropriate pragmatic language choices at B1 proficiency level. Yet, there has been no previous study focused on an experimental design and explicit teaching and using technology (CAPT) to improve Saudi EFL female learners' use of the target language.

3.9. Research gaps

As suggested in the previous studies, raising the awareness of appropriate spoken pragmatic language choices explicitly is generally beneficial in developing L2 pragmatic competence (e.g., Dockrell, 2021; Qari, 2021; Chong-yuan, 2021; Bukhari, 2020; Irshad & Ahmadian, 2018; Garcia-Fuentes & McDonough, 2018; Talati-Bagsiahi & Sarani, 2017; Yang, 2017; Zavialova, 2016; Takahashi, 2005). However, most reviewed studies in sections 3.5 and 3.8 showed significant methodological problems that may have impacted the findings. First, the lack of delayed tests which has affected the results because there is a need to have evidence that the teaching method has a longer term effect (e.g., Almegren, 2022; Qari, 2021; Qadha et al., 2021; Aljasir, 2021; Al-Qahtani, 2020). To overcome this gap, I planned to include a four-week delayed test

to see the effects of explicit instruction in longer terms. Second, the results from data collection tools which are commonly used in L2 pragmatic research such as Discourse Completion Tasks (DCTs) reflect participants' perceptions of what they may say rather than what they might actually say in a particular setting. Most of the studies I examined in the Saudi context used DCTs or Role-Play to collect their data and reported these methods in their limitations (e.g., Alsuhaibani, 2022; Almegren, 2022; Qari, 2021; Qadha et al., 2021; Aljasir, 2021; Al-Qahtani, 2020).

n this research, I chose to overcome this gap by employing a Virtual Role Play CAPT, so I could elicit data for this study by simulating authentic spoken dialogue in terms of length and richness, which is a definite advantage over written tools (Halenko, 2013).

Third, most of the mentioned studies compare the results of an experimental group to native speakers or to each other's (e.g., Alsuhaibani, 2022; Almegren, 2022; Qari, 2021; Qadha et al., 2021; Aljasir, 2021; Al-Qahtani, 2020) in this study, I hired raters to evaluate the answers according to appropriacy rather than accuracy (see 5.8). I compared the experimental group's results to exposure by including a control group whose members did not receive any intervention. Finally, to my knowledge, previous research has not looked at the impact of the explicit for Saudi EFL learners at B1 CEFR students in EFL setting. The main goal of the current study is to expand on the existing research that looks at the effects of explicit pragmatic training and interlanguage pragmatics.

3.10. Conclusion

This chapter has provided an overview of appropriate pragmatic language choices. In section 3.2, I presented an overview of appropriate pragmatic language choices; this section covered conversational implicatures in section 3.2.1, politeness strategies in 3.2.2., and the speech acts of requests in 3.2.3. I explained the formula-based approach

in section 3.3. Existing studies on declarative and procedural knowledge were considered in section 3.4., followed by previous research on the use of technology in the classroom and the importance of providing explicit instruction in sections 3.5. and 3.6. In connecting the literature to the current study, I discussed the value of classroom research in section 3.7. Finally, I concluded with studies from the Saudi context on developing pragmatic competence in section 3.8., setting the scene for the presentation of my own research in the following chapters, beginning with the pilot study.

Chapter Four: **Pilot Study**

4.1. Introduction

To determine whether and to what extent statistical evidence would support the study's aims and goals, I decided to conduct a pilot study with two groups of learners. The reason is to examine the validity of the research method in the planned experimental study and find answers to the research questions as defined in section 1.5. In this chapter I show an outline and justification of the pilot study, starting with the study design (4.2) and details of the participants (4.3), aims in section (4.4), method, instruments, and ethical procedure in sections (4.5, 4.6, and 4.7), and finally discussion of the data treatment and analysis in section (4.8).

4.2. Study design

The purpose of this pilot study is to examine the effects of providing explicit instruction on developing EFL female Saudi learners' pragmatic competence and to discover whether it would raise their awareness of how to comprehend and produce appropriate pragmatic linguistic choices (see sections 3.2., 3.3., and 3.6.). As I mentioned in section (3.2.), *appropriateness* is defined as "the knowledge of the conventions of communication in a society, as well as linguistic abilities that enable learners to communicate successfully in L2" (Taguchi, 2006a; p.513). The study followed an experimental design in which pre- and post-tests were performed on experimental and control groups. Table 4.1 shows information about the pilot study:

Table 4.1: An overview of the pilot study

Number of students	30
Average age of the students	M = 21, SD = 2.82
Number of groups	2
Names of groups	Experimental group and control group
Number of students in each group	15
Location	Saudi Arabia
Level of English	B1
Treatment type for the experimental group only	Explicit instruction on how to understand and produce appropriate pragmatic language to develop pragmatic competence
Treatment duration	Ten hours of explicit instruction equally divided across five days (for the experimental group only)
Number of tests for both groups	2
Name of tests	Recognition task and production task
Stages of the tests	Pre-test and post-test.
Method of evaluating the production task	By hiring two experienced native speakers who judged how appropriate the responses were for the context and the relationship between the participants.

Table 4.1 above shows the number of participants, which was 30 students, and their average age was 21 (M = 21, SD = 2.82). Each group had 15 students. The table also shows that the students' level was B1 (B1 CFER is defined in section 1.2.). All the participants were recruited from a Saudi university located in Saudi Arabia. The students participated in both the recognition and production tests. Only the experimental group members received ten hours of explicit instruction intended to raise their awareness of how to understand and produce appropriate pragmatic choices (defined in sections 3.2.) to develop their pragmatic competence.

The pilot study design consisted of two groups: experimental and control group. Each group included 15 non-native female speakers (Saudi) who were studying English in a non-English environment, EFL. The experimental group was explicitly instructed (see section 3.6.) on interpreting and producing appropriate pragmatic

language choices. In contrast, the other group acted as the control group, whose members received the tests only, without having any explicit intervention on how to produce and understand appropriate pragmatic choices. The experimental group members received instruction for two hours a day for five days. The design of the instructions followed Thomas (1983) in concentrating on sociopragmatic features of spoken conversational implicatures, politeness strategies, and indirect requests of speech acts focused on interlanguage pragmatics, and specifically, pragmatic failure. To quote:

> "While pragmalinguistic failure is basically a linguistic problem caused by differences in the linguistic encoding of pragmatic force, sociopragmatic failure stems from cross-culturally different perceptions of what constitutes appropriate linguistic behaviour." (Thomas, 1983, p. 99).

The instruction consisted of training the participants to observe the direct and indirect meanings of appropriate pragmatic language choices (see section 3.2.). I focused on the differences between the literal and underlying meaning by explicitly raising the students' awareness of conversational implicature and maxims (see section 3.2.1.), raising their awareness of how to use appropriate politeness strategies and FTAs (see section 3.2.2.), as well as explaining requests and formulaic sequences (see section 3.2.3., and 3.4.), in the context of their daily academic life, which these students usually encounter in academic settings in their EFL classes. Further details of the instruction are provided in section 4.5.1 and in Appendix 10. I chose to raise awareness of these specific pragmatic forms because I believe that they can be implemented in an existing curriculum.

These students were recruited from the English department of a university that exists in Saudi Arabia. The reasons for choosing this sample of students are discussed in detail in

section 4.3.1. The students were B1 level according to the CEFR classification, which means that they were intermediate English users, defined as:

> "Can understand straightforward factual information about common, everyday or job-related topics, identifying both general messages and specific details, provided speech is clearly articulated in a generally familiar accent. Can understand the main points of clear standard speech on familiar matters regularly encountered in work, school, leisure, etc., including short narratives" (Council of Europe. 2018, p. 55).

The English proficiency level of the students was decided by looking at the requirements for acceptance (eligibility criteria) in the English department at their university. One of the requirements to be accepted in this department is to be at least B1 in CEFR.

This study employed an experimental design to measure the changes that might occur at two different times: pre-test and post-test. The design of the two stages followed two main methods: a) pre-test: the first stage was a week before giving the members of the two groups any instruction on how to be aware of appropriate pragmatic choices; and b) post-test: the second step was immediately after giving only one of the two groups' planned classes of explicit instruction. The next section discusses the reasons for choosing this study design.

4.2.1. Rationale for the study design

There were three main aspects to the study design. First, this study applied an experimental design as it compared two groups of thirty learners at the same proficiency level and used a pre- and post-tests as one form of data collection. The design was intended to test the effectiveness of explicit instruction in terms of understanding and producing appropriate pragmatic language. The use of a control group aimed to

demonstrate that the target items would not be acquired through simple exposure to input in the non-English speaking environment, i.e., that there was a positive effect of explicit teaching.

Secondly, I followed a quantitative research method. The reason for applying a quantitative method in the pilot study was that this part of the research was exploratory. It explored what the students may achieve by applying numerical values for easy comparison and conducting precise assessment measurements such as t-tests. Using a quantitative method would help in answering the research question at this stage because I only needed to see if explicit instruction was effective by looking at numbers and test the instruments (Hodis & Hancock, 2016). It was felt that drawing a conclusion between the two groups and the effect of explicit instruction on students' appropriate language choices would be achieved by using a quantitative approach in collecting and analysing the data to see the effect of using specific instruments.

Thirdly, I followed a classroom research approach similar to Cohen, Mannion, and Morrison (2007), fundamentally defined by Bailey and Nunan (2005) as research conducted in school settings and concerning teaching and learning (see section 3.7.). Kasper and Roever (2005) offered this model of classroom research to study how different varieties of classroom interventions might enhance teaching non-native speakers. The reason for choosing classroom research is to provide an inductive learning environment where I offer specific focus on spoken appropriate pragmatic language choices to raise the student's awareness of pragmatic competence. I will provide more information about this type of research in the next chapter, which deals with the methodology of the main study. So, the classroom research design was chosen as the best way to deliver and test the intended instruction planned in this study. In this setting, I can find out if what I am testing is directly applicable to teaching.

4.3.Participants

The participants in the pilot study were 30 Saudi female undergraduate year two students in the English department, Saudi Arabia. They were divided into two groups of 15, as follows:

- Experimental group: the group members were explicitly instructed on comprehending and producing appropriate pragmatic choices to develop their pragmatic competence appropriacy (experimental = 15).

- Control group: the members acted as a non-instructed group (control = 15).

Cohen and Macaro (2010) suggested adding a control group to compare the results between the two groups after providing the experimental group with the planned treatment. The control group played the opposite concerning the instruction provided, as they received no specific instruction. Like the experimental group, the control group members attended all the tests.

The participants selected for this study were randomly assigned to each group. The participants in both groups had never studied abroad, and they had been learning English for 6 to 9 years in Saudi Arabia (M = 7.5, SD = 2.12). The age of the participants was between 19 and 23 years old (M = 21, SD = 2.82). All the participants were female students because of the segregated nature of universities in Saudi Arabia. They are all Saudis and were recruited because the study conditions applied to them as they were in the second year in the English department. Their English proficiency level was B1 in CEFR (Council of Europe, 2018). The organisation of the participants into groups is depicted in figure 4.1 below:

Figure 4.1: The organization of participants into groups
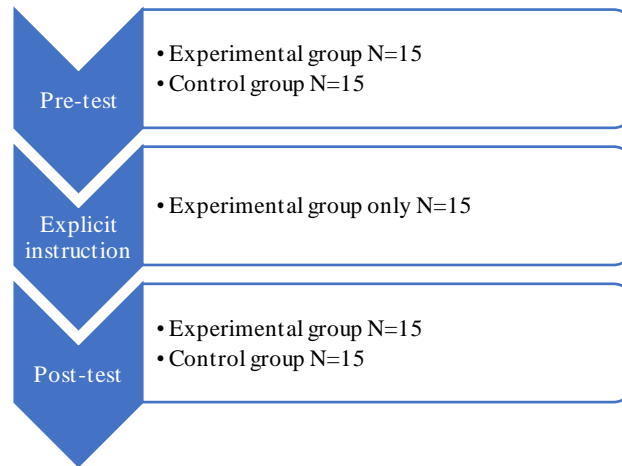
There were two tests: a pre-test and a post-test. In between the pre-test and the post-test, there was a time gap of a week to allow the experimental group to receive their explicit instruction. Fifteen of the 30 participants were randomly assigned to the experimental group and informed that they should meet me, the researcher, for ten hours of classes on developing pragmatic awareness, divided over a week before the second test was given. They were also requested to come to the agreed place on the campus to get their training as well as at the two agreed times for the pre- and post-tests. All the participants were thus explicitly informed about the entire schedule. The next section provides reasons for choosing the mentioned sample.

4.3.1. Rationale for the sample size

The type of sampling in this study followed 'purposive sampling' (Cohen et al. 2007, pp.114). In the pilot study as well as in the main study, I only chose students who had the following characteristics: shared the same first language, the same level of English as B1, were females, and were studying in the English department at a Saudi university. Thus, this sample was homogenous as described by Don Yei (2007, p. 127) because the students were all the same nationality, gender, course, and level. The purpose of choosing this sample type was to examine two groups with similar features.

As for the sample size, Griffee (2012) considered a sample to be not less than 25 or 30. In this study, the number of students was kept as 15 per group in accordance with Dörnyei's (2007) suggestion for the kind of design chosen here. Next, I move to discuss the aims of this pilot study.

4.4.Aims

This pilot study explored the ways EFL Saudi female learners interpret and produce appropriate pragmatic language choices in their EFL environment. It was hypothesised that, as a part of their communicative competence, Arab speakers' ability to understand and produce indirect forms of language, such as implied meanings in English, might be determined by some variables that were covered in the pilot study, such as the non-native speakers' overall proficiency level in English and their strategic competence due to the differences in pragmatic functions between Arabic and English (Omara, 1993).

This part of the study aims to seek primary answers to the following research question:

> **RQ. To what extent does explicit instruction help B1 level Saudi learners to improve their recognition and production knowledge of appropriate pragmatic language choices?**

4.5.Data collection procedure

The process in this pilot study was as follows: to begin with, the students were shown animated videos in CAPT (explained in section 4.6), content which had a reasonable occurrence of pragmatic implications in English. Then, I recorded the groups' spontaneous responses (N = 180) to questions based on the videos using my iPhone and a Dictaphone and transcribed their answers afterward. Two experienced English-native speaker teachers were hired to assess these transcriptions based on appropriateness only. The raters were asked to overlook any other aspect and focus on the situation itself and

the relationship between the participants in these questions and mark them on a five-point

Likert Scale for pragmatic appropriateness (see 3.2.). To ensure objectivity, the raters

were not informed of the group to which any of the responses belonged. The following

scale was used in rating the responses:

5= Excellent - expressions are fully appropriate for the situation.

4= Good - expressions are mostly appropriate.

3= Fair - expressions are only somewhat appropriate.

2= Poor - appositeness is difficult to be determined.

1= Very poor - there is no evidence that the intended speech acts are

performed.

The method for collecting the data in the production task was as presented in Figure 4.2

below:

Figure 4.2: How the quantitative data were collected and treated in the production task
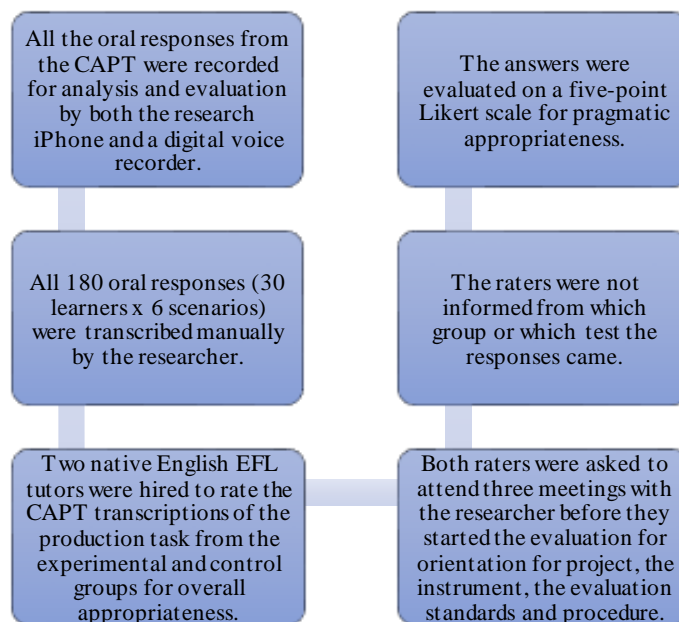
The scores allotted by the raters were then fed into SPSS, the computer software for

statistical analysis, to figure out trends in the students' answers (discussed in detail in

section 4.8).

Figure 4.3 below shows how the written transcriptions were transformed into numbers in the production task to quantify the data.

Figure 4.3: Obtaining data for the quantitative method in the production task

| The transcriptions of the two tests provided from the two groups were given to the raters. | The raters were asked to evaluate from 1 to 5 according to the appropriacy of the statements. | SPSS was used to check if the data were normally distributed using a parametric test. |
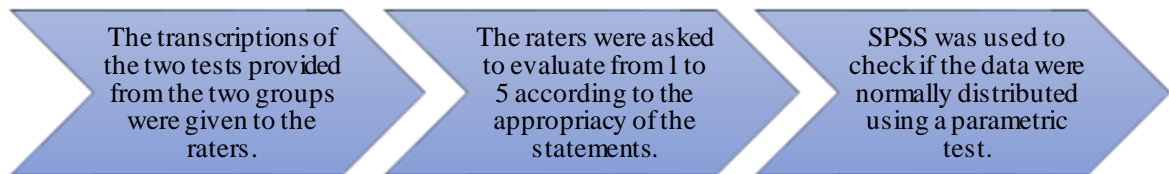
In the pilot study, there were two primary data collection stages: the instructional stage and the testing stage. I first present the instruction phase in section 4.5.1 below, to be followed by an outline of the instruction provided in the classroom. I then explain the teaching materials covered in these classes as well as the activities conducted. In the end, I conclude with examples that were provided in these classes. Section 4.5.2 presents the details of the tests provided, which were two: recognition and production tasks. Then in section 4.8, I present an overview of the data treatment and analysis.

4.5.1. Instruction phase

In the instruction phase, I designed a classroom-based explicit instruction for the intervention on comprehending and producing appropriate pragmatic forms to develop the pragmatic competence of the participants from the experimental group (see sections 3.6. & 3.7.). These classes lasted for ten hours, spread equally across five days. The idea of designing these materials to fit in a short time is that these materials can be implemented in an existing curriculum in EFL Saudi classes. Figure 4.4 below illustrates an overview of the five days (see Appendix 11 for more details on what happened in the classes, and Table 5.4).

Figure 4.4: Instructional stages of the intervention
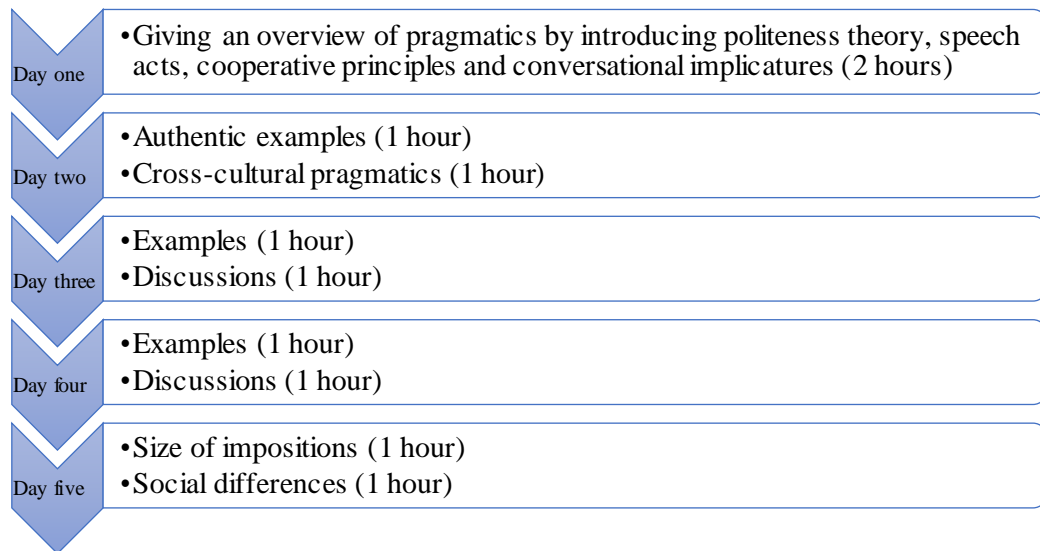
The specificities of the materials/ methods used each day in the intervention are discussed below:

Day 1

i. Providing an overview of pragmatics by introducing politeness theory, speech acts, cooperative principles and conversational implicatures.

ii. Discussion on what we mean by pragmatics and why it is essential to develop an awareness of pragmatic competence.

iii. Introduction to the Speech Acts Theory with detailed instruction about the locutionary, illocutionary, and perlocutionary acts leading to a discussion about the underlying meaning, such as requests, apologies, compliments, etc.

iv. Activities focused on complaining, apologising, greeting, requesting, and giving explanations. These forms can be modified to other speech acts to increase learners' pragmatic awareness and competence in different situations. The idea behind choosing these broad terms is not to cover all the situations, because it is impossible to include all the contexts, and it is more practical to give the learners the means they require to improve their pragmatic competence. In this way, teachers can provide learners with the methods of how to interact more productively and confidently in English.

Day 2

i. Introduction to authentic examples of what Taguchi (2011) concentrated on as the *awareness-developing approach,* which focuses on social context, practical language use, and encouraging teaching materials that enhance pragmatic and intercultural competencies such as situations that the students may encounter in their everyday academic lives. Bolitho et al. (2003) suggested using text awareness, which means using activities in the classroom that urge the students to notice the differences between spoken and written materials and relate these differences to their L1. One of the examples was:

> *(Two teenage boys are talking to one another.)*
>
> *John: Hey Randy, that's SOME tie you're wearing!*
>
> *Randy: You like it? My grandmother gave it to me for my birthday...*
>
> *John: She really has a good sense of humour!*
>
> **Question: What do you think John is trying to tell Randy?**
>
> a. He doesn't like the tie.
>
> b. He appreciates the fact that his grandmother has a sense of humour.
>
> c. The tie looks great because it is funny.
>
> d. Randy looks funny because he is wearing a tie.

On the other hand, I covered topics about cross-cultural pragmatics for almost an hour. I presented authentic examples to clarify cross-cultural pragmatics: differences in understanding appropriateness in different cultural backgrounds. See appendix 11 for full details.

ii. Talking about different cultures and how people in these cultures can interpret situations differently (Hyland & Paltridge, 2011). One of the examples was linked to 'phatic' and 'real' expressions, such as the following example:

How are you? To an English or Arab person, the answer should be phatic,

whereas in French it is a real question that requires providing many details.

Days 3, 4

On these two days, I enumerated some more examples, including some animated videos

not included in the test, and invited the students to show their understanding by reacting

to some situations focusing on how they would respond if they were in the same position.

During these two days, I focused on:

- Cross-cultural analyses and discussion of the appropriacy of sample conversational

  implicatures and speech acts that are practised in academic situations.

- Language focus on how to use formulaic sequences in individual speech acts such as

  indirect requests: *would you please help me?*

- The students were invited to compare their knowledge with what they had learned in

  these sessions (see Appendix 11 for the materials).

Day 5

i. Introduced the terms power, social distance, and the size of imposition, the three factors

that speakers should consider while interacting with each other (Brown & Levinson,

1987). Since the concept was foreign to the participants, I explained to them that 'power'

implies the social status of the speaker and hearer. I provided examples while changing

the interlocutor to enable the students to notice that we can use one sentence but change

its meaning just by changing the person who had altered the sentence and our relationship

with the person who had presented this sentence. By 'social distance', the degree of

familiarity between the interlocutors is implied. I further explained to them that in speech

acts, and one varies the linguistic forms to imply 'respect, deference, and politeness'

(Kida, 2011, p.183). Finally, the 'magnitude of imposition' is the extent of leverage that

the speaker enjoys in terms of the ability to impose his/ her ideas on others.

The 15 assigned students in the experimental group were expected to attend all the classes from day one until the last day, for two hours every day. I designed all the classroom materials to test them in this pilot study. At this stage, I played the role of a facilitator in all the discussions and material used in the classroom. I also was the director and corrector of the students' use of language. Next, I move to explain the testing phase.

4.5.2. Testing phase

The following segment presents a summary of the tests that were administered in the pilot study. The pilot study lasted for three weeks, including one week/ten hours of explicit instruction to develop pragmatic awareness of spoken appropriate pragmatic forms. The following Figure 4.5 shows how I divided the tests in relation to time in the pilot study:

Figure 4.5: An overview of the time of each test

Week one: Pre-test (CAPT: production and recognition tasks)

Week two: Post-immediate test (CAPT: production and recognition tasks)
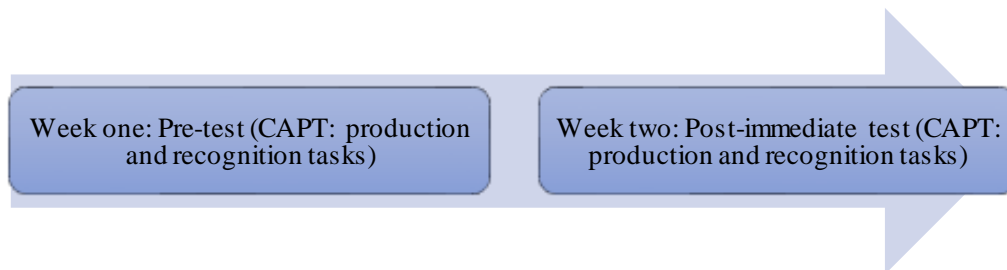
The study used CAPT, a computer-animated production task (explained and defined in sections 3.5., 4.6., and 5.6) in two stages: pre-test and post-test, to measure the students' production of indirect requests of speech acts and understanding of conversational implicatures in the current stage. The same test was repeated to each student in both the groups two times in the two stages, and the same CAPT videos were shown to the students in a different order each time they took a test to avoid memorising the answers.

As previously stated, the current study included pre- and post-immediate tests. The comparison between the pre-test and the post-immediate test showed the impact of the explicit instruction on the participants. In the next section, I talk about the instruments.

4.6. Instruments

The instruments used to obtain data in the pilot study was CAPT, an oral computer-animated production test employing animated characters to play the roles in all the scenes, which I explain in detail in section 4.6.1 below. The students' answers were recorded in two different styles: a) oral recordings and b) written multiple-choice forms (see Appendices 3 and 4).

The total number of scenarios in the pilot study was 13, containing scenarios in the test designed to focus on EAP situations in and around the university; these were designed by Cornbleet (2000). Each scene introduced a short dialogue, and the message in each was carried out through an illocutionary force presented by the animated characters. All the questions asked by the animated characters had been tested before by Cornbleet (2000) using Discourse Completion Tasks DCTs, so their answers were written, not spoken, as in this research. Also, the written questionnaire by Cornbleet (2000) was presented in this research as animated scenes using a computer programme called Animaker[1].

These scenarios were divided into two parts: Recognition Task and Production Task (see Tables 4.3 and 4.5). The recognition task consisted of seven scenarios, while the production task consisted of six scenarios. All the scenarios were related to the students' academic life around the university. So, the students' answers were expected to be related to the situation, keeping in mind the social distance, power, and the size of the imposition in order to respond in an appropriate and pragmatic way. The animated characters in the presented scenes were resampled people who could be found in academic contexts, such as lecturers, security guards, and fellow students. According to Brown and Levinson (1987), students should keep in mind the social distance (role) and the size of the

---

[1] https://www.animaker.com/

imposition to successfully choose or produce the expected correct answer either in the

production or the recognition tasks. The situations were presented in random order to

avoid obtaining the same responses in the pre-test and post-test in both tasks. The

abbreviations used by Brown et al. (1987) are presented in the following Table 4.2:

Table 4.2: The abbreviations according to Brown et al. (1987)

Power	+/- (P)
Social Distance	+/- (D)
Size of Imposition/Role	+/- (R)

Note: (+) indicates a high P, D or R and (-) indicates a low P, D or R

The following Figure 4.6 shows that in the organisation of tests in the pilot study, the

recognition task came before the production task.

Figure 4.6: Test presentation
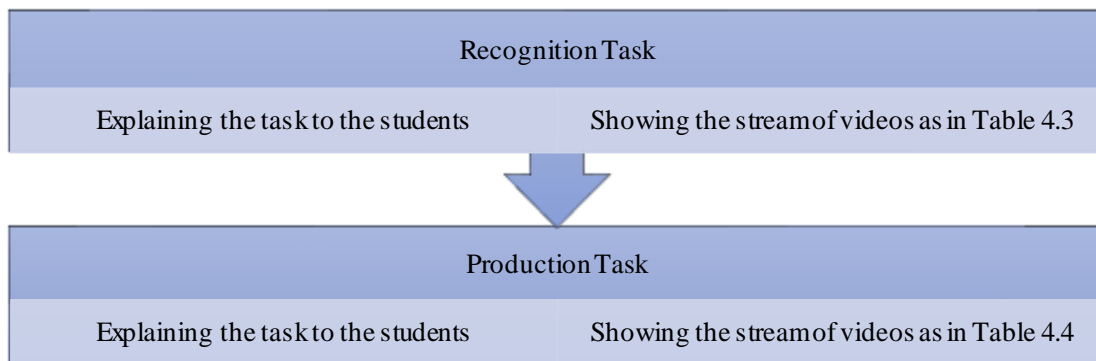
The recognition task consisted of seven animated scenes; a multiple-choice question with

two options followed each scene. Thus, one of the given options indicated a direct answer,

and the second one suggested an indirect answer. If the students chose the indirect

meaning option, it meant that they understood the conversational implicature, and vice

versa (Cornbleet, 2000). The correct answer should be the indirect answer in all seven

scenarios. In this part, the participants were asked to choose one of the two given answers

just by circling what they thought was the correct answer. The following example is the

first question of the seven used. The question was presented as seen by the students who were asked to choose one of the two given options:

Some students are talking in the lecture hall. The lecturer turns to them and says:

I suggest you stop talking and pay attention.

This is:

    a) A suggestion?

    b) An order?

The correct answer expected here is that the statement is b) an order. In the following Table 4.3, I present the type of illocutionary force of the implicatures provided in the underlying meaning of each statement.

Table 4.3: Recognition Task (Cornbleet, 2000)

	Conversational implicatures (Imposition (R))	**Interlocutor (Social distance (D)/power (P))**	**The situation as seen by the students**
Scene 1 *Noisy class*	An order (+R)	A lecturer (+D), (+P)	Some students are talking in the lecture hall. The lecturer turns to them and says: 'I suggest you stop talking and pay attention' This is: a) a suggestion b) an order
Scene 2 *Need to sit down*	Making a request (+R)	A student (-D), (-P)	A student's coat is on the seat beside her which is the only available place in the crowded lecture hall. Another student comes up and says: 'Err… is that your coat?' The student is: a) making a request b) asking for information
Scene 3 *Giving an opinion*	Add a point of disagreement. (-R)	Colleagues (-D), (-P)	In the course of a discussion, one of the groups starts by saying: 'Mm… I agree….' The speaker goes on to: a) add a point of disagreement b) explain her agreement
Scene 4 *Always late*	Making a criticism (+R)	A tutor (+D), (+P)	A student who is always late to class arrives late yet again. The tutor says: 'Have you thought of buying a new alarm clock?' The tutor is: a) making a recommendation

			b) making a criticism
Scene 5 *Supervisor's comment*	A criticism (+R)	A supervisor (+D), (+P)	A supervisor writes at the end of a student's written assignment: 'This has been written about by more people than Austin and Brown, you know'. This is: a) a comment b) a criticism
Scene 6 *Stop smoking*	Giving instruction. (+R)	A porter (+D), (+P)	A porter passes some students in the corridor and says: 'There's no smoking in this building'. The porter is: a) giving an instruction b) giving information
Scene 7 *A stressed friend*	Offering (-R)	A fellow student (-D), (-P)	In the computer centre, a student is having difficulty typing a document to meet a deadline. A fellow student says: 'I am quite fast at typing'. The student is: a) boasting b) offering help

Note: (+) indicates a high P, D or R and (-) indicates a low P, D or R

On the other hand, the production task, which was presented after the recognition task, consisted of six scenarios. In this section, the students were asked to record their answers as responses to specific situations provided, to measure whether they answered using direct speech acts or indirect. Their answer depended on how they understood the indirect meaning by considering the size of the imposition and the social distance between the participants.

The following Table 4.4 shows the CAPT scenarios used in the production task:

Table 4.4: Production Task (Cornbleet, 2000)

	Conversational implicatures (Imposition (R))	**Interlocutor (Social distance (D)/power (P))**	**Situation as seen by the students**

Scene 1 *Eating in the classroom*	Order (+R)	A supervisor's message (-D), (+P)	Your supervisor has asked you, as the group representative, to tell the class that students are not allowed to eat or drink in the classroom. As you enter the room to tell them, everyone is eating/drinking.
Scene 2 *An annoying neighbour*	Complain (+R)	A neighbour (+D), (-P)	In your accommodation, the person next door, whom you don't know very well, is playing the radio loudly. You can't study, and so you go and knock on the door.
Scene 3 *A friend who is embarrassing herself*	Advise/ criticise (+R)	A friend (-D), (-P)	You and a friend are planning what to wear for the graduation ceremony. You think your friend's skirt is too short and makes her look terrible.
Scene 4 *Busy friend*	Request (+R)	A busy friend (-D), (-P)	You are having trouble getting the computer printer to work. Your friend is very busy but knows all about computers.
Scene 5 *Tourist advice*	Advise recommendation (-R)	A fellow friend (-D), (-P)	A fellow student is going on holiday to the place you visited last year but does not know where to stay. You know an excellent hotel there.
Scene 6 *Providing wrong information*	Interrupt/ criticise (+R)	A friend (-D), (-P)	One of your friends tells a group of you that 20% of the students at your university are from overseas, but you know it is 10%.

Note: (+) indicates a high P, D or R and (-) indicates a low P, D or R

The answers of the students in this part were recorded and then transcribed by me (the researcher) to ensure the spontaneity of the answers. The reason for choosing CAPT as a data collection method is explained in the next section.

4.6.1. The rationale for using CAPT

The main instrument used to collect the data in the pilot study was an oral CAPT following the technology-based method that Halenko (2013) introduced. As mentioned above, the written scenes were transferred to animated characters using a website called Animaker. Animaker is an online site that enables users to transform texts into animated scenes. In order to fully control the characters and the accents in their speech, a certain amount of subscription fee needs to be paid every month. I used the functions on this website to create the characters in my study. The characters that I created played semi-authentic roles in the scenes. Semi-authentic indicates materials and activities that feel authentic but are created for pedagogical goals. These scenes simulated situations that would occur in real academic contexts (EAP). So, the users of this website could choose the character, the décor of the setting, and the accent used to ask the questions.

The reason behind using animated characters rather than normal DCTs was to enact semi-authentic roles with appropriate pragmatic language choices in the scenes. Halenko (2017) said that CAPT addresses some disadvantages of traditional written DCTs, such as the authenticity of interaction and learner answers. For example, the computer-animated characters can show a variety of non-verbal cues, such as facial expressions and gestures, that are believed to be as effective as verbal cues. Secondly, authentic voice recordings can be uploaded for the characters aspiring to imitate semi-authentic interaction in the academic environment. Halenko (2013) notes that CAPT successfully elicits language closer to what students would say in a given situation rather than what they might say compared to written DCTs. For instance, Halenko found that written DCT responses tended to be longer and often included irrelevant elements, unlike the more practical CAPT replies. It might provide more information than what would happen in a real situation because when the participants are asked to write what is often said, they

have the time to think and choose specific vocabulary that they would not usually prefer in a verbal situation.

Figures 4.7 and 4.8 below illustrate two of the scenes used in this study. The students were asked to record their answers in response to the scenes in the production task scene (or choose the correct answer in case they had the recognition task). So, the procedure was as follows:

a) The students were seated in front of the screen, then they would be asked to use headphones.

b) I played the animated scene to the participants (all the parts were timed).

c) I asked the students to start recording their answers (or choose the correct answer in case they had the recognition task). See Figure 4.10 for the detailed mention of time.

Figure 4.7: Asking a busy friend for help, scene 4 from the production task CAPT

You are having trouble getting the computer printer to work.
Your friend is very busy but knows all about computers.

Figure 4.8: Offering help to a stressed friend, scene 7 from the recognition task CAPT

In the computer center, a student is having difficulty typing a document to meet a deadline.

A fellow student says:

I am quite fast at typing

The students were required to read an introductory slide. Figures 4.9 and 4.10 below illustrate the procedure, which delivers the instructions for the following presentation in 7 seconds. Then, the next slide was automatically shown to them, introducing scene 1. Then they were given 15 seconds to record their answer. Immediately after that, stage 2 was played. This was the procedure for both receptive and production tasks. In the final step, a slide was shown to the participants, thanking them for completing the test. Figure 4.9 below shows this procedure in the production task:

A similar procedure was followed in the recognition task instead of recording the students' answers. This time, I provided the students with papers containing the same questions played in front of them, followed by the multiple-choice answers. All the steps were timed as in the production task. Figure 4.10 below breaks down the procedure for this task:

Figure 4.9: The production task breakdown
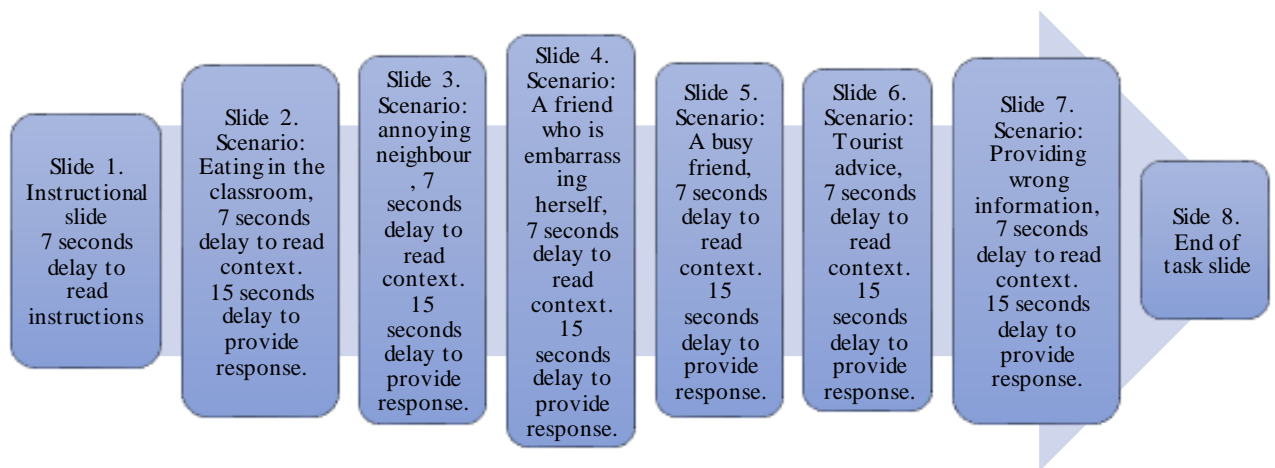
Figure 4.10: The recognition task breakdown

| Slide 1. Instructional slide 7 seconds delay to read instructions | Slide 2. Scenario: Noisy classroom, 7 seconds delay to read context. 7 seconds delay to choose an answer. | Slide 3. Scenario: Need to sit down, 7 seconds delay to read context. 7 seconds delay to choose an answer. | Slide 4. Scenario: Giving an opinion, 7 seconds delay to read context. 7 seconds delay to choose an answer. | Slide 5. Scenario: Always late, 7 seconds delay to read context. 7 seconds delay to choose an answer. | Slide 6. Scenario, A supervisor's comment, 7 seconds delay to read context. 7 seconds delay to choose an answer. | Slide 7. Scenario: Stop smoking 7 seconds delay to read context. 7 seconds delay to choose an answer. | Slide 8. Scenario: A stressed friend, 7 seconds delay to read context. 7 seconds delay to choose an answer. | Side 9. End of task slide |

4.7. Ethical procedure

It was crucial to obtain ethical approval for both the pilot and the main study. I obtained this form from the University of Liverpool Ethics Committee, allowing me to conduct my research overseas. All participants signed a consent form specifying how the data would be used and an information sheet. I highlighted the fact that all the data would be used anonymously and confidentially and that they were free to leave the study whenever they wished without any consequences. The 30 female non-native speakers from the pilot study and the 70 from the main study who were all studying in the English department were contacted individually by the researcher (me) either through emails or text messages. The students were informed about the nature of the study, stating that the researcher was interested in the comprehension of appropriate pragmatic language choices of non-native speakers of English (see Appendix 7). In relation to the Saudi university, which was my original workplace, I contacted the Dean of the university by email, and he assured me that an email confirmation is enough to conduct the study at the university.

4.8. Data treatment and analysis

The following sections offer the quantitative analysis for the production task and recognition task used in this pilot study. Starting with the recognition data in section 4.8.1 and the production task in section 4.8.2, then I answer the research question in 4.8.3.

4.8.1. Recognition task

The first part of this test was the recognition task. As mentioned in section 4.6, the statements in the surveys included conversational implicatures and indirect speech acts, such as hints or suggestions, without a literal mention of any performative verbs (Cornbleet, 2000; see Table 4.3 above). Each question provided two options. One of the answers was considered correct depending on the context and intonation. Here is one of the examples provided in this research to the students:
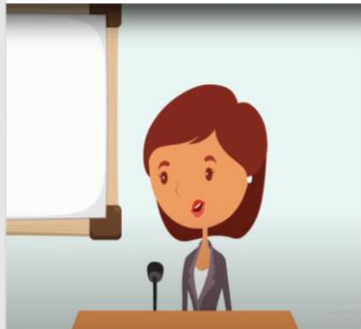
A student who is always late to class arrives late yet again. The tutor says: 'Have you thought of buying a new alarm clock?'

The tutor is:

a) making a recommendation?

b) making a criticism?

Figure 4.11 below illustrates this example as shown to the students:

Figure 4.11: An example from the recognition task

In the previous example, it is clear from the context provided in the scene that the tutor is criticising the student for being late! So, I expected the students to understand the conversational implicature and then choose the second option.

According to Cornbleet (2000), in order to decide the change that happened in the students' understanding and production, the indirect answer is the correct answer. I marked the answers in this part manually to find out that the students in the experimental group outperformed the students in the control group in the post-test. This test showed that the instruction had made a difference in the students' performance. That is, the explicit instruction in conversational implicatures benefited them.

4.8.2. Production task

In the production task, the students were required to speak to allow me to record their spontaneous answers. The students watched the six animated videos and replied to them immediately and spontaneously, and the recording was timed (see Table 4.4 to look at the scenarios). This stage was divided into two parts. The first one was before giving the experimental group any instruction, and the second one was immediately after the instruction. I transcribed the students' answers in a literal manner, and I wrote down all the answers as they were in the recording. One example of the production task was the following:

> In your accommodation, the person next door, whom you don't know
> very well, is playing the radio loudly. You can't study, and so you go
> and knock on the door.

Figure 4.12: An example from the production task

I expected the students in this example to understand the situation and then record their answer. Depending on their understanding, they would produce appropriate answers to the situations where they would, for instance, ask/request their neighbour to turn off the radio, choosing any politeness strategy while employing formulaic sequences or the requests that they learnt in the classroom.

After receiving the students' recordings, I transcribed their responses and then sent them to two native speaker raters who rated the answers according to appropriacy, not accuracy. Inserting the data in SPSS required coding, so instead of adding "completely appropriate," the raters used the number 5. The raters inserted number 1 on the marking scale if the answer was entirely inappropriate. As stated above, the raters in this experiment were two native English-speaking teachers who had experience in teaching English to non-native speakers. After receiving the ratings of the students' answers from the teachers, it was necessary to measure the reliability of the raters who had assessed the students' transcribed responses to check for the reliability of their assessments.

I then tested inter-rater reliability in SPSS to check the degree of agreement amongst raters. Reliability in this context means consistency, reproducibility, and agreement amongst the raters. There were two sets of evaluations from different raters for the same

students' answers that should be consistent. In this research, the interclass correlation coefficient was used for this purpose. The raters had evaluated the answers to each question after using the interclass correlation coefficient feature in SPSS. More details can be found in Appendix 8.

The mean scores of students in each group were calculated to compare the outcomes of students in the experimental group to those of the control group. Then, the mean scores of the control group and the experimental group were compared using the independent-samples t-test, which is used to compare the mean scores of two separate participant groups (Pallant, 2013). In the analysis of the t-test for independent samples, the significance level was less than 0.05. Accordingly, if the probability value was less than or equal to 0.05 ($p \leq 0.05$), the difference between the scores of the control group and the experimental group would be regarded as significant. If the probability value was more than 0.05 ($p > 0.05$), the difference would similarly be judged insignificant. The analysis was conducted using version 27 of SPSS.

The effect size was evaluated to determine the amount of difference between the control group and the experimental group's mean scores. I used r^2 (r squared), a frequently used approach for determining effect size for independent-samples t-tests, to calculate the proportion of variance accounted for in the current study as a measure of effect size. According to Gravetter & Wallnau (2013), r^2 estimates the proportion of score variation that may be attributed to treatment effects. The formula for calculating the square of r is "$r^2 = t^2 / t^2 + df$". Table 3.5 displays the criteria given by Cohen (1988) for evaluating the value of r^2. A number of 0.01 represents a small impact size, 0.09 suggests a medium effect size, and 0.25 indicates a large effect size, according to this table:

Table 4 5: Percentage of variance explained, r^2

$r^2 = 0.01$	Small Effect
$r^2 = 0.09$	Medium Effect
$r^2 = 0.25$	Large Effect

I started the quantitative data by initiating descriptive statistics for the production task to see the performance of EFL Saudi students, including the mean and standard deviation. The data for both groups, including the control group and the experimental group, were analysed. There were 15 participants in each of the groups. The mean score and standard deviation for the performance of students in the control group on the post-test are 9.33 and 2.09, respectively. The mean score and standard deviation for the performance of students in the experimental group on the post-test are 18.00 and 3.07.

Several assumptions must be met in order for the independent-samples t-test to be valid. The most important assumption is the "homogeneity of variance" assumption, which specifies that the two populations being compared must have the same variance (Gravetter & Wallnau, 2013). SPSS employs Levene's test for equality of variances to determine variance homogeneity. Levene's test for equality of variance examines whether the variation in test scores between the control group and the experimental group is the same (Pallant, 2013). The outcome of this test indicates which of the SPSS-provided t-values should be used for the present investigation. The significance value for Levene's test was larger than 0.05 ($p > 0.05$), which refers to "Equal Variances Assumed". According to this result, the significance level for Levene's test is 0.23. This is larger than 0.05. This means that the assumption of equal variances has not been violated.

The significance value was utilised to determine whether there was a significant difference between the performance of students in the control group and the experimental group on the appropriate pragmatic language choice in the post-test. A significance value less than or equal to 0.05 ($p \leq 0.05$) indicates a significant difference between the mean

scores of the control group and the experimental group on the production task, whereas a significance value greater than 0.05 ($p > 0.05$) indicates that the difference between the two groups is not significant. (Pallant, 2013). The difference between the two groups' performance on the production task was not statistically significant. As this number is below the significance threshold of 0.05, there is a statistically significant difference between the mean scores of the control group and experimental group.

To calculate the effect size, table 4.5 values for "t" and "df" were entered into the algorithm used to calculate r^2. Putting the values into the formula yields "$r^2 = (-9.03)2 / (-9.03)2 + 28$", which yields the value of 0.74 for r^2. In the current study, the effect size determined using r^2 for the size of the difference between the mean scores of the control group and the experimental group is 0.74. According to the criterion employed by Cohen (1988) to calculate r^2, this result implies a very large effect size. The kind of intervention explains 74% of the variance in pragmatic comprehension scores, expressed as a percentage. In other words, the type of intervention has a substantial impact on the development of EFL students' appropriate pragmatic language choices.

To summarise the findings of the current study, students in the experimental group who had received explicit instruction on the appropriate pragmatic choices scored higher (mean: 18.01, standard deviation: 2.09) on the post-test than students in the control group who did not receive any instruction (mean: 9.33, standard deviation: 3.07). The difference was significant in mean scores between the control group and the experimental group, t $(-9.03) = -8.67$, $p\,0.05$, $r^2 = 0.58$. These results reject the null hypothesis proposed for this study, which indicated that explicit instruction had no effect on the appropriate pragmatic language choices for EFL Saudi students.

4.8.3. Discussion of the research question

RQ. To what extent does explicit instruction help B1 level Saudi learners to improve their recognition and production knowledge of appropriate pragmatic language choices?

This study's findings indicated that explicit instruction on appropriate pragmatic language choices had a significant impact on the understanding and production of these target forms, which was reflected on the development of the experimental group post-test that was given to EFL Saudi female students at the B1 proficiency level. Participants in the experimental group, who received explicit pragmatic instructions during their course of study, scored significantly higher on the pragmatic comprehension and production tests than those in the control group, who did not receive any pragmatic instructions. This demonstrates the need to provide explicit instruction to raise the pragmatic competence of EFL Saudi students.

There are a number of reasons to explain why explicit instruction benefited the experimental group. The first factor is the use of CAPT in teaching and testing as well as the chosen targeted pragmatic language features used in designing the materials. As I mentioned before, the materials are taken from academic and everyday contexts that the students might encounter in their daily academic life. This contrasts with textbooks used to teach pragmatic knowledge in the target language, which contain conversational models that are not naturally apparent in interactions in the target language (Nguyen, 2011).

4.9. Conclusion

The current study demonstrated that receiving explicit instruction on appropriate pragmatic language choices had a considerable influence on the development of pragmatic competence in EFL Saudi B1 level students in their understanding and

production of these appropriate pragmatic language choices. Despite the fact that all participants in the study were B1, Saudi female EFL students who had explicit instruction performed significantly better on the pragmatic recognition and production tests than those who did not receive any instruction. This demonstrates the advantages of explicit instruction over exposure to target language pragmatics or implicit teaching materials in classroom education.

The results of the pilot study were interesting. However, I called for some modifications in the design of the main study. First, I decided to present the production task before the recognition task because it required recording, so the students could take their time responding to the scenarios. Another change was in the recognition task, I decided to have six scenarios instead of seven because I found that one of the situations was above the students' level and they kept asking me about the meaning. Also, I decided to investigate declarative and procedural knowledge. Thus, I added in the main study the question "why" to each of the six questions in the recognition task. The goal is to determine why the students chose one answer over another. Another change was in adding a delayed test to measure if the students could retain their knowledge over time. Finally, in the main study, I chose a mixed method approach to data collection, employing both quantitative and qualitative approaches. The reason for that was to form a complete, holistic perception of the phenomena. Also, to expand the scope of answers to the research questions. These changes will be discussed in greater detail in the next chapter, with each change and its justification being presented individually. The next chapter outlines the main study design and methodology.

Chapter Five: **Methodology**

5.1.Introduction

In the pilot study, I reviewed the research question and identified the hypothesis for this experimental study. I also tested the instruments for the main study. I move in this chapter to describing and justifying the methodology applied in the study. This chapter starts with the revised research questions and hypotheses in sections 5.2 and 5.3. Then, I present details about the study design (section 5.4) and participants (section 5.5), the instrument employed (section 5.6), and the overall data collection approach (section 5.7). Then, I show the method of obtaining the data in 5.8 and I present the coding for the linguistic analysis in section 5.9. Finally, I conclude with a summary of the data analysis method and the changes made after testing the pilot study's methods and instruments in 5.10.

5.2.Research questions

The study addresses two research questions, initially presented in Chapter One, section 1.4. The following research questions are the enhanced version of the one proposed in the pilot study, modified to answer the main research purposes, and reflect the subsequent hypotheses.

The first question focuses on the impact of explicit instruction on improving the production of appropriate pragmatic language choices in indirect or direct requests and politeness strategies in the short- and long-term, which shows the students' procedural knowledge (see section 3.4.). The second research question explores the effectiveness of explicit instruction in developing the recognition of the appropriateness of pragmatic language in Saudi students in the short- and long-term and improving their understanding of conversational implicatures and indirect speech acts that would show the students'

recognition knowledge (see section 3.4.). Both these questions could be sub-divided to explore and answer them.

1. **How effective is explicit instruction in the short-and long-term development of the production of appropriate pragmatic language choices by Saudi female English learners at CEFR B1 level at a Saudi higher education institution in a non-English EFL environment? (RQ1)**

That is to say, the question clearly implies the following sub-questions:

- Does explicit instruction help in developing students' production of appropriate pragmatic language choices?

- Is the development of the production of the appropriate forms of an experimental group significant when compared to a control group?

- Can they retain this knowledge for a longer time?

2. **How effective is explicit instruction in the short-and long-term development of the recognition of appropriate pragmatic language choices by Saudi female English learners at CEFR B1 level at a Saudi higher education institution in a non-English EFL environment? (RQ2)**

That is to say, the question implies the following sub-questions:

- Does explicit instruction help in developing Saudi female learners' comprehension of appropriate pragmatic language choices?

- Is the development of the understanding of the appropriate forms of an experimental group significant when compared to a control group?

- Can they retain this knowledge for a longer time?

As mentioned in the literature review (section 3.9) and in section (1.6), this study's original contribution is that it combines both the understanding and production of appropriate pragmatic language choices by designing a recognition task to raise the

awareness of conversational implicatures along with designing a production task to produce requests speech acts by letting the EFL students understand politeness strategies and teaching them some formulaic sequences that will be discussed in section 5.9. As I mentioned in section 1.6, I designed this study to fill the gap in most available studies. The ones I reviewed in section 3.8. in the Saudi context and in section 3.6 in other contexts, only focused on testing and analysing L2 learners' knowledge of one aspect of pragmatics, e.g., speech acts, such as in request or suggestion structures. But pragmatic competence goes beyond these structures and includes more important things like the implications of conversations and ways to be polite (e.g., Luijkx et al., 2021; Zarrinabadi et al., 2021; Alkhrisheh et al., 2021; Hsieh & Chuang, 2021; Tulgar, 2021; Li, 2021; Derakhshan & Eslami, 2020; Alsuhaibani, 2022; Almegren, 2022; Qari, 2021; Qadha et al., 2021; Aljasir, 2021; Al-Qahtani, 2020; Plonsky & Zhuang, 2019; Wildner-Bassett, 1984).

Furthermore, from a methodological perspective, previous studies in the Saudi context suffer from some commonly reported limitations, such as a lack of a control group and delayed post-test evaluation (e.g., Alsuhaibani, 2022; Almegren, 2022; Qari, 2021; Qadha et al., 2021; Aljasir, 2021; Al-Qahtani, 2020),(see section 3.8.). To tackle these disadvantages and increase the range of research in the field of pragmatics, this study aimed to investigate the effects of explicit instruction on the comprehension and production of appropriate pragmatic language choices among a sample of CEFR B1 level Saudi female EFL learners by including an experimental group and a control group and pre-, post-, and delayed tests.

Additionally, most of the previous studies in the same context were interested in B2-level students, while this study aimed to investigate the appropriacy of learners who had a lower proficiency in EFL. In the same line, to my knowledge, there is no other study in

the Saudi EFL context that used CAPT as a tool for collecting data (e.g., Alsuhaibani, 2022; Almegren, 2022; Qari, 2021; Qadha et al., 2021; Aljasir, 2021; Al-Qahtani, 2020). This study will be the first to use this computer tool in the Saudi context.

5.3.Hypotheses

The main study explored how native speakers of Arabic interpret and comprehend appropriate pragmatic language choices in an EFL setting. My experience has led me to believe that appropriacy is more important than accuracy. The reason is that I noticed that most non-native speakers reach a plateau in their language learning and stop acquiring more forms. So, instead of encouraging them to learn more forms that they may not need or use in their lives, I believe it is important to help them develop their pragmatic competence appropriacy, as discussed in sections 3.2. and 3.3. I also believe, as mentioned in section 3.6., that providing explicit instruction can help non-native speakers to notice their mistakes in producing appropriate second language forms. According to Taguchi (2019), developing pragmatic competence takes a long time, so providing learners with explicit instruction on how to produce and understand appropriate language forms might help in reducing the time needed for them to develop pragmatic competence (see section 1.3). It is important to produce appropriate pragmatic language because Thomas (1983) said that although grammatical errors may reveal a learner to be a less than proficient language users, pragmatic mistakes effects badly on him or her as a person (p.97). Also, Blum-Kulka (1997) asserted that research demonstrate that L2 learners' pragmatic failures are perceived to be more undesirable than their linguistic errors by English native speakers.

According to Thomas (2014), it was hypothesised that some variables can determine non-native speakers' ability to understand and produce appropriate pragmatic language forms in English as a part of their communicative competence.

1. Their overall proficiency level in English. This study measured this point by choosing students in the second year of the English department at a Saudi university. As I mentioned above, this study is interested in lower-intermediate B1 level students.

2. Their length of exposure to English culture. The students in this study had never been abroad and were only exposed to English culture through TV shows. So, their exposure was limited due to the EFL setting.

The main components of the research methods, the production, and the recognition tasks were designed with these factors in mind. In the following part, I present the hypotheses that I was hoping to prove by proposing the research questions.

Hypothesis one

In this experimental study, I was expecting that by providing explicit instruction, the students in the experimental group would be able to develop the production of appropriate pragmatic choices in comparison to the control group. I was also expecting that providing explicit instruction would help students develop their pragmatic awareness to expand their repertoire and develop their ability to produce direct and indirect forms of appropriate pragmatic language choices, such as politeness strategies and indirect speech acts, and retain their knowledge for a long time (RQ1).

Hypothesis two

I was also hypothesising that by providing explicit instruction, the students in the experimental group would be able to develop the understanding of appropriate pragmatic choices in comparison to the control group and keep this knowledge for a long time (RQ2).

After offering the research questions and hypotheses, I outline and explain the reasons for using the planned methods in the main study and the changes emanating from the pilot study.

5.4. Study design

The main study was designed to elicit the benefits of providing explicit instruction in developing non-native speakers' pragmatic awareness and choosing appropriate forms of pragmatic language choices depending on the relationship between form and function, the context of the situation, and the status of the interlocutor while communicating in a specific context (Taguchi 2015). That was achieved by explicitly raising EFL Saudi learners' awareness of how to produce and understand appropriate pragmatic language choices and by designing a classroom, mixed methods, experimental study.

First, broadly speaking, this study was based on a classroom research background. I followed classroom research where I explicitly raised the awareness of appropriate language choices in instructional environments (see 3.7.). This type of research has been undertaken extensively in situations of foreign language learning where options for exposure or contact outside of the classroom are extremely limited (Martín-Laguna & Alcón, 2018). Classroom research is defined by Bailey and Nunan (2005) as research conducted in school settings and concerned teaching and learning (see section 3.7.).

Second, the current study was composed to follow a mixed method design. Creswell (2009) defines mixed methods design as the synthesis of qualitative and quantitative research methodologies for the goals of increasing the scope and depth of understanding and corroboration (Johnson, Onwuegbuzie & Turner, 2007). Table 5.1 below details the mixed methods used in this study.

Table 5.1: Details of mixed methods used in this study

Condition	Procedure	Outcomes
Approach	The experimental group underwent ten hours of explicit instruction in the materials designed to develop their pragmatic competence. (To answer RQs 1&2)	
	The control group received no instruction at all. (To answer RQs 1&2)	
Obtaining the quantitative data	Pre-test, post-test, and delayed tests (delay of four weeks).	Numeric data was used in collecting the tests' scores (To answer RQs 1&2)
The quantitative data review	Data analysis using SPSS (I checked if the data was normally distributed). Then, I calculated the total and gain scores.	Numeric data (To answer RQs 1&2)
Obtaining the qualitative data	The analysis of the transcribed recordings in the production task. (To answer RQ1)	Answers to the questions and transcribed recorded answers (To answer RQs 1&2)
	Looking at the students' answers to the reason why they chose one answer rather than the other in the recognition task. (To answer RQ2)	
The qualitative data review	Coding and thematic data analysis (To answer RQ1)	Coding and themes (To answer RQ1)

Note. RQ1 = the first research question, and RQ2 = the second research question.

According to Taguchi (2018), either both quantitative and qualitative data carry equal importance, or one type of data is prioritised over the other. Creswell et al. (2009) offered a method to decide which type of precedence in certain research will have precedence: literature review, research questions, amount of data collected, length of discussion on data type, and target audience preference. In this research, the data were gathered sequentially, and quantitative data were given more space for discussion because of the nature of the research.

According to Taguchi (2018), the 'integration of data' in Creswell's definition does not mean that the mixed methods approach requires employing different data and data analysis methods in one study. Accordingly, conducting mixed methods research does not mean merely collecting and investigating quantitative and qualitative data. Rather, it means using quantitative and qualitative methods to strengthen the understanding of the

research outcomes. As a result, using mixed methods research can successfully answer the research questions in a detailed manner compared to using either a quantitative or qualitative method alone.

In order to collect the quantitative and qualitative data, the study followed an experimental research design as described by Cohen, Mannion and Morrison (2007), Nunan (2005), and Ellis (2001). This research can be called a true experimental study because it followed the main components of this kind of study, such as including a control group and an experimental group whose members were randomly assigned to one of these groups and never changed their group during the whole study. Also, this study had a pre-test before starting the intervention in the experimental groups. It also had isolation, control, and manipulation of independent variables.

In this study, I had one experimental group consisting of 35 Saudi female undergraduates who received explicit instruction to develop their pragmatic competence and one control group consisting of 35 Saudi female undergraduates who received no instruction at all, that is, they were not exposed to explicit instruction. The participants were randomly assigned to their groups. All 70 students simultaneously received the same tests, so they had one pre-test, one post-test, and one delayed test.

After looking at the study design, I describe and justify each element of the study design, including changes made from the pilot study in the next section.

5.4.1. The rationale for the study design

One of the advantages of classroom research is that it can provide various data collection methods to give context-specific changes (Mackey, 2006). The reason for choosing classroom research is that I can use explicit instruction to test the materials I designed to see if explicit instruction is a successful way of teaching how to understand and produce

appropriate language choices in an EFL setting. Also, I used this type of research to provide an inductive learning approach where I offer specific focus on appropriate pragmatic language choices to raise the student's awareness of pragmatic competence. A third reason, as I discussed in Chapter Three, is that most of the studies I reviewed in sections (3.6., 3.7., and 3.8.) found that explicit instruction is more effective in delivering teaching materials. In classroom setting we can bridge the gap between theory and practice (Brown and Rodgers 2002:11) and show that what we are attempting to find out is directly applicable to teaching. This is more difficult to achieve if we use a laboratory or artificial language.

On the other hand, I used mixed methods research to be aware of the many different answers of the learners in order to have a more comprehensive view of pragmatic performance beyond the analysis of linguistic forms (Taguchi, 2006). Also, to cover the research problem from different perspectives, I used a quantitative approach to analyse the relationship between the study variables, and the use of a qualitative approach was intended to help in the linguistic analysis. It gave the research quantitative insight from the qualitative data. The quantitative data provided a statistically valid relationship between providing explicit instruction and understanding and producing appropriate language choices, while the qualitative data provided a linguistic analysis of the best strategy applied in teaching by analysing closely the students' answers as well as the reasons for choosing certain strategies.

One of these is that it can answer the research questions in detail, whereas other methods can cover only some of the aspects. Mixed methods can result in more reliable outcomes of the study (Tashakkori and Teddlie, 2003). Taguchi (2018) recommended using mixed methods research because it combines two important methods of collecting the data: an affirmative approach quantitative method is used to verify or reject the research

hypotheses; and an exploratory qualitative methodology is used to know where exactly the change happened, and which strategy was more affected by the teaching materials.

Thus, I decided to choose a mixed methods design i) to address and explain each research question distinctly. RQ1-2 required quantitative data from instruction, while RQ1 needed to be explained qualitatively; ii) to provide a more comprehensive account of the findings; and iii) to increase validity through many sources, as each method only provides a partial view of the results. Within the framework of Creswell and Plano Clark's (2011) primary mixed method designs, the current study focuses on quantitative design while employing qualitative data to explain the trends. This study is distinguished because the tests were administered at multiple points in time. However, this study does not conform to Creswell and Plano Clark's (2011) definition of a multiphase design, as it is neither large-scale nor long-term and does not include incremental research questions across periods.

Therefore, using mixed methods to analyse the data can also help to cover the research questions exhaustively. In this research, I used mixed methods to avoid the shortcomings of only using a quantitative or qualitative approach. Using a single approach has advantages and disadvantages but combining the two approaches supports the researcher to use the advantages available in each approach and avoid the disadvantages accompanied with them to get more truthful findings of the study.

On the other hand, in this study, I applied an experimental design in quantitative and qualitative parts because I compared two groups of seventy learners at the same proficiency level and used a pre-, post-, and delayed tests as one form of data collection. The design was intended to test the effectiveness of explicit instruction in terms of understanding and producing appropriate pragmatic language. In using a control group, I aimed to show that the target pragmatic language choices would not be understood or

produced through simple exposure to input in the non-English speaking environment i.e., that there was a positive effect for explicit teaching. In the next section, I talk about the participants in this study.

5.5. Participants

Seventy Saudi learners (all females) at the same proficiency level were divided into an experimental group and a control group, where each group had 35 students. Their English proficiency level was equivalent to CEFR B1. As a reminder, CEFR B1 is defined as the following:

> 'Can understand straightforward factual information about common every day or job-related topics, identifying both general messages and specific details, provided speech is clearly articulated in a generally familiar accent. Can understand the main points of clear standard speech on familiar matters regularly encountered in work, school, leisure, etc., including short narratives' (Council of Europe 2018, p.55).

The participants' age was between 19 and 23 years (M = 21, SD = 2.82). All the participants were females because of the gender segregation policy followed in Saudi universities. The 70 participants were randomly assigned to experimental and control groups. I contacted all the participants individually, either through emails or text messages. They were informed about the nature of the study: that the researcher was interested in the comprehension and production of appropriate pragmatic forms for EFL Saudi students. I made sure to start my experimental study at the beginning of the semester to finish it before the students' final exams to avoid providing reasons for the students to withdrew in the middle of the study.

The participants did not have any experience studying abroad. However, they had been learning English for between 6 and 9 years in Saudi Arabia (M = 7.5, SD = 2.12). The participants had been studying in the English Department, Saudi Arabia, for almost a year before the study started. All the participants were informed that there would be a delayed test a month after the second test, so they were aware that their participation in the first test required them to attend the post- and delayed tests even though they were informed that they could withdraw whenever they wished. Thirty-five participants in the main study were offered the interventional classes as extra classes in English. They were informed that they should meet the researcher for at least two hours a day for five days (ten hours in total) in the week before the second test was given. The experimental group members were expected to show up at the agreed place to get their training, although they were informed that they could leave the study at any time.

As previously mentioned in section 4.7, ethical approval was obtained for both the pilot and the main study from the University of Liverpool Ethics Committee, allowing me as the researcher to conduct the current research overseas. All participants signed a consent form and an information sheet specifying how the data would be used (see Appendix 6 and 13). All participants volunteered to complete an approval application. I informed them about the details of how the data would be used. I clarified that all data would be kept anonymous, and they could leave the study at any time they wished to do so.

5.5.1.   The rationale for the sample size

The sample consisted of EFL Saudi female students in their second year studying English at a Saudi university who spoke English at the CEFR B1 level, the minimum requirement for many undergraduate programmes at higher education institutions. All the participants shared the same first language, Arabic. Dörnyei (2007) recommended that any sample should be representative of the population it is attempting to reflect.

The type of sampling in this study followed a 'purposive sampling' (Cohen et al. 2007, p.114) because I only chose students who had the characteristics I wanted to investigate; all the participants shared the same first language, the same level of English (B1), were females, and were studying in the English department at a Saudi university. So, this sample was homogenous as described by Dörnyei (2007, p. 127) because the students were all at the same nationality, gender, course, and level. The purpose of choosing this sample type was to examine two groups with similar features.

5.6.Instruments

The instruments used to obtain the data in the main study was the same Computer Animated Production Task CAPT that I used in my pilot study, with minor adjustments in both production and recognition tasks. The students' responses were received in two different forms: oral (recording) and written (multiple-choice). CAPT is a virtual role-play tool that can show verbal and non-verbal cues of the characters as well as reflecting realistic and consistent voice recording of native speakers and face expressions.

CAPT was used in two ways: to help with explicit instruction in the classroom and to test students in pre-, post-, and delayed tests. CAPT was divided into two parts: a production task to help answer the first research question (RQ1) and a recognition task to help answer the second research question (RQ2). The total number of scenarios in both tasks was 12, transformed into animated scenes. These scenes carry conversational implicatures and indirect speech acts in their underlying meaning. At the time of the main study, the scenarios were reduced from 13 to 12 as a result of testing these scenarios in the pilot study (the detailed scenarios can be found in Tables 5.2 and 5.3 and the Appendix).

The 12 scenarios (six for the production task and six for the recognition task) were all taken from academic situations the students might face in their everyday academic lives.

In these scenes, the interlocutors were people that the students might see in their everyday academic and real life, such as their tutors, supervisors, campus security guards, fellow students, or even their friends and neighbours. Each scene introduced a short conversation, with indirect information carried out through a conversational implicature or indirect speech acts.

All the questions asked by the animated characters were tested before by Cornbleet (2000) using DCTs, so their answers were written, not spoken, as in this research. Thus, the written questionnaire designed by Cornbleet (2000) was updated and modernise to be presented in this research as animated scenes using a computer programme called Animaker, following the method first introduced by Halenko (2013 & 2018) to promote using technology in teaching and testing in EFL classrooms (see section 3.5.). The same scenes were also tested in the pilot study. However, I made some changes in the main study from the original work, which I tested in the pilot study. The changes I made were mainly in the recognition task, where I deleted the third scenario and in the fifth scenario, I changed one word. See tables 5.2 and 5.3 below for more details. In the next section, I explain how I employed CAPT in both the production and recognition tasks.

5.6.1. CAPT production task

In this study, I applied a new tool in an EFL Saudi setting to obtain the data, first proposed by Halenko (2013). As previously described, CAPT is an oral computer-animated production test using animated characters to perform as authentic characters in all the scenes. These scenes were shown to the participants in the current study, and responses were received in an oral recording form.

Unlike in the pilot study, the production task was first presented to the students because it took a longer time than the recognition task and required recording of the students'

answers. It consisted of six questions in the form of animated scenes. In this task, the students were asked to record their responses to specific situations to evaluate their understanding of conversational implicature and the indirect meanings thereof by considering their imposition size and the social distance between them, then reply to them using either a direct or indirect request. The students' answers in this part were recorded and transcribed by me, as the researcher. The reason for recording the students was that I wanted to elicit spontaneous answers. The following table shows the CAPT scenarios used in the production task:

Table 5.2: The production task, Cornbleet (2000)

	Conversational implicatures (Imposition)	Interlocutor (Social distance /power)	Situation
Scene 1 *Eating in the classroom*	Request/ Order (+R)	A supervisor's message (-D), (+P)	Your supervisor has asked you, as the group representative, to tell the class that students are not allowed to eat or drink in the classroom. As you enter the room to tell them, everyone is eating/ drinking.
Scene 2 *A noisy neighbour*	Request /Complaint (+R)	A neighbour (+D), (-P)	In your accommodation, the person next door, whom you don't know very well, is playing the radio loudly. You can't study, and so you go and knock on the door.
Scene 3 *A friend who is embarrassing herself*	Advise/criticise (+R)	A friend (-D), (-P)	You and a friend are planning what to wear for the graduation ceremony. You think your friend's skirt is too short and makes her look terrible.
Scene 4 *A busy friend*	Request (+R)	A busy friend (-D), (-P)	You are having trouble getting the computer printer to work. Your friend is very busy but knows all about computers.
Scene 5 *Tourist advice*	Advise/ recommendation (-R)	A fellow friend	A fellow student is going on holiday to the place you visited last year but does not know where

		(-D), (-P)	to stay. You know an excellent hotel there.
Scene 6 *Providing wrong information*	Interruption/ criticise (+R)	A friend (-D), (-P)	One of your friends tells a group of you that 20% of the students at your university are from overseas, but you know it is 10%.

Note. P = power, SD = social distance, R = imposition (Brown & Levinson, 1987) and (+ or -) refers to the high or low size of imposition.

To summarise the table above, in the production task, I tested requests as follows: The first question was asking the students to request their colleagues to stop eating in the classroom. The second question asked the students to ask their neighbours to turn off the music. The third question asked the students to criticise their friend's appearance and ask her to change her outfit. The fourth scene asked the students to request help from a busy friend. The fifth question asked the students to give a suggestion or offer help to a colleague by asking him to go somewhere. The last question asked the students to interrupt a friend's presentation.

Figures 5.1 and 5.2 below show two of the scenes used in this study (the full test is in Appendix 4). The students were asked to record their answers in response to the scenes in the production task scenarios. So, the procedure was as follows:

a) The student was seated in front of the screen and asked to use the headphones.

b) I played the animated scene to the participant (all the parts were timed).

c) I asked the student to start recording their answers (see Figure 5.3).

Figure 5.1: An example of scene 1: *Eating in the classroom* **in the production task**
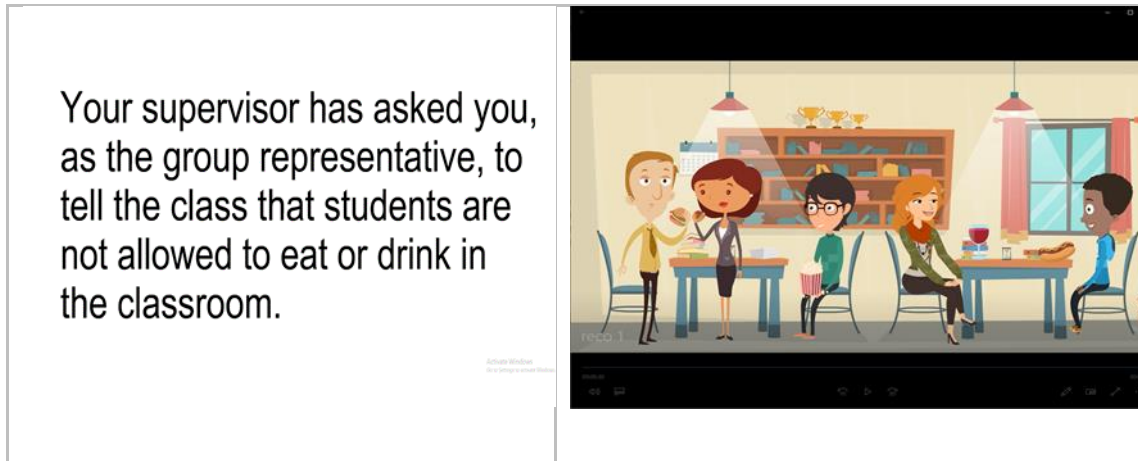
Figure 5.2: An example of scene 3: A friend who is embarrassing herself
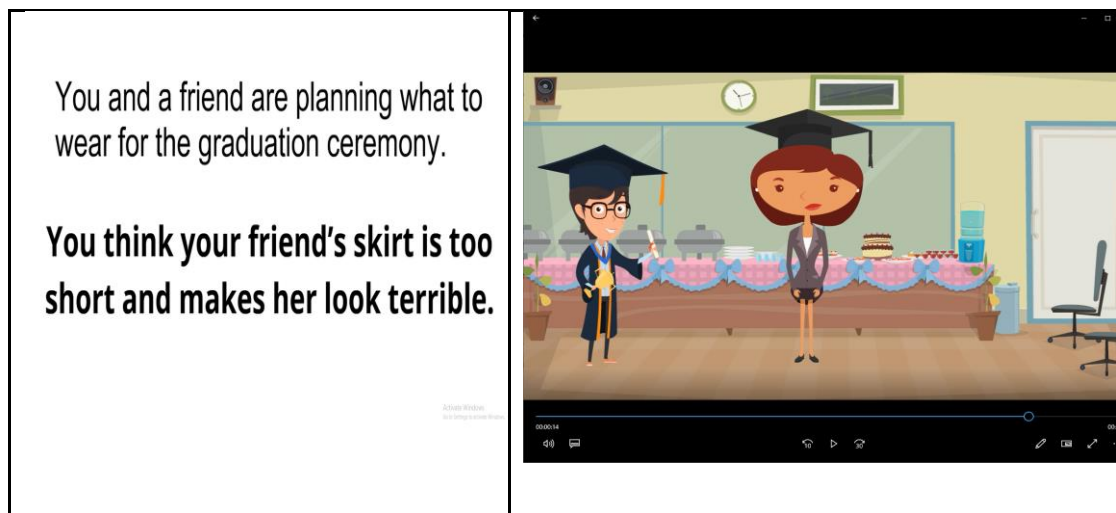
The students were expected to read the introductory slide, which gave the instructions for the whole presentation and was timed at 7 seconds. Then, automatically, the next slide was shown to them, introducing scene 1. Then they were given 15 seconds to record their answer (explained in section 5.8). After that, scene 2 was played immediately. A slide thanking the participants for completing the test was shown as the final step. Figure 5. 3 below shows this procedure in the production task:

Figure 5.3: The production task breakdown
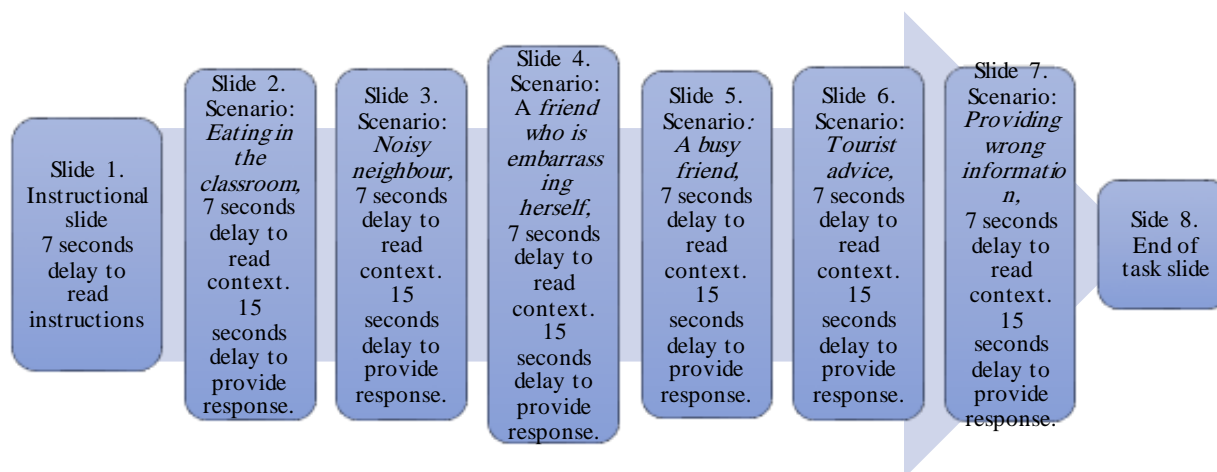
5.6.2.   CAPT recognition task

The recognition task was presented to the students after the production task. It consisted

of six questions after deleting one scene that was redacted after the pilot study. In this

task, the students had to choose between two answers; then I gave them three options to

choose the reason for their choice. The reason was to estimate whether they understood

the underlying meaning and whether they had procedural or declarative knowledge. The

following table shows the CAPT scenarios used in the recognition task.

Table 5.3: The recognition task, Cornbleet (2000)

	Conversational implicatures (Imposition (R))	Interlocutor (Social distance (D)/power (P))	The situation as seen by the students
Scene 1 *Noisy class*	Request/ An order (+R)	A lecturer (+D), (+P)	Some students are talking in the lecture hall. The lecturer turns to them and says: 'I suggest you stop talking and pay attention' This is: a) a suggestion b) an order
Scene 2 *Need to sit down*	Request (+R)	A student (-D), (-P)	A student's coat is on the seat beside her which is the only available place in the crowded lecture hall. Another student comes up and says: 'Err… is that your coat?' The student is: a) making a request

			b) asking for information
Scene 3 *Always late*	Request/ give a criticism (+R)	A tutor (+D), (+P)	A student who is always late to class arrives late yet again. The tutor says: 'Have you thought of buying a new alarm clock?' The tutor is: a) making a recommendation b) making a criticism
Scene 4 *Supervisor's comment*	Request/ A criticism (+R)	A supervisor (+D), (+P)	A supervisor writes at the end of a student's written assignment: 'This has been written about by more people than Austin and Brown, you know.' This is: a) a comment b) a criticism
Scene 5 *Stop smoking*	Request/ an order (+R)	A porter (+D), (+P)	A security guard passes some student in the corridor and says: 'There's no smoking in this building.' The porter is: a) giving an instruction b) giving information.
Scene 6 *A stressed friend*	Offering (-R)	A fellow student (-D), (-P)	In the computer centre, a student is having difficulty typing a document to meet a deadline. A fellow student says: 'I am quite fast at typing.' The student is: a) boasting b) offering

Note. P = power, D = social distance, R = imposition (Brown & Levinson, 1987) and (+ or -) refers to the high or low size of imposition.

To summarise the table above, in the recognition task, I tested the understanding of the underlying meaning of indirect speech acts and conversational implicatures as the following: The first question in this task was about a lecturer in a lecture hall 'ordering' the students to stop talking and pay attention. The second question showed a student requesting another to remove her coat. The third question showed a tutor criticising a late student. The fifth question showed a supervisor's comment while criticising a student's

writing. The fourth question showed someone telling a student that there should be no smoking in this building. The last question showed a student offering to help her friend.

A similar procedure was followed in the recognition task, but instead of recording the students' answers, I provided the students with printouts containing the same questions as the ones played in front of them, followed by the multiple-choice. In the same paper provided to the students, I added another question under each scenario to ask for the reason for choosing one answer rather than the other, and I gave the students three options to choose from; I do not know, I heard it somewhere, I heard it in the class. The reason is to decide whether the students moved their declarative knowledge to procedural knowledge.

All the steps were timed as in the recognition task. Figure (5.4) below breaks down the procedure for this task.

Figure 5.4: The Recognition Task breaks down
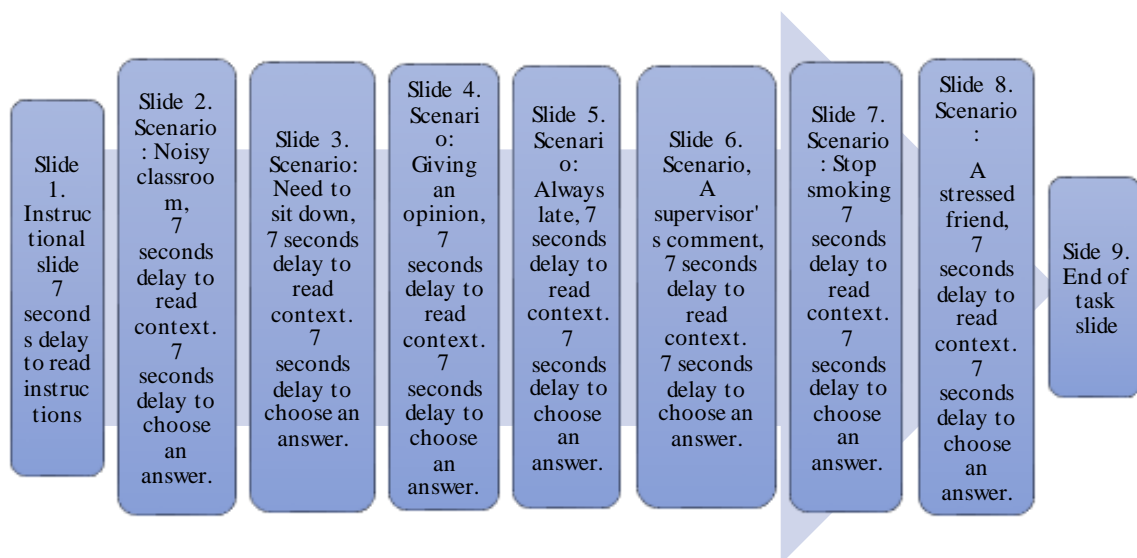
The students were asked to choose their answers in response to the scenes in the recognition task. Figure 5. 5 below shows one of the six scenes used in this study. So, the procedure was that:

a) The student was seated in front of the screen and asked to use the headphones.

b) I played the animated scene to the participants (all the parts were timed).

c) I asked the student to choose one of the two answers and then explain why they had

chosen one answer rather than the other.

Figure 5.5: From the recognition task: *Giving instruction*
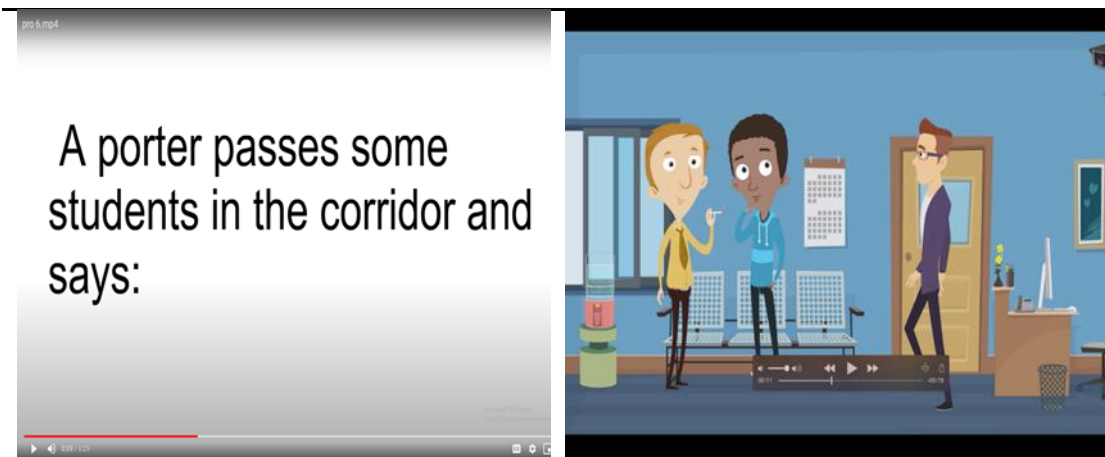
5.6.3. The rationale for using CAPT

The main instruments used to collect the data in the main study was an oral CAPT

introduced by Halenko (2013). As mentioned above, the written scenes were conveyed

to animated characters using a website called Animaker. Animaker is an online site that

enables users to transform texts into animated scenes. The characters that I created played

semi-authentic roles in the scenes. Semi-authentic materials refer to materials and

activities that feel authentic but are created for pedagogical goals. The website users can

choose the character(s), the décor of the setting and the accent used to ask the questions.

These scenes simulated situations that occur in real contexts in the students' academic

lives. I used animated characters in the current research rather than using normal

Discourse Completion Tasks (DCTs) because I wanted the test to reflect semi-authentic

roles in the scenes and I wanted to promote using technology in EFL classrooms (see

sections 4.6 & 3.7). These animated scenarios are consistent in relation to the verbal and

non-verbal cues and can be kept in a flash memory and carried around easily. Also, these

scenarios can be presented in distance learning or flipped classes and can be implemented in an existing curriculum.

Nevertheless, in using this approach, I could avoid some disadvantages of DCTs by representing semi-authentic characters and simulating contexts in the students' academic lives. One of the disadvantages of DCTs is that the students' answers are usually longer than what would occur in a real-life situation, and that results from asking the participants to write down what is often said. Therefore, choosing to record the students' responses can be related to the fact that written tests, such as the methods used by DeKeyser and Sokalski (2001), would not be the right way of estimating spoken language. In the next section, I cover the procedure of collecting the data.

5.7. The data collection procedures

In this section, I detail two main data collection phases: the instruction phase and the testing phase. I first present the instruction phase in the section below, to be followed by an outline of the instructions provided in the classroom. I then explain the teaching materials covered in these classes as well as the activities conducted. In the end, I conclude with examples that were provided in these classes, and then I detail the instruction and testing stage of this study.

5.7.1. Instruction phase

Ten hours were divided into five days in a row of explicit instruction (two hours a day) on comprehending and producing appropriate pragmatic language choices to develop the experimental group's pragmatic competence over one week. The idea of offering the classes in two hours for five days in a row is to present an extensive input to raise the awareness of appropriate language choices, similar to the studies of Olshtain and Cohen (1990) and Bardovi-Harlig and Vellenga (2012). Previous studies such as Bardovi-Harlig

and Vellenga (2012) showed that adopting a short-period input-based that can be implemented in existing curricula positively enhanced the results of the students. In my study, only the members of the experimental group participated in these classes. I designed all the materials in the classroom, and I was the teacher who presented them. The specificities of the materials and methods used each day in the intervention are discussed in Table 5.4. The ideas for organising the teaching materials are taken from Halenko (2017: p.112) (see Appendix 11):

Table 5.4: Scheme of work for the five-day explicit instructional period provided to the experimental group only

Session	Teaching aim	Teaching materials (what happened in the class)	Approx. time on task in minutes
Day 1	Introducing conversational implicatures, cooperative principles, maxims, politeness strategies, and speech acts (requests)	Brainstorming of some situations where the students may need to make either direct or indirect requests to different people (their friends, tutors) in different settings (university, class)	30
	Introducing speech acts theory and focusing on requests, apologies, compliments, etc.	Groups/pairs evaluate situations according to the imposition by showing them CAPT scenarios to evaluate the kind of requests they should provide - discussion / oral response.	30
	Conducting activities focused on pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic as well as materials covered in complaining, apologising, greeting, requesting, and giving explanations (see Appendix 11).	Watch CAPT contains examples of inappropriate requests. Group discussions to highlight errors.	30
		Members of the group suggest language which may be more pragmatically appropriate for each context: class feedback and language-focused discussion.	30
Day 2		Review of request language	30

	Talking about different cultures and how people in these cultures can interpret situations differently	Sociocultural follow-up discussions. Saudi Arabia vs. the UK and American differences. I gave four social contexts and examples of requests - in CAPT format. I provided some appropriate responses.	60
	Introduction to authentic examples of ILPs. I covered topics about ILPs	Discussion on appropriacy of language. Language focus. L1 transfer?	30
Day 3	Introducing formulaic sequences (see section 2.8)	I introduced six formulaic request sequences which may be appropriate for each situation. I also asked the students to suggest other sequences such as I am having trouble focusing, Sorry to bother you, I have a problem. The introduced formulaic sequences were (*Would you please, I was wondering, would it be possible, I apologise, /many apologies, can I /could I, I am sorry*)	60
	Cultural analyses and discussion of the appropriacy of sample conversational implicatures and speech act practised in academic situations	Showing examples	60
Day 4	Focusing on appropriate ways to request focusing on Blum-Kulka et al.'s (1989) CCSARP (see Table 5.5)	Conventionally indirect CAPT examples e.g., 'Could you give me a lift?' (ability)	30
		Non-conventionally indirect CAPT examples e.g., I'm late for the train(hint)	30
		Internal modification devices CAPT examples: 'Excuse me'; 'Sir, madam/lady, teacher'; 'Sorry to bother you' (Attention getters/ alerters)	30
		External modification devices CAPT examples: 'I have a problem...?' (Preparators)	30
Day 5	Revision and recommendations	Class feedback and discussions about the language used. Alternatives elicited to consolidate the previous language work	120

To show what happened in the instructional phase, Figure 5.6 below illustrates an overview of the five days (see Appendix 11 for more details on what happened in the classes).

Figure 5.6: Instruction phase of the intervention

Day	Content
Day one	• Giving an overview by introducing conversational implicatures, politeness theory, cooperative principles and the maxims. (2 hours)
Day two	• Authentic examples (1 hour) • Interlanguge pragmatics (1 hour)
Day three	• Examples (1 hour) • Discussions (1 hour)
Day four	• Examples (1 hour) • Discussions (1 hour)
Day five	• Size of impositions (1 hour) • Social differences (1 hour)

The details of each day are presented below.

Day 1

i. Providing an overview of pragmatics by introducing conversational implicatures, cooperative principles, the maxims, politeness strategies and speech acts (see appendix 11). We started by brainstorming of some situations where the students may need to make either direct or indirect requests to different people (their friend, tutor) in different settings (university, class).

ii. Developing awareness of pragmatic competence by introducing appropriate pragmatic language choices and formulaic expressions and inviting the students to evaluate these contexts.

iii. Introducing the speech acts by providing examples showing the locutionary, illocutionary, and perlocutionary acts, focusing on the underlying meaning, such as requests, apologies, compliments, etc.

iv. Conducting activities focused on pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic as well as materials covered in complaining, apologising, greeting, requesting, and giving explanations. These forms can be modified for other speech acts to develop learners' pragmatic awareness and competence in different situations. The idea behind choosing these broad terms is not to cover all the situations, because it is impossible to include all the contexts, and it is more practical to give the learners the means to improve their pragmatic competence. In this way, teachers can provide learners with the methods needed to interact more productively and confidently in English.

v. Introduced the terms "power", "social distance", and "the size of imposition", the three factors that speakers should consider while interacting with each other (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Since the concept was foreign to the participants, I explained to them that "power" implies the social status of the speaker and hearer. I provided examples while changing the interlocutor to let the students notice that we can use one sentence but change its meaning just by changing the person who had uttered the sentence and our relationship with the person who had presented this sentence. By "social distance", the degree of familiarity between the interlocutors is implied. I further explained to them that in speech acts, one varies the linguistic forms to imply "respect, deference, and politeness" (Kida, 2011, p.183). Finally, the "magnitude of imposition" is the extent of leverage that the speaker enjoys in terms of the ability to impose his or her ideas on others.

Some of the examples used at this stage include:

- Ask your teacher for a deadline extension.

- Ask your friend for money to borrow.

- Ask your friend to show you, her assignment.

- Ask your teacher to lower her voice.

Day 2

i. Introduction to authentic examples to ILPs. One of the examples is:

> *(Two teenage boys are talking to one another.)*
>
> *John: Hey Randy, that's SOME tie you're wearing!*
>
> *Randy: You like it? My grandmother gave it to me for my birthday...*
>
> *John: She really has a good sense of humour!*
>
> **Question: What do you think John is trying to tell Randy?**
>
> a. He does not like the tie.
>
> b. He appreciates the fact that his grandmother has a sense of humour.
>
> c. The tie looks great because it is funny.
>
> d. Randy looks funny because he is wearing a tie.

I covered topics about interlanguage pragmatics ILPs for almost an hour, see section 2.3.2.

ii. Talking about different cultures and how people in these cultures can interpret situations differently (Hyland & Paltridge, 2011). One of the examples was linked to phatic and real expressions, such as the following example:

> 'How are you?' To an English or Arab person, the answer should be phatic, whereas in French it is a real question that requires a detailed answer.

Days 3, 4

On these two days, I introduced formulaic sequences (*Would you please, I was wondering, would it be possible, I apologise, many apologies, can I /could I, I am sorry*). I enumerated some more examples, including some animated videos not included in the

test, and invited the students to show their understanding by reacting to some situations focusing on how they would respond if they were in the same position. During these two days, I focused on

- Cultural analyses and discussion of the appropriacy of sample conversational implicatures and speech acts that are practised in academic situations.

- Language focus on how to use typical lexical chunks (formulaic expressions) in individual speech acts.

- The students were invited to compare their knowledge with what they had learned in these sessions.

- Focusing on Blum-Kulka et al.'s (1989) CCSARP (see Table 5.5).

Day 5

Revision and recommendations

The 35 assigned students in the experimental group were expected to attend all the classes from day one until the last day, for two hours every day. I designed all the classroom materials and tested them in the main study. At this stage, I played the role of a facilitator in all the discussions and materials used in the classroom. I also was the director and corrector of the students' use of language.

5.7.2. Testing phase

This section summarises the tests employed in the main study to observe the effectiveness of the ten-hour explicit instruction in developing pragmatic competence of an experimental group compared to a control group. The experimental and the control groups had participated in this testing stage and received the same materials for testing only. Figure 5.7 shows how I divided the tests in relation to time in the main study:

Figure 5.7: An overview of the time of each test

The study used CAPT in three stages: pre-test, post-test, and delayed test, to measure the students' awareness and production of appropriate language choices at that point in time and whether the students had retained their knowledge over time. The same test was repeated for each student in both the groups on each of the three occasions, and the same CAPT videos were shown to the students in a different order each time they took a test.

As mentioned above, the pre- and post-immediate tests were followed by a four-week-delayed test. The comparison between the pre-test and the post-immediate test showed the impact of the explicit instruction on the participants. Moreover, I compared the results in the post-test with those in the delayed test to determine if the participants had kept their long-term knowledge over time.

5.8. Obtaining the data

In response to calls for multiple perspectives on learner responses in order to gain a more comprehensive view of pragmatic performance beyond an analysis of linguistic forms (e.g., Taguchi, 2006), the findings from the instruction were analysed qualitatively and quantitatively to enable a more detailed description of the data set. The process of this research was as follows:

To begin with, the students were shown the animated CAPT videos, which contained a reasonable number of pragmatic language choices in English. Their spontaneous responses (N = 420) to questions based on the videos were electronically recorded on the

researcher's iPhone and a Dictaphone and later transcribed by the researcher. Then, two experienced English-native teachers were hired to only assess these transcriptions on the basis of appropriateness. At the time of the study, these raters were studying in the English department at Liverpool University, I contacted them via email, and I hired them because of their long experience of teaching non-native speakers in China and Taiwan. The two raters (one male and one female) were shown the same scenarios as shown to the students to make them fully aware of the contexts. For the purposes of this study, "appropriateness" is defined as "the knowledge of the conventions of communication in a society, as well as linguistic abilities that enable learners to communicate successfully in L2" (Taguchi, 2006, p. 513).

The raters were asked to overlook any other aspect rather than appropriacy and focus on the situation itself and the relationship between the participants in these questions and mark them on a five-point Likert Scale for pragmatic appropriateness. The following scale was used in rating the responses and was adapted from Shively and Cohen (2008).

5= Excellent - expressions are fully appropriate for the situation.

4= Good - expressions are mostly appropriate.

3= Fair- expressions are only somewhat appropriate.

2= Poor - appositeness is difficult to be determined.

1= Very poor- there is no evidence that the intended speech acts are performed.

The rating scale started from 'poor/beginner' (1 point) to 'native-like/excellent' (5 points). To ensure objectivity (see Appendix 3), the raters were not informed of the group to which any of the responses belonged. Prior to the actual evaluation stage, both raters attended a standard discussion to learn about the project, the instrument, the rating criteria, and the protocol for arriving at a final decision. A number of practice items were completed, followed by a rating comparison. One of the raters insisted on evaluating both

accuracy and appropriacy, so I explained to him that although I was aware that a certain level of accuracy was required, this was not the aim of this study.

The method for collecting the data in the production task was going as presented in Figure 5.8 below:

Figure 5.8: How the quantitative data were collected and treated in the production task

All the oral responses from the CAPT were recorded for analysis and evaluation by both the research iPhone and a digital voice recorder.	The answers were evaluated on a five-point Likert scale for pragmatic appropriateness.
All 420 oral responses (70 learners x 6 scenarios) were transcribed manually by the researcher.	The raters were not informed from which group or which test the responses came.
Two native English EFL tutors were hired to rate the CAPT transcriptions of the production task from the experimental and control groups for overall appropriateness.	Both raters were asked to attend three meetings with the researcher before they started the evaluation for orientation for project, the instrument, the evaluation standards and procedure.

The scores allotted by the raters were then fed into SPSS, the computer software for statistical analysis, to ascertain trends in the students' answers (discussed in detail in the next chapter).

Figure 5.9 below shows how the written transcriptions described in Figure 4.8 were transformed into numbers in the production task to quantify the data.

Figure 5.9: Obtaining data for the quantitative method in the production task

| The transcriptions of the three tests provided from the two groups were given to the raters. | The raters were asked to evaluate from 1 to 5 according to the appropriacy of the statements. | SPSS was used to check if the data were normally distributed, using a parametric test. |
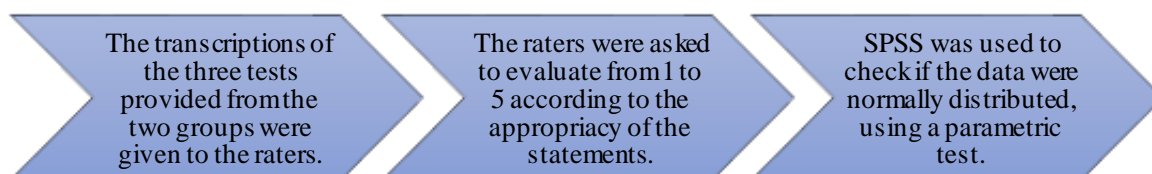
Having covered the data procedure method and data collection, I move now to the coding framework that I used in analysing the qualitative data.

5.9. Coding framework for appropriate pragmatic language choices

In the linguistic analysis, I decided to have a coding scheme to see the trends in using some words and phrases more often than others. The difficulties associated with developing only one coding scheme are demonstrated by the repeated revisions to the content and quantity of methods included in the original Cross-Cultural Study of Speech Act Realisation Patterns (CCSARP) classifications for many speech act studies (Blum Kulka et al., 1989). The breadth of research on request speech acts has resulted in the development of several complete variants of the CCSARP, implying that requests are a difficult speech act to accomplish. According to Halenko (2017), the reverse is true from the perspective of a native English speaker.

Reports on research on native speakers' requests show that their requests are not as complex as those of non-native speakers, focusing on a limited number of actions and linguistic methods (Aijmer, 1996). The difficulties of request coding schemes have developed because of research conducted in many languages to capture the numerous L1/L2 versions of requests that exist. Halenko's (2017) research takes a holistic approach and examines all major components, including head acts and internal/external modification strategies. All the request strategies used in this research require strategic thinking and understanding of the underlying meaning of the sentences (conversational implicatures, section 3.2.1.) with full awareness of politeness strategies (section 3.2.2.) to produce these requests speech acts (section 3.2.3.) appropriately.

The request strategies chosen for the production task in the current study's coding scheme are derived from various sources. To begin, most categories in the coding system are

derived from a combination of the original CCSARP (Blum Kulka et al., 1989), Trosborg's (1995) early work, and Halenko (2017). The following table shows the code scheme I used in analysing the requests in the production task and real examples taken from the students' answers. This table helped me with the linguistic analysis and figuring out which formulaic sequences the students used best.

Table 5.5: Coding framework for requests based on Blum-Kulka et al.'s (1989) CCSARP and modified by Halenko, (2017)

Strategy	Definition	Example
1. Direct		
1a Imperative	'directly signals that the utterance is an order' (Trosborg, 1995, p. 204)	1. Stop eating in the classroom. 2. Turn off the music. 3. Change your outfit. 4. Fix my printer. 5. Go on holiday. 6. You have made a mistake.
1b Performative	'a performative verb conveys the requested intent, explicitly marking the utterance as an order' (Trosborg, 1995, p. 203)	1. My supervisor is asking (requesting) that you stop eating in the classroom. 2. I want you to turn off the music. 3. I advise you to change your outfit. 4. I have a request (that you fix my printer). 5. I dare you to prove this information.
1c Obligation	'the speaker exerts his/her own authority or refers to some authority outside the speaker' (Trosborg, 1995, p. 202)	1. You have to stop eating in the classroom. 2. I should tell you that you must check your sources.
1d Want statement	'The speaker expresses the desire that the event denoted in the proposition come about' (Zhang, 1995, p. 44)	1. I want you to stop eating in the classroom. 2. I want you to turn off the music. 3. I want you to change your outfit. 4. I need you to fix my printer. 5. I want you to stay there on your holiday because it is the best hotel in that area.
2. Conventionally indirect		
2a Ability	'questions the hearer's capacity to perform the desired act' (Trosborg, 1995, p. 198)	Can you stop eating in the classroom? Could you turn off the music?

		Can you change your outfit? Could you fix my printer? Can I give a piece of advice? Can I interrupt?
2b Willingness	'questions the hearer's willingness to carry out the desired act which serves as a compliance-gaining strategy' (Trosborg, 1995, p. 199)	1. Would you stop eating in the classroom? 2. Would you turn off the music? 3. Would you change your outfit? 4. Would you fix my printer?
2c Suggestive	'the hearer's cooperativeness is tested by inquiring whether any conditions exist that might prevent the action from being carried out' (Trosborg, 1995, p. 201)	1. I suggest you stop eating in the classroom. 2. How about changing your outfit? 3. How about going on holiday?
2d Possibility	'The utterance contains a reference to a preparatory condition for the feasibility of the request [such as] possibility' (Wang, 2011, p. 62)	1. Would it be possible to stop eating in the classroom? 2. Is it possible to turn off the music?
3 Non-conventionally indirect		
3a Hints	'The requester can imply what he/she wants to be done. The desired action can be partially mentioned or left out altogether' (Trosborg, 1995, p. 192)	1. I am having trouble focusing. 2. I have a lot of work, and my printer is broken.
4 Internal modification devices		
4a Softeners (Down toners)	'Modifiers used by a speaker to moderate the impact his/her request might have on the speaker' (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989, p. 284)	1. Could you, perhaps, turn the music off? 2. You might look more beautiful if you changed your outfit? 3. Could you maybe fix my printer?
4b Intensifiers	'Adverbial intensifiers increase the impact of an utterance on the hearer' (Trosborg, 1995, p. 214)	1. Is this what are you going to wear at your graduation ceremony? Really? 2. I am sure that you are the only one who can help me in fixing my printer. 3. I am sure that we have that, it is 10%, not 20%!
4c Fillers (hesitators)	'the requester can convey he/she has certain qualms about asking' (Trosborg, 1995, p. 213)	1. I was wondering …err, I was thinking, is this percentage correct? 2. Do you err, I would may be err, go to that hotel?
4d Attention getters/ Alerts	'To alert the hearer's attention to the ensuing speech act' (Zhang, 1995, p. 32)	1. Excuse me; students are not allowed to eat in the classroom. 2. Pardon, excuse me, but I think that you have made a mistake.
4e Politeness marker 'please.'	'An optional element added to a request to bid for cooperative behaviour' (Blum-Kulka et al. 1989, p. 283)	1. Would you stop eating in the classroom? Please? 2. Can you please fix my printer?

5 External modification devices		
5a Preparators	'It is important in the first place that the requester prepares his/her request carefully'(Trosborg, 1995, p. 216)	1. I have a problem focusing on my studies, would you turn off the music? 2. My printer is not working, would you take a look at it?
5b Grounders	'allows the speaker to give reasons, explanations or justifications for his/her request'(Trosborg, 1995, p. 218)	1. Would you please stop eating in the classroom because my supervisor has told me that is not allowed? 2. Could you help me in fixing my printer because I have to submit my assignment today?
5c Disarmers	'The speaker tries to remove any potential objections the hearer might raise upon being confronted with the request' (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989, p. 287)	1. I hate to interrupt, but would you stop eating in the classroom. 2. If it is not too much trouble, would you please turn off the music?
5d Self-criticism	'The speaker takes the blame by denigrating him/herself so as to put the hearer in a position where compliance appears to be a benevolent deed' (Zhang, 1995, p. 63)	1. It's my fault. /I made a mistake 2. I made a mistake in installing my printer, and now it does not work.
5e Sweeteners	'Paves the way for the request by establishing good feelings and cultivating an amiable atmosphere' (Zhang, 1995, p. 60)	1. I think you would look better if you wear something else, sweetie. 2. You know you are my best friend, I know you can helpme.
5f Apologising	'The speaker apologises for the trouble the request will cause to the hearer' (Zhang, 1995, p. 62)	1. I apologise if this bothers you, but would you please stop eating in the classroom. 2. I am sorry, but I have to tell you that I have an exam tomorrow and I cannot study because of the music. 3. Many apologies for the interruption but are you sure about the percentage?
5g Thanking	'Expressions of gratitude offered for the anticipated compliance of the hearer' (Zhang, 1995, p.63)	1. I would appreciate it if you can help me with fixing my printer.

Note: all of the examples provided are taken from the students' answers in order to suit the appropriate strategy.

5.10.   Statistical analyses

Following the raters' manual data analysis of the production task and my calculation of the multiple-choice data from the recognition task, the data from both tasks were statistically analysed using the SPSS version 27 software. Following initial histogram

checks that demonstrated that the data were normally distributed, the CAPT data (pre-, post-, and delayed tests) were analysed in part using one-way ANOVA and paired t-tests, with a focus on the frequency of occurrence of specific appropriate pragmatic language choice formulations. Repeated measures, one-way ANOVA comparisons, and post hoc independent and paired t-tests were used to analyse the questionnaire data. The absence of significance in Mauchley's tests in repeated measures ANOVAs verified the normal distribution once more. The alpha value was set at .05. In reporting the results, I followed the recommendations of Norris, Plonsky, Ross, and Schoonen (2015). I analysed the data in the data in Chapter Six.

5.11. Conclusion

This chapter explains the methodology as it was developed for the study. The pilot study that was conducted based on the research questions that were central to the study, as described in Chapter Four, helped to identify the potential loopholes in the planned method and rectify them post review, enabling the forming of viable hypotheses. This chapter has talked about the study's research questions and hypotheses. It has also talked about the study's design and described the main experimental study's participants, instruments, and data collection process.

In Chapter Six, there will be a detailed explanation of how the data was treated and how it was analysed both quantitatively and qualitatively.

Chapter Six: **Results**

6.1. Introduction

In this chapter, I first present the quantitative analysis of the production task in section 6.2, followed by a summary of the findings from the raters' assessment of the appropriateness of the production task responses in 6.2.1 and the descriptive analysis in 6.2.2. A linguistic analysis for the production task will follow with the six scenarios (*Eating in the classroom, Annoying neighbour, A friend who is embarrassing herself, A busy friend, Tourist advice, Correcting wrong information*) in section 6.3. The descriptive statistics and then the quantitative analysis of the recognition task in section 6.5. Next, the recognition task six scenarios (*Noisy class, Need to sit down, Always late, Supervisor's comment, Stop smoking, A stressed friend*) will be analysed to see the findings from a linguistic study of the types and frequencies of implied request tactics, in compensation for the politeness strategies used in conjunction with the understanding of conversational implicatures in section 6.6.

6.2. Quantitative analysis of the production task

As a reminder, two native English speakers rated the students' recorded (then transcribed) answers from both groups in the three different tests (pre-, post-, and delayed tests) according to appropriacy only (see 5.8). After initial histogram checks showed that the data were normally distributed, the data from the production task were statistically analysed using the SPSS version 27 software, and parametric tests were used. One-way analyses of variance were used to analyse the CAPT data (pre-, post-, and delayed tests). I used paired t-tests to emphasise the frequency of occurrence of specific appropriate pragmatic language choice formulations. I first show the raters' agreement in section 6.2.1 and then the descriptive analysis in 6.2.2.

6.2.1. Raters' assessment of the production task

As mentioned in section 5.8, two experienced English language teachers rated the transcribed answers of the 70 students from both the experimental and control groups on the three tests: pre-, post-, and delayed tests. The assessment of the raters concentrated on appropriacy only. As previously mentioned in section 3.2., Taguchi (2006a) defined "appropriateness" as "the knowledge of the conventions of communication in a society, as well as linguistic abilities that enable learners to communicate successfully in L2" (p.513). The reason for concentrating on appropriacy rather than accuracy was to evaluate the students' progress from a sociopragmatic point of view (see section 5.8). The average scores were out of a maximum of 60 points (6 scenarios, a maximum of 5 Likert Scale options per scene multiplied by two raters). I used the interclass correlation coefficient test in SPSS to test inter-rater reliability. The results showed a high inter-rater reliability between the two raters (pre-test =.73, post-test =.82, and delayed test =.81).

6.2.2. Descriptive statistics

The six scenarios (*Eating in the classroom, Annoying neighbour, A friend who is embarrassing herself, A busy friend, Tourist advice, Correcting wrong information*) were reflected in the data analysis below, focusing on the pre-test and post-test and then the delayed test. Descriptive statistics of the scores provided by the raters of the two groups (experimental and control) are shown in Table 6.1 below.

Table 6.1: Descriptive statistics: NS raters' scores for students' responses from the experimental and control groups in the three tests.

Group	Pre-test M (SD)	Post-test M (SD)	Delayed test M (SD)
Experimental group (N-=35)	26.02(5.03)	41.31(4.92)	33.74(5.68)
Control group (N=35)	29.57(6.08)	29.97(2.29)	26.42(5.85)
Total (N=70)	27.80 (5.82)	35.64(6.86)	30.08(6.81)

Note: Maximum mark = 60

The table above shows at a glance that, the experimental group outperformed the control group in both the post-and delayed tests. After that I conducted a 3 (time) x 2 (group) repeated measures analysis of variance (ANOVA), which confirmed the mean differences. In terms of instruction effects, there was a significant main effect of time.

$F(2, 136) = .611$, $p = .000$, $\eta_p^2 = .623$ and interaction between time and group; $F(2)$, $p = .000$, $\eta_p^2 = .601$. The interaction effects showed there were differences in how the two groups performed over time, and within-group t-tests revealed significance at different stages. The experimental group showed a significant improvement from the pre-test to the post-test stage ($p = 0.001$) and significant attrition in the post-test to delayed test stage ($p = 0.000$). This shows, as expected, an immediate effect of the treatment, which was kept over time while remaining higher than it was at the pre-test stage and was, in fact, significant when we compared pre-test to delayed test scores ($p < 0.000$). For the control group, there was a decrease in the results in the delayed test in comparison to the post-test. This suggests that the EFL environment had no impact on the control group since the results did not increase in the post-and delayed tests. The experimental group improved their scores significantly in terms of pre-test to post-test gains.

To calculate the proportion of variance accounted for in the current study as a measure of effect size. According to Gravetter & Wallnau (2013), r^2 estimates the proportion of score variation that may be attributed to treatment effects. The formula for calculating the square of r is "$r^2 = t^2 / t^2 + df$" (see table 4.5), which shows the criteria given by Cohen (1988) for evaluating the value of r^2. A number of 0.01 represents a small impact size, 0.09 suggests a medium effect size, and 0.25 indicates a large effect size.

To calculate the effect size, "t" and "df" were entered into the algorithm used to calculate r^2. The results showed that the largest effect was found for the experimental group when

looking at the gains in their pre-test to post-test score ($d = 1.54$) and the gains made in the pre-test to delayed test stages were also shown to have a medium effect ($d = 0.66$). However, the attrition at the post-test to delayed test stage for the experimental group was also shown to have a large effect ($d = 0.98$). For the control group, the gain shown at the pre-test to delayed test stage was shown to have a medium-size effect ($d = 0.69$) and the improvement at the post-test to delayed test stage, a small size effect ($d = 0.25$).

The results showed a statistically significant change in test scores at each of the three points; from the pre-test, immediately after receiving the instruction, and then a month after receiving the explicit instruction. There was a statistically significant change in the students' scores. To sum up, explicit instruction made the students do better on tests, and the effects lasted over time.

Figure 6.1 below illustrates the experimental group in blue and the control group in red. To check whether there was an interaction between groups, I checked the status of the lines that intersected, showing interaction. There was a moderate difference at the beginning point of the pre-test. The change that accrued in the post-test was large, and then it settled down in the delayed test. However, it was still substantial.

Figure 6.1: The differences that occurred, by time passage
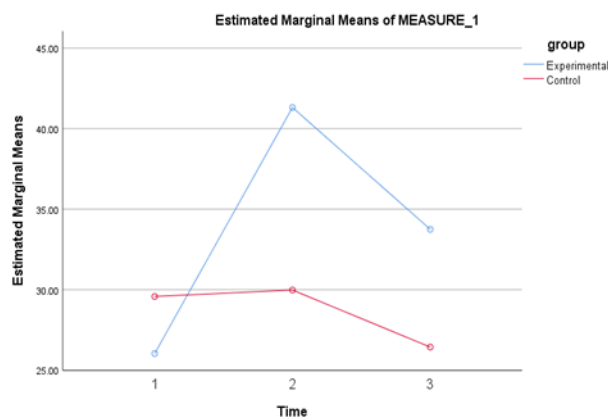
Further proof of the experimental group's success is shown in table 6.2 below. The table

shows the gain scores from the post-test to the pre-test, the delayed test to the pre-test,

and finally from the delayed test to the post-test:

Table 6.2: Gain scores

Group	Post-test - Pre-test	Delayed test – Pre-test	Delayed test - Post-test
	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)
Experimental group (N-=35)	15.29 (10.81)	7.72 (5.45)	- 7.57 (5.35)
Control group (N=35)	0.4 (0.28)	-3.15 (2.22)	-3.55 (2.51)
Total (N=70)	7.84 (5.54)	2.28 (1.61)	-5.56 (3.93)

After observing the gain scores, I initiated an independent sample t-test to decide if a

difference existed between the mean rate in the pre-test of both experimental and control

groups. There was a statistically significant difference at $p = 0.009$ between the mean

score in the experimental group ($M = 26.02$, $SD = 5.03$) and in the control group ($M =$

29.57, $SD = 6.08$). In the post-test, the result also was statistically significant at $p < 0.000$

as there was a difference between the mean score in the experimental group ($N=35$, $M=$

41.31, $SD= 4.92$) and the control group ($N = 35$, $M = 29.97$, $SD = 2.29$), the $d = 3.14$,

which was considered as a large effect size. Finally, the same can be applied to the

delayed test as the results were also statistically significant at $= 0.0005$ as there were

differences between the mean score in the experimental group ($M = 33.74$, $SD = 5.68$)

and the control group ($M = 29.97$, $SD = 2.29$), the effect size $d =1.26$ was interpreted as

a large effect size.

Since the two groups did not score the same in the pre-test, I checked out the significance

of the change in the scores of the two groups from the pre-test to the post-test and the

post-test to the delayed test, which would have accepted or rejected the null hypothesis

that explicit instruction had no bearing on improving the understanding and production

of appropriate pragmatic language choices in the sample. The results of this investigation are tabulated below in Table 6. 3.

Table 6.3: A comparison of the significance of gains in scores from pre- to post- to delayed tests

Group	post-test versus pre-test	significance P-value	t-statistic	delayed test versus post-test	significance P-value	t- statistic	delayed test versus pre-test	significance P-value	t-statistic
Experimental	15.29	<0.000	12.856	-7.57	<0.000	-5.960	7.72	<0.000	-6.020
Control	0.47	=0.716	0.364	-3.55	=0.015	-2.489	-3.15	=0.030	2.209

The gain scores made by the control group in the post-test are not significant as the p-value is higher than 0.05. The gains are marginal at 0.47 above the pre-test score in terms of the mean group score. The gains made by the control group in the delayed test were -3.55. I interpret this to mean that the drop-in scores were significant at $p = 0.0153$, which is lower than 0.05, showing that by the time the delayed test was conducted, the control group suffered a depletion in the knowledge gained through instruction. Finally, comparing the mean scores of the control group in the delayed test and the pre-test, the reading was -3.15 which shows that performance in the delayed test was lower than in the pre-test given the p-value of 0.0306, a statistically significant reading. In the experimental group, however, the p-values were much lower, creating a case for the rejection of the null hypothesis (that explicit instruction does not have a bearing on the scores of the students), or validating the alternate hypothesis (that gains made in scores are attributable to explicit instruction in understanding and production of appropriate pragmatic language choices in English). The mean gain of the experimental group in the post-test was 15.29 with $p < 0.000$, which shows that the results were statistically significant. The mean scores of the experimental group in the delayed test were -7.57,

showing a performance lower than the post-test stage and $p < 0.000$, so the gains were still statistically significant despite the drop in actual mean scores. The mean scores of the experimental group in the delayed test as compared to the pre-test were 7.72 with $p < 0.000$, which shows gains even in the delayed test stage, which were also statistically significant. The results revealed that the students kept their knowledge over time.

In conclusion, for the production task, there were six scenarios: *Eating in the classroom, An annoying neighbour, A friend who is embarrassing herself, A busy friend, Giving advice to a tourist,* and *Correcting wrong information,* which were shown in detail in Table 5.2. In examining the results, it was clear that the experimental group had outperformed the control group. Also, the scores from the post-test and delayed tests are noteworthy: the students from the experimental group scored better on the post-test than on the delayed test. The results of the control group were similar. However, the difference between post and delayed tests from the experimental group was larger than that of the control group. The total evaluation of both the experimental and control groups shows that the average score in the post-test was greater than the delayed test. This indicates that the prolonged impact of the training may fade from an individual as they lose the practice. However, the pre-test score and the delayed test comparison show that even in the long run, the scores from the delayed test were better than those from the initial test. This indicates that the training had an impact but that this was not equivalent to the immediate impact after the training. In the next section, I offer a linguistic analysis of the production task.

6.3. Linguistic analysis of the production task

In this part of the research, I tried to investigate the students' frequencies of using six formulaic sequences (*Would you please, I was wondering, would it be possible, I apologise /many apologies, can I /could I, I am sorry*) and request strategies (mentioned

in table 5.5) in the production task. The main goal of doing this was to find the trends in using some sequences in specific contexts. Also, in finding these frequencies, I tried to answer the first research question that was interested in whether explicit instruction can help learners to be appropriate when communicating in the target language in EFL. To achieve this, I used NVivo 12 to collect frequency data with objectivity. NVivo is software specifically used to analyse unstructured text, studio, video, and image data across a wide range of data collection tools. As mentioned before, the spoken answers of the students were transcribed by me. Therefore, the answers were copied without changing any word, even if it was repeated twice in the same sentence.

I initiated a linguistic analysis by inserting the responses from the production task that I transcribed in NVivo, then I searched the phrases and then I analysed each strategy that both groups used to decide which category it fits according to the coding scheme presented in section 5.6, Table 5.5. A scoring sheet sample can be found in Appendix 3.

I used NVivo to see the trends of applying some specific expressions rather than others, and I also analysed speech acts used in the students' responses linguistically by distinguishing the primary linguistic expressions used by the participants and dividing them into different directness levels based on a coding system devised by Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984). Blum-Kulka et al.'s CCSARP: A Cross-Cultural Study of Speech Act Realisation Patterns has been used by many others (Halenko, 2017; Taguchi, 2006b). Table 5.5 in section 5.9 highlights these strategies used in the six scenarios.

The students in both groups were required to use some techniques to respond to the brief situations as they felt they would likely do in a real-life context. They had to consider the setting and the relationship between the participants in the production task scenes. The participants in both groups were asked to respond to six scenarios. However, the

experimental group was expected to consider three essential factors before forming their responses: a) power of differences (P), b) social distance (D), and c) the size of imposition (R). The social distance and the power of difference are related to the interlocutor, whereas the size of imposition is related to appropriate pragmatic language choices in this context (Brown & Levinson, 1978). The experimental group of students was required to apply some techniques and strategies to deal with the scenarios and respond using either direct or indirect strategies thinking about the implicatures (see section 3.2.).

I analysed the six scenarios in the production task to find that the use of imperative, willingness, possibility, obligation, hints, politeness markers, attention getters, and apologising strategies in requesting were common to all the high-scoring responses considered requisite for success in this situation. The aim was to analyse the frequency of these appropriate strategies to determine whether applying explicit instruction in teaching these strategies for successful appropriate language production might work. These evaluations might also determine short- and long-term instructional effects. In the next section, I present the six scenarios (from sections 6.3.1 to 6.3.6) that were given to the students in both groups, and then I offer some responses to illustrate the answers from both groups on the three different tests.

6.3.1. Linguistic analysis of *eating in the classroom* scenario

As a reminder, the first CAPT scenario was: Your supervisor has asked you, as group representative, to tell the class that students are not allowed to eat or drink in classrooms. As you enter the room to tell them, everyone is eating/drinking.

In analysing this scenario in the students' response, I was expecting them to avoid FTAs and respect the hearer's negative face by employing the strategies of politeness theory and being more indirect in their use of orders or requests. In this situation, the power of

difference was equal because they were all students. The social distance between the interlocutors was small. The degree of imposition was medium because the participants were asked to stop other students from eating or drinking in the classroom. Also, the students needed to bear in mind the conversational principles and their maxims in their answers and respect the maxims of quality, quantity, relation, and manner.

An example of a successful respond would be 'Excuse me (alerter), I am sorry to bother you (apology) but would you please stop eating in the classroom (request)' (average rater score =5). The following table shows more details.

The raters' evaluation of the most appropriate answer was from students who used alerters, willingness, possibility, and apologies. The students who used these strategies in their responses scored higher in the raters' evaluation. Table 6.4 below illustrates the percentage of using these strategies:

Table 6.4: Frequency of using request strategies: eating in the class scenario

Request strategy	pre-test experimental	pre-test control	post-test experimental	post-test control	delayed test experimental	delayed test control
Willingness/ possibility (2b-2d)	16 (45.7%)	15 (42.8%)	21 (60%)	12 (34.2%)	15 (42.8%)	10 (28.5%)
Alerter (4d)	9 (25.7%)	11 (31.4%)	22 (62.8%)	9 (25.7%)	21 (60%)	12 (34.2%)
Apologising (5f)	13 (37.1%)	15 (42.8%)	25 (71.4%)	12 (34.2%)	19 (54.2%)	10 (28.5%)

Note.

Number of the students in each group =35

% = percentage of group.

2b, 2d, 4d,5f = strategy code (see Table 5.5) for coding scheme.

From the table above, it is clear that the students in the experimental group used more conventionally indirect strategies and internal and external modification devices. Table 6.4 shows the differences in using some strategies between two groups at three different times. The experimental group in the pre-test used willingness and possibility strategies

16 times, where they increased their use of the same strategy after receiving explicit instruction five times more in the post-test. In the delayed test, they used these two strategies less but still significantly higher than the control group. The same applies for the alerters and apologies where the experimental group used these strategies significantly more than the control group, which reflects the effectiveness of explicit instruction in teaching these targeted features.

Table 6.5 below shows the percentages of using formulaic sequences in this scenario:

Table 6.5: Frequency of formulaic strategies: eating in the class scenario

Formulaic sequence	pre-test experimental	pre-test control	post-test experimental	post-test control	delayed test experimental	delayed test control
Would you please	4 (11.4%)	0 (0%)	18 (51.4%)	0 (0%)	9 (25.7%)	0 (0%)
I was wondering	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	2 (5.7%)	0 (0%)	1 (2.8%)	0 (0%)
Would it be possible	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (2.8%)	0 (0%)	4 (11.4%)	0 (0%)
I apologise	10 (28.5%)	0 (0%)	8 (22.8%)	0 (0%)	4 (11.4%)	0 (0%)
Many apologies	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	8 (22.8%)	0 (0%)	12 (34.2%)	0 (0%)
Can I /could I	12 (34.2%)	14 (40%)	0 (0%)	11 (31.4%)	0 (0%)	8 (22.8%)
I am sorry	3 (8.5%)	15 (42.8%)	9 (25.7%)	10 (28.5%)	15 (42.8%)	7 (20%)

Note.

Number of the students in each group =35

% = percentage of group.

The above table shows that experimental group in the post- and delayed use of formulaic expressions such as "Would you please?", and "Many apologies" most frequently because the size of imposition was high, so they used the appropriate formulaic sequence.

In the following table, I provide some examples of the answers of the same students from the experimental and control groups in the pre-test, post-test, and delayed test:

Table 6.6: Examples show the differences in answering: eating in the class scenario

Request strategy	Experimental group	Control group
pre-test	Hi, err the supervisor said no eating here (=2)	Hi, the supervisor says no eating here. (=2)
post-test	Excuse me, everybody, it is not allowed to eat or drink in this class, I was told. (=4)	Hi, no eating here said the supervisor. (=2)
delayed test	Excuse me, it is not allowed to eat here, please. (=4)	Hi, err the supervisor said err do not eat here. (=2)

Note.

(=number) refers to the score provided by the raters out of 5

In table 6 .7 below, I show examples of high rated answers:

Table 6.7: Examples of successful answers: eating in the class scenario

Request strategy	Examples	Raters' mark
Willingness (2b)	Would you stop eating in the classroom?	4
Possibility (2d)	Would it be possible to stop eating in the classroom?	5
Apologising (5f)	I apologise if this bothers you, but would you please stop eating in the classroom	5

Note.

2b, 2d, 4d, 5f = strategy code (see Table 5.5) for coding scheme.

6.3.2. Linguistic analysis of *annoying neighbour* scenario

The second CAPT scenario was: In your accommodation, the person next door, whom you don't know very well, is playing the radio loudly. You can't study, and so you go and knock on the door.

In presenting this scenario, I was expecting the students to complain, request, or order their neighbour to turn off the radio. In this situation, the neighbour had a higher power of difference, and the social distance between the interlocutors was large. The degree of imposition was also high, because the experimental participants were asked to either complain, request, or order their neighbour to stop the music, which threatened their

neighbour's negative face. I expected the students to use strategies from the politeness theory and indirect orders, complaints, or requests to avoid FTAs and think about the negative face of the hearer when responding to the scene.

An example of a successful response would be 'Excuse me (alerter), I am sorry to bother you (apology), I have a test tomorrow and I cannot focus (explanation), would you please turn the music off (request)' (average rater score =5). From the raters' perspective of the most appropriate answers, the students who used explanation, alerters, willingness, possibility, and apologising strategies scored higher than others in the raters' opinion. See table 6.8 for details:

Table 6.8: Frequency of request strategies: annoying neighbour scenario

From table 6.8

Request strategy	pre-test experimental	pre-test control	post-test experimental	post-test control	delayed test experimental	delayed test control
Willingness-possibility(2b-2d)	25(71.4%)	18 (51.4%)	30(85.7%)	13 (37.1%)	33(94.2%)	15 (42.8%)
Alerter (4d)	5 (14.2%)	7 (20%)	18(51.4%)	8 (22.8%)	19 (54.2%)	5 (14.2%)
Grounders (5b)	8 (22.8%)	6 (17.14%)	22 (62.8%)	9 (25.7%)	18 (51.4%)	7 (20%)
Apologising (5f)	4 (11.4%)	5 (14.2%)	25 (71.4%)	8 (22.8%)	19 (54.2%)	9 (25.7%)

Note.

Number of the students in each group =35

% = percentage of group.

2b, 2d, 4d, 5b, 5f = strategy code (see Table 5.5) for coding scheme.

above, it is clear that the students in the experimental group used more conventionally indirect strategies, including internal and external modification devices. The table also illustrates the frequencies of applying some strategies by comparing two groups at three different times. The experimental group in the pre-test used willingness and possibility strategies 25 times, where they applied the same strategy after receiving explicit

instruction 30 times in the post-test and 33 times in the delayed test. In comparing the experimental group with the control group, I can see that the former outperformed the latter. The same applies for the alerters, explanations, and apologies where the experimental group used these strategies significantly more than the control group, which reflects the effectiveness of explicit instruction in teaching these targeted features.

Table 6.9 below shows the percentages of using formulaic sequences in this scenario:

Table 6.9: Frequency of formulaic strategies: annoying neighbour scenario

Formulaic sequence	pre-test experimental	pre-test control	post-test experimental	post-test control	delayed test experimental	delayed test control
Would you please	3 (8.5%)	0 (0%)	22 (62.8%)	0 (0%)	19 (54.2%)	0 (0%)
I was wondering	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	6 (17.14%)	0 (0%)	12 (34.2%)	0 (0%)
Would it be possible	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	5 (14.2%)	0 (0%)	2 (5.7%)	0 (0%)
I apologise	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	10 (28.5%)	0 (0%)	10 (28.5%)	0 (0%)
Many apologies	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	9 (25.7%)	0 (0%)	5 (14.2%)	0 (0%)
Can I /could I	20 (57.1%)	16 (45.7%)	1 (2.8%)	7 (20%)	0 (0%)	10 (28.5%)
I am sorry	2 (5.7%)	3 (8.5%)	2 (5.7%)	4 (11.4%)	6 (17.14%)	4 (11.4%)

Note.

Number of the students in each group =35

% = percentage of group.

The experimental group used formulaic expressions such as "Would you please?", "I apologise," and "Many apologies" more than the other sequences and in comparison, to the control group, which used more imperative sequences such as "stop the music" in the post- and delayed sequences. They used the right formulaic order because the size of the imposition and the power of the differences were both high.

In the following table, I provide some examples of the answers of the same students from the experimental and control groups in the pre-test, post-test, and delayed tests:

Table 6.10: Examples show the differences in answering: annoying neighbour scenario

Request strategy	Experimental group	Control group
pre-test	Hi, stop the music or I will call the police (=1)	Hi…, loud music turn down' (=1)
post-test	Hi, I am trying to study, I have a very important exam tomorrow. Would you please!' (=5)	Hi…err…music is loud, turn down'. (=1)
delayed test	Hello there, would you please lower the music as I have an exam and it is very loud'. (=5)	Err hello…err loud music will you turn down?. (=1)

Note.

(=number) refers to the score provided by the raters out of 5

In table 6.11 below, I show examples of high rated answers:

Table 6.11: Examples of successful answers: annoying neighbour scenario

Request strategy	Examples	Raters' mark
Willingness (2b)	Would you turn off the music?	4
Possibility (2d)	Is it possible to turn off the music?	5
Alerts (4d)	excuse me, turn the music off?	3
Grounders (5b)	I have a problem focusing on my studies, would you turn off the music.	5

Note.

2b, 2d, 4d,5f = strategy code (see Table 5.5) for coding scheme.

6.3.3. Linguistic analysis of a friend who is embarrassing herself scenario

The third CAPT scenario was: You and your friend are planning what to wear for a graduation ceremony. You think your friend's skirt is too short and makes her look terrible.

The answer expected from the students should include either a request, an order, or a criticism. In this situation, the two friends had the same power of difference, and the social distance between the interlocutors was equal. However, the degree of imposition

was high because the participants in the experiment were asked to criticise their friend's appearance or either request or order her to change her outfit. They should also pay attention to their friend's negative face, as their friend in this scene was wearing something she liked.

An example of a successful response would be 'hi sweetie/beautiful (Sweeteners), I wonder/I was wondering if you have any other outfit that you can wear? (Request)' (average rater score = 4). The following table shows more details.

Table 6.12: Frequency of request strategies: a friend who is embarrassing herself

Request strategy	pre-test experimental	pre-test control	post-test experimental	post-test control	delayed test experimental	delayed test control
Hints (3a)	12(34.2%)	13 (37.1%)	31(88.5%)	14(40%)	24(68.5%)	12 (34.2%)
Sweeteners (5e)	17(48.5%)	18(51.4%)	28 (80%)	19 (54.2%)	25 (71.4%)	16 (45.7%)

Note.

Number of the students in each group =35

% = percentage of group.

3a, 5e = strategy code (see Table 5.5) for coding scheme.

The raters considered two strategies to be appropriate in this scenario: sweeteners and hints requests. Raters gave higher scores to students who used non-conventionally indirect and external modification devices. Table 6.12 above gives an overview of the different uses of some strategies between two groups at three different times. The experimental group in the pre-test used hints 12 times, where they raised their use of the same strategy after receiving explicit instruction to 31 in the post-test and 24 in the delayed test. The same applies for the use of sweeteners, where the experimental group used this strategy significantly more than the control group. This shows that explicit instruction in teaching these targeted features is beneficial. Focusing on the sweeteners, I used NVivo to count the frequencies of using the word "beautiful" in particular to compare between the experimental group and the control group in the post-test and delayed test to see the effect of using external modification devices. See table 6.13,

Table 6.13: A comparison between the two groups in using the sweetener (beautiful) in the post-test and delayed test

	post-test		delayed test	
Word	Experimental group	Control group	Experimental group	Control group
	Count	Count	Count	Count
beautiful	23 (65.7%)	13 (37.1%)	20 (57.1%)	11 (31.4%)

The experimental group used the word 'beautiful' about 23 times out of 28 times without the use of any other sweeteners. The same word was used by the control group about 13 times out of 19 times for any other sweetener in the post-test. In the delayed test, the experimental group used the word 'beautiful' more than the control group during the test. My explanation for that is that I believe that the experimental group had reflected their Saudi culture in using compliments as an introduction to a request, especially when I raised their awareness that they had to use sweeteners before they request, so they used the word "beautiful" in particular because it is highly used in their L1.

Table 6.14 below shows the percentages of using formulaic sequences in this scenario:

Table 6.14: Frequency of formulaic strategies: a friend who is embarrassing herself

Formulaic sequence	pre-test experimental	pre-test control	post-test experimental	post-test control	delayed test experimental	delayed test control
Would you please	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	3 (8.5%)	0 (0%)	4 (11.4%)	0 (0%)
I was wondering	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	25 (71.4%)	0 (0%)	19 (54.2%)	0 (0%)
Would it be possible	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (2.8%)	0 (0%)	1 (2.8%)	0 (0%)
I apologise	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Many apologies	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Can I /could I	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	6 (17.14%)	5 (14.2%)	2 (5.7%)	3 (8.5%)
I am sorry	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)

Note.

Number of the students in each group =35

% = percentage of group.

The above table shows that the experimental group in the post-and delayed use of formulaic expressions such as "Would you please?" and "Many apologies" most frequently because the size of the imposition was high, so they used the appropriate formulaic sequence. In this situation, the experimental group used more formulaic expressions such as "Would you please?" and "I was wondering" in comparison to the control group, which used more imperative sequences such as "You look terrible" and "Change your outfit."

In table 6.15, I show examples of the answers of the same students from the experimental and control groups in the pre-test, post-test, and delayed test:

Table 6.15: Examples show the differences in answering: a friend who is embarrassing herself

Request strategy	Experimental group		Control group

pre-test	Hi beautiful, you look terrible change, please. (=1)	Hi dear! But the skirt is awful! (=2)
post-test	You look very beautiful, but I think if you wear a skirt, you will be gorgeous. (=5)	Hi…err ugly dress on you! (=1)
delayed test	You look very beautiful, but I think you should change, please (=4)	Oh! change skirt. (=2)

Note.

(=number) refers to the score provided by the raters out of 5

In table 6.16 below, I show examples of high rated answers:

Table 6.16: Examples of successful answers: a friend who is embarrassing herself

Request strategy	Examples	Raters' mark
Ability(2a)	Can you change your outfit?	3
Willingness (2b)	Would you change your outfit?'	4
Suggestion(2c)	How about changing your outfit?'	4
Hints(3a)	wearing a pants is more beautiful.	3
Softeners(4a)	Is it possible to change your outfit?'	5
Intensifiers(4b)	Is this what are you going to wear at your graduation ceremony? Really?'	3
Sweeteners(5e)	I think you will look better if you wear something else, sweetie'.	5

Note.

2a, 2b, 2c, 3a, 4b, 5e = strategy code (see Table 5.5) for coding scheme.

6.3.4. Linguistic analysis of *a busy friend* scenario

The fourth CAPT scenario was: *You are having trouble getting the computer printer to work. Your friend is very busy but knows all about computers.*

The answer expected in this situation should include a request. In this situation, the two friends had the same power of differences and the social distance between the interlocutors was equal. However, the degree of imposition was high because the experimental participants were asked to request a favour from their busy friend.

An example of a successful answer would be 'my friend (alerter), I know you are busy (disarmers), but I really need your help in fixing my printer (request)' (average rater score =4). The following table shows more details. According to the raters, in order to answer an appropriate answer, the students should use direct and external modification devices. Table 6.17 offers the frequencies of applying some strategies by comparing two groups at three different times.

Table 6.17: Frequency of request strategies: A busy friend

Request strategy	pre-test experimental	pre-test control	post-test experimental	post-test control	delayed test experimental	delayed test control
Performative-obligations(1b-1c)	22 (62.8%)	23 (65.7%)	34 (97.1%)	21(60%)	29 (82.8%)	20(57.1%)
Alerts (5e)	10 (28.5%)	7 (20%%)	29 (82.8%)	10 (28.5%)	22 (62.8%)	13(37.1%)
Disarmers (5c)	12 (34.2%)	5 (14.2%)	33(94.2%)	7(202%)	30(85.7%)	8 (22.8%)

Note.

Number of the students in each group =35

% = percentage of group.

1b,1c,5e,5c = strategy code (see Table 5.5) for coding scheme.

The experimental group in the pre-test used performatives and obligation strategies 22 times, where they applied the same strategy after receiving explicit instruction 34 times in the post-test and 29 times in the delayed test. In comparing the experimental group with the control group, I can say that the experimental group outperformed the control group. The same applies for the alerters and disarmers where the experimental group used these strategies significantly more than the control group, which reflects the effectiveness of explicit instruction in teaching these targeted features.

Table 6.18 below shows the percentages of using formulaic sequences in this scenario:

Table 6.18: Frequency of formulaic strategies: A busy friend

Formulaic sequence	pre-test experimental	pre-test control	post-test experimental	post-test control	delayed test experimental	delayed test control
Would you please	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	9 (25.7%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
I was wondering	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Would it be possible	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	8 (22.8%)	0 (0%)	4 (11.4%)	0 (0%)
I apologise	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Many apologies	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Can I /could I	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	5 (14.2%)	0 (0%)	4 (11.4%)	0 (0%)
I am sorry	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	8 (22.8%)	0 (0%)	2 (5.7%)	0 (0%)

Note.

Number of the students in each group =35

% = percentage of group.

From the table above, I can say that the experimental group students used indirect formulaic sequences such as "would you please" nine times and "would it be possible" eight times in the post-test. They also used the direct "can I" and "could I" and apologised in the post-test. In comparing the experimental group to the control group, I can see that formulaic sequences need to be introduced explicitly to the students to raise their awareness of how to use them.

Some examples of the answers of the same students from the experimental and control groups in the pre-test, post-test, and delayed test are offered below:

Table 6.19: Examples show the differences in answering: A busy friend

Request strategy	Experimental group	Control group
pre-test	Can you help? (=3)	Can you help? (=3)
post-test	I am aware you are very busy, but I really want help. (=5)	I need help. (=3)
delayed test	I really want help please. (=4)	Hi… can you help? (=3)

Note.

(=number) refers to the score provided by the raters out of 5

In table 6.20 below, I show examples of high rated answers:

Table 6.20: Examples of successful answers: A busy friend

Request strategy	Examples	Raters' mark
Performative (1b)	I have a request (that you fix my printer).	5
Want statement (1d)	I need you to fix my printer.	3
Ability(2a)	Could you fix my printer?	4
Willingness(2b)	Would you fix my printer?	4
Hints(3a)	I have a lot of work, and my printer is broken.	4
Softeners(4a)	Could you, perhaps, help me with the printer?	5
Intensifiers(4b)	I am sure that you are the only one who can help me in fixing my printer.	4
Politeness marker (4e)	Can you please fix my printer?	4
Preparators(5a)	My printer is not working; would you take a look at it?'	5
Grounders(5b)	Could you help me in fixing my printer because I have to submit my assignment today?'	5
Self-criticism(5d)	I made a mistake in installing my printer, and now it does not work'.	5
Sweeteners(5e)	You know you are my best friend. I know you can help me'.	3
Thanking (5g)	I would appreciate it if you can help me with fixing my printer'.	5

Note. 1b, 1d, 2a, 2b, 3a, 4a, 4b, 4e, 5a, 5b, 5d, 5e, 5g = strategy code (see Table 5.5) for coding scheme.

6.3.5. Linguistic analysis of *tourist advice scenario*

Fifth CAPT scene: A fellow student is going on holiday to the place you visited last year but does not know where to stay. You know an excellent hotel there.

The answer to this situation should include a suggestion. In this situation, the power of differences was equal because they were all colleagues and the social distance between the interlocutors was small; the degree of imposition was also small because the

participants in the experiment were asked to recommend a hotel. The participants should show respect for their colleagues' positive faces concerning the politeness strategies.

An example of a successful response would be 'I think you should stay at... (suggesting, imperative) (average rater score =5). The following table shows more details. From the raters' perspective of the most appropriate answer, the students who used direct or conventionally indirect suggestions scored higher than others in the raters' evaluation. See table 6.21 below:

Table 6.21: Frequency of formulaic request strategies: tourist advice scenario

Formulaic sequence Request strategy	pre-test experimental	pre-test control	post-test experimental	post-test control	delayed test experimental	delayed test control
Imperative (1a)	19 (54.2%)	21 (60%)	2 (5.7%)	22 (62.8%)	3 (8.5%)	19 (42.8%)
Suggestive (2c)	9 (25.7%)	7 (20%)	30(85.7%)	5 (14.2%)	31(88.5%)	5 (14.2%)

Note.

Number of the students in each group =35

% = percentage of group.

2c= strategy code (see Table 5.5) for coding scheme.

From the table, it is clear that the students in the experimental group used more conventionally indirect strategies and internal and external modification devices. Table 6.21 above gives at a glance the differences in using some of the strategies by comparing the experimental group to the control group at three different times: pre-, post-, and delayed. The experimental group in the pre-test used suggestive 9 times, where they increased their use of the same strategy after receiving explicit instruction to be 30 in the post-test and 31 in the delayed test. In comparing the results of the experimental group to the control group, I can say that the control group kept their use of this strategy at the same level, which reflects the effectiveness of explicit instruction on the experimental group. In the following table, I show frequencies of using some formulaic sequences:

Table 6.22: Frequency of formulaic strategies: tourist advice scenario

Formulaic sequence	pre-test experimental	pre-test control	post-test experimental	post-test control	delayed test experimental	delayed test control
Would you please	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
I was wondering	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Would it be possible	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
I apologise	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Many apologies	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Can I /could I	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
I am sorry	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)

Note.

Number of the students in each group =35

% = percentage of group.

All the targeted formulaic sequences were not used in this scenario because of the small size of imposition and the power of differences.

In table 6.23, I offer some examples of the answers of the same students from the experimental and control groups in the pre-test, post-test, and delayed test:

Table 6.23: Examples show the differences in answering: tourist advice scenario

Request strategy	Experimental group	Control group
pre-test	I say you go to The Desert it is nice. (=1)	I went there…go to The Marriot is nice. (=3)
post-test	I visited this place before and I know a great place. (=4)	I know, go to beautiful The Marriot. (=3)
delayed test	I know this place go to the Hilton very nice. (=4)	I will tell you… The Marriot is great place. (=2)

Note.

(=number) refers to the score provided by the raters out of 5

6.3.6. Linguistic analysis of correcting wrong information scenario

Sixth CAPT scene: One of your friends tells a group of you that 20% of the students at your university are from overseas, but you know it is 10%.

The response to the above situation should include an interruption. In the other situation, the power of differences was equal because they were all colleagues; the interlocutors' social distance was small. However, the size of the imposition was large because the participants in this experimental study were asked to interrupt the speaker and correct her information. In this case, they were threatening their friend's positive face as she was providing a piece of information in her presentation. They had to employ politeness strategies and use a technique to interrupt in a friendly way.

An example of a successful response would be 'Excuse me (alerter), I am sorry to interrupt (apology), but would you please tell me the percentage again (request)' (average rater score =4). The following table shows more details.

Table 6.24: Frequency of request strategies: correcting wrong information

Request strategy	pre-test experimental	pre-test control	post-test experimental	post-test control	delayed test experimental	delayed test control
Willingness/possibilities /suggestions (2b-2d-2c)	10 (28.5%)	9(25.7%)	14 (40%)	5(14.2%)	9 (25.7%)	11 (31.4%)
Alerter (4d)	5 (14.2%)	7 (20%)	11 (31.4%)	8 (22.8%)	18 (51.4%)	13 (34.2%)
Apologising (5f)	14 (40%)	16 (45.7%)	26 (75.2%)	17 (48.5%)	21 (60%)	16 (28.5%)

Note.

Number of the students in each group =35

% = percentage of group.

2b, 2d, 2c, 4d,5f = strategy code (see Table 5.5) for coding scheme.

The majority of students in this situation preferred not to interrupt the presentation and stated that they would speak with their friend after she finished, and this response received a 5 from the raters. However, from the raters' evaluation of the second most appropriate answer, I can say that for the students who used alerters, requests, and apologies, they scored higher than others in the raters' evaluation. From the table, it is clear that the students in the experimental group used more conventionally indirect strategies and internal and external modification devices. Table 6.24 compares the use of various strategies in the pre-, post-, and delayed tests by comparing the experimental group to the control group. The experimental group in the pre-test used willingness, possibilities, and suggestions 10 times, where they raised their use of the same strategy after receiving explicit instruction to be 14 in the post-test and 9 in the delayed test. The same applies for the use of alerters and apologies, where the experimental group used this strategy significantly more than the control group. This shows that explicit instruction in teaching these targeted features enhanced the use of such strategies. In the following table, I show frequencies of using some formulaic sequences:

Table 6.25: Frequency of formulaic strategies: correcting wrong information

Formulaic sequence	pre-test experimental	pre-test control	post-test experimental	post-test control	delayed test experimental	delayed test control
Would you please	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	3 (8.5%)	0 (0%)	1 (2.8%)	0 (0%)
I was wondering	2 (5.7%)	1 (2.8%)	7 (20%)	0 (0%)	5 (14.2%)	0 (0%)
Would it be possible	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	2 (5.7%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
I apologise	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	21 (60%)	0 (0%)	8 (22.8%)	2 (5.7%)
Many apologies	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	2 (5.7%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)
Can I /could I	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	7 (20%)	0 (0%)	1 (2.8%)
I am sorry	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	1 (2.8%)	2 (5.7%)	0 (0%)	0 (0%)

The experimental group in the post-and delayed use of formulaic expressions such as "I was wondering," and "I apologise" in comparison to the other sequences and to the control group. In this scenario, the size of the imposition is very high, so the students in the experimental group used more indirect sequences and apologised more. The below section illustrates some of the examples:

Table 6.26: Examples show the differences in answering: correcting wrong information

Request strategy	Experimental group	Control group
pre-test	Hello, I think you had a mistake. Correct it, please. (=1)	Wait! I think it is 10. (=1)
post-test	Excuse me, I think you meant ten, not 20. (=4)	One minute! … I think it is wrong, 10 not 20. (=2)
delayed test	Excuse me, I read an article from a different magazine saying it is 10. (=5)	Wait! It is 10, not 20. (=2)

Note.

(=number) refers to the score provided by the raters out of 5

In table 6.27 below, I show examples of high rated answers:

Table 6.27: Examples of successful answers: correcting wrong information

Request strategy	Examples	Raters' mark
Imperative (1a)	You have made a mistake'.	2
Performative (1b)	I dare you to prove this information'.	2
Obligation (1c)	I should tell you that you must check your sources'.	4
Intensifiers (4b)	I am sure that it is 10%, not 20%!'	2
Fillers(4c)	I was wondering, I was thinking, is this percentage correct?'	3
Alerts (4d)	Pardon, excuse me, but I think that you have made a mistake'.	5
Apologising(5f)	Many apologies for the interruption but are you sure about the percentage?'	5

**Note.**

1a, 1b, 1c, 4b, 4c, 4d, 5f = _strategy code (see Table 5.5) for coding scheme._

6.4. Frequency of using all the strategies in the production task

The data outcome suggested that the students in the experimental group, in contrast to those in the control group, used more appropriate pragmatic language choices by choosing the appropriate strategy. They used a) direct strategies, e.g., performatives and obligation, b) conventionally indirect strategies, e.g., willingness and possibility, c) non-conventionally indirect, e.g., hints, e) internal modification devices, e.g., attention geters, f) external modification devices, e.g., grounders, apologising, sweeteners and disarmers. These strategies were targeted when I provided explicit instruction to develop the experimental group's awareness of the pragmatic use of language. The analysis showed that the experimental group had implemented the materials that were explicitly explained to them in their response to the scenarios in the instructional period. In their post-and delayed tests, they showed appropriate use of the language.

It can be inferred that the students in the experimental group demonstrated procedural knowledge of what they had learned in the explicit instruction phase (see section 3.4.). That was clear from their use of some words and phrases that reflected strategies in speech acts and politeness theory. They manipulated direct and indirect language according to the size of the imposition and the interlocutor's role. It was clear that the experimental group students could implement the politeness strategies and avoid using FTAs (Brown & Levinson, 1978). They used request speech acts in their appropriate context, as shown in their responses in the post-and delayed tests. All topics proposed in the scenarios were logical, rational, and relevant, so that the participants were expected to try to infer the meaning, either consciously or unconsciously. Thus, when a speaker presents irrational or meaningless contexts to the conversation, the hearer assumes that

there is a reason for that. So, the hearer tries to work out the conversational implicatures to try to understand why the conversation did not follow the expected pattern. Thus, it is the hearer's role to initiate a conversational implicature to find a reason for irregular contributions to the conversation that the speaker initiated. Bearing in mind conversational principles and their maxims, speech acts, and politeness strategies, the hearer recaps the conversation unconsciously to find the meaning (Grice, 1975). I tested five speech acts in the previous representation: direct; conventionally indirect; non-conventionally indirect; internal modification devices; and external modification devices. Each requires a strategy for comprehending the conversational implicature and developing the politeness strategy. I presented above the percentage of the use of each that was found in the data collected for this study.

Speaking about the use of targeted formulaic sequences, I tested the use of the following sequences: *would you mind? I was wondering, would it be possible to, I apologise, many apologies, can I, could I, and I am sorry*. As shown in the sections from 6.3.1 to 6.3.6, formulaic sequencing has an easily memorised strategy for the experimental group. As a result, the experimental group was most frequently and successfully used in the post- and delayed use of formulaic expressions such as "Would you please?" and "Many apologies. "Also, the experimental group used the following formulaic sequences, such as "Would you mind"; "I was wondering if"; "Would it be possible to"; "I apologise"; "Many apologies" for the high-power imposition answers; and "Is it OK if"; "Can I"; "Could I"; and "I'm sorry" for low-power imposition responses.

After analysing the quantitative and qualitative data of the production task in order to answer the first research question, I move on to the next section to analyse the recognition task to answer the second research question.

6.5.Quantitative analysis of recognition task

As mentioned in Table 5.3, the six scenarios in this section required the participants to choose from two options to reflect their understanding of conversational implicatures from the two groups (experimental and control) at three different times (pre-, post-, and delayed test). The mean scores showed an improvement over time following instruction for the experimental group. Table 6.28 summarises descriptive statistics of the recognition task scores for the responses.

Table 6.28: Descriptive statistics: effects of explicit instruction on the experimental group in comparison to the control group in three tests

Group	Pre-	Post-	Delayed
	M (SD)	M (SD)	M (SD)
Experimental (N= 35)	2.51 (.853)	4.31 (.963)	3.63 (.910)
Control (N = 35)	2.54 (.852)	2.17 (.923)	2.20 (.901)
Total (N = 70)	2.53 (.847)	3.24 (1.429)	2.91 (1.151)
Note. Maximum score = 6			

A 3 (time) x 2 (group) repeated measures analysis of variance (ANOVA) confirmed the mean differences. In terms of instructional effects, there was a significant main effect of time; $F(2, 136) = 32.67$, $p < 0.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .619$, and interaction between time and group; $F(1, 68) = 73.21$, $p < 0.001$, $\eta_p^2 = .600$. The interaction effects showed that there were differences in how the two groups performed over time. Within-group t-tests revealed significance at several stages. The experimental group significantly improved from the pre-test to the post-test stage ($p = 0.001$) and showed significant attrition at the post-test to delayed test stage ($p = 0.000$). As expected, this shows an immediate effect of the treatment which was retained over time while remaining higher than it was at the pre-test stage, and was, in fact, significant when we compared pre-test to delayed test scores ($p < 0.000$). For the control group, there was no difference in the post-test to delayed test ($p = 0.000$) stage in comparison to the pre-test to delayed test stage ($p = 0.000$). This suggests that the EFL environment had no impact on both groups.

The experimental group improved their scores significantly in terms of pre-test to post-test gains. Measures of effect sizes using Cohen's d (1988) of $d = 0.2$ as a small effect, $d = 0.5$ as a medium effect and $d = 0.8$ as a large effect) showed that the largest effect was found for the experimental group when looking at the gains in their pre-test to post-test scores ($d = 2.07$), and the gains made at the pre-test to delayed test stages were also shown to have a large effect ($d = 1.39$). However, the attrition at the post-test to delayed test stage for the experimental group was also shown to have a large effect ($d = 0.86$). For the control group, the gain shown at the pre-test to delayed test stage was shown to have a medium-size effect ($d = 0.53$) and the improvement at the post-test to delayed test stage, a small size effect ($d = 0.03$).

6.6. Linguistic analysis of the recognition task

As previously mentioned in section 5.7.2, in the main study, the recognition task was presented to the students after the production task. It included six scenarios. In this task, the students were provided a paper with multiple choices for the answers to choose between two answers and then were asked to specify the reason for their choice from three choices (*I do not know, I heard it somewhere, I heard it in the class*). The intention was to estimate whether they understood the underlying meaning of the utterances and move their declarative knowledge to procedural knowledge. I present below the six scenarios used in the recognition task and the expected answers:

The first scenario:

Some students are talking in the lecture hall. The lecturer turns to them and says: 'I suggest you stop talking and pay attention'.

This is:

    a) a suggestion?

    b) an order?

I expected the students to consider the power of difference which was high because the lecturer was speaking to her students. The social distance between the interlocutors was high. The degree of imposition was medium. The students should consider the illocutionary act in this sentence, which is an order. I added a tag question to investigate why the students chose one answer rather than the other, and I gave them three options to choose from, as shown in table 6.29 below:

Table 6.29: The reason for choosing the correct answer: an order

The reason	pre-test experimental	pre-test control	post-test experimental	post-test control	delayed test experimental	delayed test control
I do not know	4 (11.4%)	2 (5.7%)	5 (14.2%)	3 (8.5%)	7 (20%)	4 (11.4%)
I heard it somewhere	5 (14.2%)	7 (20%)	12 (34.2%)	6 (17.14%)	14 (40%)	8 (22.8%)
I heard it in the class	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	13 (37.1%)	0 (0%)	11 (31.4%)	0 (0%)

Note.

Number of the students in each group =35

% = percentage of group.

The table above shows that more students from the experimental group chose the correct answer in the post-test because they either heard it somewhere or in the instruction phase. This is important because it reflects how the students were able to show their procedural knowledge when using appropriate pragmatic language choices.

The second scenario:

A student's coat is on the seat beside her which is the only available place in the crowded lecture hall. Another student comes up and says: 'Err… is that your coat?'

The student is:

    a) making a request

    b) asking for information

I assumed that the participants in both groups would consider the power of difference. The power of difference in this scene was low because they were two colleagues. The social distance between the interlocutors was low, and the degree of imposition was medium. The students should consider the illocutionary act in this sentence, which is a request. I also added a tag question to investigate why the students chose one answer rather than the other, and I offered three options to choose from, as shown in table 6.30 below:

Table 6.30: The reason for choosing the correct answer: making a request

The reason	pre-test experimental	pre-test control	post-test experimental	post-test control	delayed test experimental	delayed test control
I do not know	2 (5.7%)	3 (8.5%)	4 (11.4%)	2 (5.7%)	5 (14.2%)	2 (5.7%)
I heard it somewhere	5 (14.2%)	0 (0%)	7 (20%)	3 (8.5%)	16 (17.14%)	4 (11.4%)
I heard it in the class	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	15 (42.8%)	0 (0%)	11 (31.4%)	0 (0%)

Note.

Number of the students in each group =35

% = percentage of group.

The table above shows that 15 students from the experimental group chose the correct answer in the post-test because they had heard about it in the instruction phase. This result is significant because it reflects how the students were able to show their procedural knowledge when using appropriate pragmatic language choices.

The third scenario:

A student who is always late to class arrives late yet again. The tutor says: 'Have you thought of buying a new alarm clock?'

The tutor is:

a) a recommendation

b) a criticism

The students were assumed to consider the power of difference, which was high, and the social distance between the interlocutors, which was also high. The degree of imposition was medium. The students should consider the illocutionary act in this sentence, which was a criticism. I included in the recognition task a tag question to investigate why the students chose one answer rather than the other, and I offered three options to choose from, as shown in table 6.31 below:

Table 6.31: The reason for choosing the correct answer: a criticism

The reason	pre-test experimental	pre-test control	post-test experimental	post-test control	delayed test experimental	delayed test control
I do not know	3 (8.5%)	6 (17.14%)	7 (20%)	8 (22.8%)	7 (20%)	4 (11.4%)
I heard it somewhere	4 (11.4%)	1 (2.8%)	9 (25.7%)	2 (5.7%)	13 (37.1%)	0 (0%)
I heard it in the class	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	16 (45.7%)	0 (0%)	14 (40%)	0 (0%)

Note.

Number of the students in each group =35

% = percentage of group.

The table above shows that 16 students from the experimental group chose the correct answer in the post-test because they heard it in the instruction phase. This result reflects how effective the explicit instruction was in the experimental group.

The fourth scenario:

A supervisor writes at the end of a student's written assignment: 'This has been written about by more people than Austin and Brown, you know'.

This is:

    a) a comment?

    b) a criticism?

Like in the previous situation, in this fourth scene, the students were expected to think about locutionary and illocutionary acts to understand that the supervisor was criticising the student's essay. The power of difference, the size of imposition, and the social difference were all large because this was a comment from a supervisor who had authority over his/her students. I, again, included in the recognition task a tag question to investigate why the students chose one answer rather than the other, and I offered three options to choose from, as shown in table 6.32 below:

Table 6.32: The reason for choosing the correct answer: a criticism

The reason	pre-test experimental	pre-test control	post-test experimental	post-test control	delayed test experimental	delayed test control
I do not know	4 (11.4%)	2 (5.7%)	7 (20%)	9 (25.7%)	10 (28.5%)	3 (8.5%)
I heard it somewhere	2 (5.7%)	1 (2.8%)	8 (22.8%)	1 (2.8%)	9 (25.7%)	2 (5.7%)
I heard it in the class	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	13 (37.1%)	0 (0%)	12 (34.2%)	0 (0%)

Note.

Number of the students in each group =35

% = percentage of group.

The table above offers the number of students who chose the correct answer in this scenario. 13 students from the experimental group chose the correct answer in the post-test because they heard it in the instruction phase. This result shows that the experimental group benefited from the explicit instruction, which was reflected when using appropriate pragmatic language choices.

The fifth scenario:

A security guard passes a student in the corridor and says: 'There's no smoking in this building'.

The *security guard* is:

   a) giving instruction

b) giving information

In the fifth scenario, the students were expected to think about locutionary and illocutionary acts to understand that the security guard was instructing the students' behaviour in this sentence. The power of difference, the size of imposition, and the social difference were large because the sentence came from the security guard, who had authority in the situation. As I did in the previous scenarios, I added in this recognition task a tag question to investigate why the students chose one answer rather than the other, and I offered three options to choose from, as shown in table 6.33 below:

Table 6.33: The reason for choosing the correct answer: giving instruction

The reason	pre-test experimental	pre-test control	post-test experimental	post-test control	delayed test experimental	delayed test control
I do not know	2 (5.7%)	3 (8.5%)	4 (11.4%)	6 (17.14%)	5 (14.2%)	5 (14.2%)
I heard it somewhere	1 (2.8%)	4 (11.4%)	6 (17.14%)	0 (0%)	3 (8.5%)	1 (2.8%)
I heard it in the class	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	12 (34.2%)	0 (0%)	8 (22.8%)	0 (0%)

Note.

Number of the students in each group =35

% = percentage of group.

The table above gives the number of students who chose the correct answer in this specific scenario. 34.2% of students from the experimental group chose the correct answer in the post-test because they heard it in the instruction phase, whereas 17.14% of the students from the control group said they did not know how they knew this answer was correct. This result is significant because it reveals that the experimental group benefited from the explicit instruction, which was reflected when using appropriate pragmatic language choices.

The sixth scenario:

In the computer centre, a student is having difficulty typing a document to meet a deadline. A fellow student says: 'I am quite fast at typing'.

The student is:

    a) boasting?

    b) offering?

In the sixth scene, the students were expected to think about the direct and indirect meaning of the speech acts in order to understand what was meant by such a sentence in this specific context. The student was offering her help. The power of difference, the size of imposition, and the social difference were small because of the context's nature and the participants. Again, I included a tag question to investigate why the students chose one answer rather than the other, and I offered three options to choose from, as shown in table 6.34 below:

Table 6.34: The reason for choosing the correct answer: offering

The reason	pre-test experimental	pre-test control	post-test experimental	post-test control	delayed test experimental	delayed test control
I do not know	9 (25.7%)	10 (28.5%)	8 (22.8%)	5 (14.2%)	7 (20%)	5 (14.2%)
I heard it somewhere	5 (14.2%)	3 (8.5%)	12 (34.2%)	6 (17.14%)	11 (31.4%)	7 (20%)
I heard it in the class	0 (0%)	0 (0%)	15 (42.8%)	0 (0%)	10 (28.5%)	0 (0%)

Note.

Number of the students in each group =35

% = percentage of group.

From table 6.34, I can see that 15 students out of 35 from the experimental group chose the correct answer in the post-test because they heard it in the instruction phase, whereas 6 students from the control group said they do not know how they got this answer is correct. This result is significant because it reveals that the experimental group benefited from the explicit instruction, which was reflected when using appropriate pragmatic

language choices. In the next section, I give a summary of the whole results from both tasks.

6.7.Summary of the results

The results of the study were presented according to the two main research questions. The first question aimed to explore whether the explicit instructions would improve the production of appropriate pragmatic language choices by Saudi EFL learners. The second research question aimed to investigate how effective explicit instruction develops the recognition of appropriate pragmatic language choices, specifically among Saudi female learners of English at a Saudi higher education institute. The study found that developing awareness of pragmatic elements explicitly enhanced EFL production and recognition of appropriate pragmatic language choices, as the experimental group, which was given an explicit treatment, outperformed the control group in the post-test and delayed test.

The results of the experimental group in the production and recognition tasks revealed the benefit of receiving explicit instruction in enhancing students' declarative knowledge and helping them to show appropriate pragmatic language choices, as the students were able to use and utilise the direct learning from the interventions and training, they received. The results showed that including appropriate elements in the teaching phase can enhance the results of the students in understanding and producing appropriate pragmatic spoken choices. The reflection of teaching appropriate pragmatic material was shown in the post- and delayed results of the experimental group members who received explicit instructions, including appropriate language choices. In conclusion, it can be said that students could improve their pragmatic English skills if they were taught the right way in real-world situations.

There was a significant difference in appropriateness scores between the experimental group (whose members were exposed to explicit instruction to develop their awareness of the appropriate use of pragmatic elements) and the control group. This difference shows that explicit instructions on pragmatic elements could help EFL learners understand and use the language better. Developing awareness in the students is essential, as has been shown by Malmir and Derakhshan (2020), who reported that the use of pragmalinguistic strategies would make the students better understand their L2 learning. This strategy allowed the students to benefit from sociopragmatic strategies while applying the L2 in conversations.

Additionally, in this study, it was noteworthy that the quality of expressions produced by the experimental group members employed factors such as the general appropriateness of linguistic representations, grammatical correctness of the phrases, and understanding of the expressions. These observations from the experimental group showed us the importance of providing explicit instructions to the students, and the impact they had could be clearly seen in the experimental group results. The control group students, who did not receive any explicit instructions, showed fewer linguistic expressions, indicating a lack of English language understanding and use.

In this study, appropriateness was measured as a broad concept, including pragmatic, linguistic and extra-linguistic features to achieve those pragmatic characteristics. These multiple influences were reflected in the rating of the transcripts, which were used for evaluation, included two essential elements: the pragmatic perspective (i.e., the degree of directness and politeness of expressions perceived by native speaker raters), and the discourse features (e.g., oral fluency features such as pause length, speech rate, and discourse organisation features).

The previous observations agreed with the examination of formulaic sequences. The numbers of different types of pragmatic presentations produced by the students in both groups and tests were analysed, according to Blum-Kulka, House, and Kasper (1989). The results revealed that most of the expressions used by both groups' members were similar, confirming that the groups were related in the characteristics of linguistic forms used. However, even when using the same direct expressions, the experimental group was rated as using more appropriate expressions than the control group. Similar to my findings, Li (2021) found that pragmatic knowledge should be given to the students in an appropriate manner while teaching the language.

The awareness of pragmatic competence helps students to have a relevant understanding. The group members showed a significant difference in their expression of themselves when explicit instructions had been given. These instructions improved students' understanding of the language and guided them to use their knowledge in appropriate ways. The experimental group members were able to reduce the gap by applying language elements they had learned in real time. The explicit instructions helped students to use their own knowledge of the English language more effectively, which gave them the opportunity to use different words when they were speaking. The results suggest that the experimental group's variations in the use of appropriate expressions can be connected to the explicit instruction that they received to develop their awareness of pragmatics. As stated in Malmir and Derakhshan (2020), it is essential to teach students the pragmatic elements of the language. Especially for students who are learning a foreign language, interlanguage pragmatic comprehension awareness should be created, reinforcing their understanding of L2.

To summarise, the current study's results confirmed the studies by Bardovi-Harlig (1999) and Taguchi (2006). The students' awareness of grammatical and discourse forms was

not enough to produce appropriate forms of pragmatics. Their improvements and their effective use of knowledge of the English language might be developed, but still, the participants had not explored all the aspects of pragmatic competence until some of them were explicitly instructed. So, there is a need to provide students with explicit instruction to develop their awareness of pragmatic competence.

6.8. Chapter summary

This chapter has presented the results of the study to explore the influence of providing explicit instruction on appropriate pragmatic language choices and improve EFL Saudi students' pragmatic competence and target language recognition and production. After receiving explicit instruction, the results demonstrated a significant improvement in the experimental group's pragmatic competence and language proficiency compared to the control group. Most of the previous research on the same topic reflected that providing explicit instruction can improve non-native speakers' abilities to develop the understanding and production of appropriate language choices, e.g., conversational implicatures (Bouton, 1994; Broersma, 1994; Félix-Brasdefer, 2008; Rose, 2005; Takimoto, 2006). The earlier research supported this experimental study's results that there was a positive relationship between pragmatic competence and non-native students' language abilities; previous examples being the studies by Lee (2006); Taguchi (2005); and Tuan & Hsu (2011). The knowledge of the experimental group had improved in understanding and producing appropriate pragmatic language choices.

Since the pre-, post-, and delayed tests were all designed to judge the development of learners' abilities in recognition and production of appropriate pragmatic language choices in English, the gain scores were a robust parameter to measure the impact of explicit instruction. Group mean scores in the case of the control group showed a negligible rise in the post-test and their delayed test scores were lower than those of the

post-test. On the other hand, for the experimental group, the gains in both the post-and

delayed tests were positive and statistically significant, making a strong case in favour of

explicit instruction. In the next chapter, I bring the data together and summarise them

answer the research questions.

Chapter Seven: **Discussion**

7.1. Introduction

This chapter returns to the original research questions that guided the development of this study. In this chapter, I bring the data together and summarise the results to answer the research questions. Section 7.2. begins with an examination of the explicit instructional intervention's effectiveness. This section contains observations about the strategies and formulaic language used by the experimental group in their production of the appropriate language choices, which answer the first research question. Section 7.3 examines the second research question, which is about recognising appropriate language choices, examining whether the EFL Saudi students understood the indirect forms of the language and the effectiveness of explicit instruction in an experimental group compared to a control group.

7.2. Discussion of research question 1

RQ1: How effective is explicit instruction in the short-and long-term development of the production of appropriate pragmatic language choices by Saudi female English learners at CEFR B1 level at a Saudi higher education institution in a non-English EFL environment?

In Chapter Six, I presented the study's results, which focused on the effects of providing explicit instruction on producing appropriate spoken pragmatic language. The results explained in Chapter Six showed that the EFL Saudi learners at B1 proficiency level could develop appropriacy and produce appropriate pragmatic language choices after receiving explicit instruction on specific pragmatic forms (see section 5.7.1, table 5.4 & appendix 11). In this study, I tried to develop the experimental group's pragmatic and cultural competencies so that they could understand and produce appropriate language

responses in the tests. In the production task, I tested direct and indirect requests by presenting scenarios that ask the students : to request from their colleagues to stop eating in the classroom; to ask their neighbour to turn off the loud music; to ask their friend to change her outfit; to request help from a busy friend; to make a suggestion or offer help to a colleague by suggesting a place to stay; and to interrupt a friend's presentation and ask to check a wrong information. With these every day and real-life examples, the positive results showed that the experimental groups outperformed the control group in the production post- and delayed tests.

It is believed that appropriate language choices, e.g., politeness strategies, would be achieved differently in different cultures (Leech, 2014), and applications of other rules might be transferred from the first language to the second language, which might create pragmatic misunderstanding (Dalmau & Gotor, 2007). This interlanguage effect from L1 causes more confusion and makes the learners adapt fewer forms, which discourages them from learning L2 to a more appropriate level. The experimental group showed improvements in the effective use of the English language, but the impact of their L1 was also observed. The results agreed with Al Amro's (2013) findings that female Saudi speakers tend to give a lot of compliments on looks rather than character, which shows the effect of L1. For example, softeners and sweeteners in the Saudi Arabic language are often considered an introduction to direct criticism. Etaywe (2017) believes that Arab speakers in their L1 make notable efforts to minimise their criticism's authority, directness, and imposition, so they use their criticism with softeners to apply indirect criticism techniques. In my study, for instance, the students used the external modification device such as beautiful in the third scenario (see 6.3.3), e.g., "You'd look more beautiful if you changed your outfit." The use of the word "beautiful" here is a

cultural L1 feature, as this form of introduction is used in Saudi culture to introduce criticism.

Similarly, in other scenarios in this study, the experimental group members used commanding direct expressions to address the message in the pre-test and in their daily lives. This would be part of the influence of the students' L1. In the post- and delayed tests, the control group continued to use imperative expressions, highlighting the importance of providing explicit instruction on appropriate requests to L2 students because these students continued to use the same inappropriate forms, which is considered a pragmatic failure in using L2. The reason for pragmatic failures while speaking in the cases I offered above was due to the influence of L1. Asif et al. (2019) confirmed that the problems of pragmatic failure need to be overcome with different techniques for non-native English learners. Using commanding direct expressions instead of simply asking for something to form a request causes pragmatic failures in some cases. The control group students' low pragmatic competence forced them to apply some pragmatic features of their L1 use of language and culture. Direct speech acts such as "I want" and "I need" are a feature of the effects of L1 on L2 pragmatics, as in L1 it is acceptable to order directly. Similarly, the clarity of information using imperative devices ensured effective communication from the speaker to the hearer. Also, it is easy for non-native speakers to request directly, but such requests without adding any softeners or sweeteners can lead to miscommunication and pragmatic failures (Lee-Wong, 1994). These results agree with the study of Tawalbeh & Al-Oqaily (2012), where they found out that Saudi speakers use their direct request forms with people of lower equal power, which reflects the influence of L1.

The experimental group used some phrases that were in the appropriate use of requests and politeness strategies in their appropriate context in the post-and delayed tests. They

used direct and indirect language according to the size of the imposition and the interlocutor's role. It was clear that the students from the experimental group could implement features of politeness strategies and avoid using FTAs (Brown & Levinson, 1978). One of the examples from the first scenario is: "Excuse me (alerter), I am sorry to bother you (apology), but would you please stop eating in the classroom (request)". As evidenced by their responses in the post- and delayed tests, they used speech acts in their appropriate context. So, the hearer's role is to initiate conversational implicatures to find a reason for irregular contributions to the conversation that the speaker initiated. Bearing in mind conversational principles and their maxims, speech acts, and politeness strategies, the hearer recaps the conversation unconsciously to find the meaning (Grice, 1975). The following example is taken from the same student and scenario in the production task but at three different times from the experimental group:

> *In your accommodation, the person next door, who you do not know very well, is playing the radio loudly. You cannot study, and so you go and knock on the door.*
>
> Pre-test: 'It is very loud the music. I want you to turn off'.
>
> Post-test: 'The music it is very loud. Can you, can you turn off please?'
>
> Delayed test: 'Oh, excuse me! Would you please lower the music?'

In this example, the student made a direct request in her pre-test. However, following the explicit instruction, the student demonstrated sociopragmatic knowledge, as evidenced by her responses in the post- and delayed tests, in which she was able to use conventionally indirect language when asked about the ability to do something (see Table 5.5).

This study shows the importance of raising awareness of politeness strategies with sociopragmatic aspects, which agrees with Azwan's (2018). As this study was based on pragmatic competence aspects, the training and testing materials were based on politeness strategies. Raising the awareness of appropriate language choices, including politeness

strategies, would make learners adapt to the scenarios, as they are common in every culture. It was apparent from the pre-test results for both groups that the participants did not have the necessary politeness strategies to respond to academic situations or produce appropriate requests in L2. From the pre-test results, it was evident that the learners were not able to exhibit politeness strategies in their responses. The usage of imperative direct expressions in their L2 was also very apparent.

The experimental group's pre-test results were compared against the post-test, revealing that fewer imperative intensifiers, performative expressions, and formulae of obligation were used. I also noticed that in the post-test and right after receiving the intervention, the students used more indirect expressions such as willingness, suggestion, possibility, hints, softeners, attention getters, politeness markers, preparators, grounders, disarmers, sweeteners, apologising, and thanking. The usage of these expressions indicated the effectiveness of the explicit instructions in a short period of time. Whereas when I tested the long-term effect on L2 learners that would occur due to applying the pragmatic strategies a month later, the results showed the students' continued the usage of language and effective communication; however, it was less successful in comparison to the post-test, which indicates that the intervention should be continued.

Another interesting feature that was found in the experimental group post-and delayed tests was the use of formulaic sequences that were explicitly presented to them in the instruction phase, such as "Would you mind"; "I was wondering if"; "Would it be possible to"; "I apologise"; "Many apologies" for the high size of imposition answers and "Can I"; "Could I"; "I'm sorry"; for the low size of imposition responses (see section 3.2.). Choosing formulaic phrases supports research claims concerning their importance for explicit interaction (Jones, 2021; Schmitt, 2004; Siyanova-Chanturia, 2015). It also indicates how much formulaic language can be observed in speech acts and how the

sufficient use of formulaic sequences makes speech more natural and native-like in expression (Alali & Schmitt, 2012; Cuesta & Ainciburu, 2015). The explicit instruction that was given to the experimental group emphasised the significant usage of formulaic phrases. The experimental group members had a prior lack of awareness of using appropriate and formulaic sequences for effective communication, but the explicit instructions that were provided to them had a positive effect because of the teaching them about how to deliver polite and formal phrases to improve their communication.

Formulaic sequencing appears to have an easily memorised and reproducible strategy for participants to adopt, memorise, and reproduce when necessary. As a result, the experimental group in the post-and delayed utterances was well-organized, with clear messages. In terms of language choices within these strategies, when formulaic expressions such as "Would you please?" and "Many apologies" are most frequently and successfully reproduced within the experimental groups' utterances, even when participants do not always fully command them and use versions such as "It is my fault," or "a lot of apologies." Additionally, these findings support the positive effects of learning a language in complete units rather than as individual elements (Bardovi-Harlig, 2009; Kecskes, 2000; Schmitt, 2004; Wray, 2008).

Moreover, the explicit instruction about how to be appropriate in using the target language as well as formulaic sequencing showed that the experimental group members used conventionally indirect sequences in forming their requests in the post and delayed tests. They asked about the willingness e.g., would you help me? suggestive forms, e.g., how about changing your outfit? and possibilities, e.g., is it possible to stop eating in the classroom? According to Halenko (2017, p.176), the use of conventionally indirect strategies in requests by most of the participants in the experimental group supports

literature that suggests this is the "preferred universal feature for realising requests" (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989; Trosborg, 1995).

The study showed that explicit instruction could raise the awareness of some pragmatic aspects such as speech acts, including specific request strategies (section 3.2.3), and politeness strategies, including FTAs (section 3.2.2.) in Saudi EFL classrooms. The results of my study agreed with and added to previous literature on the benefits of providing explicit instruction (Halenko, 2017; Taguchi, 2015), and the importance of developing awareness in the classroom setting (Halenko, 2017). The results of the study have also agreed with the results of Bardovi-Harlig & Vellenga's (2012) study, which also adopted a short-period instruction input-based that can be implemented in existing curricula.

There were two main explanations for why the experimental group's results in the production task outperformed those of the control group. The first is the use of CAPT, which promoted technology in the instruction phase and enabled the students to experience their newly learned forms easily (see section 3.5.). The visual aids would have made an impact on the students, which was beneficial for their learning and usage of language. As I pointed out in Chapter One, the main goal of teaching English cannot be achieved by the traditional techniques in the classroom, such as reading from the course book and memorising grammatical rules. Thus, using modern technology and new effective methods would improve the competence of L2 learners.

The second reason might be that the answers were recorded and judged only for appropriateness rather than accuracy, which allowed the participants to express themselves freely without worrying about correcting their grammar and vocabulary. They were focused on using appropriate words in their conversation as their intervention

training had been mainly focused on using formulaic sequences, speech acts, and polite strategies in a conversation. As we did not discuss grammar and they did not pay much attention to these attributes while speaking. Ignoring these aspects made them focus on the application of appropriate language in their L2.

From the results, it could be observed that the instruction materials included appropriate elements that corresponded to appropriacy, which was reflected in the post-and delayed test results by the members of the experimental group. The difference in the usage of speech acts and politeness strategies demonstrates the appropriacy of the instruction materials. These materials, however, were chosen specifically for the six scenarios, and the questions for the pre-, post-, and delayed tests were based on the scenarios. If the instructions were given to cover the most relevant and common scenarios, students would achieve better linguistic competence in their L2.

In conclusion, in the production task, the experimental group outperformed the control group, which shows a positive effect of explicit instruction in developing the production of appropriate pragmatic language choices in Saudi English female learners at a Saudi higher education institution in short-term intervention and the need for continued intervention to keep similar results in their delayed tests.

The next section discusses the second research question.

7.3. Discussion of research question 2

The second research question was:

RQ2 How effective is explicit instruction in the short-and long-term development of the recognition of appropriate pragmatic language choices by Saudi female English learners at CEFR B1 level at a Saudi higher education institution in a non-English EFL environment?

In designing the recognition task (see table 5.3), I aimed to explore the relationship between procedural and declarative knowledge (see section 3.4.). I wanted to know what the students already knew about the language and how they would apply their understanding of the language in authentic situations. While the production task was designed to encourage the experimental and control group students to produce spoken language, the recognition task was intended to reflect the students' understanding of the indirect meanings in contexts.

In the recognition task, I tested the understanding of the underlying meaning of indirect speech acts and conversational implicatures with questions about; a lecturer in a lecture hall 'ordering' the students to stop talking and pay attention; a student requesting another to remove her coat; a tutor criticising a late student; a security guard ordering a student to not smoke in the building; a supervisor's comment which criticises a student's writing; and a student offering to help her friend. I focused on conversational implicatures and indirect speech acts because I wanted the students to notice that some of the utterances in the second language can be understood by analysing the situation and realising the indirect meaning. The participants in a discussion are expected to try to infer the meaning. Thus, when a speaker presents irrational or meaningless content to the conversation, the hearer assumes that there is a reason for that and tries to work out the conversational implicatures in order to understand why the conversation did not follow the expected pattern. The students had to notice the power of difference, the size of imposition, and the social difference between the participants. Contextual differences in the language could be made by altering the sentence, which shows awareness among the students of how to use the language in an appropriate way.

The argument made in this study was to assert the importance of appropriate pragmatic competence over accurate linguistic competence. Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnyei (1998)

claimed that EFL teachers who teach English to students in EFL classrooms promoted teaching grammatical forms over teaching how to communicate successfully. This data proved that developing pragmatic awareness, such as politeness strategies, speech acts, conversational implicatures, and its maxims, helped to develop pragmatic competence (see section 3.2). It also showed that developing pragmatic and sociolinguistic commands of language use is essential for second language learners (see section 2.3). It is necessary to be appropriate in using the form of the target language in a specific situation. The incompetent use of pragmatic forms may create communication failures and stereotype second language users as inconsiderate, offensive, or inappropriate (Eslami-Rasekh, 2005; Taguchi, 2011; Thomas, 1983). There is a requirement to promote adequate competency in understanding and producing appropriate pragmatic forms, especially in academic settings, which seem susceptible to personal opinions (Halenko, 2017).

The results from the recognition task showed the importance of explicit instruction in reflecting on declarative knowledge. To analyse procedural and declarative knowledge, I needed to know why the students chose one answer over the other in the recognition task, so I included a tag question in their multiple-choice test asking them why they chose one answer over the other. In the multiple choices, I expected all the students to choose the indirect meaning. The students from the recognition task were able to show their understanding of indirect speech acts and conversational implicatures in the provided scenarios (see Table 6.29 to 6.34), which reflected their declarative knowledge: what they knew about the language. When I asked the students about the reason for choosing one answer rather than another, most of the answers in the pre-test were "I don't know," or "I heard it somewhere." However, the answers in the post-and delayed tests of the experimental group varied between "I heard it somewhere" and "I heard it in the class,"

while the answers of the control group in their post-and delayed tests did not change from their pre-test.

The intervention showed positive effects on the results of the experimental group; the post-test in the experimental group outperformed the students' results in the control group. However, the delayed test results showed that the learners of the experimental groups were not able to deliver the same as they had done in their immediate post-test in terms of competence. As a result, the study found that the impact of explicit instruction strategy intervention could be used to improve pragmatic competence and understanding of the L2 linguistic competence, pragmatic competence, and sociopragmatic competence, but it would have to be continuous.

According to Cutrone (2021), the long-term effect of L2 on students who get explicit instruction would be positive and would improve their pragmatic competence. Participants should develop declarative knowledge from their experience of learning a second language, which would benefit them while applying it in real conversations. This applied declarative knowledge would develop from their personal experience, resulting in improved communication and a better understanding of sociopragmatic competence. However, the study included a limited number of students for analysis, and so a conclusion could not be drawn. Compared to Cutrone's study and my study, the L2 learners from my experimental group, who were provided with explicit instructions and CAPT materials, could not deliver the same results in the delayed tests. Although the learners received explicit instructions and visual aid support to learn and understand their L2, the practical conversation experience for different situations from real-life scenarios would still be challenging for them, as the explicit instructions and tasks were just focused on limited scenarios designed to create the awareness of basic linguistic, pragmatic, and sociopragmatic experiences.

I can relate and explain the experimental group's results in the recognition task to the use of CAPT, which promoted technology in learning and testing and enabled the students to easily experience their newly learned forms. The visual aids would have had an impact on students' learning and usage of language. As evaluated by Nugroho and Atmojo (2020), visual education aids the learning process and has had a better impact on the students who received the visual aid-based learning in the long term. However, the post- and delayed results from the same set of students would show some difference, as they produced lower scores on the delayed tests. This indicates that though the visual aids supported the learning process, the prolonged use of the knowledge would be reduced. The same scenario was worse for the control group. Their ability to use efficient language had not improved, but the difference between post- and delayed tests did not differ significantly from students in the experimental group. The control group had the same knowledge as the pre- and post-test groups. The purpose of including technology in testing the students was to test the recommendations introduced by Taguchi (2015), who advised including exciting materials for the students to teach them a second language. Simultaneously, using technology allowed me to implement semi-authentic materials and meaningful communication as recommended by Belz and Vyatkina (2008). Sykes (2017) suggested using technology in teaching a second language to non-native speakers because it enhances many aspects of L2 at the same time and opens the doors for the communicative method.

The data outcome suggested that the students in the experimental group understood the conversational implicatures, which was the intention of providing the members of this group with explicit instruction to develop their awareness of pragmatic competence. In the analysis, results show that the experimental group implemented the materials that had been explicitly explained to them, during the instruction phase, their choices in terms of

answers to the scenarios. The experimental group demonstrated appropriate language comprehension awareness in their post- and delayed tests. The idea here was to link the students' strategic competence to their pragmatic competence to establish a relationship between declarative and procedural knowledge. It can be inferred that the students in the experimental group showed procedural knowledge of what they had learnt in the explicit instruction phase.

When we consider declarative and procedural knowledge, the students from the experimental group were able to attain declarative knowledge, and so were students from the control group. The students acquired the knowledge through personal experiences by answering the questions corresponding to the video shown by the instructor (see section 3.8.). The students applied their procedural knowledge by listening to the questions and choosing answers corresponding to the video.

As a result of the previous discussion, I can conclude that providing EFL female Saudi speakers with explicit pragmatic instruction on understanding appropriate language forms, especially conversational implicatures, politeness strategies, and indirect speech acts, positively benefited the results in the experimental group. Students who received explicit pragmatic instruction were aware of politeness strategies, conversational implicatures, and speech acts in some situations in short-term intervention and needed continued intervention to maintain similar results on their delayed tests.

7.4.Conclusion

I found explicit pragmatic instruction to be extremely effective in developing successful appropriate language choices, such as producing request speech acts and understanding the implicit meaning of sentences, for the experimental group in the production and recognition tasks. More precisely, the results in the post- and delayed tests indicated that

underdeveloped pragmalinguistic strategies in the pre-test significantly improved following the instruction.

Additionally, participants appear to gain a greater awareness of understanding the meaning of the context following the intervention provided to them. Participants who had been instructed appeared to be more aware of the use of the forms and their functions, such as softeners, hints, the politeness marker 'please' and thanking (requests) in specific situations; the pre-test had shown L1 a lack of awareness of these strategies, which might have been responsible for the students' unawareness or avoidance of these strategies.

The experimental group in both tasks could not sustain their good performance in the delayed tests, despite the improved experimental group performance post-test in both tasks. Although concentrated and private treatments may be more effective for short-term memory retention, consistent teaching methods may be preferable. The recommendation is that instruction and practice should be replayed on a regular basis in order to enhance learning potential. The results of this study back up claims that developing pragmatic competence is very hard (Cohen, 2008; Taguchi, 2015) and that sociopragmatic competence, in particular, may be even harder and tends to develop much later in natural settings (Dalmau & Gotor, 2007; Fukuya & Zhang, 2002).

Concerning the matter of learnability, the experimental groups were successful in adopting and maintaining the use of request formulaic expressions. The findings indicate that using formulaic language saves time and effort (Wray, 2000). Notably, the fact that the majority of introduced formulaic expressions were composed of short, predetermined strings of words seemed to benefit the learners, and the expressions appeared to be highly recognisable and understood with little processing. As a result, learners expanded their repertoire of formulaic expressions in the post-test of the production task, in contrast to

their pre-test performance, which had demonstrated a restricted repertoire characterised by excessive reliance on a small number of fundamental formulaic expressions, as previously observed (Wang, 2011).

The learners used formulaic language but did not always use these expressions correctly, which is consistent with previous research (Bardovi-Harlig, 2009, Dalmau & Gotor, 2007; Johnson & DeHaan, 2013). What distinguishes the findings of this study is that the raters' assessments demonstrated that accuracy in formulaic expression production is not required for successful use. The intention to use appropriate expressions appears to be adequately recognised, satisfying the requirement for a complete command of their grammatical forms, as long as the message is clear. This finding reinforces the previous findings (e.g., Bardovi-Harlig & Dörnyei, 1998; Halenko, 2017) regarding the greater importance of pragmatic competence over grammatical competence in the EFL setting.

In the next chapter, I summarise the study's contributions and limitations and suggest future recommendations.

Chapter Eight: **Conclusion**

8.1. Chapter introduction

The study explored the effect of explicit instruction on developing the understanding and production of appropriate language choices in female Saudi EFL students in the short- and long-term. I explored the appropriate choices of conversational implicatures (see section 3.2.1.), politeness strategies (see section 3.2.2), and speech acts (see section 3.2.3.) in EFL. I tested the use of six formulaic expressions in these classes (see section 3.2. and table 5.5.), and I used CAPT technology (see sections 3.5. and 5.6.) in teaching and testing.

In this chapter, I begin with section 8.2, which summarises the study's contribution to understanding pragmatic development. Following that, the limitations and suggested future lines of research are summarised and concluding remarks are made in sections 8.3 and 8.4.

8.2. Contribution of the study

In this section, I focus on summarising the findings in section 8.2.1. Then, I provide implications for research and teaching in 8.2.2.

8.2.1. Summary of findings

This study discussed many leading theoretical frameworks that have dominated language research in the last five decades. In Chapter Two and Three, the study covered and presented many theories of communicative competence, starting with Dell Hymes (1972), who developed the term 'communicative competence', followed by Canale and Swain (1980) and their representation of the theoretical framework in which they tried to theorise the term communicative competence in three main perspectives: grammatical, sociolinguistic, and strategic competences. Then, Canale (1983) added to the theoretical

framework in which discourse competence was also included. The chapter then introduced Bachman and Palmer's model of language use and performance (1982). I also covered the four maxims and conversational implicatures of Grice (1975) (see section 3.2.1.); politeness theory by Lakoff (1973) (see section 3.2.2.); and speech act theory by Austin (1962) and Searle (1969) (see section 3.2.3.). Furthermore, I shifted from language teaching and learning theories to cover theories in language acquisition, including psychological procedural and declarative knowledge presented by Anderson (1983) (see section 3.4.).

In this study, I concluded that explicit pragmatic instruction is extremely effective in developing successful appropriate pragmatic language choices, such as producing direct and indirect requests, using appropriate politeness strategies, using specific formulaic sequences, and understanding the conversational implicatures for the experimental group in the production and recognition tasks. More specifically, the results of the post- and delayed tests indicated that the pragmalinguistic strategies required explicit instruction to improve.

The results from the experimental group affirmed the importance of developing the pragmatic competence of L2 learners, and their improvements were shown in the results of the post- and delayed tests, at the same time as there were no improvements observed in the control group. The pedagogical inference is that providing explicit instruction could improve the learners' ability to make appropriate language choices. The instructional intervention applied in this research has contributed to improving teaching and learning, and such improvement boosts learners' competencies in different areas as well as pragmatics. This finding is strengthened by the many practical classroom-based research applications of teaching pragmatics (Cohen, 2012; Ishihara, 2010; Flor & Juan, 2010); and the one adopted in this research by Halenko (2017).

As shown in the results of the study's findings, the experimental group achieved distinctive results, as shown in the evaluations applied in the three tests. The improvements in students' competencies were found to have increased, but they could not be trained and tested any longer as the research study was completed. The control group results confirmed the arguments that the improvement of pragmatic competence needs a long time and might never accrue. Their results were relatively similar in the three tests, especially when comparing the delayed test, which took place a month after the post-test. Like the experimental group members, the control group members were Saudi students enrolled in the English department. However, they did not show any progress without explicit intervention compared to their first test and the other instructed group. This finding can be considered an interesting contribution to the research and existing literature on instructed EFL applications.

This study has provided unique insights into some of the distinct approaches to training. It can be used to increase and get recognition for instructional performance. The contribution of this research is to recognise the interlanguage gaps in the students' pragmatic knowledge. Such recognition reveals the type of intervention that pragmatic features require in most instructional observation. In finding the interlanguage gap, teachers can design classes and materials focusing on the effects of L1 on L2. The materials included in the study were also based on politeness strategies; as the learners were from non-native English backgrounds, they could show some of their L1 influence, which might be reflected in an inappropriate conversation for an L2 hearer. That was apparent in the use of imperative structures in the conversation, which would be more engaging if they were merged with politeness strategies. Similar results were reported by Al Masaeed, Waugh, and Burns (2018), who used the scenarios of apologising strategies for the L2 learners to improve their ability and appropriate use of their L2.

8.2.2. Implications for teaching and testing

The study design can be useful for future research to prove the importance and necessity of developing pragmatic competence for EFL English learners. The students were selected specifically from English learning classes and divided into two groups; one group had training for explicit instruction on appropriate pragmatic language choices, while the second control group was to remain free of any intervention other than the regular class schedule. Delayed tests were included to see the long-term effect of the training, which was after four weeks of the post-test, the delayed test was taken for both groups.

The study compared providing instruction versus exposure in the understanding and production of appropriate pragmatic language choices in a Saudi setting, which is among the few investigations in this area in an EFL Saudi context. To achieve that, I created the instruction practice materials required for introducing appropriate pragmatic language choices to support inductive learning where the learners apply a specific language focus to a general rule. The explicit instruction materials were specifically designed to develop pragmatic competence among EFL Saudi learners. I designed materials to teach appropriate language choices, focusing on conversational implicatures, politeness strategies, and speech acts. Based on the theoretical background, these instruction treatments and resources positively influenced the experimental group's performance. I aimed to create classroom research that provides explicit instruction to produce productive communication between non-native speakers (Blight, 2002; Lee, 2003). This study's development of pragmatic competence was essential for promoting communicative competence. Several studies have asserted the importance of effective pedagogy in developing language users' conversational competence (Bailey & Nunan, 2005; Blight, 2002; Lee, 2003; Murray, 2011; Rajabi & Farahian, 2013).

Furthermore, as Schmitt and Carter (2004) recommended, adopting one or more formulaic sequences, such as politeness expressions and explicitly instructing students about what to say and when proved to be beneficial in learning appropriate expressions to apply in specific contexts. In this study, the chosen set of formulaic expressions (*Would you please, I was wondering, Would it be possible, I apologise/many apologies, can I /could I, I am sorry*). These formulaic sequences were short, predetermined strings of words that benefited the learners. As a result, learners expanded their awareness of formulaic expressions in the post-test of the production task, in contrast to their pre-test performance, where they did not use any formulaic sequence. To my knowledge, there is no other study in the EFL Saudi context that uses specific formulaic sequences in equipping the students with ready-to-use language along with the unique combination of the appropriate understanding and production of conversational implicatures, politeness strategies, direct/indirect requests, and formulaic expressions in the EFL Saudi context. I achieved that by creating a set of production tasks that were essential to pragmatic competence because these formulaic sequences can be used to serve a variety of communicative purposes.

Furthermore, in this study, I recommended that learners develop their pragmatic competence over their grammatical competence in a conversation, as recommended by Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnyei (1998). So, the teachers should present the students with what they need to achieve an appropriate pragmatic understanding and production. Raising the awareness of appropriate pragmatic language choices, such as requesting and politeness strategies, along with the understanding of implied meanings, could be used in L2 learner-based language teaching. As the results show, the students were predominantly focused on the pragmatic appropriateness of the L2 and ignored the grammatical aspects, indicating their involvement in the learning process. The students'

progress was measured by employing two native speakers to rate appropriateness to promote appropriacy over the accuracy, which was the study's primary goal. To decide the students' progress, I compared providing instruction to exposure by comparing an experimental group to a control group. To my knowledge, no other EFL Saudi study used raters to evaluate the students' answers. Also, the progress was determined by comparing two groups of non-native speakers to each other rather than comparing them to native speakers, an approach that infrequently appears in other studies in the Saudi context. Moreover, this study elaborated on using technology in Saudi EFL and added to knowledge in the field by using CAPT form in training the students and testing them. I used CAPT in the study to provide data that may enrich future classroom learning research for Saudi EFL. The experimental group's members were exposed to language training mirroring contexts that they might find in an academic setting, and this type of training showed effective results. The use of CAPT in this research confirms Halenko's (2021) finding that technology could enhance teaching pragmatic quality to non-native speakers, even in a short-term period. Also, this study agreed with similar other research confirming that technology can improve teaching and learning outcomes, such as in the studies of Butler (2015) and Sykes, Venkatesh, and Gosain (2009). The representation of CAPT scenarios can be manipulated to be used in classroom teaching and in testing non-native speakers to tailor situations that may be suitable to each context needed to be taught. Up to this date, no other EFL Saudi study has applied this data collection tool in using CAPT scenarios in teaching and testing, which can provide a complete set of explicit instructions and testing to improve the pragmatic competence of the students.

The results of this study can be interesting to second language teachers who teach English in a Saudi EFL setting. Teachers and instructors of English should be aware of the importance of the pragmatic scope of language and should introduce it to learners in

suitable and encouraging ways. Hence, the findings of this study urge course designers to improve the teaching materials of other guided second language teaching and learning programmes, especially by presenting formulaic expressions and understanding politeness strategies, which help in understanding the underlying meaning of some contexts. In the next section, I discuss limitations and recommendations for future studies.

8.3. Limitations

The challenge faced in this research was gender limitation, which resulted from gender segregation in Saudi universities. Therefore, the findings of this study cannot be generalised to all other learner groups and settings, which agree with the findings in Alamr's (2019) study. Some studies found that there are differences in understanding the pragmatic aspect between males and females. One study was conducted by Mirzaei and Parhizkar (2021), where the male learners showed less interest in adapting to the L2, whereas the female learners tended to adjust to the L2 and try to understand the pragmatic aspects. Taguchi (2015) and Jeon and Kaya (2006) confirmed that expanding the range of L1 of various proficiency levels and ages and examining a range of different languages prevented a large concentration of studies employing university-level participants studying EFL. The challenges of developing pragmatic appropriacy are rarely discussed. As the pragmatic strategies' instruction was tried here with only one gender of students, it often cannot be used conclusively in decision-making to implement them further in real-time studies. Moreover, the strategies would differ from language to language and the necessary techniques used to improve pragmatic competence would not be related, as stated by Al Masaeed et al. (2018).

8.4. Recommendation for future studies

As the current study sat a short period of intervention applied (ten-hour) just to show that the materials of CAPT can be implemented in an existing curriculum because this study was interested in showing pragmatic development in a short period (one month). So, I recommend other researchers set aside a longer time for the experiment and provide more materials in the instructional phase. Also, I would recommend setting a longer period for testing to see if the students can retain their development for longer, as Dalmau and Gotor (2007) and Kasper and Rose (2002) recommended. Also, I recommend testing the students every week or every couple of weeks, as suggested by Jeon and Kaya (2006), so the results show more details, especially in a longitudinal study that lasts longer than this study, as shown in the study of Wang and Halenko (2019). A more comprehensive study with multiple tests could indicate when the learners started to use and understand appropriate forms. This longitudinal study might show the critical learning time, which would show more benefits of the methods used in this study.

Also, the instructions and test questions were based on a specific scenario so that the learner could observe the difference in their use of speech acts, politeness strategies, and conversational implicatures. However, we cannot conclude that the implementation ability of a learner from a single scenario could reflect on other scenarios as well. The learners were able to easily understand the scenarios and produce effective results together, so specific scenarios and a distinctive question-based test would show more depth to the struggles faced by the learners. The difference in the usage of imperative words and strategies exhibits the appropriacy of the instruction's materials. However, these materials were exclusively chosen for the specific twelve scenarios and the questions for the pre-, post-, and delayed tests were based on the scenarios. I would also

recommend further scenarios to find situations recommended by the students participating in their research to reflect what they experience at their university.

Another recommendation is related to obtaining the data is the source of the situations of the production and recognition tasks. As mentioned before, the scenarios were adopted from Cornbleet (2000), and they were tested as DCTs. So, I recommend that future studies to add a DCT form to compare it with the results of CAPT to show the results and benefits of using technology in testing.

As mentioned before, this study adopted Halenko's (2017) CAPT instrument to instruct and test the students participating in this study. I followed her recommendations because she mentioned that she used high-status interlocutors and high imposition variables. In my research, I mixed the statuses of the people in the situations, so I had close friends, colleagues, and lecturers, and the participants in my study were exposed to different examples of the power of distance and role. However, this study needed more variables related to Saudi culture, such as segregation between females and males, so the situation should be more relevant to the culture to focus more on the interlanguage gap.

Finally, I recommend exploring other pragmatic features, such as complaints or refusal, rather than focusing on a few aspects of speech acts. It was challenging to include all the areas involved in pragmatics, such as politeness strategies, speech acts and maxims. Future studies on Saudi students should focus more on one specific aspect, like refusal, to help the teachers prepare formulaic phrases that might help the students respond to situations more spontaneously and confidentially.

8.5. Concluding remarks

The present study has expanded the existing data concerning the impacts of explicit pragmatic instruction of appropriate pragmatic language choices on EFL Saudi female

students. It also examined the use of technology in the training materials to develop pragmatic competence. This study focused on explicitly introducing the underlying meaning of the utterances to produce appropriate utterances by raising the awareness of how to produce and understand appropriate pragmatic language choices that included features used by both L1 Saudi users and L1 English users, such as conversational implicatures and maxims, politeness strategies and direct/indirect requests. This study revealed that L2 learners require explicit instruction and teaching to notice and explore pragmatic interlanguage differences, especially concerning the understanding and production of the underlying meanings of the utterances, because being exposed to L2 alone is not enough to use the second language in an appropriate way.

In order to answer the first research question, an explicit set of instruction was given to the students, which was focused on developing the aspects of pragmatic appropriateness and linguistic expressions to improve their appropriate language production. Also, the explicit instruction created awareness of using the appropriate form of words in their conversation.

Moreover, as observed in the pre-, post-, and delayed tests, the significant difference in the performance of the experimental group and control group demonstrated that these explicit instructions could improve students' pragmatic competence. In addition, the explicit instructions and the materials in the test were based on academic scenarios to encourage the usage of appropriate language. Students also exhibited the usage of more appropriate forms in the post- and delayed tests. This shows that they developed their pragmatic competence in their L2 as they had observed the difference during the course of the training and from the tests.

The interlanguage effects were observed among the students while using their conversational implicatures, politeness strategies, and requests. This indicates the influence of their L1 in L2, which might cause misunderstandings and even chaos. The interlanguage effects are common among different language learners, as discussed in the study by Martinez & Hernández (2019). The students from the experimental group were able to understand the influence of their L1 while conversing in L2. Thus, they could show improvements in the post- and delayed tests. The study also showed that the usage of politeness strategies would improve the usage of the appropriate pragmatic language more among the experimental group.

Moreover, Saudi EFL learners who are learning their L2 in their country face difficulties acquiring pragmatic standards of an English-speaking background, so they need specific guidance to help them use their L2 in appropriate contexts. Such guidance is not easy to carry out, and it needs experienced teachers, an appropriate environment and motivated students.

Answering the second research question, from the results of the recognition task, the experimental group showed improvement, as they had gained procedural knowledge compared to the control group (see section 3.4.). However, the students from the experimental group did not retain their knowledge of the conversational implicatures in the long term. Which indicates the need for regular input and practice opportunities for long-term recognition of pragmatic knowledge.

In line with the study by Son (2022), procedural knowledge was gained by the students who were taught in a constrained manner by choosing specific forms to develop. As declarative knowledge tends to transform into procedural knowledge, the analysis of declarative knowledge and procedural knowledge showed the importance of

understanding the role of declarative knowledge in the learning process. The control group in the research study produced lower results than those of the experimental group. They also showed consistency in their results, even in delayed tests, but they could not improve themselves. This indicates the importance of learning the linguistic and pragmatic aspects of a language in early stages of learning. This significant difference between the control and the experimental group satisfies the main aspect of the research study to compare receiving instruction verses exposure.

Consequently, in this study I tried to draw attention to practical ways in which pragmatic instruction can help language teaching (see section 3.6.& 3.7.). I also showed the importance of developing pragmatic appropriateness and teaching formulaic expressions to the learners in real-time conversations as native speakers produced them (3.3.). Also, computer-aided teaching revealed some improvements in the students' learning ability (see section 3.5.). Much like the study of Chen and Shuo (2018), this research also has tried to improve the students' pragmatic competence by implementing different strategies and analysing the pragmatic competence level of the students for further improvement. Moreover, creating awareness of teaching a language's pragmatic, linguistic, and sociopragmatic competence gives the learners confidence to participate in the learning process.

Other researchers are encouraged to find more data to improve teaching English for non-native speakers, especially from methodological and pedagogical viewpoints, to improve students' pragmatic ability and explore this field to enhance teaching English as a second/foreign language. Moreover, future studies could include other scenarios planned for long-term training, which might improve the linguistic and pragmatic competence of L2 learners. I suggest designing some scenarios that are aimed to test the preparedness and competence of EFL teachers and instructors in the Saudi context, to develop the

pragmatic competence elements in their students. In addition, as the study at hand focused on one group of learners, there is a need to explore the impact of such instructional teaching material on gender differences. Finally, as the development and transfer were within the Saudi policy and in line with the Kingdom's 2030 Vision, it is important to evaluate the teaching materials provided to Saudi EFL students along with the different phases of education with appropriate pragmatic language choices required for better understanding and use of English.

There were some practical issues that researchers may face if they wish to replicate my study. The first one is related to the participants. The primary sample of the students was over 200 female participants. However, this sample was reduced to 70 students because of the commitment issues of some of the participants. At the beginning of my journey to collect the data, I had to think about the dates in the academic calendar because I had to finish my data collection before the students' exams. Thus, I advise any researcher who may wish to replicate this study to consider these dates in the academic calendar.

One the other hand, I faced another challenge when I was designing the characters in CAPT. As I mentioned in 5.6., I designed all the aspects of the scenarios presented to the students, from the character's gender to the hair colour and clothes. I also chose the voice of the characters as well as the accent. The real challenge was to rely on my imagination which took a long time. Each scene took two days to be completed. So, I would advise researchers who wish to replicate this study to take their time in these two steps in specific.

To sum up, the primary purpose of this study was to investigate the effectiveness of explicit instruction in developing the understanding and production of B1 Saudi (Arabic native) speakers' appropriate pragmatic language choices in the English department in a

Saudi university. In doing so, it has added to knowledge in the field and contributed to future EFL pedagogy and research.

References

A Qari, I. (2021). The Effect of Explicit Instruction of Requests on Saudi EFL learners using a pre-test, post-test Approach. *Arab World English Journal, 12*(1), 113-127.

Achiba, M. (2003). *Learning to request in a second language: A study of child interlanguage pragmatics*. Ireland, Dublin. Multilingual Matters.

Ahmadian, M. J. (2020). Explicit and implicit instruction of refusal strategies: Does working memory capacity play a role? *Language Teaching Research*, *24*(2), 163-188.

Aijmer, K. (1996). I think-an English modal particle. *Trends In Linguistics Studies and Monographs*, *99*, 1-48.

Ajabshir, Z. F., & Vahdany, F. (2017). The effect of peer scaffolding on developing L2 pragmatic knowledge: A sociocultural perspective. *International Journal of English Language and Translation Studies*, *5*(4), 32-40.

Al Amro, M. (2013). *The sociolinguistics of compliment behaviour in Najdi Saudi Arabic*. Ball State University.

Al Masaeed, K., Waugh, L. R., & Burns, K. E. (2018). The development of interlanguage pragmatics in L2 Arabic: The production of apology strategies. *System*, *74*, 98-108.

Alali, F. A., & Schmitt, N. (2012). Teaching formulaic sequences: The same as or different from teaching single words? *TESOL Journal*, *3*(2), 153-180.

Alamr, A. S. (2019*). Digital games and English as foreign language (EFL) learning in tertiary education in Saudi Arabia*, Doctor of Philosophy thesis, School of Education, University of Wollongong.

Alcón, E. (2001). Developing pragmatic competence in the academic setting: The case of suggestions in NS/NNS advising sessions. *Methodology and new technologies in language for specific purposes*, 79-86.

Alderson, C. J., & Alderson, J. C. (2000). *Assessing reading*. Cambridge University Press.

Al-Gahtani, S., & Roever, C. (2013). 'Hi doctor, give me handouts': low-proficiency learners and requests. *ELT journal*, *67*(4), 413-424.

Al-Gahtani, S., & Roever, C. (2018). Proficiency and preference organization in second language refusals. *Journal of Pragmatics*, *129*, 140-153.

Alghamdi, N. A., & R Alqarni, I. (2019). A sociolinguistic study of the use of refusal strategies by Saudi and American females. *International Journal of English Linguistics*, *9*(5), 66-77.

Alharbi, H. A. (2015). Improving Students' English-Speaking Proficiency in Saudi Public Schools. *International journal of instruction*, *8*(1), 105-116.

Alhawsawi, S. (2014). *Investigating student experiences of learning English as a foreign language in a preparatory programme in a Saudi university*. Doctoral dissertation, University of Sussex.

Aljasir, N. (2021). Pragmatic Performance in Focus: The Case of Saudi Graduates Giving Advice in English: الأداء البراغماتي: تقديم المشورة باللغة الإنجليزية من قبل الخريجين السعوديين. مجلة العلوم الإنسانية و الإجتماعية, 4(9).

Alkhrisheh, H. T. D., Failasofah, F., & Alkhrisheh, T. (2021). The Interrelationship among Language Use, Linguistic Competence, and Higher Order Skills. *Indonesian Research Journal in Education| IRJE|*, *5*(1), 6-22.

Alkubaidi, M. A. (2014). The Relationship between Saudi English Major University Students' Writing Performance and Their Learning Style and Strategy Use. *English Language Teaching*, *7*(4), 83-95.

Almegren, A. (2022). Pragmatic awareness among Saudi EFL learners. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, *18*(Special Issue 1), 266-276.

Almutairi, N. H. (2007). *The influence of educational and sociocultural factors on the learning styles and strategies of female students in Saudi Arabia* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Leicester).

Al-Qahtani, A. A. (2020). Teaching pragmatic competence in EFL context: the case of Saudi EFL teachers. *Asian EFL Journal*, *27*(4), 137-164.

Alrabai, F. (2014). A Model of Foreign Language Anxiety in the Saudi EFL Context. *English language teaching, 7*(7), 82-101.

Alrabai, F. (2018). Learning English in Saudi Arabia. In *English as a Foreign Language in Saudi Arabia* (pp. 102-119). Routledge.

Alrashidi, O., & Phan, H. (2015). Education Context and English Teaching and Learning in the Kingdom of Saudi Arabia: An Overview. *English Language Teaching, 8*(5), 33-44.

Al-Rawafi, A., Sudana, D., Lukmana, I., & Syihabuddin, S. Students' apologizing in Arabic and English: An interlanguage pragmatic case study at an Islamic boarding school in Indonesia. *Indonesian Journal of Applied Linguistics*, *10*(3).

Al-Seghayer, K. (2014). The four most common constraints affecting English teaching in Saudi Arabia. *International Journal of English Linguistics*, *4*(5), 17-26.

Alshahrani, K., & Al-Shehri, S. (2012). Conceptions and responses to e-learning: The case of EFL teachers and students in a Saudi Arabian university. *Monash University Linguistics Papers, 8*(1), 21-31.

Alshammari, M. M. (2011). The use of the mother tongue in Saudi EFL classrooms. *Journal of international education research (JIER)*, *7*(4), 95-102.

Al-Subahi, A. (1991). *Teaching English in the Gulf (Saudi Arabia).* Dar Al Funoon Printing Pressa, Jeddah.

Alsuhaibani, Z. (2022). Developing EFL students' pragmatic competence: The case of compliment responses. *Language Teaching Research*, *26*(5), 847-866.

Alsuhaibani, Z. (2022). Developing EFL students' pragmatic competence: The case of compliment responses. *Language Teaching Research, 26*(5), 847-866.

Al-Tamimi, R. (2019). Policies and issues in teaching English to Arab EFL learners: A Saudi Arabian perspective. *Arab World English Journal,10*(2), 68-76.

Al-Zubeiry, H. Y. A. (2020). Violation of Grice's maxims and humorous implicatures in the Arabic comedy Madraset Al-Mushaghbeen. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, *16*(2), 1043-1057.

Amoah, S., & Yeboah, J. (2021). The speaking difficulties of Chinese EFL learners and their motivation towards speaking the English language. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, *17*(1), 56-69.

Anderson, J. R. (1983). A spreading activation theory of memory. *Journal of verbal learning and verbal behaviour, 22*(3), 261-295.

Araujo Portugal, J. C. (2020). A proposal to teach implicature to intermediate students of English. *Ikastorratza. e-Revista de Didáctica*, 25, 96-132.

Ashraf, M., & Ali, S. (2021). Pragmatic Competence: Difficulties faced by Pakistani EFL Learners. *sjesr*, *4*(2), 444-451.

Ashraf, T. A. (2018). Teaching English as a foreign language in Saudi Arabia: struggles and strategies. *International Journal of English Language Education, 6*(1), 133-154.

Asif, M., Deng, Z., Hussain, Z., & Rasool, S. (2019). The case study of pragmatic failure in second language of Pakistani students. *International Journal of English Linguistics, 9*(4), 133-154.

Atlas, J. D., & Levinson, S. C. (1981). It-clefts, informativeness and logical form: Radical pragmatics (revised standard version). In *Radical pragmatics* (pp. 1-62). Academic Press.

Austin, J. L. (1962). *How to do things with words*. Oxford university press.

Azwan, A. (2018). Politeness strategies of refusals to requests by Ambonese community. LINGUA: *Jurnal Bahasa, Sastra, Dan Pengajarannya, 15*(1), 1-6.

Bach, K. (1994). Conversational impliciture. *Mind and language, 9*(2), 124-162.

Bachman, L. F. (1990). *Fundamental considerations in language testing*: Oxford university press.

Bachman, L. F., & Palmer, A. S. (1982). The construct validation of some components of communicative proficiency. *TESOL quarterly*, *16*(4), 449-465.

Bachman, L. F., & Palmer, A. S. (1996). *Language testing in practice: Designing and developing useful language tests* (Vol. 1). Oxford University Press.

Bachman, L. F., & Palmer, A. S. (2010). The construct validation of self-ratings of communicative language ability. *Language Testing, 6*(1), 14–29.

Badjadi, N. E. I. (2016). A meta-analysis of the effects of instructional tasks on L2 pragmatics comprehension and production. *Assessment for learning within and beyond the classroom*, 241-268.

Bailey, K. M., & Nunan, D. (2005). *Practical English language teaching: speaking*. New York: McGraw-Hill ESL/ELT.

Bamberger, J., & Schön, D. A. (1983). Learning as reflective conversation with materials: Notes from work in progress. *Art Education, 36*(2), 68-73.

Bardovi-Harlig K, Hartford BS (1990) Congruence in native and non-native conversations: Status balance in the academic advising session. *Language Learning 40*(4): 467-50.

Bardovi-Harlig, K. (1996). Pragmatics and Language Teaching: Bringing Pragmatics and Pedagogy Together. *Monograph Series, 7*, 21-39.

Bardovi-Harlig, K. (2001). Evaluating the empirical evidence: Grounds for instruction in pragmatics. *Pragmatics in language teaching*, 13-32.

Bardovi-Harlig, K. (2013). Developing L2 pragmatics. *Language Learning*, *63*, 68-86.

Bardovi-Harlig, K. (2016). How formulaic is pragmatics. *Pragmatics and language learning, 14*, 325-339.

Bardovi-Harlig, K., & Dörnyei, Z. (1998). Do language learners recognize pragmatic violations? Pragmatic versus grammatical awareness in instructed L2 learning. *Tesol Quarterly*, *32*(2), 233-259.

Bardovi-Harlig, K., & Hartford, B. S. (1991). Saying "no" in English: Native and nonnative rejections. *Pragmatics and language learning*, *2*, 41-57.

Bardovi-Harlig, K., & Vellenga, H. E. (2012). The effect of instruction on conventional expressions in L2 pragmatics. *System, 40*(1), 77-89.

Barron, A. (2003). *Acquisition in interlanguage pragmatics: Learning how to do things with words in a study abroad context* (Vol. 108). John Benjamins Publishing.

Batra, P., & Nawani, D. (2010). Social science texts: A pedagogic perspective. *Social science learning in schools: Perspective and challenges*, 197-262.

Belz, J. A., & Vyatkina, N. (2008). The pedagogical mediation of a developmental learner corpus for classroom-based language instruction. *Language Learning and Technology, 12*(3), 33-52.

Benhamlaoui, M. (2021). *Concept-Based Instruction for Enhancing Understanding and Use of English Tense and Aspect Markers by Algerian Learners of L2 English*. (Doctoral dissertation, University of Essex).

Benz, A., Jäger, G., & Rooij, R. V. (2006). An introduction to game theory for linguists. In Game theory and pragmatics. *Palgrave Macmillan*, 1-82.

Bergsleithner, J. M., Frota, S. N., & Yoshioka, J. K. (2013). *Noticing and Second Language Acquisition: Studies in Honor of Richard Schmidt*. National Foreign Language Resource Center at University of Hawaii. University of Hawaii at Manoa.

Bezuidenhout, A. L., & Morris, R. K. (2004). Implicature, relevance and default pragmatic inference. *In: Noveck, I.A., Sperber, D. (eds) Experimental Pragmatics. Palgrave Studies in Pragmatics, Language and Cognition*. Palgrave Macmillan, London, 257-282.

Bi, N. Z. (2021). Cognitive Processes of ESL Learners in Pragmatic Role-Play Tasks in Academic Settings. *Frontiers in psychology*, *12,* 586588.

Bialystok, E. (1990). *Communication strategies: A psychological analysis of second-language use*. B. Blackwell.

Bialystok, E. (1993). Metalinguistic awareness: The development of children's representations of language. In C. Pratt & A. F. Garton (Eds.), *Systems of representation in children: Development and use* (pp. 211–233). John Wiley & Sons.

Bialystok, E. (1993b). Symbolic representation and attentional control in pragmatic competence. *Interlanguage pragmatics, 3*, 43-57.

Billmyer, K. (1990). " I really like your lifestyle": ESL Learners learning how to compliment. *Working Papers in Educational Linguistics (WPEL), 6*(2), 30-48.

Blight, R. (2002). Classroom procedure for explicit instruction in conversational implicature. *In Conference Proceeding of JALT,* 142-148.

Blum-Kulka, S., & Olshtain, E. (1984). Requests and apologies: A cross-cultural study of speech act realization patterns (CCSARP). *Applied linguistics, 5*(3), 196-213.

Blum-Kulka, S., House, J., & Kasper, G. (1989). Investigating cross-cultural pragmatics: An introductory overview. *Cross-cultural pragmatics: Requests and apologies, 31*, 1-34.

Blutner, R. (2000). Some aspects of optimality in natural language interpretation. *Journal of semantics*, *17*(3), 189-216.

Blutner, R., De Hoop, H., & Hendriks, P. (2006). *Optimal communication*. Stanford, CA: CSLI publications.

Blutner, R., & Zeevat, H. (2004). Editors' introduction: pragmatics in Optimality Theory. In *Optimality theory and pragmatics* (pp. 1-24). Palgrave Macmillan, London.

Bolitho, R., Carter, R., Hughes, R., Ivanič, R., Masuhara, H., & Tomlinson, B. (2003). Ten questions about language awareness. *Elt Journal, 57*(3), 251-259.

Bouton, L. (1999). Developing non-native speaker skills in interpreting conversational implicatures in English. *Culture in second language teaching and learning, 30*(1), 47-70.

Bouton, L. F. (1992). The Interpretation of Implicature in English by NNS: Does It Come Automatically-Without Being Explicitly Taught? *Pragmatics and language learning*, *3*, 53-65.

Bouton, L. F. (1994). Conversational implicature in a second language: Learned slowly when not deliberately taught. *Journal of pragmatics*, *22*(2), 157-167.

Bouton, M. E. (1988). Context and ambiguity in the extinction of emotional learning: Implications for exposure therapy. *Behaviour research and therapy, 26*(2), 137-149.

Breheny, R., Katsos, N., & Williams, J. (2006). Are generalised scalar implicatures generated by default? An on-line investigation into the role of context in generating pragmatic inferences. *Cognition, 100*(3), 434-463.

Briner, B. J. (2012). *Introduction to pragmatics*. Wiley Blackwell

Brown, J. D. (2015). Mixed methods research. *The Cambridge guide to research in language teaching and learning*, 78-84.

Brown, J. D., & Rodgers, T. S. (2002). *Doing second language research: An introduction to the theory and practice of second language research for graduate/master's students in TESOL and applied linguistics, and others*. Oxford university press.

Brown, P., & Levinson, S. C. (1978). Universals in language usage: Politeness phenomena. In Questions and politeness: Strategies in social interaction, *Cambridge University Press*.56-311.

Brown, P., Levinson, S. C., & Levinson, S. C. (1987). *Politeness: Some universals in language usage* (Vol. 4). Cambridge university press.

Bryman, A. (2006). Integrating quantitative and qualitative research: How is it done? *Qualitative Research, 6*, 97–113.

Bryman, A. (2012). *Ethics and politics in social research*. Social Research Methods, UK: Oxford Publishing, 130-155.

Bryman, A., & Cramer, D. (1996). Quantitative data analysis for social scientists//Review. *Canadian Journal of Sociology, 21*(3), 434.

Butler, J. (2015). *Notes toward a performative theory of assembly*: Harvard university Press.

Byram, M. (1994). *Teaching-and-learning language-and-culture* (Vol. 100). Multilingual Matters.

Cai, L., & Wang, Y. (2013). Interlanguage pragmatics in SLA. *Theory and Practice in language Studies, 3*(1), 142.

Caldero, J. A., & Sun, L. (2021). (Im) politeness and Emotion in Academic Correspondence. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, *12*(5), 724-734.

Campbell, D. T., & Riecken, H. W. (1968). Quasi-experimental design. *International encyclopaedia of the social sciences, 5*(3), 259-263.

Canale, M. (1983) From communicative competence to communicative language pedagogy. *Language and communication 1*(1): 1-47.

Canale, M. (1984). *A communicative approach to language proficiency assessment in a minority setting* (pp. 107-122). Centre de recherches en éducation franco-ontarienne, Institut d'études pédagogiques de l'Ontario= The Ontario Institute for Studies in Education.

Canale, M., & Swain, M. (1980). Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing. *Applied linguistics, 1*(1), 1-47.

Canbolat, H. C., Atasoy, S., & Naiboğlu, B. The effects of explicit pragmatic teaching on young learners' pragmatic development. *The Journal of International Lingual Social and Educational Sciences, 7*(1), 1-16.

Carrell, P. L. (1984). Inferencing in ESL: Presuppositions and implications of factive and implicative predicates. *Language Learning*, *34*(1), 1-19.

Carter, R., McCarthy, M., O'Keeffe, A., Jones, C., Byrne, S., & Halenko, N. (2017). *Successful spoken English: Findings from learner corpora*. Routledge.

Celce-Murcia, M., Dörnyei, Z., & Thurrell, S. (1997). Direct approaches in L2 instruction: A turning point in communicative language teaching? *TESOL Quarterly, 31*(1), 141–152.

Chen, D., & Shuo, Z. (2018). The Study on Learning Strategy Based on Pragmatic Competence. *International Journal of Arts and Commerce, 7*(8), 55-63.

Chen, J. C. (2020). The effects of pre-task planning on EFL learners' oral performance in a 3D multi-user virtual environment. *ReCALL*, *32*(3), 232-249.

Chomsky, N. (1965). *Aspects of the theory of syntax* (Vol. 11). MIT Press.

Chomsky, N. (1980). *Rules and Representations*. Oxford: Blackwell.

Chomsky, N. (2014). *Aspects of the Theory of Syntax* (Vol. 11). MIT press.

Chong-yuan, Z. (2021). Explicit Speech Act Instruction for Developing EFL Students' Pragmatic Competence. *International Journal of English Language Teaching, 9*(4), 26-35.

Clark, H. H. (1996). *Using language*. Cambridge university press.

Cohen, A. D. (2008). Teaching and assessing L2 pragmatics: What can we expect from learners? *Language Teaching*, *41*(2), 213-235.

Cohen, A. D. (2012). Teaching pragmatics in the second language classroom. *The European Journal of Applied Linguistics and TEFL, 1*(1), 33-50.

Cohen, A. D. 8c Macaro, E. (2010). Research methods in second language acquisition. *The Bloomsbury companion to second language acquisition*, 107-133.

Cohen, A. D., & Shively, R. L. (2007). Acquisition of requests and apologies in Spanish and French: Impact of study abroad and strategy-building intervention. *The Modern language journal, 91*(2), 189-212.

Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2002). *Research methods in education. Routledge. Routledge*. USA, and Canada.

Cohen, L., Mannion, L., & Morrison, K. (2007). Quantitative data analysis. *Research methods in education*, 501-508.

Cook, M., & Liddicoat, A. J. (2002). The development of comprehension in interlanguage pragmatics: The case of request strategies in English. *Australian Review of Applied Linguistics*, *25*(1), 19-39.

Cook, V. (2001). Using the first language in the classroom. *Canadian modern language review*, *57*(3), 402-423.

Corder, S. P. (1982). *Error analysis and interlanguage*. Oxford University Press, USA.

Cornbleet, S. (2000). Illocutionary Force and the EAP context. *The Grammar of Spoken English and EAP Teaching*, 21-38.

Cortazzi, M., & Jin, L. (1999). *1 1 Cultural mirrors. Culture in second language teaching and learning.* (pp. 196-219). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Council of Europe. Council for Cultural Co-operation. Education Committee. Modern Languages Division. (2018). *Common European framework of reference for languages: Learning, teaching, assessment*. Cambridge University Press.

Creswell, J. W. (2009). Mapping the field of mixed methods research. *Journal of mixed methods research*, *3*(2), 95-108.

Creswell, J. W. (2011). Controversies in mixed methods research. *The Sage handbook of qualitative research*, *4*(1), 269-284.

Creswell, J. W., & Clark, V. L. P. (2017). *Designing and conducting mixed methods research*. Sage publications.

Creswell, J. W., & Creswell, J. D. (2017). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approach*. Sage publications.

Creswell, J. W., Clark, V. P., Gutmann, M. L., & Hanson, W. E. (2003). An Expanded Typology for Classifying Mixed Methods Research into Designs. A. Tashakkori Y. C. Teddlie, *Handbook of Mixed Methods in Social and Behavioral Research*.

Crystal, D. (1987). *The Cambridge encyclopaedia of the English language*. Cambridge University Press.

Cuesta, A. R., & Ainciburu, M. C. (2015). Transfer of Arabic formulaic courtesy expressions used by advanced Arab learners of Spanish. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences, 173*, 207-213.

Culpeper, J., & Kytö, M. (2000). Data in historical pragmatics: Spoken interaction (re) cast as writing. *Journal of Historical Pragmatics*, *1*(2), 175-199.

Culpeper, J., Haugh, M., & Kádár, D. Z. (Eds.). (2017). *The Palgrave handbook of linguistic (im) politeness* (pp. 199-225). London: Palgrave Macmillan.

Cutrone, P. (2020). How Does Short-Term Study Abroad Impact Japanese EFL Learners' Willingness to Communicate and Intercultural Communication Competence? 多文化社会研究= *Journal of global humanities and social sciences, Nagasaki University*, *6*, 1-18.

Cutrone, P. (2021). Examining the Effects of Long-Term Study Abroad on the Listenership of Japanese EFL University Students. *International Journal of TESOL Studies*, *3*(2), 114-139.

Cutting, J. (Ed.). (2000). *The Grammar of Spoken English and EAP Teaching: A Collection of Papers from the Applied Linguistics Seminar Programme 1998 Sponsored by the British Association for Applied Linguistics and Cambridge University Press*. University of Sunderland.

Dalmau, M. & Gotor, H. (2007). From "Sorry very much" to "I'm ever so sorry": Acquisitional patterns in L2 apologies by *Catalan learners of English, 4*(2), 287-315.

Davies, C. E., & Tyler, A. E. (2005). Discourse strategies in the context of cross-cultural institutional talk: Uncovering interlanguage pragmatics in the university classroom. *Interlanguage pragmatics: Exploring institutional talk*, 133-156.

Davis, W. A. (2001). Implicature: Intention, Convention, and Principle in the Failure of Gricean Theory. *Noûs*, *35*(4), 631-641.

DeKeyser, R. M., & Sokalski, K. J. (2001). The differential role of comprehension and production practice. *Language Learning*, *51*, 81-112.

Derakhshan, A., & Eslami, Z. (2020). The effect of metapragmatic awareness, interactive translation, and discussion through video-enhanced input on EFL learners' comprehension of implicature. *Applied Research on English Language*, *9*(1), 25-52.

Derakhshan, A., & Shakki, F. (2021). A meta-analytic study of instructed second language pragmatics: A case of the speech act of request. *Journal of Research in Applied Linguistics*, *12*(1), 15-32.

Derakhshan, A., Malmir, A., & Greenier, V. T. (2021). Interlanguage pragmatic learning strategies (IPLS) as predictors of L2 speech act knowledge: A case of Iranian EFL learners. *The Journal of Asia TEFL, 18*(1), 235-243.

Derakhshan, A., Mohsenzadeh, H., & Mohammadzadeh, S. (2014). The nuts and bolts of teaching implicatures in EFL/ESL contexts: An overview on the role of video-enhanced input. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics and English Literature*, *3*(5), 13-21.

Diao, W. (2016). Peer socialization into gendered L2 Mandarin practices in a study abroad context: Talk in the dorm. *Applied Linguistics, 37*(5), 599-620.

Dockrell, J. E., Papadopoulos, T. C., Mifsud, C. L., Bourke, L., Vilageliu, O., Bešić, E., Seifert, S., Gasteiger-Klicpera, B., Ralli, A., Dimakos, I., Karpava, S., Martins, M., Sousa, O., Castro, S., Søndergaard Knudsen, H. B., Donau, P., Haznedar, B., Mikulajová, M., & Gerdzhikova, N. (2022). Teaching and learning in a multilingual Europe: findings from a cross-European study. *European Journal of Psychology of Education, 37*(2), 293-320.

Dörnyei, Z. (1990). Conceptualizing motivation in foreign-language learning. *Language learning*, *40*(1), 45-78.

Dörnyei, Z. (2006). Individual differences in second language acquisition. *AILA review*, *19*(1), 42-68.

Dörnyei, Z. (2007). Creating a motivating classroom environment. *Second handbook of English language teaching*, 719-736.

Dörnyei, Z. (2007). *Research methods in applied linguistics: Quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methodologies*: Oxford University Press Oxford.

Edwards, M., & Csizér, K. (2004). Developing pragmatic competence in the EFL classroom. *English teaching forum. 42*(3),16-21.

Eichenbaum, H. (2011). *The cognitive neuroscience of memory: An introduction*. Oxford University Press.

Eichenbaum, H., & Cohen, N. J. (2004). *From conditioning to conscious recollection: Memory systems of the brain* (No. 35). Oxford University Press on Demand.

Eisenstein, M., & Bodman, J. (1993). Expressing gratitude in American English. *Interlanguage pragmatics*, 64-81.

Ellis, R. (1984). *Classroom second language development: A study of classroom interaction and language acquisition.* Pergamon.

Ellis, R. (1985). Sources of variability in interlanguage. *Applied linguistics*, *6*(2), 118-131.

Ellis, R. (1991). Communicative competence and the Japanese learner. *JALT Journal*, *13*(2), 103-129.

Ellis, R. (2001). *Form-focused instruction and second language learning: Language learning monograph*: Wiley-Blackwell.

Ellis, R. (2009). 1. Implicit and Explicit Learning, Knowledge, and Instruction. In *Implicit and explicit knowledge in second language learning, testing, and teaching* (pp. 3-26). Multilingual Matters.

Ellis, R., Zhu, Y., Shintani, N., & Roever, C. (2021). A study of Chinese learners' ability to comprehend irony. *Journal of pragmatics, 172*, 7-20.

Elyas, T. and Picard, M. (2010), Saudi Arabian educational history: impacts on English language teaching. *Education, Business and Society: Contemporary Middle Eastern Issues, 3*(2), 136-145.

Eslami-Rasekh, Z. (2005). Raising the pragmatic awareness of language learners. *ELT Journal, 59*(3), 199-208.

Etaywe, A. S. (2017). A pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic study of praise and criticism in academic writing: The case of Arabic academic book reviews. *International Journal, 4*(2), 87- 121.

Fantini, A. E. (ed.) (1997). *New Ways in Teaching Culture*. TESOL, USA.

Farrokhi, F., & Mahmoudi-Hamidabad, A. (2012). Rethinking convenience sampling: Defining quality criteria. *Theory & Practice in Language Studies, 2*(4), 784-792.

Fernández Guerra, A., & Martínez Flor, A. (2003). Requests in films and in EFL textbooks: A comparison. *ELIA, 4,* 17-34.

Fillmore, C. J. (1979). *On fluency. In Individual differences in language ability and language behaviour* (pp. 85-101). Academic Press.

Flor, A. M., & Juan, E. U. (2010). *Speech act performance: Theoretical, empirical, and methodological issues* (Vol. 26): John Benjamins Publishing.

Foster-Cohen, S. (2000). Relevance theory and language acquisition: a productive paradigm shift. *Child Language Bulletin, 20*(1), 5-8.

Fraser, B. (1990). Perspectives on politeness. *Journal of pragmatics, 14*(2), 219-236.

Fukuya, Y., & Zhang, Y. (2002). Effects of recasts on EFL learners' acquisition of pragmalinguistic conventions of request. *Second language studies*, *21*(1), 1-47.

Garcia, P. (2004). Developmental differences in speech act recognition: A pragmatic awareness study. *Language Awareness*, *13*(2), 96-115.

Garcia, P. (2004). Pragmatic Comprehension of High- and Low-Level Language Learners. *Tesl-Ej, 8*(2), 1-12.

Garcia, P. (2004). *Meaning in academic contexts: A corpus-based study of pragmatic utterances*. Northern Arizona University.

García-Fuentes, C., & McDonough, K. (2018). The effect of explicit instruction and task repetition on Colombian EFL students' use of politeness strategies during disagreements. *The Language Learning Journal*, *46*(4), 470-482.

Gazdar, G. (1979). *A solution to the projection problem. In Presupposition* (pp. 57-89). Brill.

Geurts, B., & Pouscoulous, N. (2009). Embedded implicatures? *Semantics and Pragmatics, 2*(4), 1-34.

Gholamia, J. & Aghaib, H.K. (2012). The impact of explicit and implicit instruction on Iranian EFL learners' production and recognition of language function. *International Journal of Physical and Social Sciences, 2*(9), 107- 131.

Goffman, E. (1955). On face-work: An analysis of ritual elements in social interaction. *Psychiatry, 18*(3), 213-231.

Goffman, E. (1967). *Interaction ritual: Essays on face-to-face interaction*. Pantheon, New York.

Grabowski, K. C. (2007). Reconsidering the measurement of pragmatic knowledge using a reciprocal written task format. *Studies in Applied Linguistics and TESOL*, *7*(1), 1-48.

Gravetter, F. J., & Wallnau, L. B. (2013). *Statistics for the Behavioural Sciences*. Belmont, C A: Wadsworth Publishing.

Greene, J. C., Caracelli, V. J., & Graham, W. F. (1989). Toward a conceptual framework for mixed-method evaluation designs. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis, 11*(3), 255–274.

Gribbons, B., & Herman, J. (1997). True and quasi-experimental designs. *Practical assessment, research, and evaluation, 5*(5), 14.

Grice, H. P. (1975). Logic and conversation. In *Speech* acts (pp. 41-58). Brill.

Grice, H. P. (1978). Further notes on logic and conversation. In *Pragmatics* (pp. 113-127). Brill.

Grice, H. P. (1981). Presupposition and conversational implicature. *Radical pragmatics*, 183.

Grice, H. P. (1989). *Studies in the Way of Words*. Harvard University Press.

Grice, H. P., Cole, P., & Morgan, J. (1978). *Syntax and semantics 9*: Pragmatics.

Griffee, D. T. (2012). *An introduction to second language research methods*. TESL-EJ Publications.

Griffin, L. L., & Butler, J. (2005). *Teaching games for understanding: Theory, research, and practice*. Human Kinetics.

Grodner, D., & Sedivy, J. (2004). The Triggers and Time Course of Gricean Inference. *in Proceedings-nels, 34*(1), 227-238.

Grosz, B. J., & Sidner, C. L. (1986). Attention, intentions, and the structure of discourse. *Computational linguistics, 12*(3), 175-204.

Grundy, P. (2013). *Doing pragmatics*, Routledge.

Hadi, A. (2013). A critical appraisal of Grice's Cooperative Principle. *Open journal of modern linguistics, 3*(1), 69-72.

Halenko, N. (2008). *How sorry can a person be. Teaching the speech act of apology in the ESL classroom*. (Unpublished MA thesis). Lancaster University.

Halenko, N. (2013). Using computer animation to assess and improve spoken language skills. In *ICT for language learning conference proceedings* (pp. 286-290).

Halenko, N. (2017). *Evaluating the explicit pragmatic instruction of requests and apologies in a study abroad setting: The case of Chinese ESL learners at a UK Higher Education Institution*. Lancaster University (United Kingdom).

Halenko, N. (2018). Using computer-assisted language learning (CALL) tools to enhance output practice. *Practice in second language learning*, (pp. 137-163).

Halenko, N. (2021). *Teaching Pragmatics and instructed second language learning: Study abroad and technology-enhanced teaching*. London: Bloomsbury Publishing Pic.

Halenko, N., & Jones, C. (2011). Teaching pragmatic awareness of spoken requests to Chinese EAP learners in the UK: Is explicit instruction effective? *System*, *39*(2), 240-250.

Halenko, N., & Jones, C. (2017). Explicit instruction of spoken requests: An examination of pre-departure instruction and the study abroad environment. *System*, *68*, 26-37.

Halliday, M. A. (1970). Language structure and language function. *New horizons in linguistics*, *1*, 140-165.

Hamblin, J. L., & Gibbs Jr, R. W. (2003). Processing the meanings of what speakers say and implicate. *Discourse Processes*, *35*(1), 59-80.

Hassall, T. (2015). Individual variation in L2 study-abroad outcomes: A case study from Indonesian pragmatics. *Multilingua, 34*(1), 33-59.

Heritage, J. (2013). 18 Epistemics in Conversation. *The handbook of conversation analysis*, John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.

Hodis, F. A., & Hancock, G. R. (2016). Introduction to the special issue: Advances in quantitative methods to further research in education and educational psychology. *Educational Psychologist, 51*(3-4), 301-304.

Holtgraves, T. (2007). Second language learners and speech act comprehension. *Language learning*, *57*(4), 595-610.

Horn, L. (1984). Toward a new taxonomy for pragmatic inference: Q-based and R-based implicature. Meaning, form, and use in context: Linguistic applications, 11, 42.

House, J. (1996). Developing pragmatic fluency in English as a foreign language: Routines and metapragmatic awareness. *Studies in second language acquisition*, *18*(2), 225-252.

Hsieh, M. H., & Chuang, H. H. (2021). Investigating Pre-service English Teachers' Beliefs of Sociolinguistic Instruction in EFL Classes in Taiwan. *TESOL and Technology Studies, 2*(2), 16-28.

Huang, Y. (Ed.). (2017). *The Oxford handbook of pragmatics*. Oxford University Press.

Hussein, N. O., & Albakri, I. S. M. A. (2019). The Essential Role of Teaching Pragmatic in the Iraqi EFL Classroom. *Practice, 10*(4), 74-78.

Hyland, K., & Paltridge, B. (2011). *Bloomsbury companion to discourse analysis*. A&C Black.

Hyland, K., Paltridge, B., & Wong, L. (Eds.). (2021). *The Bloomsbury Handbook of Discourse Analysis*. Bloomsbury Publishing.

Hymes, D. (1972). On communicative competence. *Sociolinguistics* (pp. 53-73).

Irshad, A., & Bukhari, N. H. (2020). Investigating the Effect of Explicit Instruction on the Development of Pragmatic Competence of Pakistani Learners of English. *Kashmir Journal of Language Research*, *23*(1), 217-236.

Ishihara, N. (2010). Instructional pragmatics: Bridging teaching, research, and teacher education. *Language and Linguistics Compass, 4*(10), 938-953.

Jaswal, V. K., & Markman, E. M. (2001). Learning proper and common names in inferential versus ostensive contexts. *Child Development, 72*(3), 768-786.

Jeon, E. H., & Kaya, T. (2006). Effects of L2 instruction on interlanguage pragmatic development. *Synthesizing research on language learning and teaching*, 165, 211.

Jia, L. I. (2010). The violation of cooperative principle and the four maxims in psychological consulting. *Canadian Social Science, 4*(3), 87-95.

Johnson, R. B., Onwuegbuzie, A. J., & Turner, L. A. (2007). Toward a definition of mixed methods research. *Journal of mixed methods research, 1*(2), 112-133.

Jones, C. (2011). *Spoken discourse markers and English language teaching: practices and pedagogies* (Doctoral dissertation, University of Nottingham).

Jones, C. (2021). *Conversation Strategies and Communicative Competence*. Candlin & Mynard ePublishing.

Jones, C., & Horak, T. (2014). Leave it out! The use of soap operas as models of spoken discourse in the ELT classroom. *The Journal of Language Learning and Teaching*, *4*(1), 1-14.

Jordà, M. P. S. (2005). *Third language learners: Pragmatic production and awareness* (Vol. 12). Multilingual Matters.

Jorden, E. (1992). Culture in the Japanese language classroom: A pedagogical paradox. *Text and context: cross-disciplinary perspectives on language study*, 156-168.

Kanagy, R., & Igarashi, K. (1997). Acquisition of Pragmatic Competence in a Japanese Immersion Kindergarten. *Pragmatics and language learning*, *8*, 243-266.

Karpava, S. (2021). The Effect of the Family Type and Home Literacy Environment on the Development of Literacy Skills by Bi-/Multilingual Children in Cyprus. *Languages*, *6*(2), 1-31.

Kasper, G. & Rose, K. R. (2002). Pragmatic Development in a Second Language. Language Learning: *Journal of Research in Language Studies, 52*, 1-352.

Kasper, G. (1984). Pragmatic comprehension in learner-native speaker discourse. *Language learning*, *34*(4), 1-20.

Kasper, G. (1992). Pragmatic transfer. *Interlanguage studies bulletin (Utrecht)*, *8*(3), 203-231.

Kasper, G. (1997). " A" Stands for Acquisition: A Response to Firth and Wagner. *The Modern Language Journal*, *81*(3), 307-312.

Kasper, G. (2001). Classroom research on interlanguage pragmatics. *Pragmatics in language teaching* (pp. 33-60).

Kasper, G., & Roever, C. (2005). Pragmatics in second language learning. *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning* (pp. 341-358).

Kasper, G., & Rose, K. R. (1999). Pragmatics and SLA. *Annual review of applied linguistics*, *19*, 81-104.

Kasper, G., & Rose, K. R. (Eds.). (2001). *Pragmatics in language teaching* (pp. 33-60). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Kasper, G., & Schmidt, R. (1996). Developmental issues in interlanguage pragmatics. *Studies in second language acquisition, 18*(2), 149-169.

Kasper, L. F. (1997). Assessing the metacognitive growth of ESL student writers. *TESL-EJ, 3*(1), 1-20.

Kecskes, I. & Nde Papp, T. (2000). *Foreign language and mother tongue*. Psychology Press.

Kecskes, I. (2014). *Intercultural pragmatics.* Oxford University Press.

Kecskes, I. (2015). How does pragmatic competence develop in bilinguals? *International Journal of Multilingualism*, *12*(4), 419-434.

Kecskes, I. (2016). Can intercultural pragmatics bring some new insight into pragmatic theories? In *Interdisciplinary studies in pragmatics, culture, and society* (pp. 43-69). Springer, Cham.

Kecskes, I. (2019). *English as a lingua franca: The pragmatic perspective*. Cambridge University Press.

Keenan, E. O. (1976). The universality of conversational postulates. *Language in society*, *5*(1), 67-80.

Khan, I. A. (2011). An analysis of learning barriers: The Saudi Arabian context. *International Education Studies, 4*(1), 242-247.

Khusna, F. A., Aliyah, S. L., & Asyifah, D. A. (2021). Investigating The Use of Maxims in The EFL Class Presentation: A Pragmatic Study. *SAGA: Journal of English Language Teaching and Applied Linguistics*, *2*(2), 133-144.

Kida, I. (2011). Language distance across cultures as a way of expressing politeness and not only. In *Aspects of Culture in Second Language Acquisition and Foreign Language Learning* (pp. 183-191). Springer, Berlin, Heidelberg.

Kinginger, C. (2008). Language learning in study abroad: Case studies of Americans in France. *The Modern Language Journal*, *92*, 1-124.

Knowlton, B. J., Siegel, A. L., & Moody, T. D. (2017). Procedural learning in humans.

Koike, D. A. (1996). Transfer of pragmatic competence and suggestions in Spanish foreign language learning. Speech acts across cultures: *Challenges to communication in a second language*, 257- 281.

Köylü, Y. (2018). Comprehension of conversational implicatures in L2 English. *Intercultural Pragmatics*, *15*(3), 373-408.

Kramsch, C. J. (1998). *Language and culture*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Krashen, S. (1989). We acquire vocabulary and spelling by reading: Additional evidence for the input hypothesis. *The Modern language journal, 73*(4), 440-464.

Krashen, S. (1992). The input hypothesis: An update. Linguistics and language pedagogy: *The state of the art*, 409-431.

Kuiken, F., Vedder, I., & Gilabert, R. (2010). Communicative adequacy and linguistic complexity in L2 writing. Communicative proficiency and linguistic development: *Intersections between SLA and language testing research, 1*, 81-100.

Ladegaard, H. J. (2009). Pragmatic cooperation revisited: Resistance and non-cooperation as a discursive strategy in asymmetrical discourses. *Journal of Pragmatics, 41*(4), 649-666.

Lakoff, R. (1973, April). The logic of politeness: Or minding your p's and q's. In *Proceedings from the Annual Meeting of the Chicago Linguistic Society* (Vol. 9, No. 1, pp. 292-305). Chicago Linguistic Society.

Lakoff, R. T., & Lakoff, R. (1990). *Talking power*. Basic Books.

Leclercq, P. (2021). The Acquisition of Verbal Epistemic Stance Marking during Study Abroad: The Case of Japanese in L2 French. *Languages*, *6*(4), 196.

Lee, S. H. (2003). ESL learners' vocabulary use in writing and the effects of explicit vocabulary instruction. *System, 31*(4), 537-561.

Leech, G. (1992). Pragmatic principles in Shaw's you never can tell. *Language, text, and context: essays in stylistics*, 259-78.

Leech, G. N. (1983). Pragmatics, discourse analysis, stylistics and "The Celebrated Letter". *Prose Studies, 6*(2), 142-157

Leech, G. N. (2014). *The pragmatics of politeness*: Oxford University Press, USA.

Leech, G. N. (2016). *Principles of pragmatics*. London Routledge.

Lee-Wong, S. M. (1994). Imperatives in requests: Direct or impolite observations from Chinese. *Pragmatics, 4*(4), 491-515.

Levinson, S. C. (1983). *Pragmatics*. Cambridge university press.

Levinson, S. C. (2000). *Presumptive meanings: The theory of generalized conversational implicature*. MIT press.

Lewis, D. (1969). *Convention*. Oxford: Blackwell.

Lewis, M. (2012). *Social cognition and the acquisition of self*. Springer Science & Business Media.

Li, P., & Lan, Y. J. (2021). Digital language learning (DLL): Insights from behaviour, cognition, and the brain. Bilingualism: *Language and Cognition*, 1-18.

Li, S. (2012). The effects of input-based practice on pragmatic development of requests in L2 Chinese. *Language Learning, 62*, 403-438.

Li, S. (2021). Conversational implicature instruction as a pedagogical strategy for English majors in a Chinese context: A pragmatic-analysis of its effectiveness. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies, 11*(10), 1279-1287.

Li, Y., & Zhao, Y. (2019). Frequency Effects of Prefabricated Chunks on Interpreting: An Exploration Based on PACCEL from the Pragmatic Perspective. *Foreign Languages and Their Teaching*, 39-44.

Liu, D. (2015). A critical review of Krashen's input hypothesis: Three major arguments. *Journal of Education and Human Development, 4*(4), 139-146.

Llurda, E. (2000). On competence, proficiency, and communicative language ability. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics*, *10*(1), 85-96.

Luijkx, A., Gerritsen, M., & Mulken, M. V. (2022). The importance of raising teachers' and students' awareness of pragmatics in German second language writing: a study of the effect of grammatical and lexical errors compared to pragma-linguistic infelicities. *Language Awareness*, *31*(1), 137-154.

Lyster, R. (1994). The effect of functional-analytic teaching on aspects of French immersion students' sociolinguistic competence. *Applied linguistics*, *15*(3), 263-287.

Mackey, A. (2006). Feedback, Noticing and Instructed Second Language Learning. *Applied Linguistics, 27*(3), 405–430.

Malmir, A., & Derakhshan, A. (2020). Identity processing styles as predictors of L2 pragmatic knowledge and performance: A case of common English speech acts. *Journal of Language Horizons*, *4*(2), 187-209.

Malmir, A., & Derakhshan, A. (2020). The socio-pragmatic, lexico-grammatical, and cognitive strategies in L2 pragmatic comprehension: The case of Iranian male vs. female EFL learners. *Iranian Journal of Language Teaching Research*, *8*(1), 1-23.

Malmir, A., & Taji, N. (2021). The interplay of action, context, and linguistic vs. non-linguistic resources in L2 pragmatic performance: the case of requests and refusals. *Language Related Research, 12* (3) 213-250.

Mao, L. R. (1994). Beyond politeness theory: 'Face 'revisited and renewed. *Journal of pragmatics, 21*(5), 451-486.

Márquez Reiter, R. (2000). Linguistic politeness in Britain and Uruguay. *Linguistic Politeness in Britain and Uruguay*, 1-243.

Martinez, A. H., & Hernández, A. S. (2019). Pragmatic Markers Produced by Multilingual Speakers: *Evidence from a CLIL Context. English Language Teaching, 12*(2), 68-76.

Martín-Laguna, S., & Alcón-Soler, E. (2018). Development of discourse-pragmatic markers in a multilingual classroom: A mixed method research approach. *System, 75*, 68-80.

McConachy, T. (2021). Exploring intercultural dimensions of L2 pragmatics learning in a Japanese EFL context. In *Second language pragmatics and English language education in East Asia* (pp. 78-94). Routledge.

McKay, S. (2003). Teaching English as an international language: *The Chilean context. ELT journal, 57(*2), 139-148.

Mey, J. L. (1993). Pragmatics as deconstruction. *Social Semiotics, 3*(2), 219-230.

Mir, M. (1992). Do we all apologize the same? An empirical study on the act of apologizing by Spanish speakers learning English. *Pragmatics and language learning, 3*, 1-19.

Mirzaei, A., & Parhizkar, R. (2021). The Interplay of L2 Pragmatics and Learner Identity as a Social, Complex Process: *A Poststructuralist Perspective. TESL-EJ, 25*(1).

Mohammad, A. Y., & Ahmed, H. A. (2021). Evaluating EFL University Learners' Pragmatic Competence: Brown and Levinson's Negative Politeness Strategies as a Model. *Academic Journal of Nawroz University*, *10*(3), 366-381.

Moody, S. J. (2014). Should we teach rules for pragmatics? Explicit instruction and emergent awareness of Japanese plain and polite forms. *Japanese Language and Literature*, 39-69.

Morgan-Short, K., & Ullman, M. T. (2013). The neurocognition of second language. In *The Routledge handbook of second language acquisition* (pp. 282-299). Routledge.

Morris, C. W. (1938). Foundations of the Theory of Signs. In *International encyclopedia of unified science* (pp. 1-59). Chicago University Press.

Morse, J. M. (2016). *Mixed method design: Principles and procedures* (Vol. 4): Routledge.

Murray, J. C. (2011). Do Bears Fly? Revisiting Conversational Implicature in Instructional Pragmatics. *Tesl-Ej*, *15*(2), n2.

Namaziandost, E., Razmi, M. H., Heidari, S., & Tilwani, S. A. (2021). A contrastive analysis of emotional terms in bed-night stories across two languages: Does it affect learners' pragmatic knowledge of controlling emotions? Seeking implications to teach English to EFL learners. *Journal of psycholinguistic research, 50*(3), 645-662.

Namy Soghady, M. R., & Vahid Dastjerdi, H. (2020). Grecian Maxims Revisited: Proposing the Maxim of Ethics for Specific Socio-cultural Contexts DOR: 20.1001. 1.26512637. 2020.1. 1.2. 5. *Journal of Language and Discourse Practice*, *1*(1), 27-35.

Nguyen, L. T. C., & Gu, Y. (2013). Strategy-based instruction: A learner-focused approach to developing learner autonomy. *Language Teaching Research*, *17*(1), 9-30.

Nguyen, M. T. T. (2011). Learning to communicate in a globalized world: To what extent do school textbooks facilitate the development of intercultural pragmatic competence? *RELC journal*, *42*(1), 17-30.

Niezgoda, K., & Röver, C. (2001). Pragmatic and grammatical awareness: A function of the learning environment. *Pragmatics in language teaching*, 63, 79.

Norris, J. M., & Ortega, L. (2000). Effectiveness of L2 instruction: A research synthesis and quantitative meta-analysis. *Language learning, 50*(3), 417-528.

Norris, J. M., Plonsky, L., Ross, S. J., & Schoonen, R. (2015). Guidelines for reporting quantitative methods and results in primary research. *Language Learning, 65*(2), 470-476.

Nugroho, A., & Atmojo, A. E. P. (2020). Digital learning of English beyond classroom: EFL learners' perception and teaching activities. JEELS: *Journal of English Education and Linguistics Studies, 7*(2), 219-243.

Nugroho, A., & Fitriati, R. (2021). Flipped learning instruction and pragmatic competence: A case of English for accounting students. *English Learning Innovation, 2*(1), 1-9.

Nunan, D. (2005). Classroom research. In *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning* (pp. 249-264). Routledge.

Ohta, A. S. (2001). A longitudinal study of the development of expression of alignment in Japanese as a foreign language. *Pragmatics in language teaching*, 103-120.

Ohta, A. S. (2001). *Second language acquisition processes in the classroom*: Learning Japanese. Routledge.

Oktadistio, F., & Aziz, M. (2018). An Analysis of Direct and Indirect Speech Acts Performed by Main Character in The Movie Revenant Script. *Journal of English Education and Teaching*, *2*(1), 59-67.

Olshtain, E., & Blum-Kulka, S. (1985). Degree of approximation. Non-native reactions to native speech act behavior. Gass, S./Madden, C.(eds.). Input in Second Language Acquisition. *Rowley, MA: Newbury House*, 303- 325.

Olsson, E. (2021). A comparative study of CLIL implementation in upper secondary school in Sweden and students' development of L2 English academic vocabulary. *Language Teaching Research, 0*(0).

Omara, S. M. (1993). *The comprehension of conversational implicatures: A cross-cultural study* (Doctoral dissertation), Ball State University.

Pallant, J. (2013). *SPSS Survival Manual: A Step-by-Step Guide to Data Analysis Using SPSS Program* (5th ed.). Australia: Allen & Unwin.

Paltridge, B. (2012). *Discourse analysis: An introduction*: Bloomsbury Publishing.

Paradis, M. (2004*). A neurolinguistic theory of bilingualism* (Vol. 18). John Benjamins Publishing.

Paradis, M. (2009). *Declarative and procedural determinants of second languages* (Vol. 40). John Benjamins Publishing.

Pawley, A., & Syder, F. H. (2014). Two puzzles for linguistic theory: Nativelike selection and nativelike fluency. In *Language and communication* (pp. 203-239). Routledge.

Pinker, S. (2007). The evolutionary social psychology of off-record indirect speech acts, *4*(4), 437-461.

Plonsky, L., & Zhuang, J. (2019). A meta-analysis of L2 pragmatics instruction. In *The Routledge handbook of second language acquisition and pragmatics* (pp. 287-307). Routledge.

Plowright, D. (2010). Using mixed methods Frameworks for an integrated methodology. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.Procedia - *Social and Behavioral Sciences, 199*, 231-239.

Qadha, A. M., Al-Wasy, B. Q., & Mahdi, H. S. (2021). Using social networking tools for teaching requests to undergraduate Arab EFL learners: a study of pragmatics. *Learning and Teaching in Higher Education: Gulf Perspectives*.

Qari, I. A. (2021). The Effect of Explicit Instruction of Requests on Saudi EFL learners using a pre-test, post-test Approach. *Arab World English Journal, 12* (1) 113-127.

Raba'ah, G. (2005). Communication problems facing Arab learners of English. *Journal of Language and Learning, 3* (1).

Rahayuningsih, D., Saleh, M., & Fitriati, S. W. (2020). The realization of politeness strategies in EFL teacher-students classroom interaction. *English Education Journal, 10*(1), 85-93.

Rajabi, S., & Farahian, M. (2013). The effects of pragmatic instruction on EFL learners' awareness of suggestions. *Modern Journal of Language Teaching Methods, 3*(3), 28-38.

Rajabi, S., Azizifar, A., & Gowhary, H. (2015). Investigating the of explicit instruction of apology speech act on pragmatic development of Iranian EFL Learners. *Advances in Language and Literary Studies*, *6*(4), 53-61.

Rajabia, S., Azizifara, A., & Gowhary, H. (2015). The effect of explicit instruction on pragmatic competence development; teaching requests to EFL learners of English. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *199*, 231-239.

Recanati, F. (1989). The pragmatics of what is said. *Mind and Language, 4*(4), 296-329.

Recanati, F. (2004). *Literal meaning*. Cambridge University Press.

Ren, W. (2018). Developing L2 pragmatic competence in study abroad contexts. In *The Routledge handbook of study abroad research and practice* (pp. 119-133). Routledge.

Révész, A., Ekiert, M., & Torgersen, E. N. (2016). The effects of complexity, accuracy, and fluency on communicative adequacy in oral task performance. *Applied Linguistics, 37*(6), 828-848.

Richards, J. C. & A. Burns (2012). *The Cambridge guide to pedagogy and practice in second language teaching*. Cambridge University Press.

Robinson, D. N. (1989). *Aristotle's psychology*. Columbia University Press.

Roever, C. (2005). *Language testing and evaluation: Testing ESL pragmatics: Development and validation of a web-based assessment battery*: Lang-Peter Lang.

Roever, C. (2009). *29 Teaching and Testing Pragmatics*. The handbook of language teaching, 560.

Roever, C. (2011). Testing of second language pragmatics: Past and future. *Language testing, 28*(4), 463-481.

Roever, C., & McNamara, T. (2006). Language testing: The social dimension. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics, 16*(2), 242-258.

Roever, C., Wang, S., & Brophy, S. (2014). Learner background factors and learning of second language pragmatics. *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching, 52*(4), 377-401.

Rohde, H., & Ettlinger, M. (2012). Integration of pragmatic and phonetic cues in spoken word recognition. Journal of Experimental Psychology: *Learning, Memory, and Cognition, 38*(4), 967–983.

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

Rose, K. R., & Ng, C. (2001). Inductive and deductive teaching of compliments and compliment responses. *Pragmatics in language teaching*, *145*, 145-170.

Rover, C. (2005). *Testing ESL pragmatics: Development and validation of a web-based assessment battery*. Lang.

Rueda,T, Y. (2006). Developing pragmatic competence in a foreign language. *Colombian applied linguistics journal, 8*, 169-182.

Sabuin, R. Z. (2022). Difference Between the Pragmatics of L1 & L2 English Speakers in America. 8ISC Proceedings: *Arts and Education*, 139-149.

Sadock, J. M. (1978). On testing for conversational implicature. In *Pragmatics* (pp. 281-297). Brill.

Sahab, M. M. (2016). Pragmatic Failure of Homonyms in EFL Iraqi Learners. *Journal of Al-Frahedis Arts*, *8*(27 First Part).

Salazar, C. F. (2003). Diocles of Carystus. A Collection of the Fragments with Translation and Commentary. Volume One: Text and Translation. *Classical Review, 2*:334-337.

Saleh, E. H. (2019). The effect of speech act functions on the development of EFL learners' high order thinking skills. *International Journal of Technical Research & Science, IV*(XI), 24-32.

Sally, D. (2003). Risky speech: behavioural game theory and pragmatics. *Journal of pragmatics, 35*(8), 1223-1245.

Salsbury, T. & K. Bardovi-Harlig (2001). "I know your mean, but I don't think so": Disagreements in L2 English. *Pragmatics and Language Learning 10*: 131-151.

Sánchez-Hernández, A., & Martínez-Flor, A. (2022). Teaching the pragmatics of English as an international language: A focus on pragmatic markers. *Language Teaching Research*, *26*(2), 256-278.

Sang, Y., & Hiver, P. (2021). Using a language socialization framework to explore Chinese Students' L2 Reticence in English language learning. *Linguistics and Education, 61*, 1-12.

Sarani, A., & Talati-Baghsiahi, A. (2017). Explicit instruction of pragmatic features: its impact on EFL learners' knowledge of hedging devices in academic writing. *Issues in Language Teaching*, *6*(1), 53-29.

Saudi Vision 2030 (n.b.). *Vision 2030*. https://www.vision2030.gov.sa/v2030/overview/

Savignon, S. J. (1983). Communicative Competence: Theory and Classroom Practice. Texts and Contexts in Second Language Learning. *The Addison-Wesley Second Language Professional Library Series, ERIC.*

Saville-Troike, M. (1992). Cultural maintenance and vanishing Englishes. *Text and context: cross-disciplinary perspectives on language study*, 148-155.

Scarcella, R. & Brunak, J. (1981). On speaking politely in a second language. *De Gruyter, 1981*(27), 59-76.

Schmidt, R. (1992). Awareness and second language acquisition. *Annual review of applied linguistics, 13*, 206-226.

Schmidt, R. (1993). Consciousness, learning and interlanguage pragmatics. *Interlanguage pragmatics*, *21*(42), 1-31.

Schmitt, N. (2004). *Formulaic sequences: Acquisition, processing, and use* (Vol. 9): John Benjamins Publishing.

Schmitt, N. (2010). *Researching vocabulary: A vocabulary research manual*. Springer.

Schon, Donald A. (1983). *The reflective practitioner*. New York: Basic Books.

Searle, J. R., & Searle, J. R. (1969). *Speech acts: An essay in the philosophy of language* (Vol. 626): Cambridge university press.

Selinker, L. (1972). Interlanguage. IRAL-International Review of Applied Linguistics in *Language Teaching, 10* (1-4), 209–231.

Shahsavari, S., Alimohammadi, B., & Rasekh, A. E. (2014). Compliment responses: A comparative study of native English speakers and Iranian L2 speakers. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *98*, 1744-1753.

Shardakova, M. (2005). Intercultural pragmatics in the speech of American L2 learners of Russian: Apologies offered by Americans in Russian. *De Gruyter Mouton, 2*(4), 423-451.

Shively, R. L. (2008). *Politeness and social interaction in study abroad: Service encounters in L2 Spanish*. University of Minnesota.

Shively, R. L. (2011). L2 pragmatic development in study abroad: A longitudinal study of Spanish service encounters. *Journal of Pragmatics*, *43*(6), 1818-1835.

Shively, R. L., Menke, M. R., & Manzón-Omundson, S. M. (2008). Perception of irony by L2 learners of Spanish. *Issues in Applied Linguistics, 16*(2), 101-132.

Shleykina, G. (2021). Pragmatic failure revisited: Jaworski's (1994) study in a new light. *Eurasian Journal of Applied Linguistics, 7*(1), 303-315.

Siddiqa, A., & Whyte, S. (2021). Classroom learning of English L2 requests: Input and interactional opportunities in French secondary schools. *Language Teaching Research, 0*(0).

Siegel, J. (2016). Pragmatic Activities for the Speaking Classroom. *English Teaching Forum, 54*(1), 12-19.

Siyanova-Chanturia, A. (2015). On the 'holistic 'nature of formulaic language. *Corpus Linguistics and Linguistic Theory, 11*(2), 285-301.

Skarpaas, K. G., & Hellekjær, G. O. (2021). Vocational orientation–A supportive approach to teaching L2 English in upper secondary school vocational programmes. *International Journal of Educational Research Open*, *2*, 100064.

Soghady, M. R. N., & Dastjerdi, H. V. (2020). Journal of Language and Discourse Practice. *Discourse, 1*(1), 27-35.

Soler, A. (2007). E. Fostering EFL learners' awareness of requesting through explicit and implicit consciousness-raising tasks. *Investigating tasks in formal language learning*, 221-241.

Soler, E. A. (2005). Does instruction work for learning pragmatics in the EFL context? *System*, *33*(3), 417-435.

Soler, E. A., & Flor, A. M. (Eds.). (2008). *Investigating pragmatics in foreign language learning, teaching, and testing* (Vol. 30). Bristol, England: Multilingual Matters.

Son, T. V. (2022). Procedural and Declarative Knowledge: The Swedish and Vietnamese learners' acquisition of knowledge in English grammar, and Pedagogical Implications. *International Journal of TESOL & Education, 2*(1), 238-250.

Song, S. (2012). *Politeness and culture in second language acquisition*. Springer.

Sonnenburg-Winkler, S. L., Eslami, Z. R., & Derakhshan, A. (2020). Rater variation in pragmatic assessment: The impact of the linguistic background on peer-assessment and self-assessment. *Lodz Papers in Pragmatics, 16*(1), 67-85.

Spencer-Oatey, H., & Xing, J. (2008). 11. The impact of culture on interpreter behaviour. In *Handbook of intercultural communication* (pp. 219-238). De Gruyter Mouton.

Sperber, D., & Wilson, D. (1995). *Relevance: Communication and cognition* (Vol. 142). Cambridge, MA: Harvard University Press.

Stiles, W. B. (1986). Levels of intended meaning of utterances. *British Journal of Clinical Psychology*, *25*(3), 213-222.

Stokke, A. (2016). Truthfulness and Gricean cooperation. *grazer philosophische studien*, *93*(3), 489-510.

Storto, G., & Tanenhaus, M. K. (2019). Are Scalar Implicatures Computed Online? *Proceedings of Sinn Und Bedeutung*, *9*, 431–445.

Sundqvist, P., Sandlund, E., Skar, G. B. U., & Tengberg, M. (2020). Effects of rater training on the assessment of L2 English oral proficiency. *Nordic Journal of Modern Language Methodology, 8*(1), 3-29.

Surian, L. (1996). Are children with autism deaf to Gricean maxims? *Cognitive neuropsychiatry*, *1*(1), 55-72.

Suzuki, Y., Nakata, T., & Dekeyser, R. (2019). Optimizing second language practice in the classroom: Perspectives from cognitive psychology. *The Modern language journal, 103(*3), 551-561.

Sykes, J. (2017). Technologies for teaching and learning intercultural competence and interlanguage pragmatics. *The handbook of technology and second language teaching and learning*, 118, 133.

Sykes, J. M., & Cohen, A. D. (2018). Strategies and interlanguage pragmatics: Explicit and comprehensive. *Studies in Second Language Learning and Teaching*, *8*(2), 381-402.

Sykes, J., & González-Lloret, M. (2020). Exploring the interface of interlanguage (L2) pragmatics and digital spaces. *CALICO Journal*, *37*(1), i-xv.

Sykes, T. A., Venkatesh, V., & Gosain, S. (2009). Model of acceptance with peer support: A social network perspective to understand employees' system use. *MIS quarterly*, 371-393.

Tabachnick, B. G., & Fidell, L. S. (2001). *SAS for windows workbook for Tabachnick and Fidell using multivariate statistics*. Allyn and Bacon.

Tagizadeh, R. (2017). *Pragmatic competence in the target language: A study of Iranian learners of English*. (PhD dissertation), University of Salford, Manchester

Taguchi, N. (2002). An application of relevance theory to the analysis of L2 interpretation processes: The comprehension of indirect replies. *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching, 40*(2), 151-176.

Taguchi, N. (2003). *Pragmatic performance in comprehension and production of English as a second language*. Northern Arizona University.

Taguchi, N. (2005). Comprehending implied meaning in English as a foreign language. *The Modern language journal, 89*(4), 543-562.

Taguchi, N. (2006). Analysis of appropriateness in a speech act of request in L2 English. *Pragmatics*, *16*(4), 513-533.

Taguchi, N. (2007). Development of speed and accuracy in pragmatic comprehension in English as a foreign language. *TESOL quarterly, 41*(2), 313-338.

Taguchi, N. (2008). Cognition, language contact, and the development of pragmatic comprehension in a study-abroad context. *Language learning*, *58*(1), 33-71.

Taguchi, N. (2008). The role of learning environment in the development of pragmatic comprehension: A comparison of gains between EFL and ESL learners. *Studies in second language acquisition*, *30*(4), 423-452.

Taguchi, N. (2009). Comprehension of indirect opinions and refusals in L2 Japanese. *Pragmatic competence*, 249-274.

Taguchi, N. (2009). Corpus-informed assessment of comprehension of conversational implicatures in L2 English. *TESOL quarterly*, *43*(4), 738-749.

Taguchi, N. (2010). 11. Longitudinal studies in interlanguage pragmatics. *Pragmatics across languages and cultures*, 333.

Taguchi, N. (2011). Teaching pragmatics: Trends and issues. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics, 31*, 289-310.

Taguchi, N. (2011). The effect of L2 proficiency and study-abroad experience on pragmatic comprehension. *Language Learning, 61*(3), 904-939.

Taguchi, N. (2012). Context, individual differences and pragmatic competence, Multilingual Matters.

Taguchi, N. (2015). Instructed pragmatics at a glance: Where instructional studies were, are, and should be going. *Language Teaching*, *48*(1), 1-50.

Taguchi, N. (2018). Description and explanation of pragmatic development: Quantitative, qualitative, and mixed methods research. *System*, *75*, 23-32.

Taguchi, N. (Ed.). (2019). *The Routledge handbook of second language acquisition and pragmatics* (pp. 1-14). New York: Routledge.

Taguchi, N., & Bell, N. D. (2020). 12. Comprehension of implicatures and humour in a second language. *Developmental and Clinical Pragmatics*, *13*, 331.

Taguchi, N., & Li, S. (2020). Contrastive pragmatics and second language (L2) pragmatics: Approaches to assessing L2 speech act production. *Contrastive Pragmatics, 2*(1), 1-23.

Taguchi, N., & Yamaguchi, S. (2019). Implicature comprehension in L2 pragmatics research. *The Routledge handbook of second language acquisition and pragmatics*, 31-46.

Taguchi, N., Gomez-Laich, M. P., & Arrufat-Marques, M. J. (2016). Comprehension of indirect meaning in Spanish as a foreign language. *Foreign Language Annals*, *49*(4), 677-698.

Taguchi, N., Li, Q., & Tang, X. (2017). Learning Chinese formulaic expressions in a scenario-based interactive environment. *Foreign Language Annals, 50*(4), 641-660.

Taguchi, N., Li, S., & Liu, Y. (2013). Comprehension of conversational implicature in L2 Chinese. *Pragmatics & Cognition*, *21*(1), 139-157.

Tai, H. Y., & Chen, Y. S. (2021). The effects of L2 proficiency on pragmatic comprehension and learner strategies. *Education Sciences*, *11*(4), 174.

Tajeddin, Z., & Bagherkazemi, M. (2021). Implicit and Explicit Pragmatic Learning Strategies: Their Factorial Structure and Relationship with Speech Act Knowledge. *TESL-EJ*, *25*(3), n3.

Takahashi, S. (1996). Pragmatic transferability. *Studies in second language acquisition*, *18*(2), 189-223.

Takahashi, S. (2005). Noticing in task performance and learning outcomes: A qualitative analysis of instructional effects in interlanguage pragmatics. *System*, *33*(3), 437-461.

Takahashi, S. (2010). The effect of pragmatic instruction on speech act performance. *Speech act performance: Theoretical, empirical and methodological issues*(pp. 127-144).

Takahashi, T., & Beebe, L. M. (1993). Cross-linguistic influence in the speech act of correction. *Interlanguage pragmatics*, *138*, 158-169.

Takkaç Tulgar, A. (2021). A Compromise between Global and Local: Glocal Identity and Its Effects on Pragmatic Development. *Journal of Language, Identity & Education*, 1-17.

Takkaç Tulgar, A. (2021). A tale of two contexts: Attitudes of learners towards listening in foreign context and target context. *International Journal of Listening, 35*(2), 134-148.

Tashakkori, A., & Teddlie, C. (2003). Issues and dilemmas in teaching research methods courses in social and behavioural sciences: US perspective. *International journal of social research methodology, 6*(1), 61-77.

Tateyama, Y. (2009). Requesting in Japanese: The effect of instruction on JFL learners' pragmatic competence. *Pragmatic competence*, 129-166.

Tateyama, Y., Kasper, G., Mui, L. P., Tay, H. M., & Thananart, O. O. (1997). Explicit and implicit teaching of pragmatic routines. *Pragmatics and language learning*, *8*, 163-178.

Tawalbeh, A., & Al-Oqaily, E. (2012). In-directness and politeness in American English and Saudi Arabic requests: *A cross-cultural comparison. Asian Social Science, 8*(10), 85.

Taylor, D.S. (1988). The meaning and use of the term competence in linguistics and applied linguistics. *Applied Linguistics, 9*, 148-169.

Teddlie, C., & Tashakkori, A. (2008). Foundations of mixed methods research – *Integrating quantitative and qualitative approaches in the social and behavioral sciences*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Thomas, J. (1983). Cross-cultural pragmatic failure. *Applied linguistics, 4*(2), 91-112.

Thomas, J. (1984). Cross-Cultural Discourse as 'Unequal Encounter': Towards a Pragmatic Analysis1. *Applied Linguistics*, *5*(3), 226-235.

Thomas, J. (1995). *Meaning in interaction: An introduction to pragmatics*. London: Longman Group Limited.

Thomas, J. A. (2014). *Meaning in interaction: An introduction to pragmatics*. Routledge.

Thomesen, V. H. (2020). *Digital gaming and other out-of-school L2 activities: A mixed-method study of the relationship between extracurricular English language practices and English vocabulary and grammar skills in a cohort of Norwegian ninth graders* (Master's thesis), University of Agder.

Torgesen, J. K. (2004). Lessons Learned from Research on Interventions for Students Who Have Difficulty Learning to Read. In P. McCardle & V. Chhabra (Eds.), *The voice of evidence in reading research* (pp. 355–382). Paul H. Brookes Publishing.

Torres, J., & Yanguas, Í. (2021). Levels of Engagement in Task-based Synchronous Computer Mediated Interaction. *Canadian Journal of Applied Linguistics/Revue canadienne de linguistique appliquée, 24*(2), 234-259.

Trosborg, A. (1995). Statutes and contracts: An analysis of legal speech acts in the English language of the law. *Journal of pragmatics, 23*(1), 31-53.

Trosborg, A. (2011). *Interlanguage pragmatics: Requests, complaints, and apologies* (Vol. 7): Walter de Gruyter.

Ullman, M. T. (2001). The declarative/procedural model of lexicon and grammar. *Journal of psycholinguistic research, 30*(1), 37-69.

Ullman, M. T. (2004). Contributions of memory circuits to language: The declarative/procedural model. *Cognition, 92*(1-2), 231-270.

Ullman, M. T. (2005). A cognitive neuroscience perspective on second language acquisition: The declarative/procedural model. *Mind and context in adult second language acquisition, 2005*, 141-78.

Ullman, M. T. (2014). The declarative/procedural model: A neurobiologically motivated theory of first and second language. In *Theories in second language acquisition* (pp. 147-172). Routledge.

Uso'Juan, E., & Martinez-Flor, A. (2006). *Current trends in the development and teaching of the four language skills*. Mounto de Gruyter.

Van Dijk, T. A. (1977). Context and cognition: Knowledge frames and speech act comprehension. *Journal of pragmatics, 1*(3), 211-231.

Wang, G. (2012). Analysis of Lexical Motivations and Second Language Teaching of Vocabulary Based on the Framework of Cognitive Linguistics. *Journal of Chemical Information and Modeling, 33*(6), 54-62.

Wang, J., & Halenko, N. (2019). Longitudinal benefits of pre-departure pragmatics instruction for study abroad: Chinese as a second/foreign language. *East Asian Pragmatics, 4*(1), 87-111.

Wang, V. X. (2011). *Making requests by Chinese EFL learners* (Vol. 207). John Benjamins Publishing.

Ward, N., Bayyari, Y. A., & Mughazy, M. (2007). A prosodic feature that invites back-channels in Egyptian Arabic. *Amsterdam Studies in the Theory and History of Linguistic Science Series 4*, 290, 187.

Warner, R. M. (2013). *Applied statistics: From bivariate through multivariate techniques*. Sage Publications.

Weinert, R. (1995). The role of formulaic language in second language acquisition: A review. *Applied linguistics, 16*(2), 180-205.

White, L. (1987). Against comprehensible input: the input hypothesis and the development of second language competence1. *Applied Linguistics, 8*(2), 95-110.

Widdowson, H. G. (1983). *Learning purpose and language use*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Wildemuth, B. M. (2009). Direct observation. *Applications of social research methods to questions in information and library science*, 209-218.

Wildner-Bassett, M. (1994) Intercultural pragmatics and proficiency: 'Polite noises for cultural appropriateness. *International Review of Applied Linguistics, 32*, 3-17.

Wildner-Bassett, M. E. (1984). *Improving pragmatic aspects of learners' interlanguage: A comparison of methodological approaches for teaching gambits to advanced adult learners of English in industry* (Vol. 244): John Benjamins Publishing Company.

Wilkinson, L. TFSI. (1999). Statistical methods in psychology journals: Guidelines and explanations. *American Psychologist, 54*(8), 594-604.

Williams (2012). *The Rutledge handbook of second language acquisition*. Taylor & Francis Group.

Wilson, D., & Sperber, D. (2002). *Relevance theory*. Blackwell.

Winke, P. & Teng, C. (2010). Using task-based pragmatics tutorials while studying abroad in China. *De Gruyter Mouton, 7*(2), 363-399.

Wishnoff, J. R. (2000). Hedging your bets: L2 learners' acquisition of pragmatic devices in academic writing and computer-mediated discourse. *Second Language Studies*, *19*(1), 119-148.

Wishnoff, J. R. (2000). Hedging your bets: L2 learners' acquisition of pragmatic devices in academic writing and computer-mediated discourse. *Second Language Studies*, *19*(1), 119-148.

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

Wolfson, N. (1989). The social dynamics of native and non-native variation in complimenting behavior. In *The dynamic interlanguage* (pp. 219-236). Springer, Boston, MA.

Woolfolk, A. E., Hoy, A. W., Hughes, M., & Walkup, V. (2008). *Psychology in education*. Pearson Education.

Wray, A. (2008). *Formulaic language: Pushing the boundaries*. Oxford University Press.

Wray, A., & Perkins, M. R. (2000). The functions of formulaic language: An integrated model. *Language & Communication, 20*(1), 1-28.

Wu, P. (2014). The effectiveness of the task—driven chunk—based training model. *Foreign Language Teaching in Theory and Practice*, *1*.

Xiao, R. (2015). Source language interference in English-to-Chinese translation. In *Yearbook of Corpus Linguistics and Pragmatics 2015* (pp. 139-162). Springer, Cham.

Xu, F. (2011). A Corpus Study of Identity Lexicons in Chinese Students' English Academic Writing. *Foreign Language Research, 127*, 57-63.

Yamanaka, J. E. (2003). Effects of proficiency and length of residence on the pragmatic comprehension of Japanese ESL. *Second Language Studies Paper, 22*(1), 107-175.

Yang, L. (2017). The effects of L2 proficiency on pragmatics instruction: A web-based approach to teaching Chinese expressions of gratitude. *L2 Journal*, *9*(1), 62-83.

Yang, Y. (2015). A Contrastive Study on the Characteristics of the Use of Vocabulary and Lexical Chunks in the Compositions of Chinese and American College Students. *Foreign Language World, 3,* 51-58.

Yeboah, J. (2021). Chinese EFL learners' cross-cultural pragmatic competence: The appropriateness of request. *International Journal of Linguistics, Literature and Translation, 4*(5), 20-41.

Yoshimi, D. R. (2001). Explicit instruction and JFL learners' use of interactional discourse markers. *Pragmatics in language teaching*, 223-244.

Youn, S. J., Taguchi, N., & Kim, Y. (2018). Task design and validity evidence for assessment of L2 pragmatics in interaction. *Task-based approaches to teaching and assessing pragmatics*, 217-246.

Yousefi, M., & Nassaji, H. (2019). A meta-analysis of the effects of instruction and corrective feedback on L2 pragmatics and the role of moderator variables: Face-to-face vs. computer-mediated instruction. *ITL-International Journal of Applied Linguistics, 170*(2), 277-308.

Yuan, Z. M., & Zhang, R. (2018). Investigating longitudinal pragmatic development of complaints made by Chinese EFL learners. *Applied Linguistics Review*, *9*(1), 63-87.

Yule, G. (2022). *The study of language*. Cambridge university press.

Yule, G., & Widdowson, H. G. (1996). *Pragmatics*. Oxford university press.

Zand-Moghadam, A., & Samani, F. M. (2021). Effect of information-gap, reasoning-gap, and opinion-gap tasks on EFL Learners' pragmatic production, metapragmatic awareness, and comprehension of implicature. *TESL-EJ, 25*(1),1-23.

Zarrinabadi, N., Rezazadeh, M., & Shirinbakhsh, S. (2021). "I Can Learn How to Communicate Appropriately in This Language" Examining the Links between

Language Mindsets and Understanding L2 Pragmatic Behaviours. *Journal of Intercultural Communication Research*, 1-17.

Zavialova, A. (2016). Explicit instruction of situation-specific formulaic expressions and second language pragmatic competence: A classroom intervention study. In *Contact: Special Research Symposium Issue*, *42*(2), 82-104.

Žegarac, V., & Spencer-Oatey, H. (2013). Achieving mutual understanding in intercultural project partnerships: Cooperation, self-orientation, and fragility. *Intercultural Pragmatics*, *10*(3), 433-458.

Zhang, S. (2012). Promoting noticing in EFL classroom. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies, 2*(3), 579.

Zhou, Z. (2014). An Empirical Study of the Effects of Retrieval Practice and Phonemic Repeating on Second Language Chunk Acquisition. *Journal of PLA University of Foreign Languages, 37*(6), 83-90.

Ziashahabi, S., Jabbari, A. A., & Razmi, M. H. (2020). The effect of interventionist instructions of English conversational implicatures on Iranian EFL intermediate level learners' pragmatic competence development. *Cogent Education*, *7*(1), 1840008.

Appendices

Appendix 1: Scheme of work for the Five-day, Ten-hour Explicit Instructional Period in the Pilot Study

Session	Experimental group	Approx. time on task in hours
Day 1	Giving an overview of pragmatics by introducing politeness theory, speech acts, cooperative principles and conversational implicatures.	2
Day 2	Authentic examples: inviting the students to provide examples that they misunderstood or realised their meaning late.	1
	Cross-cultural pragmatics: Groups/pairs grade situations according to imposition / brevity of offence via discussion / oral response. Socio-cultural follow-up discussions. Saudi vs. UK differences.	1
Day 3	Examples: Brain storming situations may need to comprehend or produce conversational implicature with familiar settings provided (university, shop, in the street)	1
	Discussion: Class discussion of how responses are different in different situations.	1
Day 4	Examples: Presenting computer-animated scenarios used in activity only and included in the test.	1

	Discussions: Discussion on appropriacy of language. Language focus. L1 transfer?	1
Day 5	Size of impositions: Discussions highlighting cultural comparisons and appropriate social behaviour in the UK.	1
	Social differences: Discussion of appropriate situational language	1

Appendix 2: The Teaching Materials from the Pilot Study:

Day 1

 i. Providing an overview of pragmatics by introducing politeness theory, speech acts, cooperative principles and conversational implicatures.

ii. Discussion on what is pragmatics and why it is essential to develop an awareness of pragmatic competence?

iii. Introduction to the speech acts theory with detailed instruction about the locutionary, illocutionary, and perlocutionary acts, which led to the discussion about the underlying meaning, such as requests, apologies, compliments, etc.

iv. Conduct of activities focused on pragmatics as applied in complaining, apologising, greeting, requesting, and giving explanations. These forms can be modified to other speech acts to increase learners' pragmatic awareness and competence in different situations. The idea behind choosing these broad terms is not covering all the situations because it is impossible to include all the contexts, and it is more practical to give the learners the means they require to improve their pragmatic competence. In this way, the teachers can provide the learners with the methods of how to interact more productively and confidently in English.

Day 2

i. Introduction to authentic examples to clarify cross-cultural pragmatics. I presented authentic examples as what was suggested by Taguchi (2011). She had concentrated on the *awareness-developing approach,* which focuses on; social context, practical language use, and encouraging teaching materials that enhance pragmatic and intercultural competencies such as situations that the students may encounter in their everyday academic lives. Bolitho et al. (2003) suggested using text awareness, which means using

activities in the classroom that urge the students to notice the differences between spoken and written materials and relate these differences to their L1. One of the examples is:

(Two teenage boys are talking to one another.)

John: Hey Randy, that's SOME tie you're wearing!

Randy: You like it? My grandmother gave it to me for my birthday...

John: She really has a good sense of humour!

Question: What do you think John is trying to tell Randy?

a. He doesn't like the tie.

b. He appreciates the fact that his grandmother has a sense of humour.

c. The tie looks great because it is funny.

d. Randy looks funny because he is wearing a tie.

On the other hand, I covered topics about cross-cultural pragmatics for almost an hour.

ii. Talking about different cultures and how people in these cultures can interpret situations differently (Hyland & Paltridge, 2011). One of the examples was linked to the *phatic* and *real* expressions such as the following example:

How are you? To an English or Arab person, the answer should be phatic, whereas it is a real question that requires providing many details in French.

Days 3, 4

On these two days, I enumerated some more examples, including some animated videos not included in the test and invited the students to show their understanding by reacting to some situations focusing on how they respond if they were in the same position. In these two days, I focused on

- Cross-cultural analyses and discussion of the appropriacy of sample conversational implicatures and speech acts that are practised in academic situations.

- Language focus on how to use typical lexical chunks in individual speech acts.

- The students were invited to compare their knowledge with what they had learned in these sessions.

Day 5

i. Introduced the terms power, social distance, and the size of imposition, the three factors that speakers should consider while interacting with each other (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Since the concept was foreign to the participants, I explained to them that 'power' implies the social status of the speaker and hearer, I provided examples while changing the interlocutor to let the students notice that we can use one sentence but change its meaning just by changing the person who had altered the sentence and our relationship with the person who had presented this sentence. By 'social distance' the degree of familiarity between the interlocutors is implied. I further explained to them that in speech acts, one varies the linguistic forms to imply 'respect, deference, and politeness' (Kida, 2011, p.183). Finally, the 'magnitude of imposition' is the extent of leverage that the speaker enjoys in terms of ability to impose his/ her ideas on others.

It was expected from the fifteen assigned students in the experimental group to attend all the classes from day one until the last day for two hours every day. I had designed all the classroom materials to test them in this pilot study. At this stage, I played the role of a facilitator in all the discussions and material used in the classroom. I also was the director and corrector of the students' use of language.

Appendix 3: Sample of NS Raters' Evaluation Sheet for Providing Criticism

to a friend Scenario: inappropriate outfit in a graduation ceremony:

Read the description of the scenario presented. Circle each response with a numeric score

between 1-5, according to how *appropriate* you think each response is in the academic

context provided.

5 = I would feel completely satisfied with this response

4 = I would feel very satisfied with this response

3 = I would feel satisfied with this response

2 = I would not feel particularly satisfied with this response

1= I would not feel satisfied at all with this response

**Scenario (3) You and a friend are planning what to wear for the graduation
ceremony. You think your friend's skirt is too short and makes her look terrible.**

1. Err, you are beautiful but err when I see last last time.

1	2	3	4	5

2. Love it is not allowed to wear like this in here.

1	2	3	4	5

3. Sorry but you look terrible so change it.

1	2	3	4	5

4. Err it is not formal to wear this skirt so please change it.

1	2	3	4	5

5. Oh my god, your clothes is short and not good.

1	2	3	4	5

6. Dear your skirt is not suitable for the occasion.

1	2	3	4	5

7. Your skirt is not acceptable.

1	2	3	4	5

8. This is good style, but I think it will be better if the more tall skirt.

1	2	3	4	5

9. You look beautiful but if you wear long skirt it is way better.

1	2	3	4	5

10. Oh, you look beautiful, but I prefer a long skirt on you.

1	2	3	4	5

Appendix 4: CAPT Production Task

Speaking activity:

1. Read the information and imagine yourself in each situation.
2. Listen to the characters.
3. Give an appropriate response.

1. Your supervisor has asked you, as the group representative, to tell the class that students are not allowed to eat or drink in the classroom. As you enter the room to tell them everyone is eating/ drinking.
You?

2. In your accommodation, the person next door, whom you don't know very well, is playing the radio loudly. You can't study, and so you go and knock on the door.
You?
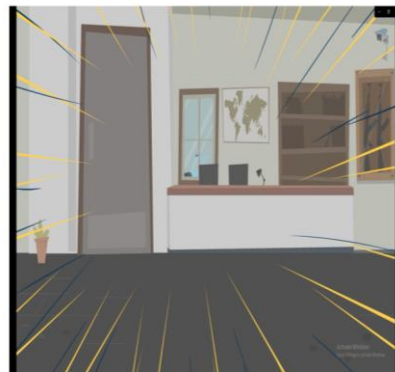
3. You and a friend are planning what to wear for the graduation ceremony. You think your friend's skirt is too short and makes her look terrible. **You?**

4. You are having trouble getting the computer printer to work. Your friend is very busy but knows all about computers.
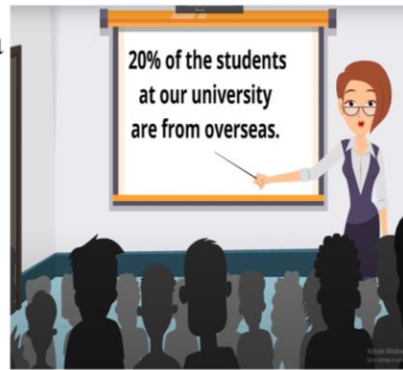
You?

5. A fellow student is going on holiday to the place you visited last year but does not know where to stay. You know an excellent hotel there.

You?

6. One of your friends tells a group of you that 20% of the students at your university are from overseas, but you know it is 10%..

You?

Multiple-choice activity:

1. Read the information in each of the following scenarios.
2. Listen to the characters.
3. Choose an appropriate response.

Appendix 5: CAPT Recognition Task

1.
Some students are taking in the lecture hall. The lecturer turns to them and says: I suggest you stop talking and pay attention
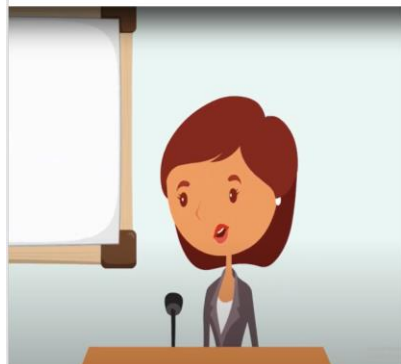
This is:
- a suggestion
- an order

2.
A student's coat is on the seat beside her which is the only available place in the crowded lecture hall. Another student comes up and says: Err… is that your coat?
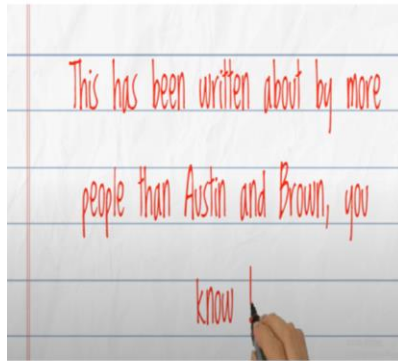
The student is:
- suggesting
- asking for information

3.
A student who is always late to class arrives late yet again. The tutor says: Have you thought of buying a new alarm clock?

The tutor is:
- making a recommendation
- making a criticism

4. A supervisor writes at the end of a student's written assignment: This has been written about by more people than Austin and Brown, you know.

This is:
- a comment
- a criticism

5. A porter passes some student in the corridor and says: There's no smoking in this building.

The porter is:
- giving an instruction
- giving information.

6. In the computer centre, a student is having difficulty typing a document to meet a deadline. A fellow student says: I am quite fast at typing.

The student is:
- boasting
- offering

End of the activity:

1. Take off the headphones.
2. Please tell the tutor that you have finished.

Thank you!

Appendix 6: Recognition Task

	Conversational implicatures (Imposition (R))	Interlocutor (Social distance (D)/power (P))	The situation as seen by the students

Scene 1
 noisy class
	An order (+R)	A lecturer (+D), (+P)	Some students are taking in the lecture hall. The lecturer turns to them and says: I suggest you stop talking and pay attention
			
			 This is:
			
			     c) a suggestion
			
			     d) an order

Scene 2
 need to sit down
	Making a request (+R)	A student (-D), (-P)	A student's coat is on the seat beside her which is the only available place in the crowded lecture hall. Another student comes up and says:
			
			 Err… is that your coat?
			
			 The student is:
			
			     c) making a request
			
			     d) asking for information

Scene 3
 giving an opinion
	Add a point of disagreement. (-R)	Colleagues (-D), (-P)	In the course of a discussion, one of the groups starts by saying: Mm… I agree….
			
			 The speaker goes on to:
			
			     c) add a point of disagreement
			
			     d) explain her agreement

Scene 4
 always late
	Making a criticism (+R)	A tutor (+D), (+P)	A student who is always late to class arrives late yet again. The tutor says: Have you thought of buying a new alarm clock?
			
			 The tutor is:
			
			     c) making a recommendation
			
			     d) making a criticism

Scene 5 supervisor's comment	A criticism (+R)	A supervisor (+D), (+P)	A supervisor writes at the end of a student's written assignment: This has been written about by more people than Austin and Brown, you know. This is: c) a comment d) a criticism
Scene 6 stop smoking	Giving instruction. (+R)	A porter (+D), (+P)	A porter passes some student in the corridor and says: There's no smoking in this building. The porter is: c) giving an instruction d) giving information.
Scene 7 a stressed friend	Offering (-R)	A fellow student (-D), (-P)	In the computer centre, a student is having difficulty typing a document to meet a deadline. A fellow student says: I am quite fast at typing. The student is: c) boasting d) offering

Appendix 7: Participant Consent Form

First version, 19/07/18:

Research ethics approval number:

Title of the research project: *The Effect of Explicit Instruction on Developing Appropriate Spoken Pragmatic Language Choices in Female Saudi Arabian English as a Foreign Language Students*

Name of researcher: Albandary Alhammad

Please initial

box

1. I confirm that I have read and have understood the information sheet dated [**19/07/18**] for the above study, or it has been read to me. I have had the opportunity to consider the information, ask questions and have had these answered satisfactorily.

2. I understand that taking part in the study involves [**an audio recorded interview**].

3. I understand that my participation is voluntary and that I am free to stop taking part and can withdraw from the study at any time without giving any reason and without my rights being affected. In addition, I understand that I am free to decline to answer any particular question or questions.

4. I understand that I can ask for access to the information I provide, and I can request the destruction of that information if I wish at any time prior to [**anonymization**]. I understand that following [**one week after collecting the recording**] I will no longer be able to request access to or withdrawal of the information I provide.

5. I understand that the information I provide will be held securely and in line with data protection requirements at the University of Liverpool until it is [**fully anonymised**] and then deposited in the [**One Drive**] for sharing and use by other authorised researchers to support other research in the future.

6. I understand that signed consent forms and [**original audio**] will be retained in [**the university of Liverpool OneDrive and only the researcher and her supervisor will be able to access these recording**] until [**the end and publication of this research**].

7. I agree to take part in the above study.

Participant name   Date   Signature

_____   _____   _____

Name of person taking consent   Date   Signature

Principal Investigator   **Student Investigator**

[**Dr Christian Jones**]   [**Albandary Alhammad**]

[**University of Liverpool,**

 Liverpool L69 3BX, United Kingdom]   [**University of Liverpool, United**

Kingdom]

 Liverpool L69 3BX,

                                                    [**00966597669011**]

[**+44 (0)151 794 2724**]   [**00447380119444**]

[**Christian.Jones2@liverpool.ac.uk**]   [**A.alhammad@liverpool.ac.uk**]

Appendix 8: Optional Statements (choose as appropriate)

This section provides examples of statements that may be appropriate to specific types of studies; but which will not be appropriate to all studies. Please read the sections below carefully and consider which statements are relevant to include in your study.

*Situations where the participant information sheet has been read to aloud to the participant [**add the following statement above the signature line**]*

I have accurately read out the information sheet to the potential participant and, to the best of my ability, ensured that the participant understands to what they are freely consenting:

Transferring personal data outside the EU

I agree for my personal data to be transferred outside of the EU and I have been informed of the safeguards in place to protect my personal data when it is transferred.

Open data and data sharing

I understand that the information I provide will be held securely at the University of Liverpool until it is [**fully anonymised**] and then deposited for sharing and use by other authorised researchers to support other research in the future.

I understand that other authorised researchers may use my words in publications, reports, webpages, and other research outputs, only if they agree to preserve the confidentiality of the information as requested in this form.

I understand that personal information collected about me that can identify me, such as my name or where I live, will not be shared beyond the study team.

Audio / video recordings

I understand and agree that my participation will be [**audio recorded / video recorded**] and I am aware of and consent to your use of these recordings for the following purposes: [**To see the effects of explicit instruction on producing and understanding appropriate language choices**]

Storage of documents

I understand that signed consent forms and [**original audio/video recordings/ questionnaires**] will be retained in [**using One Drive**] until [**until publishing the thesis**].

I understand that a transcript of my interview will be retained for [**until the end of the study**].

Exclusion criteria

I understand that I must not take part if… [**list exclusion criteria, for example pregnancy**].

☐

Risk to participants

I understand that taking part in the study has [**description of risk**] as a potential risk.

☐

Affording participants the opportunity to receive a copy of the report

The information you have submitted will be published as a report; please indicate whether you would like to receive a copy

☐

Confidentiality of the data

I understand that my responses will be kept strictly confidential. I give permission for members of the research team to have access to my fully anonymised responses. I understand that my name will not be linked with the research materials, and I will not be identified or identifiable in the report or reports that result from the research.

☐

I understand that confidentiality and anonymity will be maintained, and it will not be possible to identify me in any publications.

☐

Disclosure of criminal activity

I understand that the confidentiality of the information I provide will be safeguarded and won't be released without my consent unless required by law. I understand that if I disclose information which raises considerations over the safety of myself or the public, the researcher may be legally required to disclose my confidential information to the relevant authorities.

☐

Use of quotes and fully identifiable information

I agree that my information can be quoted in research outputs such as [**list research outputs**]. I would like my name used and I understand and agree that what I have said or written as part of this study will be used in reports, publications and other research outputs so that anything I have contributed to this project can be recognised.

☐
☐

I agree that my real name can be used for quotes.

☐

Health-related findings in research

I agree for my GP to be contacted if any unexpected results are found in relation to my health.

☐

Re-contacting participants for the purpose of inviting them to take part in future studies

I agree to being contacted at a later date and invited to take part in future studies. I understand that I am only agreeing to receive information and I am under no obligation to take part in any future studies. If you decide not to consent to being contacted in the future it will not

☐

have any influence on your involvement in this particular research study [**and will not affect any standard of care that you receive (if relevant)**].

For human material projects only:

I agree to gift my samples to University of Liverpool, and I consent to the storage and use of my samples for future unspecified research, including genetic analysis.

I agree to gift my samples to University of Liverpool, and I consent to the storage and use of my samples for future unspecified research.

The potential benefits of storing my [**sample**] for future research have been explained to me and I consent to the use of my [**sample**] with ethical committee approval:

I.   For future similar studies

II.   For future unspecified research

III.   For future unspecified studies including genetic analysis* [**if appropriate**]

IV.   For future unspecified studies including commercial research* [**if appropriate**]

V.   For future unspecified studies including non-human models* [**if appropriate**]

VI.   I do not wish my [Sample] to be used for any purpose other than this study.

I understand that I will not profit from any commercial research involving my [**sample**].

I agree to being contacted at a later date and invited to take part in future studies of a similar nature.

I understand that I am only agreeing to receive information and I am under no obligation to take part in any future studies. If you decide not to consent to being contacted in the future, it will not have any influence on your involvement in this particular research study [**and will not affect any standard of care that you receive**].

I agree to being contacted at a later date and invited to take part in future studies. I understand that I am only agreeing to receive information and I am under no obligation to take part in any future studies. If you decide not to consent to being contacted in the future it will not have any influence on your involvement in this particular research study [**and will not affect any standard of care that you receive**].

I agree that my current and historical medical records may be accessed for the purpose of this study/this and future studies by members of the NHS Trust or regulatory authorities.

I understand that any samples or information given to research groups will be anonymised and my identity will be protected.

I understand that I am free to withdraw my consent and request destruction of my [**sample**] without giving a reason and without my medical treatment or legal rights being affected.

Appendix 9: Example participant consent forms

Examples of participant consent forms can be accessed through the following links:

- Health Research Authority

- UK Data Service

Examples of age-appropriate consent forms for children can be found using the below resources:

- Health Research Authority

- Global Kids Online

University of Liverpool example child assent form

A bit for the researcher / your class teacher / your parent or guardian to fill in

I have witnessed _____ give their verbal assent to participating in this

study.

Name and occupation (researcher/teacher/parent or guardian) of witness:
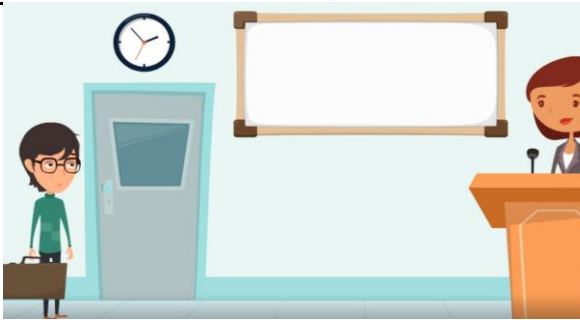

Signature: _____

Date: _____

Appendix 10: Pilot Study (Production task SPSS)

	Pre-test	Post-test	Delayed test
Q.1	.702[c]	.708[c]	.604[c]
Q.2	.752[c]	.765[c]	.893[c]
Q.3	.805[c]	.550[c]	.941[c]
Q.4	.669[c]	.819[c]	.745[c]
Q.5	.751[c]	.820[c]	.752[c]
Q.6	.807[c]	.749[c]	.680[c]

Inter-rater reliability, the interclass correlation coefficient

Appendix 11: Sample of Instructional Materials (day 1)

Communication Skills	.Ask your teacher for a deadline extension. .Ask your friend for money to borrow. .Ask your friend to show you her assignment. .Ask your teacher to lower hr voice.
What would you say? 1. You are lost. You find people in the cafeteria. What would you say? 2. You did not do your homework. Your friend who knows the answer passes by you. What would you say? 3. You want to leave the class early. You go to your teacher and say?	 1.You are lost in the building, and you find people in the cafeteria. What would you say?

2. You did not do your homework. Your friend who knows the answer passes by you. What would you say?	3. You want to leave the class early. You go to your teacher and say?
Possible answer 1 1. Do you mind telling me where the lap is?	**Possible answer 2** I was wondering if you could help me with my homework please? 2. Would it be possible to help me with my homework?
Possible answers 3 1. I was wondering if you could let me leave the class early today? 2. Would it be possible to let me leave early because I have an appointment?	**Responding to requests** Yes, sure! No problem! Of course! Sorry but…. I'm afraid….

Appendix 12: Production Task

	Conversational implicatures (Imposition (R))	Interlocutor (Social distance (D)/power (P))	Situation as seen by the students
Scene 1 Eating in the classroom	Order (+R)	A supervisor's message (-D), (+P)	Your supervisor has asked you, as the group representative, to tell the class that students are not allowed to eat or drink in the classroom. As you enter the room to tell them, everyone is eating/drinking.
Scene 2 *Annoying* neighbour	Complain (+R)	A neighbour (+D), (-P)	In your accommodation, the person next door, who you don't know very well, is playing the radio loudly. You can't study, and so you go and knock on the door.
Scene 3 A friend who is embarrassing herself	Advice/criticise (+R)	A friend (-D), (-P)	You and a friend are planning what to wear for the graduation ceremony. You think your friend's skirt is too short and makes her look terrible.
Scene 4 busy friend	Request (+R)	A busy friend (-D), (-P)	You are having trouble getting the computer printer to work. Your friend is very busy but knows all about computers.
Scene 5 a tourist advice	Advise / recommend (-R)	A fellow friend (-D), (-P)	A fellow student is going on holiday to the place you visited last year but does not know where to stay. You know an excellent hotel there.
Scene 6 providing wrong information	Interruption/ criticise (+R)	A friend (-D), (-P)	One of your friends tells a group of you that 20% of the students at your university are from overseas, but you know it is 10%.

Appendix 13: Participant information sheet

Foundation Building

Brownlow Hill

Liverpool

L69 7ZX

T +44(0) 151 794 6929

F +44(0) 151 794 2260

www.liverpool.ac.uk

1. Title of Study

The Effect of Explicit Instruction on Developing Appropriate Spoken Pragmatic Language Choices in Female Saudi Arabian English as a Foreign Language Students

2. Version Number and Date

This is the first version which is created on the 18/07/18.

3. Invitation Paragraph

You are being invited to participate in a research study. Before you decide whether to participate, it is important for you to understand why the research is being done and what it will involve. Please take time to read the following information carefully and feel free to ask us if you would like more information or if there is anything that you do not understand. Please also feel free to discuss this with your friends and relatives if you wish. We would like to stress that you do not have to accept this invitation and should only agree to take part if you want to.

Thank you for reading this.

4. What is the purpose of the study?

The purpose of the study is to observe the effects of giving instruction of how to understand the indirect meaning of the provided utterances on enhancing the learning experience of non-native speakers of English.

5. Why have I been chosen to take part?

I have chosen you because you are a non-native speaker of English who got at least 5 in your IELTS but not more than 6. You will be participating in this experiment with 69 more students who have the same quality as you.

6. Do I have to take part?

The participation in this experiment is voluntary and that participants are free to withdraw their participation at any time, without explanation, and without incurring a disadvantage.

7. What will happen if I take part?

- what the methods are

You will be watching 12 videos, then toward the end of each video you will be asked to provide a recoded response in a specific time.

- who the researchers are

I am a PhD student from Liverpool University. I have conducted this study to obtain a PhD degree in Philosophy.

- who will be carrying out the procedure

I am, the main researcher will carry out the procedure of collecting the data and giving the instruction etc.

- what the duration / frequency of the procedure is

The pre-test, post-test and delay test will take 20 minutes each. For 35 of the 70 students there will be 10 hours trying in five days before thy take their post-test. The delay test will be taken after four weeks from taking the post-test.

- what the participant's responsibilities are

If they agree to attend the first test, they should attend the rest of test. I have to mention that the participants are free to withdraw at any time.

8. How will my data be used?

"*The University processes personal data as part of its research and teaching activities in accordance with the lawful basis of 'public task', and in accordance with the University's purpose of "advancing education, learning and research for the public benefit.*

Under UK data protection legislation, the University acts as the Data Controller for personal data collected as part of the University's research. The [Principal Investigator / Supervisor] acts as the Data Processor for this study, and any queries relating to the handling of your personal data can be sent to [Principal Investigator / Supervisor contact details].

Further information on how your data will be used can be found in the table below".

How will my data be collected?	At first, it will be recorded then the researcher will transcribe it.
How will my data be stored?	In the university's onedrive.
How long will my data be stored for?	Until the end of the research.
What measures are in place to protect the security and confidentiality of my data?	The collected data will be encrypted by a password so no one will be able to see these transcriptions expect the researcher and her supervisor.
Will my data be anonymised?	yes
How will my data be used?	It will be used to see the frequency of using direct and indirect speech and how indirectness being understood.
Who will have access to my data?	The researcher and her supervisor only.
Will my data be archived for use in other research projects in the future?	No
How will my data be destroyed?	All the recordings and their transcriptions will be deleted as soon as the researcher takes the results of the study.

9. Are there any risks in taking part?

If any of the participants perceived any disadvantage or experienced any discomfort as part of the research that this should be made known to the researcher immediately.

10. Are there any benefits in taking part?

The benefits you may gain of this experiment is that if I proved that giving instruction helps the learning experience, you would help me in convincing the people who are responsible for teaching English to non-native speakers that language canters should teach how to be aware of pragmatics competence along with necessary skills of English.

11. What will happen to the results of the study?

The results will be published. The participants will not be identifiable from the results.

12. What will happen if I want to stop taking part?

The participants can withdraw their participation in the study at any time, without explanation. Results up to the period of withdrawal may be used, if participants are happy for this to be done. Otherwise, participants may request that the results are destroyed, and no further use is made of them. The results are anonymised so that results may only be withdrawn prior to anonymisation.

If the participants wish to withdraw their information, they should contact the researcher whom information is provided at the end of this page.

13. What if I am unhappy or if there is a problem?

*If you are unhappy, or if there is a problem, please feel free to let us know by contacting [**Principal Investigator name and number**] and we will try to help. If you remain unhappy or have a complaint which you feel you cannot come to us with then you should contact the Research Ethics and Integrity Office at* ethics@liv.ac.uk. *When contacting the Research Ethics and Integrity Office, please provide details of the name or description of the study (so that it can be identified), the researcher involved, and the details of the complaint you wish to make.*

The University strives to maintain the highest standards of rigour in the processing of your data. However, if you have any concerns about the way in which the University processes your personal data, it is important that you are aware of your right to lodge a complaint with the Information Commissioner's Office by calling 0303 123 1113.""

14. Who can I contact if I have further questions?
Principal Investigator: Albandary Alhammad

00447380119444

00966597669011

A.Alhammad@liverpool.ac.uk

Contact details of investigatory team:

Dr Christian Jones

+44 (0)151 794 2724

Christian.Jones2@liverpool.ac.uk