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นางปจรีญ์ นิพาสพงษ์

สถาบันวิทยบริการ จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

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THE EFFECTS OF TYPES OF CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK ON STUDENTS'
ORAL PRAGMATIC COMPETENCE ON THE USE OF REFUSALS



Mrs. Pajaree Nipasong

สถาบันวิทยบริการ
จุฬาลงกรณ์มหาวิทยาลัย

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Thesis Advisor Associate Professor Sumalee Chinokul, Ph. D.


Accepted by the Graduate School, Chulalongkorn University in Partial
Fulfillment of the Requirements for the Doctoral Degree

..... Dean of the Graduate School
(Assistant Professor M.R. Kalaya Tingsabadh, Ph.D.)

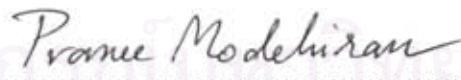
THESIS COMMITTEE

..... Chairman
(Associate Professor Supanee Chinnawongs, Ph.D.)

..... Thesis Advisor
(Associate Professor Sumalee Chinokul, Ph.D.)

..... External Member
(Assistant Professor Jirada Wudthayagorn, Ph.D.)

..... Member
(Assistant Professor Chansongklod Gajasoni, Ph.D.)

..... Member
(Pranee Modhiran, Ph.D.)

ปาจารย์ นิพาสพงษ์ : ผลของประเภทการให้ข้อมูลป้อนกลับเพื่อแก้ไขข้อผิด ต่อความสามารถทางวจนปฏิบัติศาสตร์ด้านการพูดปฏิเสธของผู้เรียน. (THE EFFECTS OF TYPES OF CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK ON STUDENTS' ORAL PRAGMATIC COMPETENCE ON THE USE OF REFUSALS) อ. ที่ปริกษา : รศ. ดร. สุมาลี ชิโนกุล, 216 หน้า.

งานวิจัยเรื่องนี้ทำขึ้นเพื่อศึกษาผลของการให้ข้อมูลป้อนกลับ 2 แบบ ได้แก่ ข้อมูลป้อนกลับแบบชัดเจน (explicit feedback) และข้อมูลป้อนกลับแบบโดยนัย (prompts) ต่อพัฒนาการทางวจนปฏิบัติศาสตร์ด้านการตอบปฏิเสธของผู้เรียน วัตถุประสงค์ของการวิจัย คือ การศึกษาผลของข้อมูลป้อนกลับทั้งสองแบบต่อ 1) ความสามารถในการปฏิเสธ 2) ความตระหนักเชิงวจนปฏิบัติศาสตร์ด้านการปฏิเสธ และ 3) ความเชื่อมั่นในการใช้คำปฏิเสธอย่างเหมาะสมของผู้เรียน กลุ่มเป้าหมายประกอบด้วยนักศึกษาวิชาเอกภาษาอังกฤษ ชั้นปีที่ 1 มหาวิทยาลัยศิลปากร จำนวน 39 คน ผู้เข้าร่วมการวิจัยได้ถูกแบ่งออกเป็นกลุ่มเก่ง และกลุ่มอ่อน โดยใช้ผลการทดสอบความสามารถด้านการตอบปฏิเสธก่อนเข้าร่วมการวิจัย (pre-test) โดยทั้งหมดได้ถูกจับคู่คะแนนเพื่อแบ่งเข้ากลุ่มวิจัย 3 กลุ่ม กลุ่มทดลองกลุ่มที่ 1 ได้รับข้อมูลป้อนกลับแบบชัดเจน กลุ่มทดลองกลุ่มที่ 2 ได้รับข้อมูลป้อนกลับโดยนัย ส่วนกลุ่มควบคุมได้รับข้อมูลป้อนกลับหลังการสอน (delayed feedback) หลังเข้าร่วมกิจกรรมการเรียนการสอนนาน 10 สัปดาห์ ผู้เข้าร่วมการวิจัยเข้าร่วมการทดสอบวัดผลหลังการเรียน (immediate post-test) อันประกอบด้วยข้อสอบพูดตอบปฏิเสธ, ข้อสอบวัดความตระหนักเชิงวจนปฏิบัติศาสตร์ด้านการปฏิเสธ และแบบวัดระดับความเชื่อมั่น นอกจากนี้ผู้เข้าร่วมการวิจัยยังเข้าร่วมการทดสอบหลังการเรียนครั้งที่ 2 (delayed post-test) ในอีก 13 สัปดาห์ต่อมาเพื่อติดตามผลระยะยาวของการให้ข้อมูลป้อนกลับต่อความสามารถทางการปฏิเสธของผู้เรียน

ผลการวิจัยพบว่า กลุ่มที่ได้รับข้อมูลป้อนกลับโดยนัยมีพัฒนาการด้านการตอบปฏิเสธมากที่สุด โดยได้คะแนนจากข้อสอบพูดมากกว่ากลุ่มข้อมูลป้อนกลับแบบชัดเจนและกลุ่มควบคุมอย่างมีนัยสำคัญทางสถิติ ซึ่งความแตกต่างระหว่างกลุ่มมีความชัดเจนมากขึ้นในการทดสอบครั้งสุดท้าย ผลการวิจัยยังรายงานว่ กลุ่มข้อมูลป้อนกลับโดยนัยพัฒนาระดับความตระหนักเชิงวจนปฏิบัติศาสตร์มากกว่ากลุ่มอื่น ๆ อย่างมีนัยสำคัญทางสถิติ ในขณะที่กลุ่มควบคุมมีพัฒนาการทางความเชื่อมั่นสูงสุด การวิเคราะห์ผลจากงานวิจัยเรื่องนี้ที่ประโยชน์ของการให้ข้อมูลป้อนกลับ โดยเฉพาะข้อมูลป้อนกลับโดยนัยในการเรียนการสอนวิชาวจนปฏิบัติศาสตร์

สาขาวิชาภาษาอังกฤษเป็นภาษานานาชาติ
ปีการศึกษา 2550

ลายมือชื่อนิติ.....
ลายมือชื่ออาจารย์ที่ปริกษา.....

4789668820 : MAJOR ENGLISH AS AN INTERNATIONAL LANGUAGE

KEY WORD: CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK / PROMPTS / EXPLICIT FEEDBACK / PRAGMATIC COMPETENCE / REFUSALS

PAJAREE NIPASPONG : THE EFFECTS OF TYPES OF CORRECTIVE FEEDBACK ON STUDENTS' ORAL PRAGMATIC COMPETENCE ON THE USE OF REFUSALS. THESIS ADVISOR : ASSOC. PROF. SUMALEE CHINOKUL, PH.D., 216 pp.

This experimental study was designed to investigate the effects of two corrective feedback techniques—explicit feedback and prompts—on L2 pragmatic acquisition, focusing on the use of refusals. The research aims to study the effects of explicit feedback and prompts on learners' 1) oral refusal production, 2) pragmatic awareness of the use of refusals, and 3) level of confidence in making appropriate refusals. The participants were 39 first year English-major undergraduates of Silpakorn University. The subjects were pre-tested and categorized as high- and low-proficiency learners before assignment to two experimental groups and one control group. Each experimental group received either explicit feedback (+ immediate time/ - self-directed repair) or prompts (+ immediate time/ + self-directed repair) as their treatment, while the control group received delayed explicit feedback (- immediate time/ - self-directed repair). After the 10-week instructional intervention, the subjects were post-tested on their pragmatic production, awareness and confidence. The delayed post-test was done 13 weeks later to investigate the retention of each corrective feedback technique.

Results from the study revealed that the prompts group (PG) benefited the most, vastly improving their refusal production. The PG significantly outperformed the explicit feedback group (EG) and the control group (CG) on both immediate and delayed post-tests with the difference between groups becoming more robust over time. The PG also significantly improved their pragmatic awareness compared to the other two groups on the post-test. However, the CG was found to have the greatest improvement of their confidence level after the treatment. The findings were interpreted as indicating the beneficial role of immediate corrective feedback and the superiority of prompts over explicit feedback in promoting learners' acquisition of L2 pragmatics.

Field of study English as an International Language
Academic year 2007

Student's signature.....*Pajaree Nipaspong*
Advisor's signature.....*S. Chinokul*

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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background of the Study

Over the past two decades, the role of corrective feedback in language acquisition has become a topic of interest to researchers both in the area of language acquisition and English language teaching (ELT). A large amount of research has been done to explore the facilitative role of corrective feedback in the acquisition of L2 grammar (e.g. DeKeyser, 1993; Kubota, 1994; Doughty and Varela, 1998; Long, Inagaki, and Ortega, 1998; Mackey and Philp, 1998; Muranoi, 2000; Ayoun, 2001; Lyster, 2004; Ammar and Spada, 2006; Ellis, Loewen, and Erlam, 2006). Nonetheless, the claims of the effectiveness of each particular kind of corrective feedback are still inconclusive due to the diverse results from different studies. The main reasons for the divergent findings were 1) the different research settings such as classroom research versus laboratory study, and 2) the difference in the operationalized definition of each corrective feedback technique.

Teacher's corrective feedback has been broadly defined as information following an error produced by the learner. A corrective feedback may be explicit or implicit, may include either positive evidence (the correct answer) or negative evidence (information regarding the presence of error), or both of them. It seems that most traditional studies have focused on *explicit feedback* (e.g. DeKeyser, 1993; Carroll & Swain, 1993; Kubota, 1994), but none of them studied its effectiveness in pragmatic acquisition. More recent studies have investigated the effectiveness of *recasts*—the teacher provides correction after learners' ill-formed utterance—on learners' grammatical development (e.g. Spada, 1997; Long, Inagaki, & Ortega, 1998; Mackey & Philp, 1998; Ayoun, 2001) and pragmalinguistic acquisition (e.g. Fukuya & Zhang, 2002). However, some researchers (e.g. Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Lyster, 1998, 2002) called into question the effectiveness of recasts due to its ambiguity and its lack of the provision of self-repair. According to these scholars, the types of corrective feedback that focus on form, and provide opportunities for learners' self-repair would benefit learners' retrieval and self monitoring process, and thereby help them develop second language acquisition. These kinds of corrective feedback moves are known as *prompts*. To date, a few studies have been carried out to prove the effectiveness of

prompts on grammatical development (e.g. Ammar & Spada, 2006). A lesser number, if there is one, has investigated the effects of prompts on the acquisition of pragmatic competence. Therefore, it is the purpose of the present study to examine the effectiveness of prompts compared with that of explicit feedback in developing students' pragmatic competence. Prompts and explicit feedback were juxtaposed due to their contrasting approaches in giving feedback. Explicit feedback overtly signals the presence of error and supplies learners with a correct answer, whereas prompts provide information regarding the error source and elicits learner self-repair.

According to Kasper (2001), the development of pragmatic competence depends on providing learners with sufficient and appropriate *input*, *practice*, and *reflection*. A large number of researchers have dedicated their work to the exploration of instructional approaches as the way to enhance input in teaching and learning pragmatics (e.g. Ohta, 2000; Morrow, 1995; House, 1996; Takahashi, 2001; Tateyama, 2001; Yoshimi, 2001; Martinez-Flor, 2004; Silva, 2003; Jorda, 2004; Eslami-Rasekh et al., 2004; Koike & Pearson, 2005). However, the studies on another potential type of input—teacher's corrective feedback concerning pragmatic development—are in short supply. Among a few studies on the effects of corrective feedback on pragmatic competence, Fukuya and Zhang (2002) investigated the effects of recasts on learners' acquisition of pragmalinguistic conventions of request. Results of the study reveal the positive effect of recast on students' request production.

Regarding the target speech act of the current study, refusal was selected to be the focal point of the research for two main reasons. First, the interventional studies on refusals are rarely conducted compared with other speech acts, e.g. requests, apologies and suggestions. Second, refusal is of interest because it is one of the relatively small number of speech acts which responds to another act, e.g. refusal to requests, invitations, and suggestions. Thus, refusals can be accomplished in various forms according to both social contexts and different initiating acts. This is because, according to Gass and Houck (1999), refusals normally function as second pair parts; they exclude extensive planning on the part of the refuser. This leads to the possibilities for a response broader than for an initiating act. Thus, refusals may reveal greater complexity than many other speech acts.

According to Kasper (2001), opportunities for learning L2 pragmatics in a foreign language setting, compared to a second language environment, are much more restricted. House (1996) agreed that students can make significant gains in pragmatic

ability in foreign language classrooms by metapragmatic instruction and discussion. Therefore, more research needs to be done to shed light on the kind of instruction and input enhancement that are most effective for developing learners' pragmatic competence in the English as a foreign language (EFL) context. In response to these statements, several studies have been done to find the appropriate instructional measures to promote either learners' pragmatic awareness or pragmatic production.

Further, adopting the psycholinguistic view, as "communication in the second language depends greatly on a psychological readiness to use the language" (MacIntyre, 2003: 1) and self-confidence is the pivotal factor to one's willingness to communicate, it is important for studies on second language acquisition (SLA) to investigate learners' level of confidence in producing language. Unfortunately, only a few studies aimed to explore the effects of the treatments in a way that covers all aspects of pragmatic competence—pragmatic production, awareness and confidence. One of the very few studies of this trait is Martinez-Flor's (2004) study, which examined the role of explicit and implicit instruction on learners' pragmatic production, awareness and confidence in the use of suggestions. The current study has been inspired by Martinez-Flor's work, and seeks to explore the effectiveness of teacher corrective feedback on different aspects of learners' pragmatic development, i.e. production, awareness, and confidence. The outcomes of this study should shed more light on the role of corrective feedback in teaching pragmatics and will be among the initial efforts to explore the effects of prompts on learners' pragmatic development.

1.2 Research Questions

The present study attempts to answer three research questions regarding the effectiveness of corrective feedback techniques on different aspects of learners' pragmatic competence:

1. Does learners' production of pragmatically appropriate refusals improve after receiving explicit feedback and prompts? If so, which kind of feedback is more effective?
2. Does learners' awareness of pragmatically appropriate refusals improve after receiving explicit feedback and prompts? If so, which kind of feedback is more effective?

3. Does learners' level of confidence in making pragmatically appropriate refusals improve after receiving explicit feedback and prompts? If so, which kind of feedback is more effective?

1.3 Objectives of the Study

Parallel with the research questions, this study includes three main research objectives:

1. To study the effect of explicit feedback and prompts on learners' production of pragmatically appropriate refusals
2. To study the effect of explicit feedback and prompts on learners' awareness of pragmatically appropriate refusals
3. To study the effect of explicit feedback and prompts on learners' level of confidence in making pragmatically appropriate refusals

1.4 Statements of Hypotheses

Carroll and Swain (1993) examined various types of feedback and investigated the effect of each feedback type on the student's ability to learn the *dative alternation rule in English*, or the category of noun serving as the indirect object of a verb such as *his, her, their*. The findings revealed that two types of feedback (explicit feedback and recasts) were significantly more effective than the other types in teaching the dative alternation rule. Kim and Matches (2001) replicated Carroll and Swain's study in comparing the effects of explicit and implicit feedback. The results supported those of Carroll and Swain in that no significant differences were found between the two groups.

Regarding the effects of corrective feedback on language awareness, prompts allow learners the chances for peer- and self-repair, which might benefit L2 learners in at least two ways: 1) "by providing opportunities for learners to proceduralize target language knowledge already internalized in declarative form" (Nobuyoshi & Ellis, 1993: 2) and 2) by drawing learners' attention to form during communicative interaction in ways that allow them to re-analyze and modify their non-target output as they test new hypotheses about the target language (Pica et al., 1989). Therefore, these interactional moves would arouse learners' awareness of language use, then activate their retrieval and self-monitoring process. However, no studies have so far been done

to compare the effects of explicit feedback and prompts on pragmatic awareness and learners' confidence.

In the light of these studies, three hypotheses are proposed in the present study:

Hypothesis 1: Both explicit feedback and prompts will significantly improve learners' production of pragmatically appropriate refusals.

Hypothesis 2: Both explicit feedback and prompts will significantly improve learners' awareness of pragmatically appropriate refusals.

Hypothesis 3: Both explicit feedback and prompts will significantly improve learners' level of confidence in making pragmatically appropriate refusals.

1.5 Scope of the Study

The study was restricted in the following areas:

1. The population comprises first year university students at the Faculty of Archaeology, Silpakorn University.
2. The foci of the study include two types of corrective feedback—explicit feedback and prompts.
3. The study aims to track learners' pragmatic competence after the treatments by examining students' pragmatic production, awareness, and confidence in making pragmatically appropriate refusals.
4. Only one target speech act is studied, i.e. refusals.

1.6 Definition of Key Terms

1. Corrective feedback

Corrective feedback refers to “responses to erroneous utterances provided by teachers or peers in an attempt to either point out that there is an error or to correct an error” (Choombala, 2007: 58). Corrective feedback can be provided by a number of techniques varying in the degree of explicitness (explicit or implicit feedback), timing for the feedback (immediate or delayed feedback), and the chance for learners' self-directed repair (teacher corrects the error or teacher points out the error). The types of corrective feedback that are the focus of the present study are two immediate corrective feedback techniques, namely explicit feedback and prompts.

2. Explicit feedback

In the present study, the terms *explicit feedback* and *explicit correction* were used interchangeably. Explicit feedback refers to a teacher's explicit correction of a learner's mistake by clearly indicating that what the learner has said is incorrect, e.g. '*You should say it's interesting*'. However, the operationalization of explicit feedback employed in this study includes explicit correction plus metalinguistic and/or sociopragmatic information. Metalinguistic information refers to some grammatical metalanguage that indicates the nature of the error, for example, '*told, you need past test here*'. Providing sociopragmatic information means the provision of metalanguage regarding sociopragmatics to provide a cue to the contextual inappropriateness of the utterance, e.g. '*You may use 'I wish I could' to make it more polite*'.

3. Prompts

Prompts refer to a set of four corrective feedback moves that provide a cue to the nature of learner's mistake to elicit learner's generated repair. The four prompt techniques comprise: elicitation, repetition, metalinguistic feedback and clarification requests. In the present study, prompts were operationalized to include three corrective feedback moves—elicitation, repetition, and metalinguistic feedback, which can be used either separately or in combination.

3.1 Elicitation refers to teachers' direct elicitation of correct forms from students by asking questions such as '*How do we say that in plural?*'.

3.2 Repetition means teachers' repetition of students' error by adjusting the intonation to highlight the error, e.g. "*I were told?*"

3.3 Metalinguistic clues are teachers' provision of comments or questions relating to the learner's mistake, without explicitly providing the correct form, e.g. '*Do we say 'scaring' in English?*'.

4. Delayed corrective feedback

The term delayed corrective feedback and delayed feedback in this study are used interchangeably. The delayed feedback is operationalized as the kind of corrective feedback where the teacher collects learners' major errors and provides corrective feedback by means of explicit correction at the end of each class. Thus, delayed feedback and explicit feedback in the present study are different in matter of time the feedback is delivered (immediately or delayed).

5. Pragmatic competence

Pragmatic competence includes two kinds of ability—illocutionary competence and sociolinguistic competence. The former refers to the functions or the communicative goals of the utterance, while latter is the sensitivity to the socio-cultural context of the speech. The current study operationalized the term pragmatic competence in a way that includes its measurable outcomes, namely pragmatic production, pragmatic awareness and confidence.

6. Oral pragmatic competence

Oral pragmatic competence in this study is operationalized as the ability to produce pragmatically appropriate oral refusals as measured by the oral production tests.

7. Pragmatically appropriate refusals

Pragmatically appropriate refusals in this study are defined as the use of refusal expressions correctly and appropriately according to context. A learner's pragmatically appropriate refusals were measured by a holistic scoring system assessing the quality of the four facets in each refusal: 1) speech act, 2) expression, 3) grammatical accuracy, and 4) amount of information.

8. Pragmatic production

Pragmatic production in this study refers to learners' oral refusal production in response to the situations given as measured by the pre-test, the immediate post-test and the delayed post-test.

9. Pragmatic awareness

Pragmatic awareness is operationalized as the awareness or judgment concerning the use of refusals that are conventional and contextually appropriate according to American norms. Learners' pragmatic awareness in this study was measured in two ways. First, learners' judgment of the most appropriate refusal was measured by a multiple-choice test (MCT). In the MCT, learners were required to select the refusal expression out of the three choices that best suited the situation given. The second measurement was the group discussion on the most appropriate refusal choice to the given situation. The discussion aimed to qualitatively assess the aspects of pragmatic awareness the learners consulted when completing the task.

10. Confidence

The term *confidence* in this study includes two different aspects: 1) the confidence in the quality of the refusal production a learner made in the test, and 2) a learner's self-confidence in making English refusals. To measure the first aspect of confidence, the subjects were required to listen to tape recordings of their refusal production made in the tests, and rated their level of confidence in the quality of each refusal on the five-point rating scales. The second aspect of confidence was measured by a set of interview questions.

11. High- and low-proficiency learners

The term high-proficiency (H) and low-proficiency (L) learners in the present study means the subjects' level of ability in making appropriate English refusals as measured by the oral production pre-test.

12. Uptake

Uptake refers to “a student utterance that immediately follows the teacher's feedback and that constitutes a reaction in some way to the teacher's intention to draw attention to some aspect of the student's initial utterance” (Lyster & Ranta, 1997: 49). According to Panova and Lyster (2002), uptake does not occur when the feedback is followed by either teacher- or student-initiated topic continuation. This is because the topic continuation initiated by the teacher denies student's opportunity to respond to the feedback, while student-initiated topic continuation may signify that the feedback failed to make the student acknowledge and perhaps notice its corrective purpose.

13. Repair

Repair refers to “the correct reformulation of an error as uttered in a single turn and not to the sequence of turns resulting in the correct reformulation; nor does it refer to self-initiated repair” (Lyster & Ranta, 1997: 49). Repair can occur in forms of self-directed repair or peer repair.

14. Self-directed repair

In this study, the term *self-directed repair*, *self-generated repair* and *self-repair* are used interchangeably. Self-directed repair refers to the student's self-correction in response to teacher feedback, which does not include the correct form.

15. Peer repair

Peer-repair means the correction of error made by a student different from the one who initially made the error.

1.7 Outline of the Dissertation

The dissertation “*The effects of types of corrective feedback on students’ oral pragmatic competence on the use of refusals*” comprises five chapters.

The first chapter presents the background of the study, research questions, objectives of the study, statements of hypotheses, the scope of the study and definitions of key terms.

The second chapter reviews the underlying principles regarding corrective feedback and pragmatics and previous studies on the issues.

The third chapter describes the research design and methodology, which includes the research design, population and samples, instructional interventions, research instruments, as well as data collection and analyses.

The fourth chapter presents the research findings gathered from the five research instruments. Both quantitative and qualitative findings are presented in relation to the research questions.

The last chapter starts with the summary of the study and findings. The research findings are then discussed in relation to the research hypotheses. The chapter concludes with the contributions of the study, teaching implications, study limitations and recommendations for future research.

CHAPTER II

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

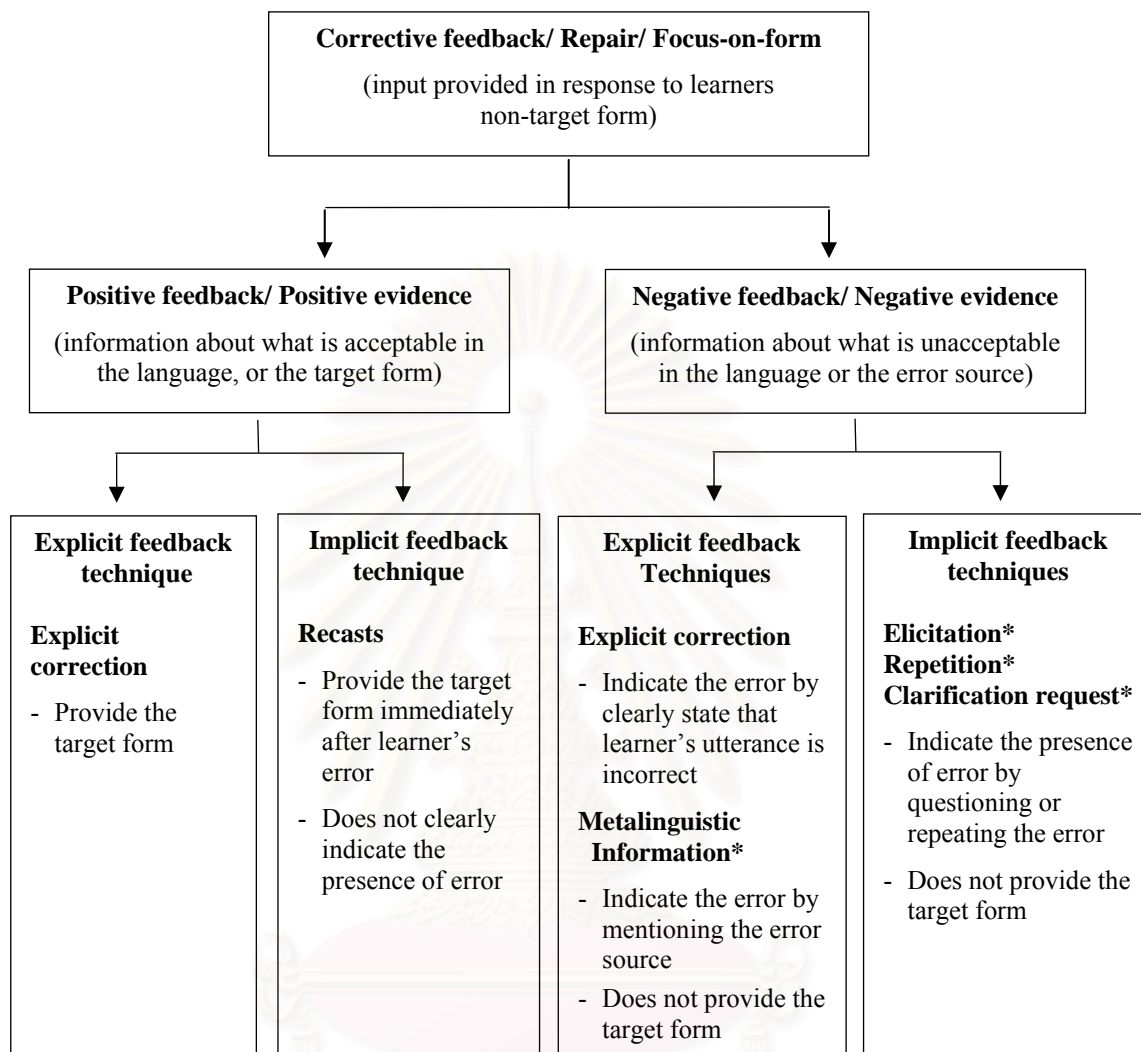
This chapter presents the different theoretical perspectives on the two key concepts, namely corrective feedback and pragmatic competence, according to the research objectives. The relevant theories on the role of corrective feedback in second language learning are presented first followed by a review and discussion on previous studies. The theoretical frameworks of pragmatic competence and research on interlanguage pragmatics are discussed in the second section.

2.1 Corrective feedback

According to Lyster and Ranta (1997), teacher's response to learners' language error have been studied and called in various ways according to different research concerns and data collection approaches. Teacher's feedback has been examined in terms of "*negative evidence* by linguists (e.g., White, 1989), as *repair* by discourse analysts (e.g., Kasper, 1985), as *negative feedback* by psycholinguists (e.g., Annett, 1969), as *corrective feedback* by second language teachers (e.g., Fanselow, 1977), and as *focus-on-form* in more recent work in classroom second language acquisition (SLA) (e.g., Lightbrown & Spada, 1990; Long, 1991)" (Lyster & Ranta, 1997: 38).

Long (1996) divided teachers' input provided after learners' non-target utterance into two types: *positive evidence* and *negative evidence*. Positive evidence refers to the provision of the target forms to model what grammatical features are acceptable, while negative evidence is the type of input that indicates, either *explicitly* or *implicitly*, that what is unacceptable in the learners' utterance. According to Suzuki (2003), corrective feedback is described as the provision of negative or positive evidence upon erroneous utterances, which encourages learners' repair involving accuracy and precision, and not merely comprehensibility. The relationship of these concepts in relation to various corrective feedback techniques is summarized in Figure 2.1.

Figure 2.1: The concepts of corrective feedback



* Metalinguistic information, elicitation, repetition and clarification request are grouped as a set of corrective feedback moves, namely prompts (Lyster, 1998; 2002; 2004).

2.1.1 Corrective feedback and its underlying principles

Over the past fifty years, the notion about the role of corrective feedback in language learning has been substantially changed. In the era of audio-lingual teaching method in 1950s to 1960s, learner errors were regarded as deficiency that should be avoided. Until the late 1970's with the introduction to communicative language learning (CLT) and Krashen's (1985) comprehensible input hypothesis, the role of form-focused instruction and corrective feedback became inferior as the focus of language learning was

on meaning and fluency, while learner errors were perceived as natural learning process which would diminish over time. Despite the CLT's great influence on L2 teaching world-wide, studies on its effectiveness steadily reported students' shortcomings of accuracy in their productive skills, which signified the insufficiency of the teaching method without any attention to forms. Swain (1985) argued that learner production of modified output is necessary for second language mastery and may result from ample opportunities for output and the provision of useful and consistent feedback from teachers and peers. Gass (1988, cited in Lyster 1998) further supported that without direct or frequent negative evidence in the input, fossilization might occur.

The Noticing Hypothesis (Schmidt, 1990)

Not until Schmidt (1990) proposed *noticing hypothesis* did the concept of corrective feedback has been widely interested. The Noticing Hypothesis emphasizes the importance to draw learners' attention to forms, and in order to do so, learners have to notice the linguistic elements presented in the surface structures. Following Schmidt (1990), consciousness is the key concept in language acquisition. In contrast to other theorists who consider that learning a language is an unconscious process (Krashen, 1985), Schmidt (1990, 1993, 2001) argued that learning requires awareness at the level of noticing, and that what learners notice in input is what becomes intake for learning. In this sense, Schmidt (1993, cited in Martinez-Flor, 2004: 94) explains that input features have to be noticed in order for them to be acquired, and he also distinguishes noticing from understanding in that;

“..whereas understanding implies recognition of a general principles, rule, or pattern...Noticing is crucially related to the question of what linguistic material is stored in memory...understanding relates to questions concerning how that material is organized into a linguistic system.”

Schmidt (2001) claimed that there is no learning without attention. Thus, awareness, noticing and attention are key aspects of his hypothesis. This hypothesis influences the concept of corrective feedback in that the effective feedback type should make learner notices the mismatches between the target- and non target form, and attracts learner's attention to the reformulation. In this sense, Lyster and Ranta (1997) and Lyster (1998a, 1998b, 2002) claimed that prompts lead to learner's noticing and then attention

more than recasts as prompts provide apparent clues to the mismatches between learner's ill-form and the target form.

2.1.2 Corrective feedback techniques

Based on Lyster's (2002) descriptive study on classroom interaction, corrective feedback moves can be classified into three main types: explicit feedback, prompts and recasts.

1) Explicit feedback

Explicit feedback or explicit correction refers to the explicit provision of the correct form. Explicit feedback includes two forms: *explicit correction* or *metalinguistic feedback*. The former refers to the teacher's response that provides the correct form while "clearly indicates that what the learners said was incorrect, e.g., 'No, not goed—went' " (Ellis, Loewen & Erlam, 2006: 341), or 'You don't say I wish I can, It's I wish I could'. Thus, this type of explicit feedback affords both positive and negative evidence (Figure 2.1). In other words, it provides both overt rejection of the mistake and the correct form. The latter, metalinguistic feedback, was defined by Lyster and Ranta (1997: 47) as "comments, information, or questions related to the well-formedness of the learner's utterance", which renders only negative evidence, for example, 'You need past tense here' or 'it's passive voice'. Thus, differing from the explicit correction, metalinguistic feedback does not provide the correct form (positive evidence) at hand, but the clue to achieve it. This type of feedback includes specific grammatical information that students can refer to when an answer is incorrect.

2) Prompts

Prompts, or *negotiation of form* as formerly named by Lyster and Ranta (1997), are a set of interactional moves teachers employed to lead students' attention to form and push them to improve accuracy of their non-target output. Prompt comprises four interactional moves varying in the degree of explicitness in making learners notice the gap between the non-target and the target language. The four techniques are;

- 1) **clarification requests:** the teacher pretends that the message has not been understood and that a repetition or a reformulation is required, e.g. "Pardon me?" and "I don't understand".

- 2) **metalinguistic clues:** the teacher provides comments or questions related to the accuracy of the student's utterance, without explicitly providing the correct form, e.g. "*Do we say 'goed' in English?*" "*No, that's not it*". As detailed in the explicit feedback session above, metalinguistic clues are relatively explicit feedback, which differs from the explicit correction technique in the provision of the target form. Thus, following Lyster's (2004), prompts include both implicit and explicit forms of feedback (Figure 2.1).
- 3) **elicitation:** the teacher directly elicits correct forms from students by asking questions such as "*How do we say that in English?*"; or by pausing to allow students to complete the teacher's utterance, e.g. "*It's not scarying. It's scar...*"; or by asking students to reformulate their utterance, e.g. "*Try again*".
- 4) **repetition:** the teacher repeats the student's erroneous utterance, adjusting the intonation to highlight the error, e.g. "*He goed?*"

According to Lyster and Mori (2006), although these four techniques, which can be used separately or in combination, represent a wide range of feedback types, they have one crucial feature in common, i.e. "they withhold correct forms as well as other signs of approval." (Lyster, 1998, cited in Lyster and Mori, 2006: 271), and instead, "offer learners an opportunity to self-repair by generating their own modified response" (Lyster and Mori, 2006: 272). The example below was adapted from Lyster (2002) to show how prompts can be used by the teacher.

Example 1

- Teacher: What were you doing when he found you?
 Student: I am playing basketball.
 Teacher: Are you playing basketball now? (metalinguistic clue)
 Student: Uh, no.
 Teacher: So how are we going to say that? (elicitation)
 Student: I played?
 Teacher: I'm playing is doing it right now. (metalinguistic clue +
 What's about doing it yesterday? elicitation)
 Student: I was playing.
 Teacher: yeah, I was playing basketball.

As can be seen from the above example, these four interactional moves are distinguished from *recasts* and *explicit correction* in that they provide learners with timely opportunities to make form-function links in the target language without interrupting the communication flow. That is, when teachers use prompts, they return the role to the students together with cues to draw on their own knowledge, thus allowing them to test their language experiment in the negotiation. In contrast, there appeared to be little to negotiate between teacher and student when teacher provides either recast or explicit feedback.

3) Recasts

Long (1996: 434) defines recasts as "utterances which rephrase... an utterance by changing one or more sentence components (subject, verb or object) while still referring to its central meanings". Mackey and Philip (1998) build on this definition by specifying that recasts (a) are a reformation of the ill formed utterance, (b) expand the utterance in some way (c) retain the central meaning of the utterance (d) follow the ill-formed utterance. Recasts are considered the most implicit way of giving feedback because it includes corrections and confirmation checks without indicating the source of the error. Thus, the ability to notice the errors or the mismatches between learners' non-target and the teacher's target form largely depends on the learners themselves. Examples of recasts are shown below.

Example 2 (a class observation, 2006, Silpakorn University)

- T: Why do they have to use the by-pass?
 St: They don't want to waste ...*waste on the road.
 T: *Waste the time on the road*, yes.

Example 3 (Lyster, 2002)

- T: Why does she want to warm up do you think? Yes?
 St: Because she *has too cold to go into all the [?]
 T: *Because she is too cold*, O.K. Yes?

Example 4 (Lyster, 2002)

- T: What do we call the baby of a hen? Nicole?
 St: Chicks.
 T: *Chicks*. That's good.

Based on claims that children frequently repeat their parents' recasts during L1 acquisition, recasts have been promoted as an effective type of feedback. Some researchers (e.g. Doughty, 2001; Long, 1996) hypothesize that recasts help learners to notice the gap between interlanguage forms and target forms, thus serving as negative evidence. Lyster (2002) also stated that recasts provide supportive *scaffolding* that helps learners participate in lessons when the target forms in question are beyond their current abilities. Besides, according to Lyster's (2002) study, recast is the ideal way to facilitate the delivery of complex subject matter in the content-based classroom.

However, some researchers (e.g. Lyster and Ranta, 1997; Lyster, 1998, 2002) argue the effectiveness of recasts in that recasts are *ambiguous* way in giving feedback. This is because they provide merely the target form to learners and leave the rest on their own to find the mismatches between their non-target and teacher's target form. Further, teachers do not recast only the learner's ill form, but also the learner's well form to approve it (e.g. in example 4). According to Lyster's (1998) study, in terms of frequency, teachers tended to recast a slightly higher proportion of ill-formed utterances in comparison to their repetitions of well-formed utterances. And this caused ambiguity to the learners as they may perceive the teacher's recasts as either *the alternative form of saying* or *the repetition of their target form*. Additionally, results from the study also showed that teachers tended to use recast accompanied with signs of approval (e.g. *yes, O.K., very good*) regardless of whether a student uttered a well or ill-formed sentence (see example 2-4 above). Lyster (1998: 76) concluded that "recasts do not allow for much negotiation to occur between teachers and young classroom learners in ways that intentionally draw students' attention to form and that productively engage students as participants in the discourse".

In conclusion, prompts, recasts, and explicit correction are different types of teacher's negative feedback provided to students' non-target forms. These three types of feedback are distinguished from each other mainly in two main aspects; 1) *the level of explicitness*; and 2) *the provision of self-reformulation*. Explicit correction and recasts supply the learners with the target reformulation of their non-target output. In the case of explicit correction, the teacher clearly indicates that what the learner said was incorrect, then supplies the explanation of the source of error. Prompts, on the other hand, include a

variety of signals that push students to self-repair while maintaining the communicative interaction. In this sense, different feedback types could have differential effects on learning as different types of repair entail varying degrees of attention. The characteristics, advantages, and limitations of the three feedback techniques claimed from previous studies are summarized in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1: Characteristics, advantages, and limitations of explicit correction, prompts, and recasts

Feedback technique	Characteristics	Advantages	Limitations
Explicit correction	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - clearly indicate the error - provide the correct form - focus on language rules, or meaning in isolation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - explain the source of error - help learners notice the error - clarify the nature of error 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - do not lead to self- or peer-repair
Prompts	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - include a variety of techniques, both explicit and implicit, that guide learners to notice the errors, then elicit self-reformulation - focus on a particular form in relation to its meaning 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - lead to self- or peer-repair - promote learners' interactional role and autonomy - provide metalinguistic cues to promote awareness and recognition - clarify the nature of error 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - may require longer class time for each error
Recasts	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - provide the correct form by repeating learner's utterance without error - focus on language rules, or meaning in isolation 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - provide fast and feasible response in real class - offer support when the target forms are beyond learner's current ability - facilitate the delivery of complex subject matter - provide the target phonological form for learners to compare and detect the difference between their non-target and the target form 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - provide no clues to the nature of error - may be obtrusive - do not lead to self- or peer-repair - may cause ambiguity

2.1.3 Studies on corrective feedback in second language acquisition

Researchers in the field may agree in the essential role of corrective feedback in language teaching, but what feedback techniques are more effective still remains in much debate. This section presents related literature on the role of corrective feedback in L2 learning in relation to its category—*observational* and *interventional studies*.

1) Observational studies

The observational studies on the role of corrective feedback in language teaching may try to answer two main questions: 1) the question of how to provide corrective feedback, and 2) the question of whether or not learners perceive teachers' corrective feedback. Regarding these two questions, a number of studies have investigated the pattern of corrective feedback and learner uptake, or "a student's utterance that immediately follows the teacher's feedback and that constitutes a reaction in some way to the teacher's intention to draw attention to some aspect of the student's initial utterance" (Lyster and Ranta, 1997: 49).

Studies on the patterns of corrective feedback and learners' uptake

Lyster and Ranta (1997) developed an analytic model comprising various interactional moves: *errors* (phonological, grammatical and lexical), *corrective feedback* (recasts, explicit correction, elicitation, clarification request, repetition of error, and metalinguistic clues), and *learner uptake* (self- or peer-repair and needs-repair) to investigate the relationship between error types and kinds of feedback, and learner uptake in primary French immersion classroom. The findings showed that while recasts took part in over half of the total numbers of teachers' feedback turns, they were the least likely to lead to successful learner uptake. Explicit correction led to uptake 50% of the time and most uptakes were in the repair category. The most successful type of feedback leading to students' repair was elicitation (100%), followed by clarification requests, metalinguistic feedback and repetition (88%, 86%, and 78% respectively). In the light of the findings, the researchers grouped these four feedback techniques under the term *negotiation of form*, which was later renamed as *prompts*.

Although the researchers cautioned that uptake is not necessarily indicative of learning, and learning may take place without uptake (Mackey and Philp, 1998), there

have been a number of studies aiming to find what type of corrective feedback leading to uptake, especially learner repair, as there is likely a link between learner uptake and repair and the grammatical development. For this reason, Lyster and Ranta's (1997) study is significant in that "it offered a systematic picture of patterns of interactional moves between teachers and students, ...their analytical models facilitate further examination of the interaction sequences expected to occur between teachers and students" (Suzuki, 2003: 2). The follow-up studies using these analytic models to find the relationship between feedback types, learner uptake and repairs are such as Lyster (1998b), Panava and Lyster (2002), and Lyster and Mori (2006).

Lyster (1998b) investigated three feedback types, namely negotiation of form (prompts), recasts, and explicit correction, in relation to error types and learner repair in immersion classrooms. A total of 18.3 hours of classroom interaction in various subjects was transcribed and analyzed. Results revealed the pattern that lexical errors interacted more with prompts, while grammatical and phonological preferred recasts. It was also found that, overall, prompts were the most effective feedback moves leading to learners' immediate repairs on lexical and grammatical errors, whereas recasts resulted in the greatest repairs on phonological errors.

To replicate the first two studies with different group of learners, Panova and Lyster (2002) examined the patterns of corrective feedback in relation to learner uptake and immediate repair of error in an adult ESL classroom. While this study and that of Lyster (1998b) and Lyster and Ranta (1997) differ in terms of target population, one similarity is the meaning-oriented nature of the classrooms. Both of Lyster's studies were done with young learners in immersion classrooms where the focus was on meaning. Similarly, the instructional setting of this study was entirely communicative, with little attention has been paid to forms. The results from ten hours of transcribed interaction were parallel with Lyster and Ranta's (1997) study in that teachers showed a clear preference of two implicit feedback techniques—recasts and translation. As explained by the researchers, one possible reason was that the learners' low-proficiency may not allow teachers to use other feedback type that requires learners' greater participatory role in negotiating form. However, although these two feedback types were extensively used,

students' uptake and self-repair after these techniques was lower than students' response to prompts.

The finding that prompts lead to more successful L2 improvement than recasts was supported by the previous study of Havranek (1999, cited in Nicholas, Lightbrown, and Spada, 2001; Ammar and Spada, 2006). The researcher conducted a large-scale EFL classroom study in Austria to study the patterns and effects of different feedback types. The measurement of the effectiveness of feedback in this study included both learner recall of the corrective feedback and their performance on the target form test. Results revealed that while recasts plus repetition led to higher rates of learners' recall, they were less successful in leading to language development than elicitation. Simple recasts were found to be the least recalled and the least successful in leading any language improvement. The researcher concluded that recasts were less likely to benefit L2 accuracy than the type of feedback that was more explicitly focus on form.

Loewen and Philp (2006) studied the patterns and the effectiveness of recasts in meaning-focused interaction in twelve adult ESL classrooms. The focus of study included recasts, elicitation, metalinguistic feedback, and learners' response to the feedback. The research findings were in line with Havranek's findings in that elicitation was found to lead to the greater degree of both learners' successful uptake and improvement in accuracy than recasts. However, the differences found did not reach the statistic significance in both immediate and delayed-post-test. Despite the results that elicitation was beneficial 75% of its all turns, the researchers concluded the findings by summarizing that recasts were found to be widely used and benefited at least 50% of the time. They also summarized the characteristics of the more effective recasts in that the degree of implicitness of recasts varies from its characteristics and its saliency essentially affects its effectiveness. As interpreted by the researchers, recasts will be more explicit when incorporating phrasal prosodic and discoursal cues. In addition, the degree of differences between the recast and the learner's non-target utterance also affects the effectiveness of recasts.

Studies focusing on the patterns of recasts

Lyster and Mori (2006) conducted a comparative study to investigate the effects of explicit correction, recasts, and prompts on learner uptake and repair. The study aimed to compare these interactional features between French immersion classroom in Canada

and Japanese immersion classroom in USA. The findings are in line with Panova and Lyster (2002) in that recasts were found to be the most dominant type of feedback, regardless of instructional setting. However, the relationship between learner uptake and repair varied in relation to feedback type. The largest proportion of repair resulted from prompts in French immersion class, but from recasts in Japanese immersion classroom.

The result that recasts was the most frequent feedback type is also reported in Sheen's (2004) study. The study examined the patterns of corrective feedback and learner uptake across four instructional settings—French immersion, Canadian ESL, New Zealand ESL and Korean EFL classroom. The findings indicated that recasts were the most predominant feedback type in all four settings. However, both the frequency rate and the rates for uptake and repair following recasts were much greater in Korean EFL and New Zealand ESL classrooms than in Canadian immersion and ESL classrooms. From the findings, the author suggested that recasts would lead to greater uptake and repair when recasts are more salient, as reduced or partial recasts, and when they are used in form-focused rather than in meaning-focused lessons.

Ohta (2000) conducted a small scale study to investigate the way learners respond to recasts in Japanese as a foreign language classroom. Seven undergraduate students participated in this study. The subjects' Japanese classes for the entire academic year were audio and video recorded three to five times per quarter. Each subject was asked to have an individual microphone clipped to the learner's collar to record their oral responses to recasts, which was called "private speech". Results from the 34-hour classroom interaction revealed that recasts was the effective feedback technique as they were salient and were noticed by the learners.

Despite the researcher effort in creating an alternative measurement of the corrective feedback effects, one may argue the validity and reliability of these private speech data as the subjects were made aware of the feedback and their responses by having the microphone clipped to them. Further, as explained by Nicholas et al. (2001), the nature of Ohta's classrooms was completely form-focused, which may increase the level of saliency to recasts. Therefore, the nature and condition of recasts provided in this study would not be comparable to the recasts in meaning-based classrooms examined by Lyster and Ranta (1997) and Lyster (1998a, 1998b).

The objective to examine learners' perception of corrective feedback has been replicated by the work of Mackey, Gass, and McDonough (2000). The researchers investigated 17 beginners and low-intermediate second language learners to see the extent to which learners can identify the point of corrective feedback given to their linguistic errors. Each subject was videotaped their communication task with an interviewer who provided corrective feedback to their errors regarding morphosyntax, phonology, lexis and semantics. Then the subjects were asked to watch the video tape and explained what was happening when each feedback move was given. The results showed that the learners more accurately perceived the corrective feedback regarding phonological and lexical errors (60% and 80% of the feedback turns respectively). However, when it turned to morphosyntactic errors, most of the turns (87%), the learners did not notice the feedback provided to them.

From these primary results, the researchers furthered their study by examining the feedback types in relation to learners' error types. They found that recasts were mostly provided in response to morphosyntactic errors (75%), while negotiation of form (prompts) was invited more for phonological errors. As explained by the researchers, negotiation of form requires more learner involvement to correct their non-target utterances and thus enhances learners' attention on forms, while recasts are less demanding for the learners as it already provides the target forms. However, recasts may be ambiguous as learners may not perceive them as corrective feedback, but the alternatives way to say the same thing.

In light of these findings, the researchers concluded that there was a relationship between learner error types and feedback types, also the relationship between learners' perception and feedback types. Findings from several observational studies consistently reported that recasts were the most frequent type of feedback, regardless instructional settings, while others contrastingly reported different degrees of recasts and other feedback types in relation to learner uptake and repairs. Therefore, the extents to which recasts, explicit correction, and prompts can lead to learner uptake and repairs, as well as the degree to which uptake can predict noticing in language learning still remain in much debate. The need of interventional studies aiming to investigate the more precise effects of feedback techniques is, therefore, emphasized.

2) Interventional studies

There has been a growing interest in research on the effects of particular type of feedback on L2 development. According to Ayoun (2001), most traditional studies have focused on explicit correction, whereas more recent studies have been investigating the effectiveness of implicit feedback like recasts. Comparatively most recent are the studies on prompts, a combination of four feedback techniques which some of them are explicit and some are relatively implicit. Table 2.2 summarizes a number of studies that have compared the effects of different types of corrective feedback. These interventional studies may be divided into three main categories—classroom-based, laboratory-based, and computer-based studies—depending on the nature of the treatment settings.

Table 2.2: Studies comparing the effects of different types of corrective feedback

Study	Target features	Design	Results
Classroom studies			
DeKeyser (1993)	variety of grammatical features	extensive explicit feedback/ limited explicit feedback	No significant effects of CF reported. CF made significantly interacted with learners' characteristics.
Kubota (1994)	English dative alternation	1) metalinguistic information/ 2) explicit rejection/ 3) recasts/ 4) questions/ 5) control group	Explicit correction and recast group significantly outperformed other groups.
Doughty and Varela (1998)	English past tense	corrective recasts/ control group	Recasts essentially facilitated the learning of past-tense.
Muranoi (2000)	English articles	1) form-focused interaction enhancement (IEF)/ 2) meaning-focused interaction enhancement (IEM) 3) Non-enhanced interaction	Interaction enhancement promoted L2 learning by IEF was more effective than IEM.
Fukuya and Zhang (2002)	speech act of request	recasts / control group	Instructed group outperformed the control group.
Lyster (2004)	French grammatical gender	form-focused instruction (FFI) + recasts/ FFI + prompts/ FFI + no feedback	FFI was more effective when combined with prompts than with recasts.

Study	Target features	Design	Results
Koike and Pearson (2005)	speech act of suggestion	1) explicit pre-instruction + explicit feedback/ 2) explicit pre-instruction + implicit feedback/ 3) implicit pre-instruction + explicit feedback/ 4) implicit pre-instruction + implicit feedback 5) control group	Explicit instruction + explicit feedback group performed better in multiple choice tests. Implicit instruction + implicit feedback group outperformed in open-ended tasks.
Ammar and Spada (2006)	Possessive determiners	recasts/ prompts	Prompts were more effective than recasts, especially for low-proficiency learners.
Ellis, Loewen, and Erlam (2006)	past tense -ed	recasts/ explicit corrective feedback	Explicit feedback group significantly outperformed recast group in both explicit- and implicit-knowledge task.
Laboratory studies			
Carroll and Swain (1993)	English dative alternation rule	1) metalinguistic information/ 2) explicit rejection/ 3) recasts/ 4) questions/ 5) control group	Metalinguistic information significantly outperformed other groups.
Long, Inagaki, and Ortega (1998)	Adjective ordering + locative construction	1) recasts/ 2) models/ 3) zero feedback	No significant differences were found between all groups.
Mackey and Philp (1998)	English questions	intensive recasts/ control group	There were positive effects of recasts, particularly for high-proficiency learners.
Leeman (2003)	Spanish noun-adjective agreement	1) recasts/ 2)negative evidence/ 3)enhanced salience/ 4) control group	Recasts and enhanced salience were the most effective techniques.
Computer-based studies			
Ayoun (2001)	French past tense	1) recasts/ 2) models/ 3) positive evidence + negative feedback	Recasts and models group performed significantly better than the third group.
Sanz and Morgan-Short (2004)	Spanish direct object pronouns	1) explanation + explicit feedback 2) only explicit feedback 3) only explanation 4) no explicit information	No significant differences were found between groups.

Studies focusing on the effects of explicit feedback

DeKeyser (1993) conducted a one-school year study to investigate the effects of explicit correction on students' improvement on grammar use. The researcher also collected data on learners' language learning aptitude, motivation, and class anxiety. The subject belonged to two classes—extensive explicit feedback and limited explicit feedback. The two groups were taught by different teachers. One teacher was asked to provide explicit correction as much as possible, while the other was asked to avoid error correction as much as possible. During the treatment, there were no target linguistic forms in giving correction. The post tests were designed to measure the learners' improvement on several grammatical issues had been taught during the period of study. Results from the post-test did not show a clear positive effect of corrective feedback, but did reveal the interaction between error correction and some learner variables. The findings revealed that after receiving corrective feedback, learners with high pre-test score, and those with low anxiety benefited more in writing tests. Learners with low extrinsic motivation performed better in oral tests after the treatment, while learners with high extrinsic motivation performed better without the corrective feedback. Although the study failed to control linguistic variables in giving and measuring the effectiveness of corrective feedback, according to Suzuki (2003), DeKeyser's study is noteworthy as it sheds light on the fact that the effectiveness of corrective feedback may interact with learners' characteristics.

Carroll and Swain (1993) studied the effectiveness of different corrective feedback types on learners' acquisition of dative alternation rule in English. The experiment included four experimental groups and one control group. The four experimental groups comprised the group that received: 1) explicit feedback in the form of explicit rejection plus metalinguistic explanation, 2) only explicit rejection, 3) implicit correction in form of recasts, and 4) questions that the subjects were asked if they were sure about the answers when they made mistakes. The treatment included a grammar-based activity comprising guessing items (no feedback provided) followed by feedback items. Results from the two recall sessions—immediate and one-week delay recall—showed that the explicit metalinguistic feedback group performed significantly better than other experimental groups except the recasts group in the immediate recall. However, by the time of the delayed recall, the explicit feedback group significantly outperformed all other groups.

Carroll and Swain's study was replicated by Kubota (1994) aiming to investigate the effectiveness of different corrective feedback techniques on Japanese students' acquisition of English dative alternation *to* and *for*. The experiment included four experimental groups and one comparison group. The four experimental groups received the same treatment conditions as employed in Carroll and Swain (1993), i.e. metalinguistic information, explicit rejection, recasts and questions. Results showed that all experimental groups performed significantly better in the post-tests by the explicit feedback group and the recasts group outperformed other groups. No significant difference was found between the explicit feedback and the recasts group. However, all experimental groups dropped their scores in the one-month delayed post test. The researcher concluded that explicit correction and recasts are the most effective feedback techniques. However, the findings of this study should be interpreted with cautions due to the design limitations, mainly on the great task effects and the very short period of treatment, i.e. the feedback was provided during a practice of 10-item test.

A computer-delivered explicit feedback study was done by Sanz and Morgan-Short (2004). They conducted an experimental study to investigate the effects of computer-delivered explicit explanation and negative feedback on the acquisition of Spanish word order. The study compared the outcomes of the four treatment conditions, i.e. +/- Explanation (positive evidence) and +/- Explicit Feedback (negative feedback), which each group interacted with a different computer lesson. Results revealed that no significant difference was found between the four conditions as all groups significantly performed better in the post-tests. The researchers suggested the implication that explicit information may not necessarily facilitate second language acquisition and that exposing learners to task-essential practice is sufficient to promote acquisition.

Studies focusing on the effects of recasts

The role of recasts in L2 has been explored more in several studies which most of them were done in laboratory settings. Long, Inagaki, and Ortega (1998) conducted a laboratory study to compare the effects of recasts and models on Japanese adjective ordering and locative construction. Participants were divided into two recasts groups, two models groups, and one comparison group. While the comparison group practice writing, the treatments were provided to the experimental groups through communicative games

by the recasts group received recasts whenever they made errors. The model groups wore headphones and listened to the model sentences which they were required to repeat so that the researcher could respond by performing action. Analysis of the scores on the pre- and the post-test showed no significant difference between the treatment groups and the control group. Also, the recasts group did not perform significantly better than the model group. The researchers explained that the absence of the significant differences between the groups was due to the subjects' prior knowledge of the target structure.

Therefore, using the same pattern, a follow-up study was done to prove the effectiveness of recasts. In this study the subjects were Spanish learners who had no prior knowledge of the target forms—object topicalization and adverb placement. Results from the pre- and post-test revealed that, in adverb placement test, both recasts and models group significantly outperformed the control group, by recasts did better than models group. However, no difference between any groups was found in the object topicalization test. As interpreted by Long et al. (1998), the inconsistent findings may result from the different degrees of difficulty to acquire the two target forms. Another possible factor explained by the researchers was the design effects in that when the models group repeated the NS's models, they were drawn attention to forms, plus the output opportunities, which benefited their acquisition of forms.

Mackey and Philp (1998) examined the effects of intensive recasts in learning English questions and the characteristics of learners' response to recasts. The design included two experimental groups in which both groups received interactional modified input, but only one group received intensive recasts. The responses to recasts in this study were classified into four types—continue, repeat, modify, and others. After one week treatment, results from the post-tests revealed positive effects of recasts in the production of English questions. Learners with higher developmental levels benefited more from recasts, while the less advanced learners performed similarly, regardless the provision of recasts. Regarding learners' responses to recasts, they found that although the subjects improved their performance in English questions, they rarely modified or corrected their original utterances after recasts. This led to their conclusion in that the absence of uptake does not indicate the lack of learning.

An important implication of this finding is the necessity to take into account the learners' proficiency level when provide corrective feedback. As interpreted by Nicholas, Lightbrown, and Spada (2001: 746), "learners were able to perceive the corrective nature of recast only when they had reached a stage of "developmental readiness", which is consistent with Farrar's (1990) findings in L1 research".

In the only classroom studies on recasts, Doughty and Varela (1998) investigated the effects of corrective recasting on the learning of English past-tense. The study comprised a corrective recasts group and a control group. Results showed that the subjects in the corrective recasts group significantly outperformed the control group who did not receive systematic feedback. According to Nicholas, Lightbrown, and Spada (2001), Doughty and Varela's operational definition of corrective recasts included two phases: 1) repetition of learners' utterance to draw their attention to the error, and then 2) recasts of the target form. This definition was significantly different from the definition of recasts in other studies (Lyster and Ranta, 1997; Lyster, 1998a, 1998b; Long, Inagaki, and Ortega, 1998; Lyster, 2004) as corrective recasts in this study were actually the combination of recasts and another feedback move, namely repetition. And this extra component of recasts may result in the contrasting findings of this study from those of Lyster (1998a, 1998b) and Long, Inagaki, and Ortega (1998). In fact, the similarity of definition and findings of Doughty and Varela's "corrective recasts" and Havranek's (1999) "recasts and repetition" in turn support the benefit of prompts as repetition of learners' error with intonation and emphasis helped increase the saliency of recasts thereby directed learners' attention to form.

The effort to prove the advantages of recasts still continue in Ayoun's (2001) study. A laboratory study was conducted to compare the effectiveness of written recasts, pre-emptive positive evidence (models), and explicit positive evidence plus negative feedback (traditional grammar instruction) on the second language acquisition of two past tenses in French. The whole treatment process was done through computer-based teaching. The written recasts and the models groups were exposed to story-reading activities, while the last group was taught in traditional grammar lessons. The research design comprised a pretest, repeated exposure, and posttest. Results from post test showed that the written recasts group performed significantly better than the traditional grammar

group but not than the models group. The researcher claimed that the findings partially supported the hypothesis that recast is the most effective feedback technique.

As cautioned by the researcher, this study contained a great drawback in research design in that, regardless the subject's particular output, the computer program did provide the same feedback (the correct answer) to the recasts group. If the subject's output was correct, the written recasts served as positive feedback, but if the output was incorrect, it then performed as negative feedback. Further, the grammar group also received the same written recasts in repeated exposure step. These overlapping conditions made it difficult to claim the precise effects of written recasts in this study.

Muranoi (2000) conducted a quasi-experimental study to compare the effects of two types of interaction enhancement (IE) with a contrast treatment (non-enhanced interaction). The target form was English articles. The two IE treatments were: 1) form-focused feedback in the form of requests for repetition and recasts, and 2) meaning-focused feedback. The instructional intervention comprised mainly role play activities in which the subjects interacted with the instructor. Progress from the experimental groups was compared with that of the contrasting treatment. Analysis from the pre-test and the two post-tests supported the effectiveness of IE by form-focused feedback was found to be more effective than meaning-focused feedback. Although this study did not reveal clear advantages of any feedback techniques as the type of feedback used was the combination of recasts and request for repetition, it did confirm the effective role of form-focused feedback. The implications of this study supported the needs of focus-on-form in communicative classroom in that L2 interaction in which form-focused instruction is integrated into meaning-oriented communicative tasks facilitates L2 learning.

Following Ellis, Loewen, and Erlam (2006), the studies on corrective feedback have been substantially different in operationalizing implicit and explicit feedback. Further, the measurements employed to assess the effects of the feedback types have been biased towards explicit feedback as they were designed to measure merely explicit knowledge, not implicit knowledge which may interact more with implicit feedback. Therefore, they conducted a study to compare the effectiveness of explicit and implicit feedback by operationalizing explicit correction as metalinguistic information and implicit feedback as partial recasts. The experiment comprising two experimental groups and one

control group focused on the use of past tense –ed. The pre-, post-, and delayed post-test comprised an oral elicited imitation test, a grammaticality judgment test, and a test of metalinguistic knowledge. The three tests were explained by the researchers as to measure both explicit and implicit knowledge after the treatment. Results from the tests showed a clear advantage of explicit feedback over recasts for both oral and grammar post tests, and its benefits even became more evident at the time of the delayed post test. The researchers indicated that metalinguistic explanation benefited both implicit and explicit knowledge, and also denoted the importance of including measures on both types of knowledge in experimental studies.

Among the different operationalization of feedback types in other studies, this study is unique in terms of its precise definitions which define both feedback types in the way that would maximize its effectiveness. Also, the measurement on both implicit and explicit knowledge would represent a clearer relationship between the feedback type and each aspect of language learning. However, the results from this study may be interpreted with cautions due to the limitations in research design. The main limitations are the extremely short period of time for the treatments (totaling 1 hour) and the insufficient test items that would affect the test reliability.

Studies focusing on the effects of prompts

Owing to the questionable effects of recasts as reported in many studies, some researchers aim to explore more the findings from Lyster and Ranta (1997) that a group of feedback moves named *negotiation of form* or *prompts* may be the solution. Lyster (2004) conducted a quasi-experimental classroom study to investigate the effects of form-focused instruction (FFI) when combined with a particular kind of feedback on immersion students' acquisition of French grammatical gender. The experiment comprised a FFI-prompts, a FFI-recasts, a FFI only, and a comparison group which receive neither FFI nor feedback. The pre-, post-, and delayed post-tests included two written and two oral production tasks. Results from the tests revealed the clear advantage of FFI, especially in the written tasks and in a lesser degree in the oral tasks. It was also found that students in the FFI-prompts group significantly outperformed the other groups in the writing tests, while the three treatment groups performed similarly in the speaking tests. However, when considering the overall scores, FFI-prompts was the only group that significantly

outperformed the comparison group. From the findings the researcher concluded that FFI is more effective when combined with prompts than with recasts. Also, as explained by the researcher, the marginal performance on the oral tests among the three experimental groups is likely to result from a large task effect which involved prompts in one-on-one oral interaction with the interviewer. Thus, while the task effect makes it difficult to see the clear effects of each feedback type, it in turns provided support for the effectiveness of prompts.

The finding that prompts is more effective than recasts in form-focused instruction was supported by the study of Ammar and Spada (2006). The quasi-experimental study was conducted in Canadian ESL classrooms to investigate the effects of prompts, or elicitation technique in particular, and recasts in relation to learners' proficiency levels. The instructional intervention spread over a period of four weeks focusing on third person possessive determiners—his and her. Analysis from the pre-, post-, and 4-week delayed post-test indicated that, overall, elicitation was more effective than recasts, and the benefits showed itself clearer in written than in the oral tasks. However, when analyzed in relation with different proficiency levels of the learners, prompts were found to be more effective than recasts for the low-proficiency group, while elicitation and recasts were equally effective for the high-proficiency learners. The researcher indicated that two potential factors for the superior effectiveness of elicitation, as a technique in prompts, are the explicitness and the opportunities for self-reformulation it provided. However, when comparing to explicit correction, especially when it includes metalinguistic information, prompts differ from explicit correction by means of the multiple opportunities for self-repair. Thus, the present study aims to examine the extent to which the increase of chances to do self-repair affects learners' language development.

Nonetheless, according to Chaudron, 1977, a technique in prompts, namely clarification requests can be ambiguous as they may be perceived as the request for meaning clarification rather than for correct form. Further, this technique was also reported as the least successful negotiation-of-form technique in leading to learners' repair according to Lyster and Ranta's (1997) findings. Therefore, adopting the previous studies view in selecting only some prompts techniques to explore, *clarification requests* are not included in the operationalization of prompts in the present study.

2.1.4 Studies on corrective feedback in interlanguage pragmatics

While repeated studies have been done to examine the effects of corrective feedback on L2 grammatical development, the studies on the role of feedback regarding pragmatics seems to be neglected. Several studies on teaching pragmatics investigated the effects of explicit and implicit teaching by including corrective feedback as a part of the instructional methods (e.g. House, 1996; Rose and Ng, 2001; Takahashi, 2001; Tateyama, 2001). However, only a few studies have been done to explore learners' acquisition of pragmatic competence in relation to the corrective feedback alone.

Fukuya and Zhang (2002) examined the effects of implicit feedback, i.e. pragmalinguistic recasts, on EFL learners' requests production and confidence when making English requests. Fourteen role plays were carried out during seven 50-minute sessions on seven consecutive days. Results from the discourse completion post-test showed that the treatment group outperformed the control group in their use of target request forms. However, both groups' response to the rating scale demonstrated that recasts did not influence learners' confidence in making requests. Instead, the learners' confidence might have been improved due to the interaction effect of role plays they performed. The repeated chances in performing role plays helped them build up their confidence when interacting with teachers and peers. However, the instructional intervention design that comprised merely students role-play and the researchers' recasts may yield the interruption of the communication flow. This is because the recasts employed in this study considerably vary in length depending on learners' types of error—*inaccurate* or *inappropriate*. Some recasts regarding learners' inappropriate request forms were the replacement of the whole original utterance.

The effects of recasts in pragmatic development was re-examined in Koike and Pearson's (2005) study. However, the operational definition of recasts in this study was different from that of Fukuya and Zhang. Koike and Pearson examined the effectiveness of explicit or implicit pre-instruction, and explicit or implicit feedback on teaching Spanish speech act of suggestions. In this study, explicit feedback was operationalized as "question recasts", while implicit feedback was simply the statement showing that the teacher did not understand (e.g. What was that?).

The study compared the effects of four instructional conditions and one control group. The four instructional conditions involved: 1) explicit pre-instruction and explicit feedback, 2) explicit pre-instruction and implicit feedback, 3) implicit pre-instruction and explicit feedback, and 4) implicit pre-instruction and implicit feedback. All four experiment groups saw three sample dialogues and listened to the instructor reading them before complete the tasks. The tests comprised a multiple choice test and an open-ended writing task. Results from the post-test and the delayed-post test indicated that the group of explicit pre-instruction and explicit feedback performed significantly better than other groups in multiple choice items, while the group with implicit pre-instruction and implicit feedback significantly outperformed the others in the open-ended dialogue tasks. The researchers explained the findings in that explicit and implicit instruction and feedback may perform different roles in helping learners develop pragmatic competence. Explicit instruction and feedback, especially in the form of question recasts, effectively helped learners read, interpret, and then understand the use of the target speech act, while implicit instruction and feedback may help them produce appropriate pragmatic utterances.

However, as cautioned by the researchers that the findings should be interpreted together with some design limitations regarding the short period of the treatment (60 minutes), the insufficient practice for the learners, and the lack of reliability measurement between the post-test and the pre- and delayed post test, which impedes the valid claims of the research results. Furthermore, one may argue the operationalization of explicit feedback in this study. Explicit feedback was defined as *question recasts* that teachers provided the correct answer after the learners' non-target utterances, and also made some comment why such answer was the most appropriate. This definition of question recasts was likely to be the combination of two feedback techniques, namely recasts and metalinguistic information, and thus cannot represent the precise effects of recasts.

Among the small number of studies in the role of feedback in teaching pragmatics, the findings agree in the lack of teacher's attention in giving appropriate feedback to facilitate learners' pragmatic development (Martinez-Flor, 2004). According to Washburn (2001), explicit feedback on pragmatic language in conversational interaction is usually inexistent or, if given, rarely direct, especially among adults. This finding makes L2 pragmatics learning especially difficult for learners since they are not made aware of their

pragmalinguistic or sociopragmatic failures. Alcon and Codina (2002, cited in Martinez, 2004) also pointed out a lack of appropriate feedback on the part of the teacher and suggested the need in studying the effect of direct and indirect feedback on learners' pragmatic development.

2.1.5 Discussion on the studies on corrective feedback

In the light of the literature reviewed above, a large number of studies have been done to examine the effectiveness of different types of feedback. The studies that support the advantage of explicit feedback are such as Carroll and Swain (1993); Ellis, Loewen, and Erlam (2006). Recasts have been studied by a large number of studies which have showed the mixed results (e.g. Long, Inagaki, and Ortega, 1998; Lyster, 1998a, 1998b, Ayoun, 2001; Loewen and Philp, 2006; Ammar and Spada, 2006). Several studies claimed the effectiveness of recasts over other feedback types (e.g. Long, Inagaki, and Ortega, 1998; Ayoun, 2001, Loewen and Philp, 2006) because recasts are implicit, unobtrusive, and contingent in learners' intended meaning. Further, recasts provide supportive role in scaffolding learners when the target forms are beyond their current abilities (Lyster, 2002).

However, some researchers (e.g. Lyster and Ranta, 1997; Lyster, 1998a, 1998b, 2002) argue the effectiveness of recasts in that recasts are *ambiguous* way in giving feedback. This is because recasts provide merely the target form to learners, thus it depends on the learners themselves whether or not they can find the mismatches between their non-target and teacher's target form. Further, according to Lyster's (1998) study, teachers tended to recast both ill- and well-formed utterances in a close percentage, which caused ambiguity to the learners as they may perceive the teacher's recasts as either the alternative form of saying or the repetition of their target form. Lyster (1998: 76) concluded that "recasts do not allow for much negotiation to occur between teachers and young classroom learners in ways that intentionally draw students' attention to form and that productively engage students as participants in the discourse". Due to the limitations of recasts, a number of studies advocated prompts, which are the combination of implicit and explicit feedback moves (e.g. Lyster, 2004, Lyster and Mori, 2006, Ammar and Spada, 2006). As explained by the researchers, the superior effects of prompts mainly resulted from its explicitness and the provision of learners' self-reformulation.

This inconclusive role of each corrective feedback type resulted from the incomparable research findings due to a number of reasons. First, the difference in the nature of the study—the results from experimental study would not be comparable to those from observational study conducted in natural classrooms. In addition, within the experimental study itself, the design varies according to whether or not it involves laboratory, classroom, or computer-based interaction (Ellis, Loewen, and Erlam, 2006). Further, sometimes this boundary became unclear when the studies were conducted in classroom setting, but the variables that shape the classroom reality were precisely controlled. This is because when the nature of classroom was greatly manipulated, particularly when the length of treatment was very short, it is difficult to differentiate such classroom studies from the laboratory studies.

Second, in the real classroom-based studies, the nature of classroom and learning activities also influence the role of corrective feedback. For example, grammar-based activities increase the degree of saliency in recasts (Nicholas et al., 2001), which makes the recasts in form-focused instruction (Kubota, 1994; Doughty and Varela, 1998; Ohta, 2000) and meaning-focused classroom (Lyster and Ranta, 1997; Lyster, 1998a, 1998b; Lyster and Panova, 2002) beyond compare.

Third, as supported by Ellis, Loewen, and Erlam (2006), the operationalization of implicit and explicit feedback varies considerably in different studies. Sanz (2003) and Koike and Pearson (2005) interpreted implicit feedback as “requests for repetition” (e.g. Can you say it again?) and simply question to inform incomprehensibility (e.g. What was that?) respectively, whereas the majority of studies operationalized implicit feedback as recasts (Carroll and Swain, 1993; Leeman, 2003; Lyster, 2004). However, recasts in some studies were also different from the others; for example, recasts in Doughty and Varela’s (1998) study actually comprised a combination of two feedback techniques, namely repetition and recasts (Lyster, 1998a; Nicholas et al., 2001). In Muranoi (2000), recasts comprised both recasts and requests for repetition.

Explicit feedback has also operationalized in different ways. Explicit feedback may be defined as the simply indicating that a mistake existed in the utterance (Carroll and Swain, 1993; Kubota, 1994, Group B) or the problem indicating with metalinguistic information (Kubota, 1994, Group A; Koike and Pearson, 2005; Ellis, Loewen, and Erlam,

2006). Koike and Pearson (2005) differentiated the operational definition of explicit feedback by defining in form of question recasts, a combination of recasts and metalinguistic information. These various ways of operationalizing makes it difficult to conclude the effects of explicit and implicit feedback.

Fourth, as supported by Ellis, Loewen, and Erlam (2006), the studies vary in the way they designed of the instructional treatments and measurements. Some studies involved controlled mechanical exercises and tests (e.g. Carroll and Swain, 1993; Kubota, 1994), others employed communicative activities (e.g. Fukuya and Zhang, 2002; Mackey and Philp, 1998; Long, Inagaki, and Ortega, 1998; Muranoi, 2000), or some studies may include both to measure different skills (Lyster, 2004; Ammar and Spada, 2006). Moreover, the effectiveness of feedback may also vary depending on the degree of saliency of the target structure. Some studies may find different effects of the same feedback type when applied to different target forms (e.g. Long, Inagaki, and Ortega, 1998).

Last but not least, the validity and reliability of the research design is at the heart of the extent to which any conclusion can be drawn from the findings. The studies are significantly different in their length of treatment, number of subjects, tests reliability, and the control of external factors. For example, the studies that involved one hour treatment with a small size of subjects would apparently sound odd compared to those have been done in intact class for the whole semester long. The design of the control group was another problematic issue as most of the previous experimental studies on corrective feedback manipulated the control group in the way that they did not receive any corrective feedback or even the chance to practice. By some means or other, this design biased the research findings as the treatment group(s) would apparently outperform the control group, who received no treatment and thus might not be a valid representative of the base line. Further, it would constrain the research ethics if the study was done in actual classroom where teacher's feedback is an essential part in learners' input.

The questions of how effective feedback should be provided, and the extent to which each type of corrective feedback affects L2 learning, especially pragmatic development, are still inconclusive. A comparatively small number of studies on prompts

and a smaller proportion of classroom-based studies on recasts have been done so far. More empirical findings are needed to explore in order to support any conclusions.

2.2 Pragmatic competence

2.2.1 The Concepts of pragmatic competence

Crystal (1997: 301) defined pragmatics as “the study of language from the point of view of users, especially of the choices they make, the constraints they encounter in using language in social interaction and the effects their use of language has on other participants in the act of communication.” In other words, pragmatics is the study of the relationships between linguistic forms and the users in their sociocultural context.

Leech (1983) and Thomas (1983) proposed to subdivide pragmatics in two components, namely *pragmalinguistics* and *sociopragmatics*. General pragmatics is “the study of linguistic communication in terms of conversational principles”, while “pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics belong to more specific local conditions of language use” (Leech, 1983, cited in Martinez-Flor, 2004: 21). *Pragmalinguistics* refers to the grammatical side of pragmatics which includes a number of resources to achieve particular communicative acts. Such resources include pragmatic strategies, e.g. direct and indirectness, pragmatic routines, and a large range of linguistic forms which can modify, intensify, or soften the communicative acts. *Sociopragmatics* is regarded as the relationship between linguistic action and the social context of its usage. It includes sociocultural factors such as status, social distance and particular cultural context, which can govern what and how those linguistic acts are performed. In other words, sociopragmatics is “the social perceptions underlying participants’ interpretation and performance of communicative action (Rose & Kasper 2001: 2). The definition of pragmatics has been later detailed by Kasper and Rose (2002, cited in Martinez-Flor, 2004: 19) in that pragmatics comprises a number of distinguishing features:

Meaning is created in interaction with speakers and hearers.

Context includes both linguistic (co-text) and non-linguistic aspects.

Choices made by the users of language are an important concern.

Constraints in using language as social action (who can say what to whom) are significant.

The effects of choices on coparticipants are analyzed.

Paralleled with the pragmatic features proposed by Kasper and Rose (2001), Hedge (2000) summarizes the implication of pragmatic competence for language learners in that pragmatic competence comprises the ability:

- to learn the relationship between grammatical forms and functions
- to use stress and intonation to express attitude and emotion
- to learn the scale of formality
- to understand and use emotive tone
- to use pragmatic rules of language
- to select language forms appropriate to the context

According to Kasper (1997), pragmatic competence is not a piece of knowledge additional to the learners' existing grammatical knowledge, but is an organic part of the learners' communicative competence. There have been numerous numbers of communicative competence models, yet, following Kasper (1997), the one that clearly explains pragmatic the relationship between pragmatic and language competence is *Bachman's Communicative Language Ability model* (1990). According to Bachman (1990: 87), language competence comprises two components, *organizational competence* and *pragmatic competence*. Organizational competence includes knowledge of linguistic units and the rules of joining them together at the sentence levels. Pragmatic competence is subdivided into two kinds of ability, i.e. *illocutionary competence* and *sociolinguistic competence*. The former refers to the functions of the utterance, or knowing how to use language in order to achieve certain communicative goals or intentions. For example, "It's so hot today." could have a number of illocutionary forces. It might be a statement about the physical atmosphere, a request to turn on the air-conditioner, or an attempt to elicit the offer of a cold drink. Thus, illocutionary force largely depends on the context of use. The second ability, *sociolinguistic competence*, is the sensitivity to sociocultural context of language use, which dominates the selection of language forms in different settings.

2.2.2 Speech Act Theory

The concept of pragmatics is grounded in the theory of Speech Act. Austin (1962, cited in Devitt & Hanley, 2003) developed the three-fold classification of utterances into *locutionary*, *illocutionary*, and *perlocutionary acts*. Locutionary acts refer to the acts of saying something, i.e. the actual words uttered. The illocutionary acts represent what is done in saying something, or the force or intention behind the words. Finally, the

perlocutionary acts imply what is done by saying something, i.e. the effect of the illocution on the hearer. Some linguists have attempted to classify illocutionary acts into a number of categories. Searle (1976) developed a taxonomy of illocutionary acts by grouping the utterances according to their common functional characteristics. This taxonomy includes five major categories;

1. Assertives: statements may be judged true or false because they aim to describe a state of affairs in the world.
2. Directives: statements attempt to make the other person's actions fit the propositional content.
3. Commissives: statements which commit the speaker to a course of action as described by the propositional content.
4. Expressives: statements that have the purpose of expressing the speaker's psychological state of mind about, or attitude towards, some prior action or state of affairs.
5. Declaratives: statements that attempt to change the world by "representing it as having been changed".

2.2.3 Politeness Theory

According to Brown and Levinson's (1987), politeness strategies are developed in order to save the hearers' "face". Face refers to the respect that an individual has for him or herself, and maintaining their self-esteem in public or in private situations. Face is divided into two types, i.e. an esteemed self-image (positive face) and a desire for autonomy (negative face). Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness theory holds that some speech acts threaten the interlocutor's face needs and those speech acts are called *Face Threatening Acts* (FTA's). The FTA's are acts that infringe on the hearers' need to maintain his/her self esteem, and be respected. Politeness strategies are developed for the main purpose of dealing with these FTA's because people usually try to avoid embarrassing others, or making them feel uncomfortable.

There are four types of politeness strategies described by Brown and Levinson. These strategies are: bold on-record, positive politeness, negative politeness, and off-record-indirect strategy.

1) **Bold on-record strategy** provides no effort to minimize threats to the hearer's "face." For example, a student asks the teacher to lend a pen by saying "Ooh, I want to use your pen!", or "Give me that pen!". By using bold on-record, we will most likely embarrass the interlocutor, or make them feel uncomfortable. However, this type of strategy is commonly found with people who know each other very well such as close friends and family.

2) **Positive politeness strategy** may be used when the speaker recognizes that the hearer has a desire to be respected. It also confirms that the relationship is friendly and expresses group reciprocity. For example, a student asks the teacher to lend a pen by saying "Is it O.K. if I use one of those pens?"

3) **Negative politeness strategy** is similar to Positive Politeness in that the speaker recognizes the hearer's needs to be respected. However, the main focus for using this strategy is to assume that the speaker may be imposing on the hearer, and intruding on their space. Therefore, these automatically assume that there might be some social distance or awkwardness in the situation. As a reason, indirect strategies are used in the situation. For example, in the same situation as stated above, the student may say to the teacher that "I'm sorry to bother you but, I just wanted to ask you if I could use one of those pens?" or, "I don't want to bother you but..." or "I was wondering if ...".

4) **Off-record indirect strategy** is the strategy that the speaker removes him/herself from any imposition whatsoever. The main purpose is to take the pressure off of the speaker by trying not to directly impose. Therefore, indirect strategies are used to avoid the imposition, for example, giving hints instead of asking someone to close the window by saying "It's cold in here", or in the situation of a student borrowing a teacher's pen, the student may indirectly say "Hmm, I'm sure could use a blue pen right now."

2.2.4 Cross-cultural Studies on politeness strategies and face-threatening acts

Extensive studies have been done to explore the politeness strategies used in various face-threatening acts such as refusals, request, disagreement, and correction. These cross-cultural studies either compared the native speakers and non-native speakers'

use of politeness strategies, or investigated the non-native speakers' production of politeness strategies in different contexts.

Cross-cultural studies on refusals

One of the most frequent cited works in the study of refusals is that of Beebe, Takahashi, and Uliss-Weltz (1990). This comparative study aimed to examine English refusals made by the Japanese and Americans. The researchers administered a discourse completion test (DCT) with 60 subjects to investigate pragmatic transfer in refusals to requests, invitations, offers, and suggestions. The subjects included 20 native speakers of Japanese making refusals in Japanese, 20 native speakers of Japanese making refusals in English, and 20 Americans making refusals in English. The data were analyzed in terms of the sequence, frequency, and content of semantic formulas. The evidence of pragmatic transfer was found at least on three levels: the sequence, frequency, and tone of the semantic formulas used in making refusals.

Chen (1996) used semantic formula to analyze the use of refusal strategies by American and Chinese speakers of English. Refusals to all four initiating acts (refusing requests, invitations, offers and suggestions) were analyzed. Results indicated that direct refusal was not a common strategy for any of the subjects, regardless of their language background.

To compare the use of refusals between Americans and the Japanese, Kanemoto (1993) conducted a comparative study of refusal assertion in the United States and Japan. The researcher investigated refusals used in five popular publications in American English and Japanese to examine similarities and differences in refusal strategies. Results revealed three formal characteristics of Japanese refusals: 1) avoiding a clear refusal, 2) mentioning a third party as a reason for the refusal, and 3) using a fictitious reason for the refusal. The underlying cultural values behind the refusal strategies were also discussed. For example, in Japanese culture, refusal means not only a "no" to a request but also to personal relationships. Thus, fictitious reasons and other strategies were employed as a social lubricant to lessen any impacts of the refusal. Unlike Japanese refusal strategies, the two main characteristics of American English refusals were that the clear and constructive refusal must be uttered and that the provision of reasons for a refusal was not always necessary.

Liao and Bresnahan (1996) contrasted refusals made by American and Chinese university students to six request situations. The subjects comprised 570 undergraduate students at a university in Taiwan and 516 students at the university of Michigan. The subjects were asked to respond to each request by writing their responses. The data were analyzed by coding the number of strategies used in each response. Results indicated both similarities and differences between the refusal strategies used by the two groups. For example, both groups refused requests from a teacher more easily than those from either a friend or a family member, but Chinese gave more specific reasons than Americans. A conventional way for Americans to begin a refusal was the use of positive statement, followed by a refusal (e.g. I'd love to, but...). However, this kind of strategy was rare among Chinese.

Sadler and Eröz (2001) investigated English refusals made by native speakers of English, Lao and Turkish. The subjects were 10 Americans, 10 Lao, and 10 Turkish, totaling 30 undergraduates. All subjects were studying at US universities. Using the refusals DCT constructed by Beebe et al. (1990), the subjects were asked to complete the DCT in English by filling their refusal to the request, invitation, offer, and suggestion situations. Results indicated the similar pattern in that all respondents tended to use excuses, reasons, with a statement of regret preceding or following the reasons. The Turkish and Americans used pause fillers and then statements of gratitude and appreciation, while the Lao participants used statements of regret, followed by adjuncts to refusals. Research findings also revealed that the four initiating acts of refusal did get different refusal patterns. Requests were conventionally refused by an excuse or reason, with a statement of regret. In invitation scenarios, regret was expressed when refusing someone of higher status. Refusals to an offer were made by expressing gratitude and appreciation along with an excuse or reason in refusing. Regarding suggestions, a reason or explanation was the main strategy in making refusals.

Nelson et al (2002) investigated the similarities and differences between Egyptian Arabic and American English refusals. The participants were 30 English-speaking Americans in the USA and 25 Arabic-speaking Egyptians in Egypt. The research instrument was a modified version of the discourse completion test (DCT) developed by Beebe et al. (1990). However, instead of subjects reading the situation and responding in

writing, an interviewer read aloud each situation and asked the subjects to respond verbally on audiotape. The 298 English refusals and 250 Arabic refusals were transcribed and analyzed to compare the average frequencies of direct and indirect strategies, the average frequencies of specific indirect strategies, and the effect of interlocutor status on strategy use. Research findings reveal more similarities than differences among Americans and Egyptians in making refusals as both groups use similar strategies with similar frequency in making refusals.

Sairhun (2001) examined patterns of Thai and English refusals made by the native speakers of Thai and American English. Results indicated differences in both patterns of refusal strategies and frequency of each strategy between the two groups. Americans used direct refusals considerably more than the Thai in making refusal to requests and suggestions. Regarding the use of apology when making refusal, the Thai tended to intensify their apology by adding the intensifiers such as ‘tong’ (must), ‘jing-jing’ (really), or ‘yang-mag’ (extremely). The difference in the use of excuse or reason was that the Thai often mentioned the family member as the third party when giving reason for a refusal, which was not found among the Americans. The pragmatic transfer from the native language was also discussed.

Cross-cultural studies on other face-threatening acts

Apart from the speech act of refusal, the cross-cultural studies investigating politeness strategies in other face-threatening acts are such as requests (e.g. Tanaka & Kawade, 1982; Suh, 1999; Umar, 2004), disagreement (e.g. Beebe & Takahashi, 1989; Nakajima, 1996), and correction (e.g. Modehiran, 2005).

Tanaka and Kawade (1982) conducted a study to compare the use of politeness strategies between native and non-native speakers of English. 53 English native speakers and 32 non-natives were given a multiple-choice format of questionnaire. The questionnaire included 12 situations each of which had six politeness strategies in making requests. The subjects were asked to choose only one politeness strategy which they would be most likely to use in a given situation. Results indicated no significant difference between the native and non-native speakers in the use of politeness strategies. However, in certain situations the native speakers were found to use more polite strategies, while the non-natives tended to use less polite strategies. Tanaka and Kawade (1982) also suggested

the Distance-Politeness (DP) hypothesis which indicates the essential role of social and psychological distances in the selection politeness strategies. The DP hypothesis predicts that one will use polite strategies in situations where he perceives himself as psychological and/or socially distant from his interlocutor. Conversely, the closer the relationship between the interlocutors is, the less polite strategy they will use. The DP hypothesis also predicts that psychological variables (e.g. like/ dislike) play a more important role in the use of politeness strategy than social variables (e.g. social status).

In a repeated study of Tanaka & Kawade (1982), Suh (1999) examined the use of politeness strategies in making requests among the English native speakers and the ESL Korean learners. The subjects were 10 native speakers of English undergraduates and 20 Korean learners of ESL (10 in intermediate and 10 in advanced level). The researcher administered a multiple-choice questionnaire adopted from Tanaka and Kawade (1982). The data analysis was done based on the Distance-Politeness hypothesis (Tanaka & Kawade, 1982). Results support the previous findings of Tanaka and Kawade (1982) in that, in most cases, no significant difference in the use of politeness strategies was found between the two groups. However, in the situations where a requester-requestee relationship is intimate, the Korean ESL learners did not use the politeness strategies in the way similar to the Americans.

In another comparative study of request making, Umar (2004) studied the request strategies used by Advanced Arab learners of English compared to those strategies used by British native speakers of English. Results of the study revealed that the two groups adopted similar strategies, namely conventionally indirect strategies, when making requests to people in equals or higher social status. However, in the situations where the requests were addressed to people in lower status, the Arabic subjects employed more direct request strategies markedly more than the British subjects.

Regarding the speech act of disagreement, Beebe and Takahashi (1989) investigated two face-threatening acts, namely disagreement and giving embarrassing information, used by the Japanese and Americans. The data collection combined notebook of naturally occurring instances of face-threatening acts and discourse completion tests. The 30 participants included 15 Americans and 15 advanced Japanese ESL speakers. Results revealed that both Japanese and Americans used style shifting in English

according to the status of the interlocutor. In expressing disagreement, Americans were not always more direct nor more explicit than Japanese, especially when talking to people from lower status. The findings also showed the frequent use of positive remarks by Americans over the Japanese. The similar strategy shared by the two groups was the use of questions to function as a warning, for the purpose of correction, to indicate disagreement, for chastisement and delivery of embarrassing information. However, the utterances from the two groups were significantly different in tone and content.

Unlike other classroom or academic-setting studies, Nakajima (1996) investigated the politeness strategies in expressing disagreement in the workplace. The objectives of the study were in two folds: 1) to see which experiences help Japanese business people to acquire target-like politeness strategies, and 2) to explore how Japanese business people perceive the relationship between degrees of indirectness and politeness in Japanese and in English. The subjects were 22 male speakers of American English and Japanese, varying in their experience in using English in the workplace. A discourse completion tests (DCT) and a questionnaire were administered. Results revealed that the Japanese and Americans perceived politeness strategies in similar ways. The unique characteristics of the two groups were the expression of humbleness in their comments among the Japanese, and the provision of positive comments among the Americans. The study also suggested that learners who were exposed to specific experiences were more likely to acquire the target-like politeness expression rather than transferring their native pragmatics. However, the subjects tended to value their native norms when responding to business people from higher status.

Among other face-threatening acts, the speech act of correction has been comparatively rare to be examined. Modehiran (2005) conducted a cross-cultural study to investigate correction making among Thais and Americans. The researcher administered a set of questionnaires to 400 female undergraduates of which ten percent were called for the interview. Results revealed three key factors, namely social status, age, and consequences of failing to correct, influencing correction making among Thais and Americans, but to different degrees and in different manners. The results also indicated the source of potential miscommunication as Thais tended to make correction by stating that the hearer had misunderstood or made a mistake, which was considered impolite by the

Americans. The study also suggested some implications for the teaching of politeness strategies in making correction in EFL classrooms in Thailand.

In cross-cultural communication, the face-threatening acts such as request, disagreement, correction, and refusals can be complicated and risky to perform. This is because the possibility to offend the interlocutors or to cause misunderstandings is inherent in the act itself. Also, the conventional politeness strategies may vary depending on the particular cultural value. The findings from the cross-cultural studies on the face-threatening acts then emphasize the essential role of pragmatic competence and pragmatic instruction in mastering L2 and intercultural communication.

2.2.5 Classroom studies on pragmatics

Rose and Kasper (2001) distinguished classroom research into two categories, *observational* and *interventional studies*. Observational studies are the studies that have the primary focus on classroom processes, “either without a view on learning outcomes or with learning outcomes being analyzed as emerging in and through classroom interaction” (Rose & Kasper, 2001: 34). On the other hand, interventional studies are those with the classroom experiment, which aim to study the effect of specific instructional treatment(s) on learners’ acquisition of the targeted pragmatic feature. As the present study focuses on the effects of different corrective feedback techniques on learners’ pragmatic competence, teaching intervention perspectives arose from the existing research are then needed. Table 2.3 summarizes the recent interventional studies on pragmatic development.

Table 2.3: Interventional studies on pragmatic development

Pragmatic feature	Study	Treatments
Pragmatic routines	Tateyama, 2001	implicit/ explicit teaching
Discourse markers and strategies	Yoshimi, 2001	implicit/ explicit teaching
Migitators in requests	Fukuya & Clark, 2001	input enhancement/ explicit teaching
Requests	Fukuya & Zhang, 2002	recasts
	Takahashi, 2001	input enhancement
	Jorda, 2004	explicit teaching
	House, 1996	implicit/ explicit teaching

Pragmatic feature	Study	Treatments
Requests, apologies, complaints	Eslami-Rasekh et al., 2004	explicit teaching
Compliments	Rose & Ng Kwai-fun, 2001	inductive/ deductive teaching
Complaints, refusals	Morrow, 1995	a combination of 4 teaching techniques
Refusals	King & Silver, 1993	explicit teaching
	Silva, 2003	explicit teaching
Suggestions	Martinez-Flor, 2004	implicit/ explicit teaching

The effects of explicit / implicit instruction on pragmatic development

A large number of classroom studies on pragmatic development have examined the effectiveness of employing particular teaching approaches to teach the target speech acts. The two approaches which are of interest in the scene are explicit and implicit teaching. Several studies examined the effects of explicit and implicit instruction on the target pragmatic feature, e.g. pragmatic routine (Tateyama, 2001), discourse markers and strategies (Yoshimi, 2001), requests (House, 1996; Jorda, 2004) and suggestions (Martinez-Flor, 2004). The majority agree in the results that explicit instruction has benefit over the implicit one in developing learners' interlanguage pragmatics (e.g. House, 1996; Tateyama, 2001).

House (1996) studied the effects of explicit and implicit instruction on making requests by advanced English learners of German. The finding found that the explicit group outperformed the implicit one in the areas of gambits (a remark used to start or continue a conversation), discourse strategies, and speech acts. In line with House's study, Tateyama (2001) examined the effects of explicit and implicit instruction in the use of a Japanese routine formula on beginning JFL learners. Though the results on the multiple-choice tests and role-plays indicated no significant differences between the two groups, the author also supported the benefits of explicit teaching in facilitating the acquisition of L2 pragmatic routines that require a higher formality of the linguistic expressions, as shown by the multiple-choice test analysis. However, the researcher argued that four 20-

minute treatments over 8 weeks were not sufficient to reveal the effectiveness of different teaching conditions.

In a recent study, Eslami-Rasekh et al. (2004) explored the effect of explicit metapragmatic instruction on the speech act comprehension of advanced EFL students. In this single group study, three speech acts were the focus, i.e. requests, apologies and complaints. Results of the pragmatic comprehension tests were in line of other previous studies in that explicit instruction significantly improved learners' speech act comprehension. However, the study focused on learners' pragmatic performance alone, no qualitative analysis of learning process or strategies employed was analyzed.

One interesting study which aimed to compare the effects of instruction providing metapragmatic information to the instruction providing no metapragmatic information is the study of Takahashi (2001). The researcher studied the effects of different degrees of input enhancement in developing EFL learners' request strategies and their confidence. Takahashi compared four input conditions, which differ in the degree of input enhancement ranking from the highest to the least i.e. 1) *explicit teaching*—involving metapragmatic explanations of the target forms, 2) *form-comparison*—comparison of learners' utterances with those of NSs and point out the differences, 3) *form-search*—comparison of NSs and NNSs utterances in general, but not those of the learners, and 4) *meaning-focused*—reading interaction transcripts and responding to comprehension questions on content. Results from discourse-completion test showed that the explicit group outperformed the other three conditions in the use of request strategies. Also, the explicit instruction and the meaning-focused teaching considerably increased learners' confidence in using the target pragmatic forms as shown in post-test. Therefore, Takahashi's findings (2001) agree in the advantages of explicit instruction.

However, it could be argued that while the “mainstream” studies focused on the effectiveness of explicit instruction, they seemed to ignore the operationalized definition of implicit teaching. This made most research actually compared either the provision or the lack of metapragmatic explanations in the two treatment groups, while implicit instruction is regarded as the instruction with simple input and practice-only conditions. Therefore, the explicit instruction involving metapragmatic explanations and productive

practice seemed to be more beneficial in nature comparing with the implicit teaching, where those explanations are withdrawn and provide only input and practice alone.

Consequently, the operationalized definition of implicit instruction should be revised and made to be more comparable to the explicit one. In this regard, there have been a few studies that were aware of this fact. Fukuya and Clark (2001) examined the effects of instruction on learners' ability to recognize the use of appropriate use of mitigators when making requests. In the study they applied input enhancement for implicit teaching treatment. The findings showed the positive effects of implicit instruction on learners' strategies in making requests.

Another study that actually compared the effects of two teaching approaches is that of Martinez-Flor (2004). She implemented a combination of two implicit techniques, namely input enhancement and recasts for implicit instruction, and studied its effects on learners' pragmatic development of suggestions for one semester long. The findings revealed that both explicit and implicit instruction were equally effective in developing learners' pragmatic competence. One implication raised from the study is that an implicit teaching may be effective in developing learners' pragmatic ability when properly implemented. The study is also outstanding in that it measured the effects of instructions on all different aspects of pragmatic competence, i.e. production, awareness, and confidence, whereas most studies focused on either the learners' production or the awareness of pragmatic usage alone.

As can be seen from Table 2.3, repeated studies have been done with the speech act of requests (e.g. Fukuya & Zhang, 2002; Takahashi, 2001; Jorda, 2004). Fukuya and Zhang (2002) examined the effects of implicit feedback, i.e. pragmalinguistic recasts, on EFL learners' requests production and confidence when making English requests. Fourteen role plays were carried out during seven 50-minute sessions on seven consecutive days. Results from the discourse completion post-test showed that an instructed group outperformed a control group in their use of target request forms. However, both groups' response to the rating scale demonstrated that recasts did not influence learners' confidence in making requests. Instead, the learners' confidence might have been improved due to the interaction effect of role plays they performed. The repeated chances in performing role plays helped them build up their confidence when

interacting with teachers and peers. However, two obvious methodological drawbacks were found in the study. First, the time provided in the treatment was merely seven 50-minute classes which might be too short. Second, the researchers simply omitted giving any type of feedback to the control group, which could make the research results predictable. This is because the unequal chances to receive any type of feedback essentially affect language learning.

Jorda (2004) examined the effects of explicit teaching on the variety of linguistic formulations of requests among EFL learners. During one semester of the treatment, the subjects were exposed to pragmatic input and participated in two oral and two written pragmatic production tasks. Results from the post test showed the positive effects of explicit instruction on learners' production of request strategies. Though there was no significant difference in quantity of requests strategies employed, there were significant differences in the subjects' use of specific request forms. Conventionally indirect strategies were more often employed, which demonstrated that the subjects' use of request varied both in quality and quantity. The author concluded that subjects' performance showed more variation in the use of request formulations as instruction progressed.

One interventional study on compliment is that of Rose and Ng Kwai-fun (2001). The study compared the effects of inductive and deductive approaches to instruction on compliments and compliment responses. The treatments were provided to two experimental groups and a control group during six 30-minute lessons. After that all subjects participated in three measurement tasks, i.e. a self-assessment questionnaire, a metapragmatic assessment questionnaire, a discourse completion test (DCT). Results from the first two tasks did not show any differences between the three groups. Only the results from the DCT reported the positive effects of instruction over the control group. Both inductive and deductive groups increased their appropriate use of compliment forms. However, only deductive group demonstrated improvement in their compliment responses. According to the findings, the authors claimed that both teaching approaches are effective in teaching pragmalinguistics, whereas deductive instruction alone is proved to be effective in teaching sociopragmatics.

Interventional studies on the speech act of refusals

Regarding the speech act of refusals, extended observational studies have been done on comparative refusals and pragmatic transfer between native and non-native speakers (e.g. Nelson et al., 2002; Beebe et al., 1990; Liao & Bresnahan, 1996). Nonetheless, the interventional studies on this pragmatic feature are few and far between. Among a few numbers of studies were those of King and Silver (1993), Morrow (1995), and Silva (2003).

King and Silver (1993) studied the effects of refusal strategies training on students' pragmatic production. The training lasting 70 minutes was provided to three subjects in a conversation class, while another three students received general conversation on getting to know the Americans. The instructional effects were measured by a pre- and post-written discourse questionnaire on refusals and a two-week delayed telephone interview. Results from the questionnaire showed little effect of instruction, while the telephone interview indicated no effect. This study has two significant limitations which may affect the validity of the findings. Both the subjects and the time allocated to the treatment were too limited. Only 70 minutes of training was provided to three subjects in the experiment group might not truly indicate the effects of the treatment, especially when comparing to the time gap between the treatment and the delayed measure as the training time was totally 70 minutes, but the measurement was done two weeks after the treatment.

Morrow (1995) studied the effect of instruction on learners' production of refusals and complaints. The treatment was explicit teaching approach comprising a combination of activities, i.e. metapragmatic judgment tasks, model dialogs, explanation of the semantic formulas, games, controlled output practice, and role-plays. After the three hours and thirty minutes of treatment, three measurements were employed; 1) a role-play with holistic ratings of clarity and politeness, 2) an immediate post-test, and 3) a six-month delayed post-test. The results revealed the positive effects of instruction on immediate post-tests, i.e. the increasing of indirect refusals, more complete explanations, and fewer explicit statements of dissatisfaction. However, there was no significant difference found between pre- and delayed post-test.

Silva (2003) examined the effects of explicit teaching on learners' production and awareness of appropriate refusals. This is the only study on refusals which pays attention

to learners' metapragmatic awareness or the self-monitoring process. The study employed the control and treatment group design. The treatment group received metapragmatic awareness instruction by means of task-based method to introduce both pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics in the target speech act. The control group did not receive any instruction. After 55 minutes of the lesson, two role-plays post test and a retrospective questionnaire were administered. The results showed the considerable degree of improvement in the treatment group's choices of refusal strategies; for example, they used more indirect semantic formulae, statements of regret, and statements of reason. The analysis of the data suggests that the instructional treatment had an effect on participants' sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic abilities as demonstrated by the results of post-test and the subjects' comments during the written retrospective questionnaires.

The conventional area of the studies of King and Silver, Morrow, and Silva is to examine the effects of instructional approach on learners' refusal strategies, which agree in the teachability of explicit instruction. Also, these three studies indicated two identical drawbacks on the research design. First, the time allowed for treatment was too little to be able to demonstrate the true validity or effectiveness of the teaching approaches employed (King & Silver, 1993: 70 minutes; Morrow, 1995: 180 minutes; and Silva, 2003: 55 minutes). Particularly, as King and Silver's study included the very small sample size and just above an hour treatment, the interpretations of the findings seems not to be valid. Thus, future studies on the effects of a particular teaching intervention on the use of refusals done in the intact classrooms are needed.

Another limitation is regarding the research designs. Morrow did not include a control condition, which would make it possible to determine whether the effects found were really due to the treatment. In King and Silver's and Silva's study, two- group design was used. However, the treatment provided to the two groups was biased. While the treatment group received well-prepared lesson, extensive input enhancement with full video scripts, in the case of Silva, the control group did not receive any instruction apart from the input-practice activities. Therefore, it is predictable that the treatment group would outperform the control one after the treatment. After all, the true interventional studies which aim to compare two different treatments on teaching of refusal strategies are still needed.

2.2.6 Studies on pragmatic awareness

Despite the immense influence of the framework of “awareness” and “noticing” as developed by Schmidt (1993), “only a rather limited number of studies, the most recent of which being Matsumura (2003), have examined the acquisition of pragmatic awareness” (Schauer, 2006: 270). Among the limited number of studies in the relationship between grammatical and pragmatic awareness, Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnyei (1998) investigated the recognition and rating of grammatical and pragmatic infelicities of the ESL and EFL learners. The participants were asked to watch 20 video scenarios comprising various speech acts and either grammatical or pragmatic errors. Then, they were asked to rate the levels of severity of the errors they perceived in the questionnaire. Findings revealed that the ESL learners in the United States were more aware of pragmatic mistakes than grammatical mistakes. In contrast, the EFL Hungarian learners recognized the grammatical mistakes more than pragmatic errors. Concerning the severity degree, the ESL learners rated the pragmatic errors to be more severe than grammatical errors, while the EFL learners considered grammatical violations to be more important.

Employing the Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnyei’s (1998) video-and-questionnaire instrument plus the interview, Schauer (2006) studied the differences of ESL and EFL learners’ recognition of pragmatic and grammatical errors. She also investigated the ESL learners’ development of their pragmatic awareness during an extended stay in the target environment. Data from the 16 ESL and 17 EFL learners were compared with 20 native speakers of English. The findings from this study are in line with the original work of Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnyei (1998) in that the ESL learners were more aware of pragmatic infelicities than the EFL group. It also found that the ESL learners significantly increased their pragmatic and grammatical awareness during their stay in Great Britain.

Concerning the study that focuses only on pragmatic awareness, Bardovi-Harlig and Griffin (2005) explored 43 ESL learners’ pragmatic awareness in identifying pragmatic infelicities from the video and repairing them. The subjects were asked to work in pairs to identify what is missing from the speech act scenarios and then to perform short role-plays to repair the infelicities they had identified. The subjects’ role plays were also video-taped to analyze the types of pragmatic infelicities that are noticed by high intermediate learners and that are most easily remedied by them. Results revealed the

learners' recognition pragmatic infelicities and their ability to supply the missing speech acts. However, the expression and content repaired by the learners were different from the target-like norms due to their language proficiency and cultural background.

In a number of studies on pragmatic awareness of a particular speech act, Hinkel (1997) investigated Chinese ESL learners' pragmatic awareness of giving appropriate advice. The learners were required to select the most appropriate advice options (direct, hedged, or indirect) from the multiple-choice questionnaire. Results showed significant differences between the ESL learners' and the native speakers' choice of appropriate advice in that while the native speakers considered indirect advice to be more appropriate, the ESL learners perceived direct and hedged advice to be more appropriate. Fukuya and Clark (2001) examined the effects of instruction on learners' ability to recognize the use of appropriate use of mitigators when making requests. In the study they applied input enhancement for implicit teaching treatment. The findings showed the positive effects of implicit instruction on learners' strategies in making requests.

Cook and Liddicoat (2002) studied ESL learners' pragmatic awareness of requests in relation to their level of proficiency. The high- and low- proficiency learners were asked to do the multiple-choice test by reading the request scenario and its corresponding request expression. Each request expression was one of three request types—direct, conventionally indirect, or unconventionally indirect request. Then, they were required to select the interpretation to each request from the available choices. Findings reported significant differences in the interpretations of direct requests between low proficiency learners and the native speakers. In addition, remarkable disparities in the interpretations of conventional and unconventional requests between both proficiency levels of the ESL learners and the native speakers were also found. In the light of these findings, "it seems that direct requests might be the first Request Strategy that learners become explicitly aware of, as there was no significant difference between the native speakers' and high-proficiency learners' interpretation of these request types" (Schauer, 2006: 278).

In light of the previous studies reviewed above, extensive works have been done to explore the effects of different corrective feedback techniques on learners' L2 grammatical development. However, the claims of the effectiveness of a particular type of corrective feedback over the others are still inconclusive due to five main reasons: 1) the

different research setting, i.e. classroom studies, laboratory studies, or computer-based studies, 2) the different operationalization of each corrective feedback technique, 3) the differences in classroom nature and learning activities which influences the role of corrective feedback, 4) the divergent instructional treatments and measurements and 5) the limitations of the research design, e.g., the use single design and the biased research design that the control group did not receive any treatments. These differences resulted in different interpretation of the effectiveness of each corrective feedback technique.

Regarding studies on interlanguage pragmatics (ILP), the majority of interventional studies of the field have examined the effects of explicit and implicit instruction on learners' acquisition of various speech acts. Only a few studies have been done to explore the role of instruction on learners' pragmatic awareness. These research gaps thereby inspired the researcher to explore the role of an important element of teacher's input—corrective feedback—on learners' acquisition of L2 pragmatic competence by investigating various aspects of pragmatic competence, namely pragmatic production, awareness and confidence.

2.3 Summary

This chapter presents a review of related theoretical concepts and previous studies on corrective feedback and pragmatic competence. A large number of observational studies have been done to investigate the patterns of corrective feedback and learner's uptake. Other interventional studies examined the effectiveness of different corrective feedback techniques on L2 grammatical development. However, the relationships of each feedback type and learner's uptake, also the extent to which it promotes learner's language acquisition are still a controversial issue. Further, the review of literature revealed the need for studies on the role of corrective feedback on learners' pragmatic development.

CHAPTER III

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter outlines the methodology adopted to investigate the role of explicit feedback and prompts in the acquisition of pragmatically appropriate refusal production, awareness and confidence. The detailed description of the research methodology is presented in eight sections which include: 1) context of study, 2) population and samples, 3) research design, 4) instructional intervention, 5) research instruments, 6) data collection and 7) data analyses.

3.1 Context of study

The study was conducted in an EFL course for the English-major freshmen of Faculty of Archaeology at Silpakorn University. The Faculty of Archaeology comprises seven departments varying in their major subjects such as archeology, art history, Eastern languages and Western languages. The English Section of the Department of Western Languages was responsible for teaching English to all students of the faculty, especially to those who take English as their major subject.

The present study was conducted as an additional session of the course on English Preparation I, a required course for all first year English-major students. The course comprises various grammatical lessons which aim to provide learners the knowledge of fundamental and complex English grammatical issues. Students who enrolled in the course were informed that the instructional sessions of this study were complementary components for them to practice speaking English as the two EFL courses they were taking in the first semester, namely English Preparation I and Fundamentals of English Writing, did not focus on speaking skills. Then, the course syllabus was distributed for them to make a decision whether they would like to attend all whole sessions (page 60). They were also informed that their interaction in class and their performance on the tests would be used in a research project. (Furthermore, some refreshments and rewards for the winners of some class activities were also promised). All students volunteered to participate in the extra classes and signed their names on the consent form (Appendix K). The classes were conducted in three spacious language classrooms which were well-

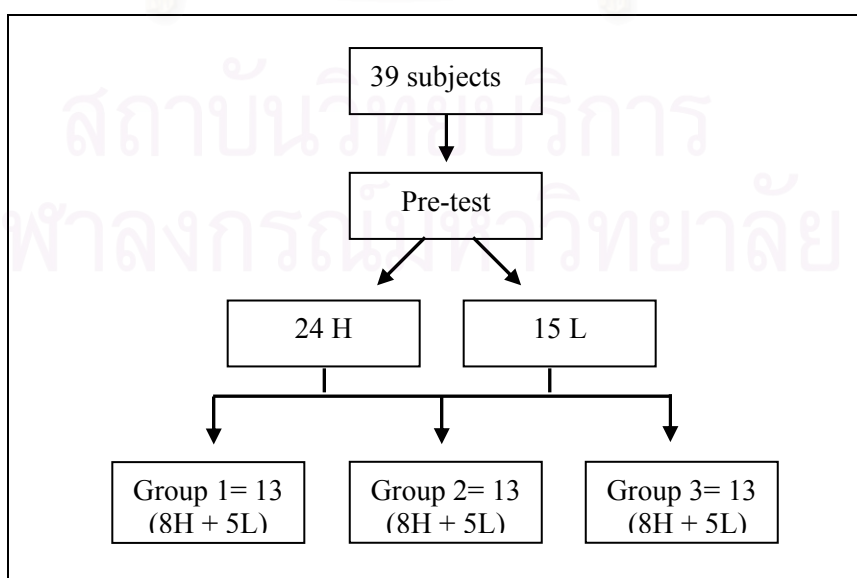
equipped with audio-visual devices: video player, visualizer and an LCD projector. The 90-minute sessions happened once a week for 10 weeks, totaling 900 minutes or 15 hours.

3.2 Population and samples

The population in this research was first year English-major students of Faculty of Archeology at Silpakorn University. The subjects were 42 EFL students who took the course English Preparation I in the first semester of the academic year 2007. However, by the time of the delayed posttest, three subjects dropped out from the study. Thus, the actual number of the participants was 39. All subjects have been studying English for at least ten years. Their English proficiency spans low-intermediate to high-intermediate level. Most of them have never had experience in using English in English speaking countries.

The subjects were divided into three groups comprising two experimental and one control group. To do so, the subjects were categorized into the high-proficiency (H) and the low-proficiency (L) subgroups using the average mean scores (X) of their pre-test. The results yielded altogether 24 H and 15 L, which the average mean scores of both subgroups were significantly different from the onset of the study [$t(76) = 7.487$; $p < 0.05$]. The number of H and L were then matched and assigned into groups. As a result, each of the three groups comprised 8 H and 5 L, totaling 13 students. Figure 3.1 represents the steps in assigning the subjects into groups.

Figure 3.1: Steps in assigning the subjects into groups



3.3 Research design

This study is experimental research comprising two experimental groups and one control group. The methodology of evaluating the effectiveness of each corrective feedback technique was based on the Matching-Only Pretest-Posttest Control Group Design (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2000). This research design was employed to compare the refusal production, awareness and confidence of the learners of the three groups as measured by the refusal production tests, the pragmatic awareness tests and the confidence rating scales. Figure 3.2 summarizes the research design of the current study.

Figure 3.2: Research design

Treatment group 1	O	M	X ₁	O	O
Treatment group 2	O	M	X ₂	O	O
Control group	O	M	X ₃	O	O

From Figure 3.2, O refers to the measurements of the dependent variables—the oral refusal production, pragmatic awareness and confidence. The first variable was measured three times: with the pre-test, the immediate post-test and the delayed post-test, whereas the other two were assessed twice with the pre-test and the post-test. M refers to the fact that the subjects in each group were matched on their ability in making oral refusals using their pre-test scores in order to make the three groups comparable. X represents the independent variables or the exposure to different corrective feedback techniques. X₁ stands for explicit feedback, which teacher immediately respond to a learner's error by providing the information regarding the error source together with the correct answer. Thus, the learner who made the error does not have the chance for self-directed repair. X₂ refers to prompts, the teacher's immediate response to a learner's error by not providing the right answer, but a cue to help the learner discover the answer by him/herself.

By considering the characteristics of prompts and explicit feedback, the two distinctive features governing these feedback techniques are the matter of time (the immediate response to the error) and the learners' opportunity to do self-directed repair. While prompts comprise both of these features, explicit feedback includes only the

immediate time, but no opportunity for learner's self-directed repair, as the teacher provides the correct answer right away.

A type of corrective feedback was also given to the control group so as to maintain the research ethics. By considering the two distinctive features mentioned above, the X₃ which represents the treatment for the control group was then designed as the delayed explicit feedback. To do so, the teacher collected the learners' frequent mistakes and provided delayed feedback by means of explicit correction at the end of each class. This kind of feedback does not immediately respond to learners' errors, nor provides learners opportunities to do self-repair. Thus, the delayed feedback lacks both of the two features, and thereby can be considered a controlled manipulation. Table 3.1 summarizes the distinctive features of the two experimental and the control group.

Table 3.1: Features of the experimental and the control group

Explicit feedback	+ immediate time/ - self-directed repair
Prompts	+ immediate time/ + self-directed repair
Control group	- immediate time/ - self-directed repair

3.4 Instructional Intervention

The 10-week instructional intervention consisted of 10 sessions of 90 minutes each. The study employed the *focus on form* (FonF) as the teaching approach. The primary focus of FonF is to maintain communicative flow and to focus on the particular form that conveys meaning at the same time (Lyster & Ranta, 1997). In other words, it focuses on a particular form during the communication of meaning.

3.4.1 Course Contents

The 10 lessons provided in the instructional period comprised communicative language activities which required the use of various speech acts or language functions. The course syllabus is presented in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2: Course syllabus

Course title: English Preparation I: the speaking sessions

Semester/ academic year: 1st semester/ 2007

Students: first year English-major students

Groups: 3 groups/ 14 students each

Course description

Introducing learners to various language functions in authentic communication; preparing learners to be able to use conventional English expressions in performing a particular language function; making learners aware of grammatical correctness and contextual appropriateness in using English; focusing on oral communicative tasks to increase learners' opportunities in speaking English

Course objectives

1. To introduce learners to various language functions in real world communication and the conventional English expressions that may be used in each language function
2. To prepare learners to be able to carry on English conversation using accurate and appropriate English according to the context given
3. To raise learners' awareness of the socio-cultural factors in using English

Class time

90 minutes/ week for 10 weeks (July 11 – September 14)

Course content

Week	Topic
1	Making refusals
2	Invitations/ response to invitations
3	Requests/ response to requests
4	Interaction of week 1-3
5	Suggestions/ response to suggestions
6	Offers/ response to offers
7	Interaction of week 1-6
8	Agreement and disagreement
9	Complaint and apology
10	Interaction of week 1-10

Teaching materials

Handouts, pictures, movies and tape records

Evaluation

The evaluation of this extra course will inform the extent to which each student has achieved the course content. The test scores obtained from this session will not affect the student's grade on the English Preparation I. The evaluation comprises a pretest (the test before the class starts) and two posttests (one will be done immediately after the course ends, the other will be arranged in the second semester). Each test will include two sections: the speaking test and a multiple-choice test. Students will also have the opportunity to do self-assessment of his/her speaking confidence after the course.

According to the syllabus, the course outline supports the research objectives in two ways. Firstly, this study aims to examine the effects of two corrective feedback types on a student's use of refusals. Thus, the introduction to refusals in the first week equipped learners with the target refusal expressions they could use in the subsequent tasks. Second, as refusals vary according to its initiating acts, the course was designed to separate the four initiating acts of refusals class by class. From week one to seven, by employing various activities, the teacher could trigger the learners' refusals to various initiating acts without making them feel overburdened. Although the focus of week eight and nine, especially week eight, was not directly related to the speech act of refusals, the lessons were designed to include them in the activities. Particularly, in expressing disagreement, learners had to practice the disagreeing strategies which corresponded with refusal expressions. Then, in the last week, learners were required to review and practice all speech acts. The details of class activities and teaching materials are presented in 3.4.3.

3.4.2 The target forms

As there are numerous expressions or forms to say "no" in authentic communication, a set of refusal conventions were defined as the target refusal forms in this study. These target forms were used as the conceptual framework in teaching refusal expressions. The set of conventional refusals were collected from the pattern of Americans' refusal strategies (Beebe et al., 1990) and from a textbook for pragmatics teaching "Heart to Heart: Overcoming barriers in cross-cultural communication" (Yoshida et al., 2000). The forms or expressions of each refusal strategy were constructed and proved their idiomatic expressions by 10 native speakers of English using a questionnaire (Appendix A).

Table 3.3 displays the target refusal expressions employed in the course.

Table 3.3: The target refusal forms

Refusal strategies	Target forms
Positive opinion	That sounds wonderful, but... I'd like/love to, but... I wish I could, but...
Thanking	Thank you for the invitation. Thanks, but... Thank you for asking me, though.
Apology/ regret	I'm sorry, but...
Direct refusal	I can't... I'm afraid I can't... I don't think I can...
Reason	I already have other plans. I have to... I'm going to... I can't afford to... I have a lot of homework to do.
Alternative	Maybe some other time. Perhaps next time.

3.4.3 Teaching Materials

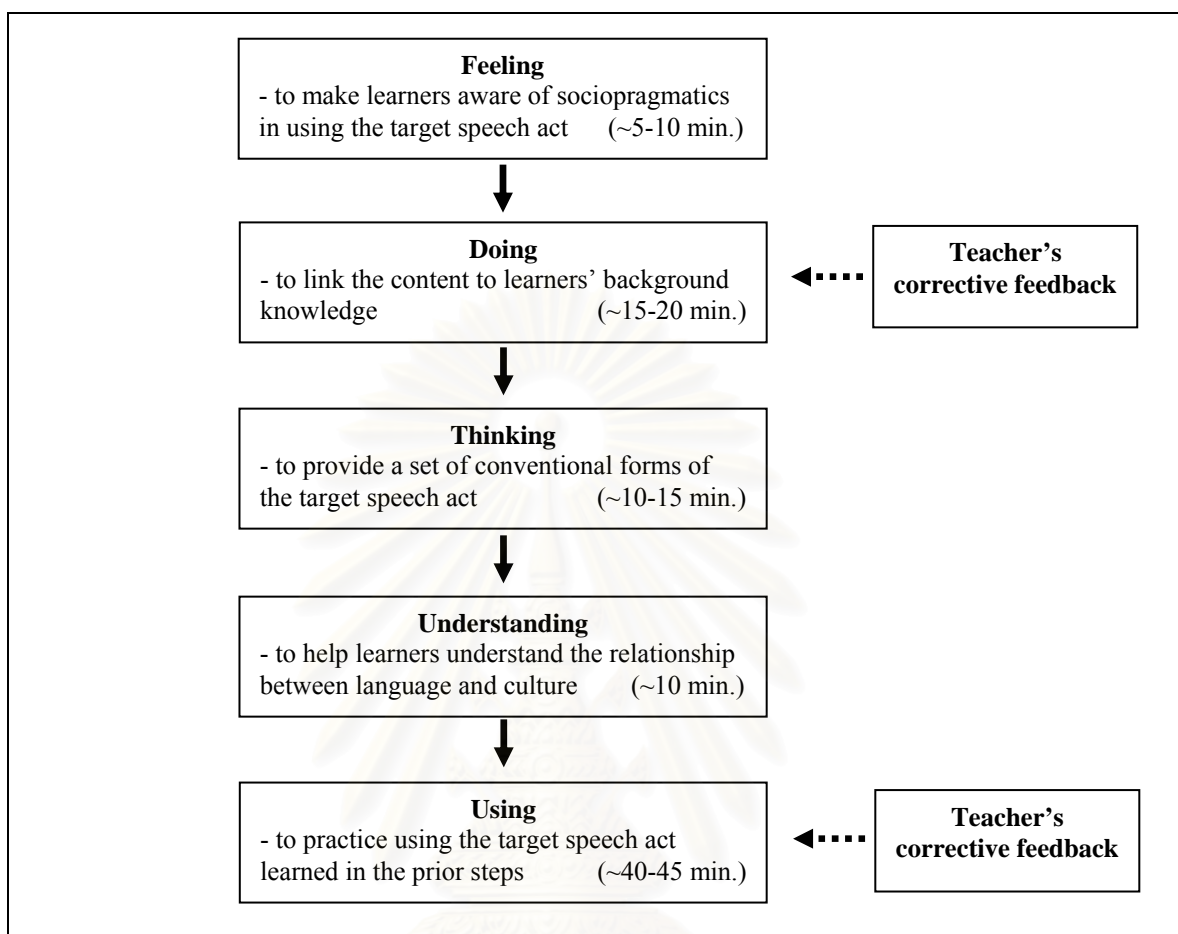
The teaching materials specially developed for this study consisted of 10 lessons covering 8 speech acts (refusal, invitation, request, offer, suggestion, agreement, and complaining and apologizing). The learning activities in each lesson were adapted from the five-step teaching procedures from the book "Heart to Heart: Overcoming barriers in cross-cultural communication" (Yoshida et al., 2000). The five steps were: feeling, doing, thinking, understanding, and using. According to the authors, the textbook's primary objective was to be used in teaching cross-cultural pragmatics in English classrooms in Japan. Teaching and learning activities were processed through the five phases, which aimed to help students become aware of the importance of pragmatics in language use by looking for the features comprising speech acts and by analyzing the differences between their own language and American English.

Adapted from Yoshida et al. (2000), the first phase, *feeling*, was the introduction to the target speech act which aimed to raise students' awareness towards either the function or the expression of the speech act. The activities employed were, for instance,

reading or listening to a dialogue and discussing the quality of the refusal or other speech act expressions. The second step—*doing*—aimed to connect the lesson to students' background knowledge about the target speech act by having them try to solve the communicative tasks with their own language production. The researcher provided corrective feedback when they made mistakes. At this phase, students may have realized their need to learn more about appropriate speech act expressions. *Thinking* was the third step which introduced the students to a set of conventional expressions used for a particular speech act. At this phase, students were required to think and discuss whether each expression was appropriate in the formal, or informal context, or both. In addition, they were required to use the target expressions in doing the subsequent activities. The fourth step, *understanding*, aimed to open students' minds to other varieties of English in order to enhance students' understanding of the relationship between language and culture. The activities in this step were reading a short passage regarding the use of English by people from different cultures followed by a short discussion. Some of the reading passages were adapted from Yoshida et al.'s (2000) book, while some were from the researcher's interview with international students studying in the TESOL program at McGill University. The last step was the *using* phase where the learners were required to use the target expressions learned from the thinking phase to complete the language tasks. The researcher played a facilitative role by providing corrective feedback after non-target utterances.

The teaching process and the estimated time for each step is summarized in Figure 3.3.

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Figure 3.3: Instructional Process

As can be seen from Figure 3.3, teacher corrective feedback was mainly provided during phases 2 and 5, which were the phases that consumed the greatest amount of class time. The present study followed the five phases in developing learners' pragmatic competence from the named textbook, but the content and activities in each phase were tailor-made either by adapting from the activities provided on various ESL websites, or constructed by the researcher to best suit the learners' context and proficiency level (Appendix B). Table 3.4 presents the lessons for all 10 weeks.

Table 3.4: Summary of the lessons

Week/ Speech act	Steps / Activities	Time /min.
1/ Refusal	Feeling - Read short dialogues and discuss how appropriate they are	10
	Doing - Take turns making refusals to the situations given	15
	Thinking - In groups, think of possible expressions used in making refusals - Try to categorize the expressions by strategies - Learn about conventional refusal strategies and forms - Discuss the context of use of each refusal expression	15
	Understanding - Read a short passage and discuss as a whole class	10
	Using - Practice making refusals in various emotional states - Complete a story using refusals - Think of situations that are difficult to make refusals; take turns to role play the situations	40
2/ Invitation	Feeling - Completing the callouts in the pictures	10
	Doing - Think of interesting movies to be shown during the university movie week - Take turns inviting other classmates to buy a movie ticket; classmates check with the time schedule provided by teacher and respond to the invitation	20
	Thinking - In groups, think of possible expressions used in making invitations - Learn about conventional invitation strategies and forms - Practice some grammatical issues in making invitations	15
	Understanding - Read a short passage and discuss as a whole class	10
	Using - Think of a strange party and try to invite classmates; classmates can accept only two invitations and have to refuse the others - Role play the situations given	35
3/ Request	Feeling - Listen to a dialogue and discuss the topic of the conversation and the relationship between the interlocutors	10
	Doing - Think of five requests; ask five people in the class to do something for you (be creative)	20
	Thinking - In groups, think of the possible expressions used in making requests - Learn about conventional request strategies and forms	10
	Understanding - Read a short passage and discuss as a whole class	10

	<p>Using</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - In pairs, think of possible requests and refusals according to the picture given; take turns role playing to class - Think of requests to a landlord regarding the apartment rules; the landlord cannot accept your request; role play the situations to the class 	40
4/ Interaction of week 1-3	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Review the conventional expressions in making refusals, invitations and requests - Role play ‘avoiding Esther’: students take turns role playing Esther, a dangerous person, trying to invite or ask other classmates to do something; classmates have to find appropriate refusals to Esther’s proposals. - Calling up: each student receives a problematic situation where he/she has to call up someone to request or invite them to do something; the person at the end of the line has to check with his/her situation to decide whether to accept or to refuse their request/ invitation 	20 35 35
5/ Suggestion	<p>Feeling</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Listen to a dialogue and discuss how appropriate the suggestion used is 	10
	<p>Doing</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Think of possible suggestions to each situation and ways to show your agreement/ disagreement with the advice; take turns role playing to the class 	15
	<p>Thinking</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - In groups, think of possible expressions used in making suggestions - Learn about conventional suggestion strategies and forms 	10
	<p>Understanding</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Read a short passage and discuss as a whole class 	10
	<p>Using</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - In pairs, think of appropriate suggestion and refusal expressions according to the pictures given; role play the situation for class - Role play ‘Dr. Phil’s show’ by taking turns giving advice to classmates’ problems; the classmates have to reject the advice using good reasons 	45
6/ Offer	<p>Feeling</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Read different situations where a person is offering something to an other; discuss how appropriate the expressions are 	10
	<p>Doing</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Simulate a salesperson’s job by offering promotions in order to sell the assigned products; the customers select the best promotion and refuse the others 	20
	<p>Thinking</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Learn about conventional suggestion expressions - Practice matching the expressions to the situations given 	10
	<p>Understanding</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Read a short passage and discuss as a whole class 	10
	<p>Using</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Fulfill the callouts in the pictures with either a request or a suggestion; role play the situations in pairs - In groups, role play a tour agency trying to give traveling advice and offering the promotions; the customers choose the best package and refuse the others 	45

7/ Interaction of week 5-6	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Review of conventional suggestions and offering expressions - Sophie: listen to Sophie's story and discuss about each character in the story; take turns giving advice or offering help to Sophie; take turns role playing Sophie and find good reasons to refuse those suggestions or offers - Talking cards: student receives a card telling the situation he/she will have to perform (request, invitation, suggestion or offer); other students receive different cards telling them either to cooperate or to reject their friend's proposal; students role play the situations using the cues from the cards 	10 40 40
8/ Agreement/ Disagree ment	<p>Feeling</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Listen to a discussion; think of who the people are and whether the expressions used affect their relationship 	10
	<p>Doing</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Discuss in class about the 'uniform-only' policy of the university 	20
	<p>Thinking</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - In groups, think of possible expressions used in expressing ideas - Learn about conventional expressions in expressing agreement/ disagreement - Listen to different conversations; decide whether each disagreement expression is appropriate 	15
	<p>Understanding</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Read a short passage and discuss as a whole class 	10
	<p>Using</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Divide the whole class into two teams; conduct a debate on the given topics - Perform a debate about the careers topic 	40
9/ Complaint/ Apology	<p>Feeling</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Listen to two dialogues regarding the same topic; discuss the relationship between the interlocutors and decide which dialogue is more appropriate 	10
	<p>Doing</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Read the situation given; respond to it by making a complaint, while the other person apologizes 	10
	<p>Thinking</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Learn about conventional expressions in complaining and apologizing - Discuss possible situations to the complaints provided 	15
	<p>Understanding</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Read a short passage and discuss as a whole class 	10
	<p>Using</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Talk about the good, the bad, and the ugly people/ situations you experienced; express your complaints/compliments to those people/ situations - Complete the callouts in the pictures given; role play the situations - Think of the possible complaints to a list of companies; role play making complaints to the company, while the company staff apologize 	40
10/ Interaction of week 1-9	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> - Review the conventional expressions of all speech acts learned in the course - Think of possible topics or speech acts that can be performed according to the pictures given; role playing the situations in pairs; the class decides which one best suits each picture - Socializing with confidence: read the cartoon strips and think of better ways to express in each situation; role play for the class 	30 30 30

The teaching materials were validated by three experts in the area of ESL/EFL using an evaluation checklist (Appendix C). The teaching materials were developed during the researcher's academic visit to McGill university in Montreal, Canada, and were piloted with four Korean EFL learners who volunteered to participate in the tutoring sessions. The volunteers were new high school students (grade 11-12) of a private school in Montreal. All volunteers had just arrived in Canada and had stayed for 1-2 months. Their English speaking ability ranged from low-intermediate to intermediate level. As their levels of language proficiency were approximately the same as those of the target samples of the study, the trial use of the teaching materials with these volunteers was assumed to assess whether the tasks difficulty were appropriate. The 90-minute pilot classes met twice a week, every Tuesday and Thursday, for five weeks.

3.4.4 Treatment Rubrics

The errors leading to teacher corrective feedback in this study included both grammatical and pragmatic mistakes pertaining to all speech acts taught, not only refusals. Learners' oral mistakes were categorized into two types; errors regarding grammatical accuracy and errors in contextual appropriateness. The conceptual framework for giving feedback employed in this study was adapted from the recast framework developed by Fukuya and Zhang (2002). According to the framework, students' utterances can be classified into four types, i.e. Type I: appropriate usage/ correct form; Type II: appropriate usage/ incorrect form; Type III: inappropriate usage/ correct form; and Type IV: inappropriate usage/ incorrect form. Table 3.5 presents the conceptual framework for giving corrective feedback in this study.

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Table 3.5: The conceptual framework for giving corrective feedback

Learner's utterance	Appropriate usage	Correct form	Treatments (teacher feedback)	
			Explicit feedback	Prompts
Type I	+	+	n/a	n/a
Type II	+	-	overtly point out the error and provide the correct form	give one, or a combination of the three prompt techniques to elicit self-repair on forms
Type III	-	+	provide metalinguistic information about the inappropriate expression and give an alternative of the appropriate forms	give one, or a combination of the three prompt techniques to elicit self-repair on appropriate expression
Type IV	-	-		

Note: For the control group, teacher collected the frequent mistakes learners made during the class. At the end of each class, teacher provided delayed feedback using the explicit feedback rubric.

The target forms in Type I utterances were not given corrective feedback. The remaining three types prompted either explicit correction or prompts.

Examples of Explicit Correction

Error type II: Refusing a colleague's invitation.

S1: I'm having a party at home on Friday. Do you want to come?

S2: Oh..I'm interesting*, but I already have plan with mom. I'm sorry.

T: You should say "I'm interested".

Error type III: Refusing a boss's request.

S1: I'm finding someone to arrange the meeting room this evening.

Could you do that?

S2: I'm sorry. I can't stay late today. I've a dentist's appointment.

T: You may make it more polite by saying "I'd love to, but I've a dentist's appointment..."

Examples of Prompts

Error type II: Refusing a colleague's invitation.

S1: I'm having a party at home on Friday. Do you want to come?

S2: Oh.. I'm interesting*, but I already have plans. I'm sorry.

T: I'm interesting? I'm interest... (repetition+ elicitation)

Error type III: Refusing a boss's request.

S1: I'm finding someone to arrange the meeting room this evening.

Could you do that?

S2: I'm sorry. I can't help you today. I've dentist* appointment.

T: Can you make "*I can't help you today*" softer?

(metalinguistic clues+elicitation)

In the actual class, the researcher kept the corrective feedback rubric for each type of learner mistake (Table 3.4) to consult with. A list of possible expressions for each corrective feedback technique (Appendix D) was also printed out so that the researcher could have various ways of giving feedback. The trial use of the framework for giving corrective feedback was done with the four Korean EFL students who volunteered to participate in the tutoring sessions.

3.5 Research Instruments

Four data collection instruments were used in this study: 1) oral refusal tests, 2) pragmatic awareness multiple-choice tests (MCT), 3) confidence rating scales, and 4) an interview.

3.5.1 Oral Production Tests

The oral production tests in this study were adapted from the tests of EFL learners' suggestion strategies designed for an interlanguage pragmatic study by Martinez-Flor (2004). The objective of the tests was to measure the subjects' performance on the use of oral refusals. The tests were developed into two parallel versions. The first was used at the pre-test and again at the delayed post-test 24 weeks later, while the second was employed as the immediate post-test. Each version of the test included twelve oral production tasks comprising eight different refusal situations and four distracters. The refusal situations were constructed according to two factors: 1) the four initiating acts of refusals, that is invitation, request, suggestions and offer, and 2) the social status of the first speaker to which learners had to refuse—equal or higher status. The test situations of the two test versions are summarized in Table 3.6.

Table 3.6: Oral production test situations

Sit*	Initiating acts	Status	Relationships	Situations
Test version I				
1	invitation	equal	classmate-classmate	study together
2		higher	supervisor-student	a dinner party
3	request	equal	neighbor-neighbor	watering plants for few days
4		higher	boss-worker	sign a petition
5	suggestion	equal	colleague-colleague	interview a person
6		higher	supervisor-student	take an extra course
7	offer	equal	new friend-new friend	a drink
8		higher	professor-student	a part-time job
Test version II				
1	invitation	equal	classmate-classmate	join a volunteer camp
2		higher	manager-worker	a farewell party
3	request	equal	classmate-classmate	borrow notes
4		higher	professor-student	change the meeting time
5	suggestion	equal	classmate-classmate	a restaurant for the party
6		higher	boss-worker	contact a tour company
7	offer	equal	neighbor-neighbor	a ride to subway station
8		higher	boss-secretary	free fashion show tickets

*Note: Sit = Situation

The test required the subjects to make a refusal to different people in various given situations. The tests were conducted in a language laboratory, where each subject had their own headphones, microphone and tape recorder. In order to avoid any misunderstanding, all test instructions and situations were provided both in forms of sound-recordings and paper scripts. After the subjects listened to each situation, they would hear a *beep* which signaled them to start speaking. Then they were required to respond to the situation by speaking into their microphone, while the machine automatically tape-recorded their responses. The sound-recording devices were programmed so that the subjects had twenty seconds to speak in each situation. After twenty seconds they would hear the *beep* twice to signal that time was up. The total time used in the oral production test was 20 minutes. Examples of two of the test situations are illustrated in Table 3.7.

Table 3.7: Examples of oral production test

<p>Test instruction</p> <p>You will read and hear twelve different conversational situations. In each situation you will hear a person saying something to you. After the person finishes asking or giving instruction, you will hear the beep. Then, respond to the person by speaking into your microphone.</p> <p><i>Situation 1 (from the pre-test)</i></p> <p>You and your classmate missed a class on Statistics. Unfortunately, the lecture of that class will be the main topic of the test next week. Your classmate then invites you to study together at her house. You don't want to because you think you can concentrate more when studying alone.</p> <p>Now listen to your classmate.</p> <p>Classmate: "I think we may get together some time to study for the test. What about going to my place on Saturday?" (beep sound)</p> <p><i>Situation 1 (from the immediate post-test)</i></p> <p>Today is Friday and there will be a midterm exam on Monday. A classmate who often missed the class comes to you and asks to borrow your lecture notes to make a copy and will return it to you in the evening. You don't want to because you want to go straight home this afternoon to study.</p> <p>Now listen to your classmate.</p> <p>Classmate: "Excuse me, I missed some classes on the exam topics. Can you lend me your notes for few hours? I'll make a copy and return them to you this evening." (beep sound)</p>
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The two versions of the tests were validated by three experts in the areas of EFL teaching and language assessment. All three experts approved the tests with a few comments on language expressions. The tests were then revised according to the experts' comments and were proofread by a native speaker. The trial use of the tests was conducted with 10 non English-major undergraduates at Silpakorn University before the actual administration. The oral production tests are provided in Appendix E.

Scoring system and rubrics

Originally, the scoring system employed in this study was an analytical assessment that classified the refusal chunk into pieces, namely the head act and other refusal strategies, before they were separately scored. The pilot use of the original scoring system was done to score the oral test results of the 10 undergraduates. Results from the pilot test

substantiated the fact that refusals generally appear in chunks and the interpretation of a refusal's quality was also perceived as a whole piece of information as well. Thus, to separate various refusal strategies would greatly affect the hearer's perception of the refusal.

According to the pilot test result, the scoring scheme in this study was changed to employ the holistic scoring system modified from Liu's (2006) interlanguage pragmatic rating manual and rubrics. In this holistic scoring system, each refusal production was rated on four aspects: 1) correct speech act, 2) formulaic expression, 3) grammatical accuracy, and 4) amount of information. The scoring system and rubrics are presented in Appendix F. The present scoring system was proved by three experts in ESL/EFL teaching and language assessment. Then, it was trial used and revised twice before the final version was used.

Results obtained from the actual administration of the oral production test were scored by the researcher. Then, 10% of the students' responses were randomly rescored by an EFL teacher who was native speaker of English. A Pearson correlation test was run to find inter-rater reliability. The inter-rater reliability measure reported high correlation between the two raters [$r = 0.99$, $N = 12$, $p < 0.01$].

3.5.2 Pragmatic awareness multiple choice tests

The pragmatic awareness multiple-choice tests (MCT) aimed to measure the subjects' pragmatic awareness in selecting the pragmatically appropriate refusal according to the given situation. The MCT was developed based on the framework of the pragmatic awareness multiple-choice questionnaire designed by Cook and Liddicoat (2002). The MCT included three refusal alternatives comprising: 1) a direct refusal, 2) a conventionally indirect refusal, and 3) an unconventionally indirect refusal. The tests had two parallel versions; one was used as the pre-test and the other was the post-test. Each of the 20-item tests comprised 16 items on refusal situations, while the other 4 were the distracters. The subjects were required to choose the refusal expression that best suited the given context. Examples of the pragmatic awareness MCT are provided in Table 3.8.

Table 3.8: Examples of the pragmatic awareness multiple-choice test

<p>Test instruction</p> <p>Read the following situations in which you are talking to a person. Decide which response BEST suits each situation. Please note that your relationship to each person is <u>NEITHER</u> too close <u>NOR</u> too distant.</p> <p>Situation 1 (from the pre-test)</p> <p>You are talking to your new classmate about a book you bought last week and just finished reading. The classmate asked you to lend her the book for a couple of days, but you have to use it in writing a report this weekend. What would you say?</p> <p>A. Uhm...I'm sorry, I can't because I'm writing a report on it. Maybe next time.</p> <p>B. I'm afraid I have to use it this week because I'm writing a report on it. I'm sorry.</p> <p>C. I'm sorry to say that I can't lend it to you this weekend. I'm writing a report on it. Sorry about that.</p> <p>Situation 5 (from the post-test)</p> <p>You are finishing discussing your project with your supervisor when it starts raining. Your supervisor offers to lend you her umbrella. Your sister is going to pick you up today. What would you say?</p> <p>A. Thank you very much, but it's unnecessary since my sister is coming to pick me up today.</p> <p>B. That's very kind of you, but my sister is coming to get me so I'm afraid I don't really need it. Thank you though.</p> <p>C. Thank you for your offer, but my sister is coming to pick me up so I guess I won't be needing it. Thanks anyway though.</p>

The pragmatic awareness tests were validated by three experts in the areas of EFL teaching and language assessment. Suggestions from the experts led to two main points of revision: 1) the relationship and social distance between the interlocutors of each situation should be clarified and emphasized, and 2) some redundancy and unnatural expressions should be modified. The test was revised according to the experts' comments. Then, the revised version was proofread by a native speaker before pilot tested with 16 native speaker undergraduates at McGill University, Montreal, Canada. Results from the pilot test revealed a potential distribution of answers for each situation in the way correspondent with the scoring system of the test.

The pragmatic awareness MCT scoring system

As there is no concrete standard for what is considered appropriate language, the most valid and practical way to judge the appropriateness of an utterance in a particular context may rely on native speakers' norms in language use. For this reason, Lyster's (1993) scoring scheme for sociolinguistic MCT was adopted for use in this study. Test items were scored according to weights or percentage of the native speakers' choices in doing the test. Similar to Lyster's (1993) scoring scheme, the test scores were graded according to the following four-point scale:

- 3 points if chosen by 80-100% of the native speakers;
- 2 points if chosen by 50-79% of the native speakers;
- 1 point if chosen by 15-49% of the native speakers;
- 0 point if chosen by less than 15% of the native speakers.

In order to develop the scoring scheme, the pragmatic awareness tests were pilot used with 16 English-speaking undergraduates at McGill University. Then, the actual administration was carried out with 20 American undergraduates who were exchange students in international programs at Thammasat University in Thailand. All of them have been living in Thailand, ranging in duration from 1-4 months. Results from the native speakers' choices in completing the MCTs were calculated to find the percentage and to assign scores for each option.

3.5.3 Confidence rating scales

The confidence rating scales aimed to examine the subjects' level of confidence in the quality of their oral refusal production. As the present study focused on learners' confidence in their pragmatic production, two five-point rating scales were applied to each refusal expression—one for the level of confidence in grammatical accuracy, the other for its contextual appropriateness. To respond to the rating scales, the subjects listened to the tape recordings of their refusal production made on each test. Then, they were asked to rate their level of confidence in the grammatical accuracy and the appropriateness of each refusal on the rating scales.

Examples of the confidence rating scale are presented in Table 3.9.

Table 3.9: Examples of the confidence rating scale

Rating scale 1: Level of confidence in your pre-test production										
Listen to your responses on the speaking tests. Circle the number that indicates your level of confidence in your response to each situation.										
Sit*	How confident are you in the contextual appropriateness of your responses?					How confident are you in the grammatical accuracy of your responses?				
1= not confident at all, 2 = not confident, 3= a little confident, 4 = fairly confident, 5 = very confident										
1	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
2	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5
3	1	2	3	4	5	1	2	3	4	5

*Note: Sit = Situation

Similar to the validation process of the other tests, the confidence rating scales were approved by three experts in the area of psycholinguistics and EFL teaching. The trial use of the rating scales was conducted with 10 non English-major undergraduates at Silpakorn University. The results led to the important change in the instrument administration process. In the pilot use of the rating scales, firstly, the 10 volunteers listened to their tape-recorded oral refusals made on the pre-test, and rated their confidence level on the rating scales. Then, they were provided with a 30-minute tutoring session to introduce them to a set of conventional refusal expressions. After the tutoring session, the volunteers responded to the oral refusal post-test, during which their responses were tape-recorded. Then, they were asked to listen to their refusals made on the latter test and rate their level of confidence again.

Results showed that seven volunteers out of ten cited the same confidence level (level 4 or fairly confident) on both before- and after-treatment rating. However, when interviewed, they admitted that their level of confidence improved after the tutoring session but it did not reach level 5 (very confident). Furthermore, all of them wanted to change their rating of confidence before the tutoring session because their confidence level changed according to their knowledge. An interesting point found from the pilot use of the instrument is that level of confidence is completely subjective and greatly varies

depending on individual characteristics such as personality and experience in L2. Since it is not feasible to control individual differences in self-esteem, a possible way to control the differences may be the provision of knowledge or experience in order to balance the subjects' background knowledge before the implementation of the rating assessment. As a result, all subjects were required to rate their level of confidence in their refusal production made on the pre- and post-test after the instructional period. In the actual rating, the subjects listened to the tape recordings of their refusal production made on the pre-test and rated their confidence level on the rating scales. Then, they repeated the same process with their post-test production.

3.5.4 Interview

The group interviews were structured interviews conducted to collect qualitative data on the subjects' perception, confidence, attitude and problems regarding the type of corrective feedback they received. Also, the interviews aimed to gather qualitative data on the subjects' pragmatic awareness. Two weeks after the delayed post-test, three subjects from the high-proficiency and three from the low-proficiency level of each group were called in for an interview. The interviews were conducted in groups of three as the subjects were required to do a group discussion task as a part of the interview.

The interview included three parts; all were asked in Thai. The first part was stimulated recall in which the participants were asked to do three role plays regarding different refusal situations with teacher provided corrective feedback of the same type as their treatment. The objective of the first session was to help the subjects recall their experience in receiving the particular kind of feedback in the course. The second part of the interview dealt with personal feelings and attitudes towards corrective feedback. The subjects were asked to express their opinions, feelings and level of confidence when receiving corrective feedback in class. Questions about attitude included general queries regarding the subjects' attitudes towards making mistakes and the teacher's corrective feedback. Interview questions pertaining to confidence were constructed from the two central factors influencing one's level of self-confidence proposed by Clement (1980). The two factors are *the lack of anxiety* and *the learner's perceived competence*. Regarding anxiety, Horwitz et al. (1986) claimed that there were three components of foreign language anxiety: communication apprehension, test anxiety and fear of negative

evaluation. The present study adopted two components of anxiety, namely *communication apprehension* and *fear of negative evaluation*, to construct the interview questions. The first refers to the feeling of fear or worry that something bad may happen in the communication, e.g., the fear of making mistakes in speaking. The second is the feeling of fear that teachers or peers may give negative evaluations to their language production, e.g. the worry in receiving negative feedback. Employing this framework, students' language anxiety in this study was defined as the feeling of worry about four English speaking situations: 1) anxiety about speaking English with teachers, 2) anxiety about speaking English with classmates, 3) anxiety about receiving teacher corrective feedback, and 4) anxiety in speaking English without corrective feedback.

State perceived competence, as defined by MacIntyre et al. (1998: 549), refers to “the feeling that one has the capacity to communicate effectively at a particular moment”. Considering this definition, questions pertaining to perceived competence were designed to include the subjects' state perceived competence at three moments in time, i.e. before, during and after receiving teacher's corrective feedback.

The final part of the interview aimed to collect qualitative data on the subjects' pragmatic awareness. In this part, the subjects received four refusal situations together with two choices of statements of refusal. They were required to discuss them in groups, using the think-aloud technique, to find a consensus on the best refusal for each situation. The interviews were tape-recorded and transcribed for content analysis. Examples of each part of the interview are illustrated in Table 3.10.

Table 3.10: Examples of the interview questions and tasks

<p>Example 5</p> <p>Part 1: Stimulated recall task</p> <p>Role-play the situation given with your pair.</p> <p>Student A: You are an undergrad. You are looking for the judge for the university English Competition which will be held next month. You want to invite Dr. Jones to this position.</p> <p>Student B: You are Dr. Jones. You will go abroad for a long vacation next month.</p>
<p>Part 2: Interview questions</p> <ul style="list-style-type: none"> ▪ คุณคิดว่าการพูดภาษาอังกฤษผิดพลาดในห้องเรียนเป็นเรื่องน่าเสียน้ำหรือไม ▪ คุณคิดว่าการที่ผู้สอนทักท้วงข้อผิดพลาดทางภาษา (mistake) ของคุณในห้องเรียนเป็นเรื่องน่าเสียน้ำหรือไม ▪ เมื่อผู้สอนทักท้วงภาษาของคุณในห้องเรียน คุณมีความกังวลใจในการพูดเพิ่มขึ้นหรือไม่ ▪ เมื่อผู้สอนทักท้วงภาษาของคุณ คุณรู้สึกเสียความมั่นใจในความสามารถของคนหรือไม่
<p>Part 3: Group discussion</p> <p>อ่านประโยชน์พิเศษในสถานการณ์ต่อไปนี้ และวิเคราะห์รูปแบบการปฏิเสธในแต่ละสถานการณ์ว่าข้อใดมีความเหมาะสมมากกว่า พร้อมแสดงเหตุผล</p> <p>Classmate: “The university band is playing tonight. The ticket is free. Would you like to come?”</p> <p>A: “Oh.. I’m sorry. I think I cannot go because I’m having an exam tomorrow. Sorry again.”</p> <p>B: “That sounds great! Thanks for asking me, but I don’t think I can make it because I’m having an exam tomorrow.”</p>

The interview questions and discussion task were validated by three experts in psycholinguistics and EFL teaching. The experts’ suggestions for the interview questions were that some unnatural language and complicated concepts which resulted from the translation of the technical terms should be modified. Further, they also commented that on the discussion task some alternative refusals were too difficult for the target samples. This is because the expressions used were either too complex or too similar that the subjects might not see any differences. Thus, the interview questions and the discussion tasks were revised following the experts’ comments before trial with the same 10

undergraduates as in the other tests. The interview questions and discussion task are provided in Appendix I.

3.6 Data collection

The data collection of the main study can be divided into five phases as follows;

3.6.1 Pre-tests

The pre-tests comprising an oral production test and a pragmatic awareness MCT were conducted in the language laboratory one week before the teaching period. The laboratory devices were programmed to automatically record the subjects' refusal production on the oral test for the data analyses. Then, as mentioned earlier, the scores obtained from the oral production pre-test were used to categorize the subjects into the high-proficiency (H) and the low-proficiency (L). The number of H and L were then matched and assigned into groups. As a result, each of the three groups comprised 8 H and 5 L, totaling 13 students.

3.6.2 Teaching period

The teaching period of the main study lasted 10 weeks. The 90-minute class met once a week, totaling 900 minutes. The instruction was held in three well-equipped classrooms during July 11-September 14, 2007. The researcher was the teacher of all three groups. During the 10-week course, the three groups were exposed to the same lesson plans and teaching materials, but different corrective feedback technique.

3.6.3 Immediate post-tests

One week after the instructional period ended, the immediate post-test on oral production and the pragmatic awareness MCT were administered in the language laboratory. The subjects' refusal production on the oral test was tape-recorded. To avoid the boredom that could result from doing too many tests, the confidence rating scales on the pre- and post-test production were implemented one week after.

3.6.4 Delayed post-tests

The delayed post-test was done only for the oral refusal production to examine the retention effects of each corrective feedback technique. The tests were conducted in the same laboratory 13 weeks after the end of the course. The subjects' response on the oral production test was tape-recorded for further analyses.

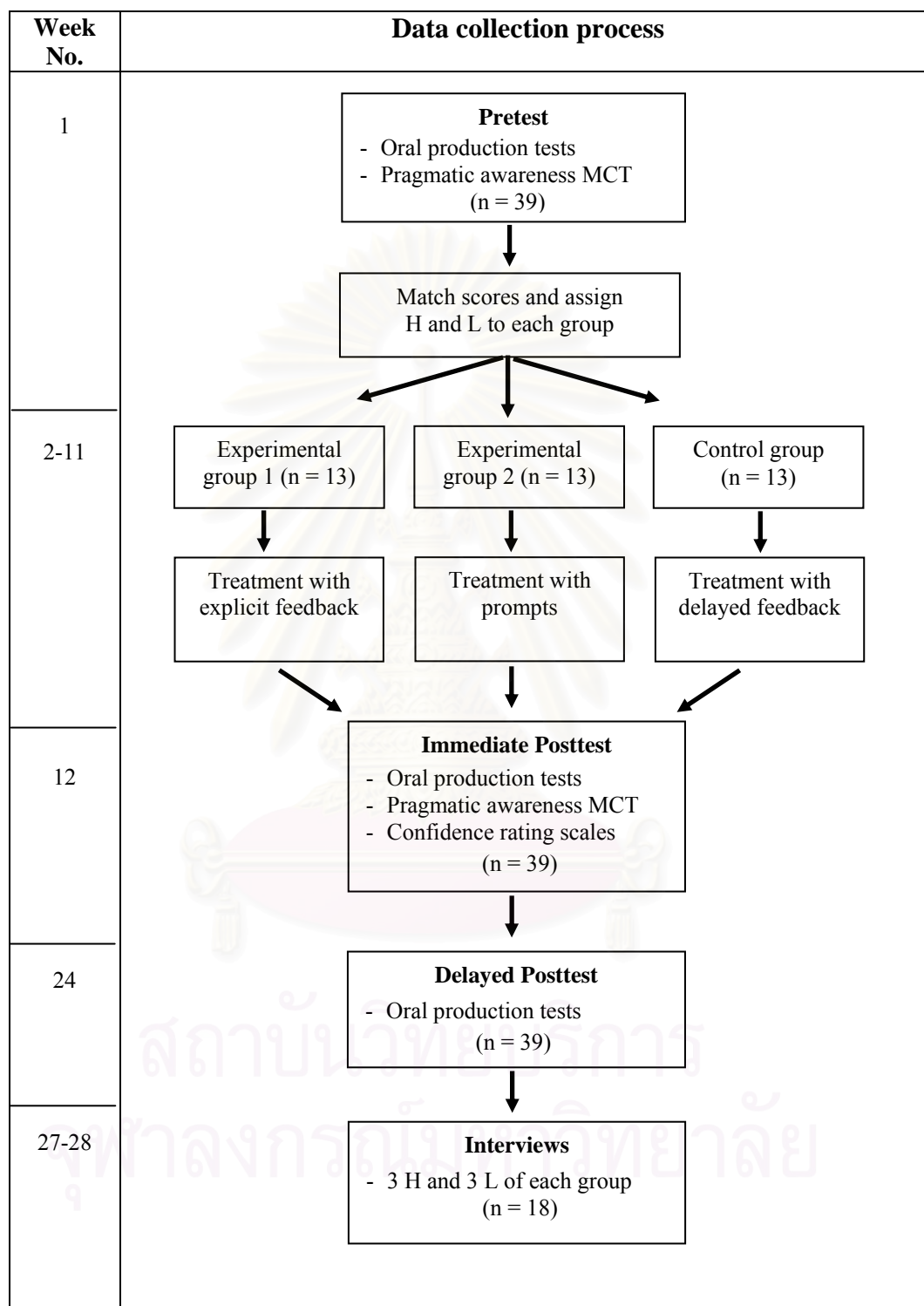
3.6.5 Interview

The interview with the H and L representatives was conducted the last due to the time condition. This is because the immediate post-test was done just before the final exam period of the regular courses, followed by the one-month term break. Thus, the subjects were not available for the interview during that time. As a result, after all tests results were calculated, three of the H and three of the L of each group were called in for a group interview. The structured interviews were conducted in Thai to elicit more extensive and accurate information from the interviewees. The interviews were tape-recorded and transcribed for content analysis.

Figure 3.4 presents the data collection process of the main study.



Figure 3.4: Data collection process



Note: week 13-15 = the final exam period of the regular classes
week 16-20 = term break

3.7 Data analyses

Data obtained from the four research instruments were analyzed by a number of statistics to answer the research questions and hypotheses.

3.7.1 Data analyses for the production tests

Research question 1: Does learner's production of pragmatically appropriate refusals improve after receiving explicit feedback and prompts? If so, which kind of feedback is more effective?

Hypothesis 1: Both explicit feedback and prompts will significantly improve learners' production of pragmatically appropriate refusals.

A number of statistical analyses were done in order to answer this research question and hypothesis:

1) Scores from the oral pre-test were analyzed by a Kolmorov-Smirnov one-sample test to measure whether the distribution of the scores differed significantly from a normal distribution. Results from the Kolmorov-Smirnov in the oral pre-test analyses showed a probability of .584, which indicated that the distribution of scores on the pre-test was normal (Appendix J). Then, parametric tests were used for further analyses.

2) Scores on each test given to the two experimental groups and the control group were analyzed using one factor analysis of variance (ANOVA) with Post-hoc Tukey analyses to find the significant difference between groups at a particular test time.

3) Scores obtained from the three oral production tests—the pre-, immediate post- and delayed post-test—were run by one factor repeated measures analysis of variance (repeated measures ANOVA) to determine if the improvement over time of each group was significant.

3.7.2 Data analyses for the pragmatic awareness MCT

Research question 2: Does learner's awareness of pragmatically appropriate refusals improve after receiving explicit feedback and prompts? If so, which kind of feedback is more effective?

Hypothesis 2: Both explicit feedback and prompts will significantly improve learners' awareness of pragmatically appropriate refusals.

Data analyses for the pragmatic awareness MCT aimed to find the answers for research question and hypothesis 2. The data analyses procedure is described below.

1) Similar to the production tests' scores, the Kolmorov-Smirnov test was run to find the distribution of scores on the pre-test. Results from the analyses showed the difference from normality at .524, which represented the normal distribution of scores on the pragmatic awareness pre-test (Appendix J). Thus, parametric statistics were employed in the next step.

2) Scores from the pragmatic awareness pre- and post-test of each group were analyzed by the t-test to examine whether the improvement of each group was significant.

3) Scores from the pre- and post-test of the two experimental groups and the control group were analyzed using one factor analysis of variance (ANOVA) with Post hoc Tukey statistics to find the differences between groups.

3.7.3 Data analyses for the confidence rating scales

Research question 3: Does learner's level of confidence in making pragmatically appropriate refusals improve after receiving explicit feedback and prompts? If so, which kind of feedback is more effective?

Hypothesis 3: Both explicit feedback and prompts will significantly improve learners' level of confidence in making pragmatically appropriate refusals.

Data analyses for the confidence rating scales employed the same pattern as those of the pragmatic awareness tests so as to answer research question and hypothesis 3.

1) The pre-test scores were analyzed by the Kolmorov-Smirnov test to find the distribution of scores. Results showed the normality of scores distribution ($p = .893$) (Appendix J). Thus, parametric statistics were employed to find the between-groups differences.

2) Scores from the rating scales of the pre- and post-test production of each group were analyzed by the t-test to examine whether each group significantly improved their level of confidence.

3) Scores from the rating scales on the pre- and post-test of the two experimental groups and the control group were analyzed by ANOVA using Post hoc Tukey analyses to examine whether the differences between groups were significant.

3.7.4 Data analyses for the interview

Data obtained from the interview provided qualitative support for the results of research questions and hypotheses 2 and 3. Results obtained from the interview were transcribed and then analyzed using the content analysis method.

1) Results regarding the subjects' confidence level, perception and attitudes towards teacher's corrective feedback were categorized by the positive or negative comments.

2) Basic descriptive statistics, namely percentages, were used to represent results of the group discussion and the self-rating parts of the interview.

3) Results from the group discussion part of the interview were analyzed to find the pragmatic awareness aspects addressed during the discussion. The aspects of pragmatic awareness were then recorded and compared between groups.

Data analyses and the objectives of each research instrument are summarized in Table 3.11.

Table 3.11: Summary of data analyses of the research instruments

Instruments	Nature of instruments	Objectives	Answer to RQ/ HP*	Data Analysis methods
1. Oral production tests	timed speaking test on responding to the given situations	To measure learners' oral production of appropriate refusals	RQ/ HP 1	one-way ANOVA / Repeated measures ANOVA
2. Pragmatic awareness MCT	multiple choice paper test	To measure learners' pragmatic awareness in selecting contextually appropriate refusals	RQ/ HP 2	t-test/ one-way ANOVA
3. Confidence rating scale	Likert-scale	To measure learners' level of confidence in making appropriate refusals	RQ/ HP 3	t-test/ one-way ANOVA
4. Interview	Structured interview	To collect students' attitudes, problems & suggestions in receiving teacher's corrective feedback To examine qualitative data on learners' pragmatic awareness and confidence	RQ/ HP 2 and 3	content analysis via think-aloud retrospective

*Note: RQ = Research question, HP = Hypothesis

3.8 Summary

This study is experimental research using the Matching-Only Pretest-Posttest Control Group Design. The study was conducted with 39 first year English-major undergraduates. The 10-week instructional intervention comprised two experimental groups and one control group, which received different techniques of corrective feedback as treatment. The first experimental group received explicit feedback, while the second received prompts. The control group was treated with delayed feedback by means of explicit correction. Four research instruments were used: oral production tests, pragmatic awareness MCT, confidence rating scales and an interview. The subjects were pre-tested on their refusal production and awareness before participated in the teaching period. The immediate post-test measured their oral refusal and pragmatic awareness as well as their confidence in the quality of their refusal production. The 13-week delayed post-test was administered to follow up on the retention of the corrective feedback on the subjects' refusal production. The last step was to collect qualitative data using an interview.

CHAPTER IV

RESULTS

The results of the study are presented in accordance with the research questions. The results are presented in three parts:

- 1) The effects of explicit feedback and prompts on learners' production of pragmatically appropriate refusals
- 2) The effects of explicit feedback and prompts on learners' awareness of pragmatically appropriate refusals
- 3) The effects of explicit feedback and prompts on learners' level of confidence in producing pragmatically appropriate refusals

4.1 The effects of explicit feedback and prompts on learners' production of pragmatically appropriate refusals

The results in this part are presented in two main sections. In the first section, quantitative findings relating to the participants' performance on the pre-test are presented. The second section presents the quantitative findings from the immediate post-test and the delayed post-test.

4.1.1 Pre-test results

The mean scores from the oral pre-test revealed considerable uniformity across all three groups. Results from one factor analysis of variance (ANOVA) revealed that there were no significant differences between the three groups [$F(2, 36) = .134$; $p = .88$]. This means that the abilities in making English refusals of the three groups were not significantly different at the beginning of the study. Descriptive statistics of the three groups are presented in Table 4.1.

Table 4.1: Mean scores for all three groups on the oral pre-test

Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
EG	13	57.31	17.91
PG	13	54.31	16.26
CG	13	56.77	12.55

As stated earlier, the average mean scores of the pre-test were also used to subdivide the subjects into a high- (H) and a low-proficiency (L) subgroups. Analysis by t-test reported a significant difference between the average mean scores of the H and the L [$t(76) = 7.487$; $p < 0.05$]. However, analyses by proficiency level revealed that the performance of the three H subgroups (EG+, PG+, and CG+) on the oral pre-test were not significantly different [$F(2, 21) = .591$; $p = .56$]. Descriptive statistics of the three high-proficiency subgroups are presented in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2: Mean scores for the high-proficiency subgroups on the oral pre-test

Group	<u>N</u>	Mean	Std. Deviation
EG+	8	69.13	11.33
PG+	8	65.38	4.87
CG+	8	65.00	7.69

Note: + stands for high-proficiency learners

Although the analyses of the oral data from the H subgroups showed more homogeneity in terms of mean scores than the L ones, results from ANOVA indicated that the difference between the three L subgroups (EG-, PG-, and CG-) was not statistically significant [$F(2, 12) = 1.137$; $p = .29$]. Results of the three low-proficiency subgroups are presented in Table 4.3.

Table 4.3: Mean scores for the low-proficiency subgroups on the oral pre-test

Group	<u>N</u>	Mean	Std. Deviation
EG-	5	38.40	3.44
PG-	5	36.60	10.74
CG-	5	43.60	4.10

Note: - stands for low-proficiency learners

Summary of pre-test results

The pre-test results indicated that the three participating groups showed comparable performance in making oral English refusals at the beginning of the study. No statistically significant differences of the mean scores were found between them. Analyses by proficiency level revealed a significant difference between the H and L, while no significant difference was found between the three H subgroups, nor does between the L ones. Findings from the pre-test then can imply that the ability in

making oral refusal of the three participating groups were comparable at the onset of the study.

4.1.2 Post-tests results

Results from the immediate and delayed post-tests are firstly presented as the overall scores of the three groups. Then, the results pertaining to the effects of corrective feedback in relation to learners' proficiency level are reported.

a) Overall scores

Table 4.4 displays the descriptive statistics of the three oral production tests.

Table 4.4: Mean scores for all three groups on the oral production tests

Group	Pre-test		Post-test 1		Post-test 2	
	X	S.D.	X	S.D.	X	S.D.
EG	57.31	17.91	69.23	12.97	59.31	14.46
PG	54.31	16.27	77.77	11.54	73.39	10.97
CG	56.77	12.55	63.77	8.81	54.00	9.98

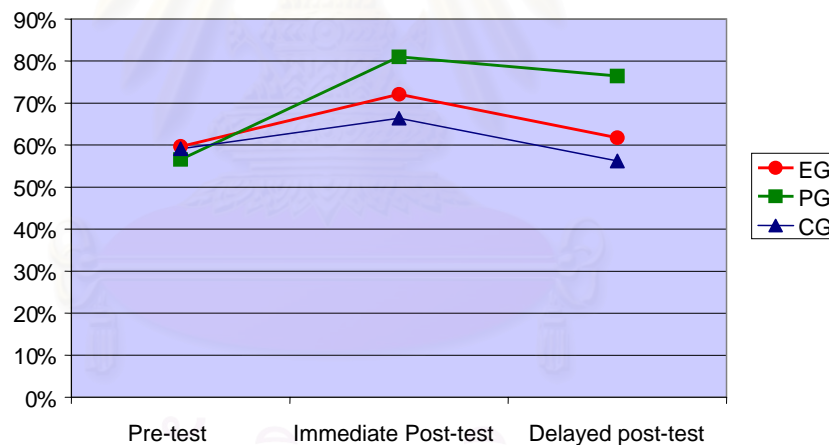
As can be seen from Table 4.4, the subjects' overall performance in making refusals on the immediate post-test improved; the PG was found to be the highest scoring. Further, all groups showed less with-in group variation as their standard deviation dropped from 17.91 (EG), 16.27 (PG), and 12.55 (CG) on the pre-test to 12.97, 11.54, and 8.81, respectively, on the immediate post-test. Analyses by ANOVA revealed a significant difference between groups [$F(2, 36) = 5.122$; $p = .011$]. Post hoc Tukey analyses indicated that the PG and the EG performed better than the CG, but only the PG significantly outperformed the CG ($p = .008$). Although the PG's score on the immediate post-test (77.77) was higher than that of the EG (69.23), the difference between the two experimental groups was not statistically different ($p = .14$).

ANOVA analyses of the delayed post-test indicated a clearer difference between groups [$F(2, 36) = 9.123$; $p = .001$]. The scores of all groups dropped from the immediate post-test. The PG's scores were slightly lower while those of the EG and CG drastically dropped to approximately the same level as their pre-test scores. Post hoc Tukey analyses revealed that by the time of the delayed post-test, the PG performed significantly better than both the EG ($p = .013$) and the CG ($p = .001$). The measure of effect size in ANOVA by partial Eta squared reported the large effect size (.462). Furthermore, while the EG's and CG's standard deviation on the delayed post-

test increased from that of the immediate post-test, the PG's standard deviation continued falling as the group showed less variation from one test to the other.

The repeated measures ANOVA was employed to examine whether the improvement over time was significant. Results showed that the difference of scores from one test to the other was significant for all three groups (the EG, $p = .001$; the PG, $p < .001$; and the CG, $p = .001$). Post hoc analyses revealed that the EG and PG improved significantly from pre-test to immediate post-test ($p = .004$ and $p < .001$, respectively), while the CG's improvement of scores did not reach a level of significant difference ($p = .072$). However, all of them had significantly fallen scores from immediate post-test to delayed post-test, but at different levels. The EG and the CG scores on the delayed post-test were not significantly different from those of their pre-test ($p = .336$ and $p = .642$, respectively), while the PG scores on the delayed post test were still significantly higher than their pre-test scores ($p < .001$). Figure 4.1 displays the results from the three oral tests.

Figure 4.1: Scores on the oral pre- and post-tests of all three groups



b) Scores of the high-proficiency subgroups

When examining the scores in relation to the subjects' proficiency level, results from descriptive statistics revealed that the PG+ gained the highest scores on the immediate post-test followed by the EG+ and the CG+, respectively. Analyses by ANOVA reported a statistical difference between the three groups [$F(2, 21) = 16.316$; $p = .001$]. Post hoc analyses indicated that both the EG+ and the PG+ significantly outperformed the CG+ ($p = .007$, and $p = .001$, respectively). The PG+ also performed better than the EG+ on the immediate post-test; however, the scores did not reach a

statistically significant level ($p = .08$). Table 4.5 shows the results from the oral pre- and the post-tests of the H subgroups.

Table 4.5: Mean scores for the high-proficiency subgroups on the oral production tests

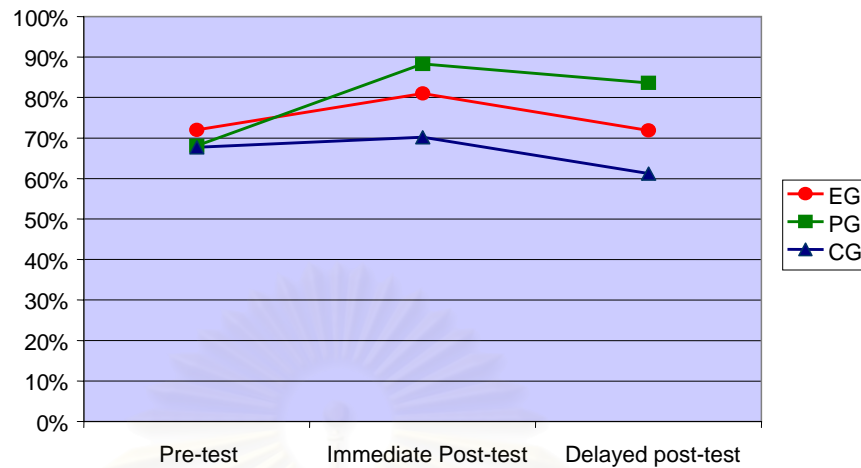
Group	Pre-test		Post-test 1		Post-test 2	
	X	S.D.	X	S.D.	X	S.D.
EG+	69.13	11.33	77.75	3.92	69.00	8.52
PG+	65.38	4.87	84.75	5.60	80.25	5.20
CG+	65.00	7.69	67.38	8.11	58.75	9.98

Note: + stands for high-proficiency learners

Results from the delayed post-test reported the decreasing of scores of all groups, with the PG+ maintaining their scores the most. Analyses from ANOVA showed a significant difference between groups [$F(2, 21) = 13.927$; $p = .001$]. Post hoc analyses reported that the PG+ significantly outperformed the EG+ ($p = .030$) and the CG+ (.001) in the delayed post-test. The EG+ performed better than the CG+, but the difference of scores only barely reached the significant level ($p = .051$).

The improvement of scores over time was examined using repeated measures ANOVA. Results showed that the scores' increase from one test to the other was significant for all three groups (the EG+, $p = .01$; the PG+, $p < .001$; and the CG+, $p = .014$). Post hoc analyses revealed that the PG+ improved significantly from pre-test to immediate post-test ($p < .001$), whereas the EG+ gained some improvement but did not reach a significant level ($p = .062$). No statistical difference was found from the CG+ scores on pre- and immediate post-test ($p = 1.00$). However, all three groups saw a significant drop in their scores from immediate post-test to the delayed post-test. The EG+ and the CG+ lost their gains on the delayed post-test; the EG+ performed approximately the same as their performance on the pre-test ($p = 1.00$), while the CG+ scores on the delayed post-test were even lower than those of their pre-test ($p = .121$). The PG+ also lost some gains, but their scores on the delayed post-test were still significantly higher than those of their pre-test ($p < .001$). Figure 4.2 illustrates the H subgroups' performance on the three oral tests.

Figure 4.2: Scores on the oral pre- and post-tests of the high-proficiency subgroups



c) Scores of the low-proficiency subgroups

The scores on the oral production tests of the low-proficiency subgroups are presented in Table 4.6.

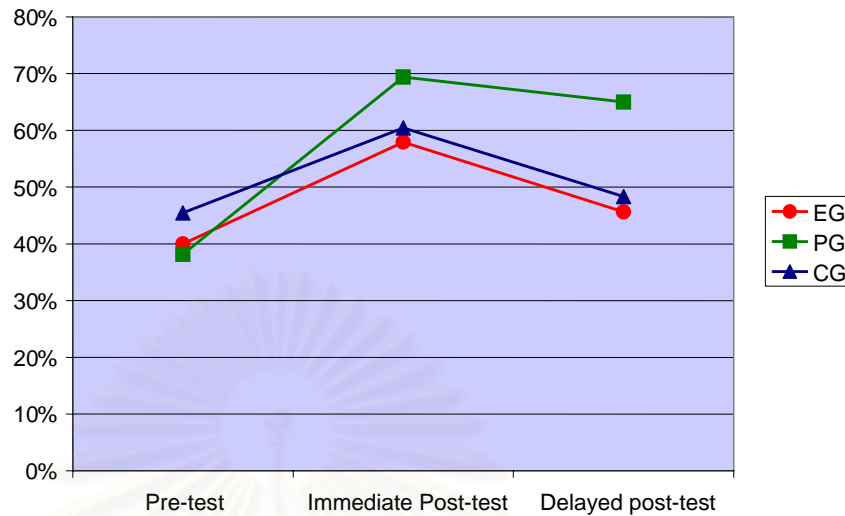
Table 4.6: Mean scores for the low-proficiency subgroups on the oral production tests

Group	Pre-test		Post-test 1		Post-test 2	
	X	S.D.	X	S.D.	X	S.D.
EG-	38.40	3.44	55.60	10.02	43.80	3.42
PG-	36.60	10.74	66.60	9.56	62.40	8.26
CG-	43.60	4.10	58.00	7.11	46.40	2.70

Note: - stands for low-proficiency learners

Descriptive statistics from Table 4.6 showed that the PG- gained the highest scores (66.60) on the immediate post-test, followed by the CG- (58.00) and the EG- (55.60). ANOVA analyses reported that the difference between the low proficiency subgroups was not significant [$F(2, 12) = 2.073$; $p = .169$]. However, by the time of the delayed post-test, the difference between groups became robust [$F(2, 12) = 17.432$; $p = .001$]. Post hoc analyses reported that the score of the PG- was significantly higher than that of the EG- ($p = .001$) and the CG- ($p = .001$). Furthermore, the CG- performed better than the EG- on both the immediate post-test ($p = .907$) and the delayed post-test ($p = .732$), but the difference of scores did not reach a significant level. Figure 4.3 shows the improvement of scores on the three oral production tests of the L subgroups.

Figure 4.3: Scores on the oral pre- and post-tests of the low-proficiency subgroups



The repeated measures ANOVA showed that, overall, the difference of scores from one test to the other was significant for all three groups (the EG-, $p = .014$; the PG-, $p < .001$; and the CG-, $p = .005$). Post hoc analyses revealed that the PG- improved significantly from pre-test to immediate post-test ($p = .003$), and lost some gains at the delayed post-test. However, their delayed post-test scores were significantly higher than their pre-test scores ($p = .003$).

The EG- gained some improvement from the pre-test to the immediate post-test, but their scores dropped on the delayed post-test; however, the differences between the three test times was not statistically significant ($p = .099$ and $p = .286$, respectively). Although they had a lesser degree of improvement, the CG- shared a similar pattern to the EG- significantly improving their scores from the pre-test to the immediate post-test ($p = .049$) and lowering their performance level on the delayed post-test to approximately the same level as their pre-test scores ($p = .803$).

However, the unequal number of the H and L of each group (8 H and 5 L) does limit the feasibility to analyze the within-groups interaction to see whether each feedback technique affects the H and L differently. Therefore, the data analyses pertaining to the effects of the treatments in relation to proficiency levels included merely the between-groups interaction of the H and L.

4.2 The effects of explicit feedback and prompts on learners' awareness of pragmatically appropriate refusals

Results in this part are presented in two sections. The first section reports the quantitative findings from the pragmatic awareness pre- and post-test. The second presents the descriptive data stemmed from the interview.

4.2.1 Quantitative analyses

a) Overall scores

Descriptive statistics of the pre- and post-test results of all three groups are presented in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7: Scores on pragmatic awareness pre- and post-test of all three groups

Group	Pre-test		Post-test	
	X	S.D.	X	S.D.
EG	19.38	4.31	21.00	2.86
PG	18.85	2.91	24.23	2.20
CG	18.92	2.69	19.85	2.73

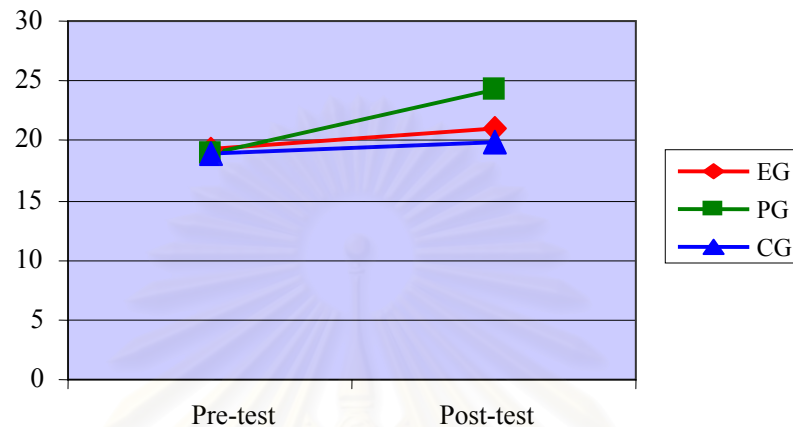
As can be seen from Table 4.7, the pre-test scores among the three groups were similar. Analyses by ANOVA reported that the difference between groups was not significant [$F(2, 36) = .096$; $p = .908$]. This means that the three groups' level of awareness of appropriate refusal is comparable at the beginning of the study.

However, according to the post-test results, it is obvious that the PG gained the greatest improvement of their pragmatic awareness (24.23), followed by the EG (21.00) and the CG (19.85). Analyses by t-test reported a significance difference between the pre- and post-test scores of the PG [$t(12) = 10.759$; $p < 0.05$]. The EG also gained some improvement, but no significant difference was found between their pre- and post-test scores [$t(12) = 1.525$; $p > 0.05$]. The CG recorded the least improvement on pragmatic awareness as their scores on both tests were not very different [$t(12) = .843$; $p > 0.05$].

Analyses by ANOVA indicated a significant difference between groups [$F(2, 36) = 9.827$; $p = .001$] at the time of the post-test. Post hoc Tukey showed further that the PG considerably outperformed the EG ($p = .009$) and the CG ($p = .001$), which led to a significant difference between the PG and the two groups. The EG performed

better than the CG, but the difference between groups did not reach statistical significance ($p = .505$). Figure 4.4 illustrates the three groups' scores on their awareness of appropriate refusals from the pre- and post-test.

Figure 4.4: Scores on pragmatic awareness pre- and post-test of all three groups



b) Scores of the high-proficiency subgroups

Table 4.8 displays the descriptive statistics obtained from the pre- and post-test of the high proficiency learners.

Table 4.8: Scores on pragmatic awareness pre- and post-test of the high proficiency subgroups

Group	Pre-test		Post-test	
	X	S.D.	X	S.D.
EG+	21.75	3.64	21.88	2.38
PG+	19.25	2.96	24.75	2.38
CG+	19.38	2.93	20.00	2.45

Note: + stands for high-proficiency learners

As can be seen in Table 4.8, the PG+ considerably developed their pragmatic awareness while the EG+ and the CG+ slightly improved their recognition in the post-test. Analyses by ANOVA indicated the significant difference between groups [$F(2, 21) = 8.012$; $p = .003$]. Post hoc analyses revealed that the PG+ did significantly better than the CG+ ($p = .002$) and markedly outperformed the EG+ in the post-test. However, the difference between the PG+ and the EG+ is only reaching the statistically significant level ($p = .052$). The EG+ also performed better than the CG+, but the scores were not significantly different ($p = .331$). Figure 4.5 displays the

improvement of scores on the pragmatic awareness pre- and post-test of the three subgroups.

Figure 4.5: Scores on pragmatic awareness pre- and post-test of high proficiency subgroups



c) Scores of the low-proficiency subgroups

In line with the H subgroups, overall, the L learners developed their pragmatic awareness on the post-test with the PG- recorded the greatest improvement. The EG- also made marked progress while the scores of the CG- slightly improved. Table 4.9 displays the mean scores and standard deviation on the pre- and post-test of the L subgroups.

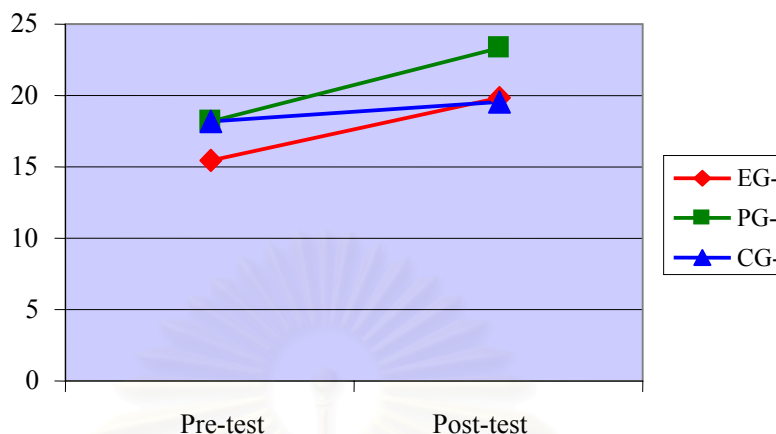
Table 4.9: Scores on pragmatic awareness pre- and post-test of the low proficiency subgroups

Group	Pre-test		Post-test	
	X	S.D.	X	S.D.
EG-	15.40	3.55	19.80	3.42
PG-	18.20	3.03	23.40	1.82
CG-	18.20	2.39	19.60	3.44

Note: - stands for low-proficiency learners

Although the mean score on the post-test of the PG- was exceedingly higher than those of the EG- and the CG-, analyses by ANOVA indicated that the difference between groups did not reach a significant level [$F(2, 12) = 2.560$; $p = .119$]. Figure 4.6 displays the improvement of scores on the pragmatic awareness pre- and post-test of the three subgroups.

Figure 4.6: Scores on pragmatic awareness pre- and post-test of low proficiency subgroups



4.2.2 Qualitative analyses: Results of the Group Discussion

Analyses of the participants' group discussion using think-aloud technique aims to explore what aspects of pragmatic awareness are raised to the participants of each group. Results from the analyses revealed a number of pragmatic awareness facets developed by each group of participants. Results from the high and the low proficiency learners are jointly reported by coding the interviewees in each subgroup by numbers. Number 1, 2 and 3 represents the high proficiency learners while number 4, 5 and 6 labels the low proficiency ones. For instance, EG1, EG2, EG3 stand for the high proficiency learners of the explicit feedback group while PG4, PG5, PG6 represents the low proficiency learners of the prompt group.

1) Awareness concerning the context of speaking

All participants (100%) from all three groups are able to evaluate the context of speaking by considering the relationship between the interlocutors. Examples were translated into English and presented with their discussion situation (Appendix J):

EG1: "I think choice B is better because the words used is more formal ... because he is the supervisor which is kind of exclusive ..er.. not exclusive, but is in higher status than us." *Situation 2*

PG4: "I think the answer should be B because he is talking to the supervisor, so the level of language he used .. uhm .. the words he used ... if he answered like A, it would sound like talking to a friend, not the person from different status like supervisor." *Situation 2*

CG1: "...It might be the expressions used... it sounds like we pay respect to the supervisor." *Situation 2*

CG5: “I also think B because though the situation says ‘classmate’, we still don’t know how close the classmate is. If he is a close classmate, like friend, choice A is fine. If not, we should say like B.”
Situation 4

2) Awareness concerning the concept of ‘face’ and ‘politeness’

This aspect of pragmatic awareness shows the participants’ concern for politeness and the concept of ‘face’ when selecting appropriate refusals. The results revealed that all of the interviewees (100%) expressed their politeness concerns when analyzing the conversation between the interlocutors, especially when the refusal is addressed to a person of higher status. For example:

EG2: “B is more appropriate because the supervisor is usually some one who is elder than us. When we want to refuse the supervisor, we then should explain the reason so that...it wouldn’t sound too harsh.”
Situation 2

EG5: “I’ll say B because we should care for our friends. And we are not so close. When she suggests an idea, we should say ... yeah, thank you ... it sounds great, but... blah blah blah.”
Situation 4

PG2: “I think A because it’s more formal, then show more respect to the hearer than B.”
Situation 3

PG6: “I think A is too straightforward, doesn’t try to ‘save her (the interlocutor’s) face’ even though she helped suggest an idea.”
Situation 4

PG5: “I think B has the sentence that explains the reason that he has the dentist’s appointment, so it specified the reason, which helps the hearer feel better that .. uhm.. he has an important matter to do, so he cannot help, unlike A.”
Situation 2

CG1: “B is better because it sounds more polite when used with teacher. A sounds too harsh.”
Situation 2

3) Awareness concerning direct refusals or inappropriate refusal strategies

This kind of awareness represents the participants’ ability to identify direct refusals and other expressions that might be inappropriate to the context and may affect the relationship of the interlocutors. 100% of the PG and 83% of the EG addressed this pragmatic awareness aspect, while 67% of the CG mentioned this point. Examples of the statements are:

EG2: “ B is better because it sounds more polite when used with teacher. A sounds too harsh.”
Situation 2

EG3: “A sounds really harsh ...like... I don't want to, then I won't go.”
Situation 1

PG6: “I think A is too straightforward, doesn't try to 'save her (the interlocutor's) face' even though she helped suggest an idea.”
Situation 4

PG4: “I agree with B because ... if we want to avoid, at least we should say something with care. A is too direct and rough ... sorry, I can't. It's like an abrupt refusal.”
Situation 1

CG1: “...in choice A 'Oh.. sorry' is a direct refusal, like whatever I won't go. ”
Situation 1

4) Awareness concerning the cause of unconventional refusal strategies

This awareness aspect was reported by 17% of the EG and 67% of the PG. The interviewees mentioned that the lack of knowledge or experience in American English and culture essentially resulted in their use of unconventional refusal strategies. None of this sort of awareness was addressed by the CG. The examples are:

EG6: “B sounds like the native speaker's expression, but I'm not sure because I don't know English very well. Sometimes I myself cannot use it properly.”
Situation 1

PG3: “A is a direct refusal. A maybe the answer of someone who are not skillful in using English, and are not skilled in using appropriate language, caring language.”
Situation 1

PG4: “Sometimes I didn't use appropriate expressions because I don't know what language level each expression belongs to. And when I talk to this kind of person, what level I should use. It depends on the culture as well, like talking with teachers here needs more polite language than in America I think.”
Situation 3

PG5: “I think choice A maybe of the speaker whose English is not advanced. He then says things directly, like .. I'm sorry, I can't make it ... like other Thais who are not good at English, we use it directly, we are not aware of how to make it beautiful because we don't know how ... just get the meaning across, that's it.”
Situation 1

PG6: “I myself use 'I think I can't' because it sounds like Thai, but I think American would use 'I don't think I can'. These things we have to learn by experience, if we are not used to their culture, how do we know?”
Situation 4

5) Awareness concerning the effects of non-verbal language on the speech act perception

Another aspect of awareness found from 17% of the EG and 33% of the PG interviewees is the awareness concerning the effects of non-verbal language on refusal perception. In other words, the EG and the PG subjects expressed that they were aware of ‘what’ and ‘how’ one says things. For example:

EG1: “If this classmate is not so close to us, we should use B... but it also depends on how we say, like if we say choice A softly...gently, it would be fine.” *Situation 4*

PG4: “I think it depends on how we say these expressions as well. Like in choice A, if I say ‘Yeah! Munkie is good [in a cheerful way], but ...’, it would sound better for the hearer than just ‘Yeah... it’s good [in a dull way], but...’ because I showed my sincere interest in the way I said, not just saying things in good manner.” *Situation 4*

6) Awareness concerning the unconventional refusal expressions

This facet of pragmatic awareness was mentioned by 50% of the PG, but not from other groups. In addition, the reporters of this kind of awareness were all of the low proficiency subgroup (PG-). Addressing this kind of awareness represented the subjects’ ability to identify the unconventional refusal expressions, which signified their focus on language forms. For example:

PG4: “I myself use ‘*I think I can’t*’ because I translated from Thai, but I think American would use like ‘*I don’t think I can*’.”

Situation 4

PG6: “Choice A uses ‘*I think I can’t*’ but B uses ‘*I’m afraid I can’t*’. I think and I’m afraid ... ‘*I’m afraid*’ sounds better ... and Americans don’t use the expression ‘*I think I can’t*’, right?”

Situation 4

7) Awareness concerning pragmatic transfer

The last facet of pragmatic awareness addressed by 33% of the PG is the awareness concerning pragmatic transfer from their native language (Thai) to American English, which reflects in the choice of refusal strategies and expressions. The examples are:

PG3: “If I were the speaker, I wouldn’t say so because it’s too polite. Sometimes we use it in Thai and then we translate to English, but I think it’s too much in English context.” *Situation 3*

PG4: “I think it’s the Thai way to say ‘sorry’ to an invitation to a concert. I think Americans say ‘thank you’ instead. And choice A keeps repeating ‘oh I’m sorry, sorry again’ I think it’s too much.”

Situation 1

The various aspects of pragmatic awareness reported from the interviewees are summarized in Tale 4.10.

Table 4.10: Aspects of pragmatic awareness reported from the interview

Aspects of pragmatic awareness	EG	PG	CG
1. Awareness concerning the concept of ‘face’ and ‘politeness’	100%	100%	100%
2. Awareness concerning direct refusals or inappropriate refusal strategies that may affect the relationship of the interlocutors	83%	100%	67%
3. Awareness concerning the effects of non-verbal language on the speech act perception	17%	33%	-
4. Awareness concerning the unconventional refusal expressions (focus on forms)	-	50%	-
5. Awareness concerning the context of speaking	100%	100%	100%
6. Awareness concerning the cause of unconventional refusal strategies (the lack of knowledge or experience in American English and cultures)	17%	67%	-
7. Awareness concerning pragmatic transfer	-	33%	-

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4.3 The effects of explicit feedback and prompts on learners' level of confidence in producing pragmatically appropriate refusals

Results in this part are reported in two main sections. First, the quantitative data from the confidence rating scales are presented both as an overall picture of each group and in relation to the subjects' level of proficiency. The second section reports the qualitative data collected from the interviews.

4.3.1 Quantitative analyses

a) Overall scores

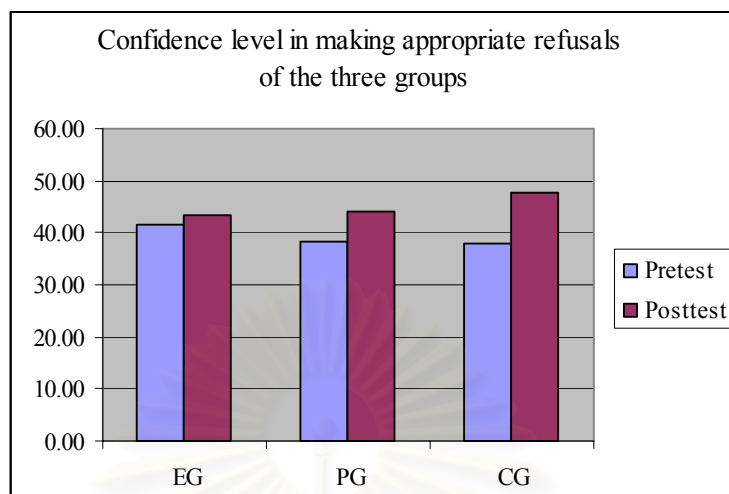
Descriptive statistics on the subjects' level of confidence in their pre- and post-test production are presented in Table 4.11.

Table 4.11: Level of confidence in refusal production from the pre- and post-test

Group	Pre-test		Post-test	
	X	S.D.	X	S.D.
EG	41.46	10.97	43.46	12.21
PG	38.38	10.66	44.23	9.33
CG	37.92	10.18	47.69	11.65

Results in Table 4.11 show that the EG was more confident in their pre-test production than the PG and the CG. However, the difference between the three groups was not statistically significant as analyzed by ANOVA [$F(2, 36) = .428; p = .655$]. This means that after all subjects have gained knowledge of appropriate refusal from the course and looked back at their production before the treatment, their level of confidence in their refusal production is comparable.

However, when the subjects rated their confidence in their post-test production, the CG, which was the least confident in the pre-test production, recorded the highest level of confidence, followed by the PG and the EG, respectively. Nevertheless, analyses by ANOVA again reported that the difference between groups was not statistically significant [$F(2, 36) = .533; p = .592$]. Results from the two rating scales indicated that the CG benefited from the treatment in terms of raising their confidence the most. The PG also gained some improvement after the treatment, while the EG improved their confidence the least of all. Figure 4.7 showed level of confidence of the three groups in their pre- and post-test production.

Figure 4.7: Confidence level in making appropriate refusals of the three groups**b) Scores of the high-proficiency subgroups**

When considering the learners' confidence in relation to their language proficiency, it appears that the EG+ and PG+ rated their confidence on the pre-test production quite similarly, while the CG+ reported the lowest level of confidence in their production. Analyses by ANOVA reported that the difference between groups was not statistically different [$F(2, 21) = 6.95; p = .510$]. By the time of the post-test rating, all three groups showed some improvement in their confidence and reported a uniformity of their confidence level. Analyses from ANOVA reported merely a minor difference between groups [$F(2, 21) = 0.10; p = .990$]. Descriptive statistics obtained are displayed in Table 4.12.

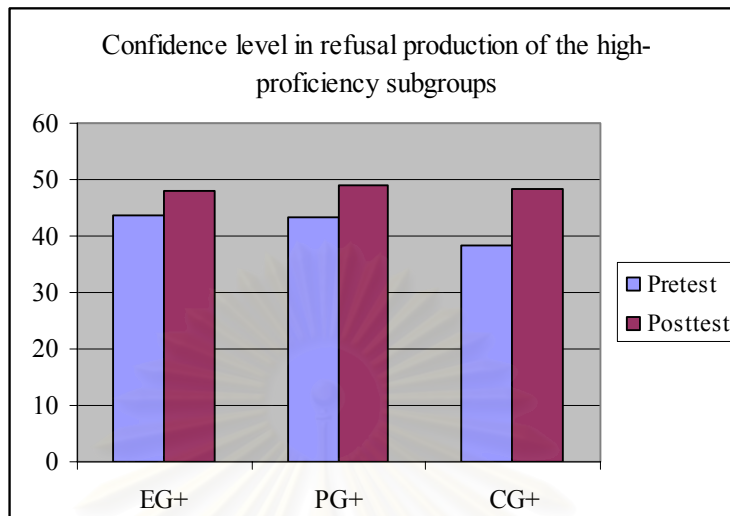
Table 4.12: Level of confidence in refusal production of the high-proficiency learners

Group	Pre-test		Post-test	
	X	S.D.	X	S.D.
EG+	43.63	10.47	48.13	10.22
PG+	43.50	8.42	48.88	8.69
CG+	38.38	11.38	48.38	13.18

Note: + stands for high-proficiency learners

Figure 4.8 displays levels of confidence in refusal production of the high-proficiency subgroups.

Figure 4.8: Confidence level in refusal production of the high-proficiency subgroups



c) Scores of the low-proficiency subgroups

A clearer difference between groups was found from the low-proficiency subgroups. The EG- and the CG- showed a comparable level of confidence in their pre-test production while the PG- reported the lowest level of self-efficacy. ANOVA analyses reported that the difference between groups was not statistically different [$F(2, 12) = .896$; $p = .434$]. However, results from the post-test rating scale revealed a different amount of improvement as the CG- considerably developed their confidence in making refusals. The PG- also gained some improvement while the EG- reported a decline of self-confidence in their refusal production. Although no significant difference was found from ANOVA analyses [$F(2, 12) = 1.943$; $p = .186$], these findings are interesting for further discussion. Table 4.13 displays the descriptive statistics from the analyses.

Table 4.13: Level of confidence in refusal production of the low-proficiency learners

Group	Pre-test		Post-test	
	X	S.D.	X	S.D.
EG-	38.00	12.02	36.00	12.31
PG-	30.20	8.98	36.80	4.09
CG-	37.20	9.12	46.60	10.04

Note: - stands for low-proficiency learners

Figure 4.9 displays levels of confidence in refusal production of the low-proficiency subgroups while Figure 4.10 summarizes a relative picture of confidence levels in making appropriate refusals between the high- and the low-proficiency subgroups.

Figure 4.9: Confidence level in refusal production of the low-proficiency subgroups

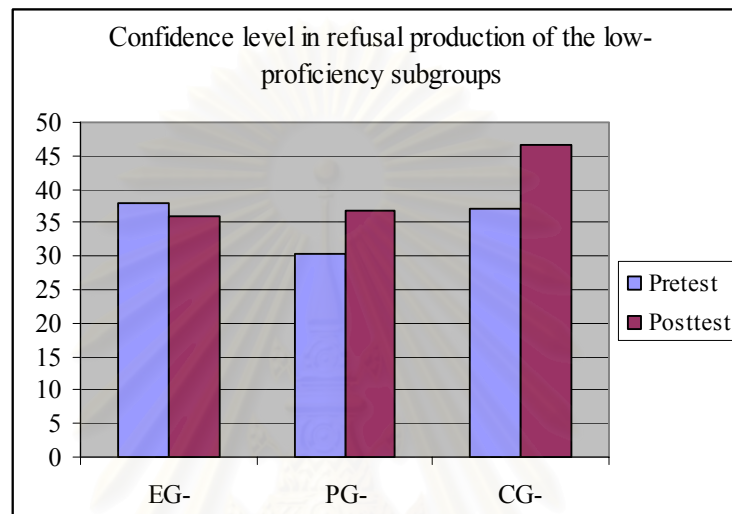
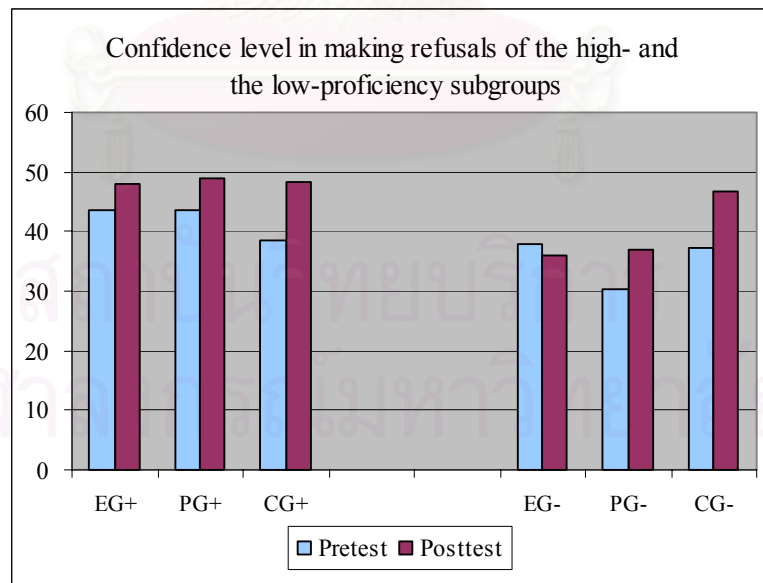


Figure 4.10: Confidence level in making refusal of the high- and the low-proficiency subgroups



4.3.2 Qualitative analyses: Results of the interview

The data in this session stemmed from the interviews with the representatives of each group. The interview questions regarding the confidence topic were constructed following the two main components of language confidence—*anxiety* and *perceived competence* (Clement, 1980). The qualitative analyses are detailed in order of these two components.

Anxiety

Adapted from Horwitz et al.'s (1986) framework of foreign language anxiety (page 77), the students' language anxiety in this study was defined as anxiety about four English speaking situations: 1) anxiety about speaking English with teachers, 2) anxiety about speaking English with classmates, 3) anxiety about receiving teacher corrective feedback, and 4) anxiety in speaking English without corrective feedback.

1) Anxiety about speaking English with teachers

Regardless of their level of proficiency, 100% of the EG, 83% of the PG and 50% of the CG interviewees admitted that they were nervous when speaking English with teachers in class. The main cause of anxiety was said to be their lack of confidence and their limited vocabulary collection. However, all of the interviewees agreed that their level of anxiety depends essentially on the personality of the teacher and the frequency of their speaking opportunities. In other words, they felt more comfortable speaking English with a friendly teacher who provides help when needed and does not always refer to their mistakes. Additionally, the more they spoke, the less nervous they would become. The examples are:

EG2: "I'm surely worried ... I'll think how to say, but it depends on the teacher as well. I can speak when I feel relaxed.

EG4: "Yes, I'm nervous when speaking (English) with both foreigners and Thais. ... At first I was so stressful and my head went blank, but after I practiced more, I felt better because I know the teacher would help when I got obstructed."

PG3: "I was so nervous at first, but when I speak more, I'm then used to it... and yes indeed, it depends on the teacher. I'm okay with teachers who are understanding and helpful, not are always picking on my mistakes."

PG6: "Oh.. I'm a lot nervous because the others can speak, comparing to myself, I can't think of even the easy words and it made me worried about how to say."

CG2: “Yes, I do... I feel uncomfortable when speaking English because teachers at my school never spoke English with me... I feel more relaxed when speaking English with foreign teachers because they focused on meaning, but I’m always nervous about my grammar when speaking with Thai teachers.

2) Anxiety about speaking English with classmates

None of the 18 interviewees reported anxiety when speaking English with classmates. The primary reasons were said to be the more intimate atmosphere and more meaning-oriented conversation. For example:

EG3: “Speaking [English] with classmates I’m not nervous at all. I speak what I think and sometimes I speak only the key words.”

PG6: “I think speaking English with classmates is not worrying at all because we are more familiar to each other.”

CG5: “Speaking with classmates is not so anxious. It is more relaxed I think.”

3) Anxiety about receiving teacher corrective feedback

While 100% of the EG and the PG and 33% of the CG interviewees admitted that they were anxious about receiving teacher corrective feedback in class, their fear of losing face varied from *small* to *fair* level depending on ‘what’ the mistakes were and ‘how’ teachers delivered feedback. The subjects were more nervous if their mistakes were of basic grammatical points. Also, the tension tended to increase if the teacher; 1) provided corrective feedback in a forceful way, 2) repeated prompts when they could not find the right answer, or 3) provided correction when they were in front of the class. For instance:

EG1: “When teacher corrects my mistakes...a little worried I think, but normally I would feel amused and go on speaking, not very anxious.

EG6: “I think normally I’m not worried much, but if the teacher rejected my sentence immediately and strongly, I’d feel bad and embarrassed, and of course I’ll be a lot anxious about the next sentence.”

PG3: “I’m almost not worried because everyone got the same thing, except sometimes when I was in front of the class, I may be a bit blushing.”

PG5: "...If the teacher is kind, I'm not worried much, but if I make mistakes and the teacher gives me several hints and I still cannot answer, I'll then be nervous."

PG6: "I think it depends on the situation. For example, if I have to speak in front of the class and the teacher gives me corrective feedback while I'm speaking, I'll be very worried."

CG3: "If the feedback is about something that I have no idea. If the teacher keeps asking again and again and I still make mistakes, I'll feel depressed and the teacher herself may be discouraged that why I am so slow... I'll lose a lot of confidence."

Nonetheless, 67% of the CG interviewees were the only ones that reported being anxiety-free when dealing with corrective feedback. They believed that they were not depressed or anxious by receiving teacher's delayed corrective feedback; for example,

CG6: "I'm not worried. I don't know I think teacher just summarized how to say things and then we try to remember, that's it. Why do I have to worry?"

4) Anxiety about speaking English without corrective feedback

When the subjects were asked to express their feeling about speaking English in a fully meaning-focused classroom without teacher's corrections, all of them (100%) revealed that they would be totally free of anxiety when speaking English. However, 33% of the interviewees also added that they still believed in the advantages of corrective feedback and expected to get some in the language classroom.

EG2: "I think it may lessen my anxiety, but I'd be still a bit worried about making mistakes or cannot get the meaning across."

EG6: "I think I'll not worry at all because the teacher isn't strict... so it's like not worrying at all."

PG2: "Yes, I'll be less worried because I don't have to concentrate much on my grammar. Just go on speaking. Anyway, I think teacher feedback is also important because we still need to improve our language, not just speaking for fun."

PG4: "I think it's not worrying then, but I still think the teacher should collect our mistakes and tell us when we finish the activity. I think we should do like this in the free-conversation activities that focuses only on meaning."

PG6: “I like it a lot. It’s fun although we speak not correctly, but we will get a lot of practice. Uhm...it’s fun but... I also want to know my mistakes so that I can correct it next time.”

CG1: “My anxiety will be a lot decreased. ...If the teacher let it go and just collect our limitations, and then tell us later that how these expressions should be used. I think it will make students more relaxed...”

CG4: “I like it a lot. Like what we did in class, I felt free when I spoke. However, I agree that teacher feedback is also important. It’ll be useful if the teacher gives feedback or correction at the end of each activity... but giving correction at the end of the class may be too late because students may forget all mistakes.”

Perceived competence

Adopting the definition of state perceived competence defined by MacIntyre et al. (1998) (see page 78), the learners’ perceived competence in this study includes: 1) the learners’ perceived competence in speaking English after receiving teacher corrective feedback, and 2) their perceived competence in making appropriate refusals before and after taking the course.

1) The subjects’ perceived competence in speaking English after receiving corrective feedback

The subjects from each group reported various levels of perceived competence after receiving teacher corrective feedback. Regardless of their proficiency level, 83% of the EG and 50% of the PG admitted that they lost *a little* to *some* degree of their perceived competence when receiving immediate corrective feedback. In contrast, only 17% (1 out of 6) of the CG interviewees reported the decreasing of her perceived competence. The remaining 83% of the CG thought they maintained their level of confidence by the time of the corrective feedback. Also, 33% of the PG interviewees added that the level of their perceived competence greatly depended on how a teacher delivered feedback.

EG3: “Not much, I’ll be more concerned of what I’m going to say next I think.”

EG5: “Yes, I agree. For example, if I’m speaking, like I’m full of confidence and the teacher says ‘hey you’re making mistake’, I’ll feel uncomfortable and disappointed and then cannot correct it.”

EG6: “A little bit... I think it makes me feel that my sentences are not good enough although they are simple sentences that I should have said correctly...so, I lost some confidence.”

EG6: “...for example; when you (teacher) said I shouldn't use such word or it's not polite, although you told me kindly, I think I still lost some confidence because I felt a bit stupid.”

PG2: “Not much, but I think it depends on how the teacher gives feedback, either to teach or to embarrass me.”

PG4: “If the corrective feedback is said in an encouraging way, like the teacher wants to teach, to guide us, I won't lost confidence in my ability although my ability is so.. limited. I'll feel I'm learning rather than losing. But if the teacher blamed my mistake, like a stupid mistake, I'd feel stupid and embarrassed.”

PG6: “When I'd already prepared my expression and said it out, then the teacher said my expressions wasn't appropriate... my head would turned blank ...what should I say ...what should I say. Then, I'd lose a bit of confidence.”

CG3: “If you mean the teacher feedback like what we had in class, I don't think so because I think the word confidence relates to our image to the others. When you gave feedback at the end of the class, we didn't remember whose mistakes were mentioning, only the person who made it would remember. So, I think it's like we then know what is right to get improved, but we don't feel losing confidence because everyone can make mistakes.”

CG5: “No, I didn't feel anything because the teacher didn't point out whose mistakes were mentioning. Or even I remember that is my mistake, I think I'd feel good that I'm learning new things.”

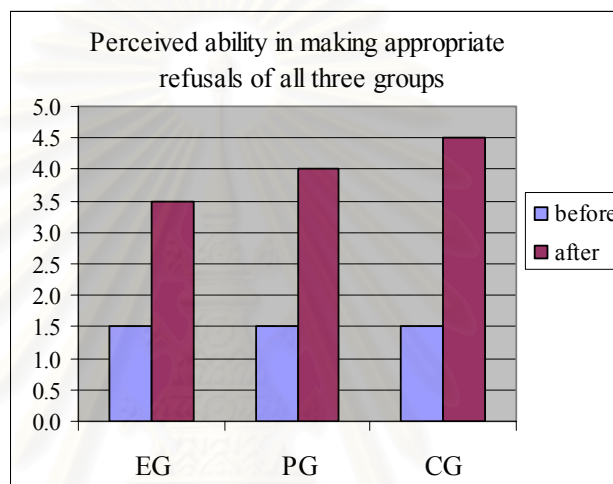
2) The subjects' perceived competence in making appropriate refusals before and after the treatment

All of the interviewees (100%) believed that their ability in making English refusals improved after taking the course. When asked to rate their perceived competence in making appropriate refusals on a five-point rating scale, the subjects from all three groups (100%) agreed that their perceived competence before taking the course was between 'poor' (level 2) and 'very poor' (level 1).

However, the rating for their perceived ability after the treatment varied from group to group. 50% of the EG rated their ultimate performance as 'fair' (level 3), while the other half rated themselves as 'good (level 4). 83% of the PG rated themselves as achieving a 'good' level in making English refusals, whereas the other

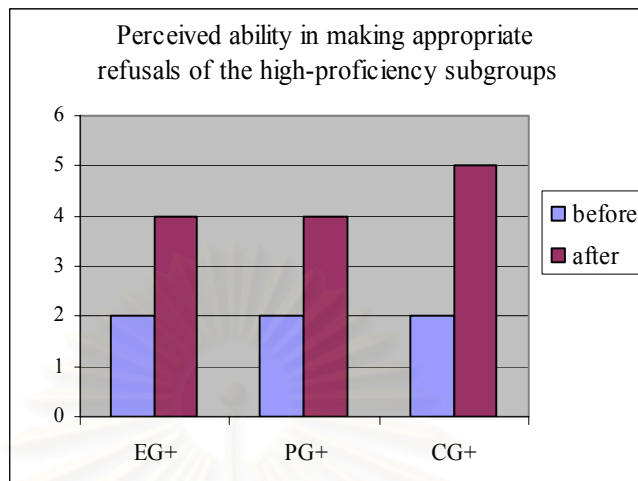
17% thought they were at the 'fair' level. The CG recorded the highest rated scores as their rated ability ranged from 'good' to 'very good' (level 4-5). 66% of the CG rated their ability in making refusals as 'good' and 33% rated themselves 'very good'. Results from the subjects' perceived refusal ability revealed a parallel picture with that from the rating scale on confidence in their actual refusal production. Figure 4.11 represents the interviewees' levels of perceived competence in making appropriate refusals before and after the treatment.

Figure 4.11: Perceived competence in making refusals of all three groups



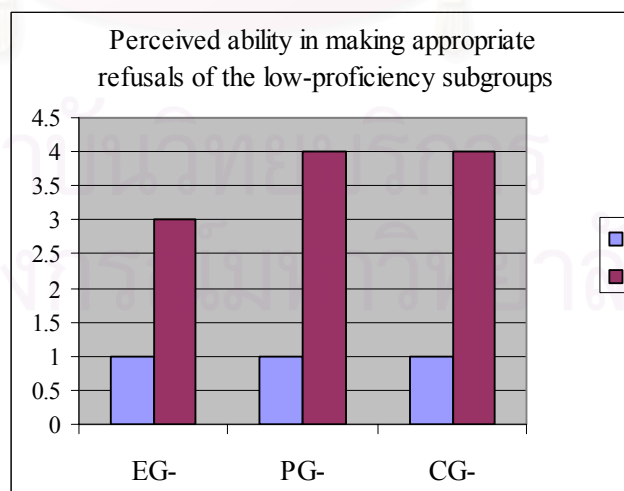
When arranging the self-rating data by the interviewees' proficiency level, results show that 100% of the H subgroups (EG+, PG+ and CG+) similarly rated their ability before the treatment as 'poor' or level 2. However, in the after-treatment rating, 100% of the EG+ and PG+ and 33% of the CG+ rated their performance as 'good' (level 4). The other 67% of the CG+ thought by the time the course ended, their competence developed to reach the 'very good' level (level 5). Figure 4.12 summarizes the average mean of the H subgroups' rating of their perceived competence in making appropriate refusals.

Figure 4.12: Perceived competence in making refusals of the high-proficiency subgroups



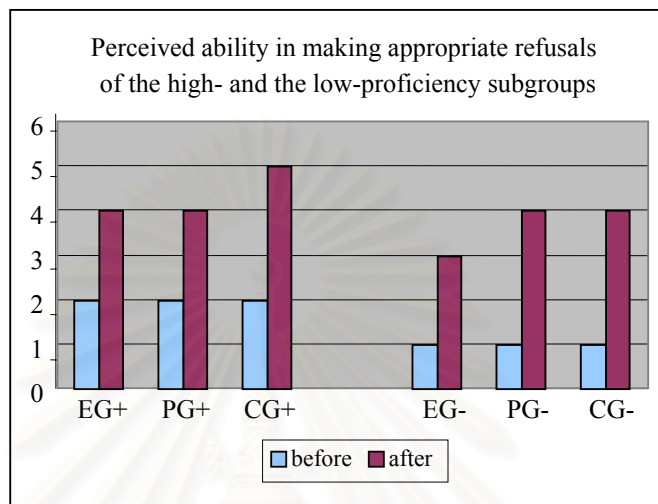
Regarding the rating results from the L interviewees, 100% of the EG-, PG- and CG- rated their refusal ability before taking the course as ‘very poor’ (level 1). After the ten-week course, 67% of the EG- perceived their competence as ‘fair’ (level 3) while the remaining 33% believed their ultimate ability was ‘good’ (level 4). These percentages were reported in vice versa by the PG- (67% rated ‘good’; 33% rated ‘fair’ level). The CG- reported the greatest confidence improvement as 100% of them rated their perceived competence as ‘good’. Figure 4.13 summarizes the average of the L subgroups’ rating of their perceived competence in making appropriate refusals.

Figure 4.13: Perceived competence in making refusals of the low-proficiency subgroups



The levels of perceived ability in making appropriate refusals of the H and the L learners are juxtaposed in Figure 4.14.

Figure 4.14: Perceived competence in making refusals of the high- and the low-proficiency subgroups



4.4 Summary

This chapter presents the findings obtained from the four research instruments—the oral production tests, the pragmatic awareness MCT, the rating scales and the interview. The PG was found to be the most successful group in improving refusal production on the oral production tests, and the difference between the PG and the other two groups became more apparent by the time of the delayed post-test. The EG performed better than the CG on both post-tests; however, the difference between groups did not reach a significant level.

Regarding pragmatic awareness, the scores from the MCT showed that PG significantly improved their pragmatic awareness in the use of refusal more than the EG and the CG, as the CG recorded the least improvement. Results from the interview qualitatively support that the PG revealed the highest number of pragmatic awareness aspects during the discussion task, followed by the EG and the CG, respectively. However, according to the confidence rating scales and the interview, the CG was found to achieve the greatest improvement in the level of confidence in making appropriate refusals.

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY AND DISCUSSION

In this chapter, a summary of the study and research findings are firstly presented in relation to the three hypotheses. The findings are then discussed with support from the relevant theoretical and empirical work on corrective feedback and pragmatics. Teaching implications and recommendations for future research are presented at the end of the chapter.

5.1 Summary of the study

5.1.1 Objectives

The main objectives of the present study are to examine the effects of two corrective feedback techniques, namely explicit feedback and prompts, on learners' pragmatic production, awareness and confidence in making appropriate refusals.

5.1.2 Research design

The study is experimental research comprising two experimental groups and one control group. Employing the Matching-Only Pretest-Posttest Control Group Design (Fraenkel & Wallen, 2000), the subjects were placed at either high- (H) and low-proficiency (L) level by using the average mean scores of the oral production pre-test. Then, 8 H and 5 L, totaling 13 subjects, were assigned to each of the three groups. The treatment provided to the two experimental groups was either explicit feedback (+ immediate time/ - self-directed repair) or prompts (+ immediate time/ + self-directed repair). The control group was designed to receive delayed explicit feedback as treatment (- immediate time/ - self-directed repair). Measurements of the subjects' pragmatic production were done three times—at the pre-test, immediate post-test, and delayed post-test—whereas the measurements on pragmatic awareness and confidence comprised the pre- and the post-test.

5.1.3 Procedure

One week before the instructional period, the subjects were required to take the pre-test on oral refusal production and awareness. Scores on the production pre-test were used to divide the subjects into three groups using the pair-matching technique. Then, the subjects participated in the ten-week instructional period and received a

particular feedback technique as treatment. One week after the course ended, the immediate post-tests on refusal production and awareness were conducted. Further, the subjects were required to listen to their refusal expressions made on the pre- and post-test before they rated their level of confidence on rating scales. Thirteen weeks later, the delayed post-tests on refusal production were done to follow up on the retention of the corrective feedback effects. Last, after all scores were calculated, three subjects of the H and three of the L of each group were called in for a group interview.

5.1.4 Samples

The samples were originally 42 first year English-major undergraduates of Faculty of Archaeology at Silpakorn University. After the subjects were informed that the instructional period of the present study was extra sessions for them to practice speaking English, they all volunteered to participate in the study. However, as three subjects dropped out by the time of the delayed post-test, the data analyses were done with the test results from 39 subjects. The subjects' level of English proficiency spanned low-intermediate to high-intermediate level.

5.1.5 Instructional intervention

The 90-minute classes met once a week for ten weeks, totaling 900 minutes. All three groups of subjects were given the same teaching materials and activities, but had different corrective feedback techniques. The first experimental group was treated with explicit feedback, while the second received prompts after their mistakes. The control group was designed to receive delayed explicit feedback to avoid the effects of biased treatment. The instructional process adopted the five steps in teaching interlanguage pragmatics: feeling, doing, thinking, understanding, and using (Yoshida et al., 2000).

5.1.6 Instruments and data analyses

Four research instruments were employed in data collection.

1) **The oral production tests:** the tests aimed to measure the subjects' oral refusal production before and after the treatment. The two parallel tests were conducted and used, one as a pre-test and a delayed post-test; the other as the immediate post-test. The tests were timed speaking test conducted in a language laboratory. The subjects were required to respond to the situation given by speaking into a microphone within the set time limit. Their responses were then tape-recorded for analysis.

2) **The pragmatic awareness MCT:** the tests were designed as multiple-choice, and aimed to measure the subjects' pragmatic awareness. The subjects were required to select the refusal expression that best suited the situation given. Results from the MCT were scored according to 20 native speakers' norms in completing the same tests. Scores obtained were analyzed by ANOVA to find whether the differences between groups were significant.

3) **The confidence rating scales:** the five-point Likert scale was adopted for the rating scale. The instrument aimed to measure the subjects' level of confidence in their refusal production made on the pre- and post-test. After listening to the tape recordings of their refusal expressions made on the pre-test, the subjects were required to rate their level of confidence regarding the appropriateness and accuracy of the expression. The same process was done with their post-test production. Then, their levels of confidence in the pre- and post-test production were analyzed by ANOVA to find the differences between groups.

4) **The interview:** the objectives of the interview were two fold. First, the interview aimed to collect qualitative data regarding the subjects' perception, attitude and level of confidence in receiving a teacher's corrective feedback. The second objective was to collect qualitative data pertaining to the subjects' pragmatic awareness. The interviews were conducted in groups of three comprising either the high- or the low-proficiency learners from each group. The subjects' responses in the interview were tape-recorded for further content analysis.

5.1.7 Results

The results of the study can be summarized in response to the research questions as follows:

1) Does learners' production of pragmatically appropriate refusals improve after receiving explicit feedback and prompts? If so, which kind of feedback is more effective?

Overall, learners' refusal production improved after receiving explicit feedback and prompts. The PG performed considerably better than the EG and the CG in both immediate and delayed post-tests. On the immediate post-test, the PG scored higher than the EG and the CG [$F(2, 36) = 5.122; p = .011$], but only the difference between the PG and the CG reached a significant level ($p = .008$). By the time of the delayed

post-test, the PG significantly outperformed both the EG and the CG [$F(2, 36) = 9.123$; $p = .001$] as these two groups drastically lost their gain in the immediate post-test.

Results from further investigation revealed the effects of different kinds of feedback in relation to learners' proficiency levels. The PG+ and the EG+ significantly outperformed the CG+ on the immediate post-test [$F(2, 21) = 16.316$; $p = .001$]. The PG+ also did better than the EG+, but the difference was not statistically significant ($p = .08$). However, by the time of the delayed post-test, which showed a decrease of scores in all three groups, the PG+ maintained their level the most, which resulted in a significant difference between the PG+ and the other two groups [$F(2, 21) = 13.927$; $p = .001$]. The EG+ also performed better than the CG+ in the delayed post-test, but the difference only reached the significant level ($p = .051$). Investigation of the L subgroups reported the paralleled outcomes that the PG- recorded the highest scores on both immediate and delayed post-tests. However, merely the between-group difference on the delayed post-test was found to be statistically significant [$F(2, 12) = 17.432$; $p = .001$]. Another interesting finding was that the CG- performed somewhat better than the EG- on both post-tests.

The repeated measures ANOVA showed a significant difference of scores over test times for all three groups. Overall, the PG significantly improved from the pre-test to the immediate post-test, whereas the EG and the CG showed some progress on the immediate post-test. All three groups saw a drop in their scores by the time of the delayed post-test, but to a different degree. Although the PG lost some gains on the delayed post-test, these scores were still significantly higher than their pre-test ones. In contrast, the EG and the CG drastically lowered their scores on the delayed post-test to approximately the same level as their pre-test numbers.

2) Does learners' awareness of pragmatically appropriate refusals improve after receiving explicit feedback and prompts? If so, which kind of feedback is more effective?

Results from the pragmatic awareness tests revealed that, overall, the three groups developed their pragmatic awareness, as reflected by the higher scores on the post-test. The PG markedly outperformed the EG ($p = .009$) and the CG ($p = .001$) on the post-test, which led to a significant difference between the three groups [$F(2, 36) = 9.827$; $p = .001$].

Additional results in relation to the subjects' proficiency levels revealed that the PG+ scored significantly higher than the CG+ [$F(2, 12) = 8.012$; $p = .003$] and also performed better than the EG+ on the post-test. However, the difference between the PG+ and the EG+ was only touching a significant level ($p = .052$). The contrast of scores from the low-proficiency groups also showed similar outcomes as the PG+ performed better than the other two groups although the between-group difference did not achieve a significant level [$F(2, 12) = 2.560$; $p = .119$].

Results from the interviews supported the quantitative findings from the multiple-choice test in that the PG showed the greatest improvement of pragmatic awareness. The PG expressed the most extensive aspects of pragmatic awareness (7 aspects) in the discussion followed by the EG (5 aspects) and the CG (3 aspects), respectively. The 7 aspects of pragmatic awareness reported were:

- 1) awareness concerning the concept of 'face' and 'politeness',
- 2) awareness concerning direct refusals or inappropriate refusal strategies that may affect the relationship of the interlocutors,
- 3) awareness concerning the effects of non-verbal language on the speech act perception,
- 4) awareness concerning the unconventional refusal expressions,
- 5) awareness concerning the context of speaking,
- 6) awareness concerning the cause of unconventional refusal strategies,
- 7) awareness concerning pragmatic transfer.

3) Does learners' level of confidence in making pragmatically appropriate refusals improve after receiving explicit feedback and prompts? If so, which kind of feedback is more effective?

Findings from the confidence rating-scale reported that, overall, the CG saw the greatest improvement of their confidence in making appropriate refusals, followed by the PG and the EG, respectively. However, the difference between groups was not statistically significant [$F(2, 36) = .533$; $p = .592$]. Further investigation of the relationship between confidence and proficiency levels shows more specific outcomes. When looking only at the high-proficiency subgroups, the PG+ showed slightly higher scores than the CG+ and the EG+, respectively, which led to a minor difference between groups [$F(2, 21) = 0.10$; $p = .990$]. However, the CG+ showed the greatest improvement of their confidence from the pre- to post-test rating. In line with the CG+,

the CG- considerably improved their confidence in their refusal production. The PG- also developed their confidence while the EG- was the only group that lost their confidence in the post-test rating. Nevertheless, the difference between groups did not achieve a significant level [$F(2, 12) = 1.943; p = .186$].

Qualitative findings from the interview revealed evidence for learners' different levels of confidence. 100% of the EG, 83% of the PG and 50% of the CG correspondingly reported some level of anxiety when speaking English with teachers, while none talked of anxiety when speaking with peers. Although varying in terms of degrees, 100% of the EG and the PG and 33% of the CG interviewees admitted that they experienced a level of anxiety when receiving corrective feedback. The key factors determining how anxious they would be were teacher's personality, and the way and time the teacher provided corrective feedback. However, the subjects from each group reported various levels of perceived competence after receiving corrective feedback. Results support the quantitative data in that, after receiving corrective feedback as treatment, the CG presented the highest level of perceived ability both in speaking English in general and in making English refusals.

5.2 Discussion

The findings are interpreted and discussed in relation to the research hypotheses. Then the central factors influencing the effectiveness of prompts over explicit feedback are summarized at the end of the discussion portion.

Hypothesis 1: Both explicit feedback and prompts will significantly improve learners' production of pragmatically appropriate refusals.

According to the results from the repeated measures ANOVA, both the EG and the PG significantly improved their refusal production from one test to the other ($p = .001$ and $p < .001$, respectively). Thus, the hypothesis that both explicit feedback and prompts will significantly improve learners' refusal production is accepted.

However, when comparing the between-group achievement, the PG outperformed the EG at the immediate post-test and more importantly, the difference of scores between the two groups became significant by the time of the delayed post-test. This can answer the first research question in that prompts were found to be more effective than explicit feedback in promoting learners' refusal production.

Regarding the improvement of scores over time, overall, the three groups improved their refusal production on the immediate post-test, but lost their gains by the

time of the delayed post-test. The EG and the CG drastically lowered their scores on the delayed post-test to approximately the same as their pre-test scores, whereas the PG, although they lost some gains, could maintain their level the most. Results of the present study differ from those of Ammar (2003) in that the prompt group (the elicitation group) in Ammar's study continually improved their knowledge of possessive determiners (PD) on one test to the other, which represented a linear progress. However, the present study showed the improvement of scores at the first post-test, but regression at the second, thereby leading to a quadratic shape of progression. This contrast may result from the different language content Ammar's and this study examined. In other words, Ammar investigated the effects of feedback on L2 grammatical development while the present study explored the consequence of feedback on pragmatic competence. Despite the different ages of the participants in both studies, compared to the knowledge required in applying the third person singular PD (his, her and its) in Ammar's study, the ability to produce pragmatically appropriate refusals needs many more factors than an exact rule to consider, e.g. the knowledge of conventional expressions, grammar and sociopragmatics. If the subjects drop one or more of these abilities, their refusal production will be considered inappropriate. Therefore, the decrease of scores on the delayed post-test in this study may result from the nature of learning as learners tend to forget what they have learned in class after a period of time, especially when the second post-test was conducted 13 weeks after the course ended, like in the present study. Thus, it is not surprising that all subjects lost their progress in making appropriate refusals. The critical question raised then is what characteristics of prompt that helped learners develop and sustain their pragmatic ability remarkably more than the other two groups. The explanation could be the provision of multiple opportunities to produce the target forms in response to teacher's corrective feedback. The discussion on this point is detailed at the end of this section.

Hypothesis 2: Both explicit feedback and prompts will significantly improve learners' awareness of pragmatically appropriate refusals.

Findings from the pragmatic awareness multiple choice tests revealed that the PG significantly improved their pragmatic awareness on the post-test [$t(12) = 10.759$; $p < 0.05$]. The EG also gained some improvement, but no significant difference was found between their pre- and post-test scores [$t(12) = 1.525$; $p > 0.05$]. Therefore, the

hypothesis that both explicit feedback and prompts will significantly improve learners' pragmatic awareness is then rejected. Furthermore, the PG was found to be the most successful group in developing their pragmatic awareness as they performed significantly better than the EG and the CG [$F(2, 36) = 9.827$; $p = .009$ and $.001$, respectively] on the post-test.

Results from the pragmatic awareness MCT are in line with those of the think-aloud analyses in that the PG gained the greatest improvement in pragmatic awareness of refusals. According to the qualitative findings, participants from the PG expressed the greatest variety of pragmatic awareness aspects (seven), and also recorded the greatest number of the reporters of each aspect. The EG addressed five aspects of pragmatic awareness while the CG showed the least amount of awareness as they mentioned merely three aspects of pragmatic awareness in tackling the tasks.

Following Leech's (1983) and Thomas's (1983) statements of pragmatic components (page 37), we may categorize the pragmatic awareness shown in the participants' discussion into two categories: 1) awareness concerning sociopragmatics and 2) awareness concerning pragmalinguistics.

Table 5.1 summarizes the aspects of pragmatic awareness each group reported in the interviews.

Table 5.1: Summary of the pragmatic awareness aspects addressed by the three groups

Aspects of pragmatic awareness	EG	PG	CG
Pragmalinguistics			
1. Awareness concerning direct refusals or inappropriate refusal strategies that may affect the relationship between the interlocutors	83%	100%	67%
2. Awareness concerning the effects of non-verbal language on the speech act perception	17%	33%	-
3. Awareness concerning the unconventional refusal expressions (focus on forms)	-	50%	-
Sociopragmatics			
4. Awareness concerning the concept of 'face' and 'politeness'	100%	100%	100%
5. Awareness concerning the context of speaking	100%	100%	100%
6. Awareness concerning the cause of unconventional refusal strategies (the lack of knowledge or experience in American English and cultures)	17%	67%	-
7. Awareness concerning pragmatic transfer	-	33%	-

As can be seen from Table 5.1, the first three aspects of awareness were categorized under pragmalinguistics because these kinds of awareness concern the grammatical side of pragmatics (e.g. unconventional forms), and some pragmatic strategies (e.g. direct and indirectness, and non-verbal language). The remaining four pragmatic aspects were grouped under sociopragmatic issue as they concern themselves with the relationship between linguistic action and its socio-cultural context (e.g. the concept of face and politeness, and the cultural differences).

According to Table 5.1, the PG revealed more aspects of both pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic awareness than the EG and the CG. Also, among the three pragmatic awareness facets expressed by all three groups, the PG also recorded the greatest number of reporters. Results of the present study support the assumption of Cook and Liddicoat's (2002) study regarding learners' awareness of requests in that direct strategies might be the first request strategies that learners become explicitly aware of. Likewise, sensitivity to direct expressions in making refusals seems to be the preceding aspects of pragmatic awareness developed by the learners. The context of speaking and the levels of politeness were also markedly of concern for all three groups. The explanation could be the universal concept of politeness in every language

of the world where people adjust ‘how’ (direct or indirect) they say things according to ‘whom’ and ‘when’ they are talking (the context). Moreover, an essential factor promoting these kinds of awareness could be due to a hierarchical culture reflected in the Thai language’s use of different levels of speech with people of older generations and various social statuses that plays a facilitative role in easing learner’s problems in applying this concept to their L2.

The findings further revealed two aspects of pragmatic awareness expressed by the PG and the EG group, but not by the control group. These facets are *the awareness concerning the effects of non-verbal language* and *the lack of experience in the target language* which results in unconventional refusal strategies. Although these two aspects of awareness represented the PG’s and the EG’s greater degree of pragmatic awareness compared to the CG, it could be argued that these kinds of awareness may also occur in the learner’s mental process, but they simply did not mention it explicitly because these awareness facets were not specifically required in completing the given task. Therefore, as to whether or not the learners possess any particular aspect of pragmatic awareness can not be fully concluded unless that aspect is directly relevant to the task.

The two facets of pragmatic awareness reported by the PG were *the awareness of the unconventional refusal expressions* and *the awareness concerning pragmatic transfer*. Unlike other aspects discussed above, the ability to identify unconventional refusal requires more analytical skill and more familiarity of the target language and culture in order to differentiate the non-target form or expressions from the target-like ones. The awareness concerning pragmatic transfer from the native language (Thai) is a step further from the one concerning the unconventional expression. These findings support the results from the MCT that the PG significantly improved their pragmatic awareness more than the other two groups. This is because awareness concerning the unconventional refusal expressions essentially benefited the PG in selecting the most appropriate refusal choice according to the native speakers’ norms. In addition, the ability to identify conventional and unconventional expressions could be one of the ultimate pragmatic awareness skills ESL learners can develop. The evidence from Cook and Liddicoat’s (2002) study showed that there were significant differences in the interpretation of conventionally indirect and unconventionally indirect requests between the native speakers and the ESL learners of both higher and lower proficiency

levels. This is because this kind of pragmatic awareness needs extensive experience in the target language and culture.

The explanation of the PG's and the EG's greater degree of pragmatic awareness compared to the CG could be the matter of the time when the corrective feedback was delivered. While prompts and explicit feedback share the characteristic of the instructor providing corrective feedback immediately after the learner's mistake; the delayed explicit feedback used as the control group treatment involved the instructor compiling a list of frequent mistakes to provide correction explicitly at the end of each class. The delayed feedback is then comparatively deficient in the linkage between teacher's corrective feedback and learners' recall of their mistakes. Therefore, the PG and the EG have a tendency to be more aware of more pragmatic aspects than the CG as they are able to recall and make comparisons between the target-like form and their own utterance.

When comparing the two experimental groups, in line with the effects on pragmatic production, the effectiveness of prompts over explicit feedback in raising learners' pragmatic awareness may result from its demand for learners' uptake in the form of learner's generated-repairs. The discussion on the role of uptake is presented in the summary session.

Hypothesis 3: Both explicit feedback and prompts will significantly improve learners' level of confidence in making pragmatically appropriate refusals.

Results from the confidence rating scales showed that the PG significantly improved their confidence in their refusal production made on the post-test [$t(12) = 3.767$; $p < 0.05$]. The EG gained more confidence in the post-test production; however, the difference between the pre- and post-test results did not reach the statistically significant level [$t(12) = 1.401$; $p > 0.05$]. According to these results, the hypothesis that both explicit feedback and prompts will significantly improve learners' level of confidence in making pragmatically appropriate refusals is then rejected.

Regarding the between-group comparison, the prompt group developed their confidence in making appropriate refusals more than the explicit feedback group. Further investigation also revealed an interesting finding that the L learners of the explicit feedback group (the EG-) reported a decrease of their confidence in the quality of their post-test production. The outcome may be explained by the different

psychological effects incited by prompts and explicit feedback. Explicit feedback obviously rejects learners' non-target language and then emphasizes the existence of the mistake; for example, the explicit feedback to a learner's inappropriate refusal to the boss might be "*I can't* is too direct, you may use *I wish I could*". This kind of overt correction may affect the learners' level of confidence in their own production. This interpretation can be supported by the subjects' response to the self-rating interview questions. In general, all interviewees reported the same level of perceived ability in making refusals before taking the course. However, the prompt group indicated a higher level of perceived ability than the explicit feedback group after the course ended. To be more specific, the H learners of both groups reported the same rate of confidence improvement, whereas the L showed some differences. The EG- thought that after taking the course their ability developed from 'very poor' to 'fair', whereas the PG- believed their ability in making refusals gradually achieve the 'good' level.

In addition, results from the interview on the subjects' level of anxiety and perceived ability when receiving corrective feedback also showed findings of the same trait. Although the subjects expressed various levels of anxiety and their perceived competence when receiving corrective feedback, overall, they agreed that the teacher's manner in delivering corrective feedback essentially affects their level of confidence. 50% of the EG admitted that the teacher's overt indication of mistakes affected their confidence; for example,

EG5: "Yes, I agree. For example, if I'm speaking, like I'm full of confidence and the teacher says 'hey you're making mistake', I'll feel uncomfortable and disappointed and then cannot correct it."

EG6: "...for example, when you (teacher) said I shouldn't use such word or it's not polite, although you told me kindly, I think I still lost some confidence because I felt a bit stupid."

In contrast to overt correction, prompts provide a signal to the mistake and a cue to the self-correction. Learners may perceive the role of prompts as providing help in making a better answer rather than reflection on and correction of errors. Then, learners' experience in their ability to retrieve their knowledge and to do self-repair may result in development of self-confidence in making appropriate refusals.

Another explanation to the superior role of prompts in promoting learners' confidence could be the learners' positive attitudes towards prompts and their preference for making self-generated repair. According to the interview results, all of the interviewees believed that corrective feedback essentially benefits their linguistic

and pragmatic development. Most of them said they paid full attention to teacher feedback and tried to remember it for subsequent usage. Examples are:

EG1: "I want [to get teacher feedback] because I need to know what mistakes I have made so that I can remember for future use."

EG5: "It's useful, very useful because sometimes I know but I forgot. When the teacher reminded me, I then knew... 'yeah, I forgot'.. so that I know what I need to review."

PG3: "I think it helps in terms of memory and helps increasing students' long term confidence in speaking because we know that if we make mistakes, the teacher will guide and we can correct them and then we can remember. At first we may lose some confidence, but when we practice more, review and correct ourselves more, it may help us gain more confidence."

In addition, when given examples of the three corrective feedback techniques, 83% of the interviewees revealed that they would like their teacher to provide hints to the correct answer rather than simply tell the right answer, especially with grammatical mistakes. This is because there were many times that their mistakes resulted from linguistic transfer, their familiarity or routine use of particular forms, not their inability or lack of knowledge. Therefore, they would like to use teacher's hints as a device for reviewing the already acquired linguistic matter. In addition, 56% of the interviewees expressed their willingness to do self-repair because they enjoyed more chances to speak. Examples of such statements are:

EG3: "It's okay to tell the right answer but giving us a chance to rethink is better. Like, if we shouldn't use this word, what would be our second choice? Then we can think more. Give us a hint a bit."

EG5: "Yes, I agree. Giving a hint first, if we really cannot answer, then give us the correct answer so that at least we have a chance to rethink... I don't lose face with explicit feedback but I can't remember my mistake because I don't need to think. When you (teacher) gave me the right answer, I took it right away so I didn't remember."

EG6: "I think so because there are various word choices, teachers should give a cue to the appropriate ones so that we can try again and again. It's like practicing."

PG3: "I like getting a hint more because I can review the points I've learned so it eases and strengthen my memory."

PG4: "I prefer a hint... because sometimes I can't think of the words I want to say. Like that task (the stimulated recall), they were easy words but I couldn't think of. When you (teacher) gave a hint, I then got it."

PG6: “I think it should be like guiding. If the mistakes are not very difficult, teachers should guide students to think first... but if the mistakes are relating to cultures, like this is Thai expression, unlike English expression. The mistakes sometimes are from the lack of knowledge. Though the teacher gives a cue, we still can't answer so giving the right answer is better in this case.”

CG1: “For me, I think I prefer teacher giving a hint to the correct answer because, like I've said, we don't use English everyday so we may forget some points we already learned and make mistakes. If the teacher gives us a hint, we may be able to 'recall' what we've in mind...”

CG6: “I think if the teacher immediately gives feedback (after the mistake), I'll have one more chance to speak so that I can remember, like I have a chance to review. But if the teacher corrects my mistake after all, I may lose connection of what exact I've said.”

Regarding pragmatic mistakes, 67% of the interviewees also showed their preference for making self-generated repair after teacher feedback. However, the remaining 33% believed that explicit correction might be a better solution. This is because, according to the interviewees, the ability to make a contextually appropriate expression needs extensive experience in the target language and culture. Therefore, some inappropriate utterances were not mistakes, but were from a lack of experience. In such a case, 33% of the subjects from all three groups agreed that explicit feedback is particularly useful to introduce them to the more appropriate choice of utterance. The examples are shown below:

EG6: “But I want the teacher to tell me the right answer because I myself rarely talk with foreigners, sometimes I don't know how to speak appropriately. I don't have much experience even though the teacher gives me a cue, I still don't know.”

PG1: “Correcting the errors is better because when it (language) is not appropriate, only the teacher knows but we don't know so the teacher should correct it.”

CG4: “If the mistakes are about appropriateness, I think teachers should explicitly tell the better answers ... because students may take too long time to think and cast doubt. ... Students may study in class but don't have direct experience in using the expressions then we don't know much.”

According to the interview results shown above, the majority of subjects expressed their preference for prompts (83% with grammatical mistakes and 67% with pragmatic mistakes) because they would like to have more chance to think and practice. Some of the excerpts presented earlier also support the function of prompts in pushing

learners to retrieve and practice the already acquired linguistic content, not the linguistic, or pragmatic, matters that are beyond their language ability. Thus, it is possible that extended teacher-learner interaction in the way that teacher provided guidance to elicit learner's self-repair may enhance both learners' language acquisition and confidence as well as their positive attitude towards corrective feedback.

Nonetheless, the unexpected finding in relation to this hypothesis is that the control group, in particular the L learners, presented the greatest development of confidence in their refusal production. Their progress of self-confidence may arise from the effects of the delayed corrective feedback they received. When the control group made mistakes during class activities, the teacher recorded the most frequent errors and then summarized them by providing explicit feedback at the end of each class. This delayed feedback may benefit learners' confidence in speaking as their mistakes were not immediately pointed out or even signaled, so they experienced their ability in getting the message across and thereby building up their confidence in speaking. The evidence of the confidence improvement among the control group was found from the interviews. 67% of the CG interviewees noted that they lack anxiety and generally maintained their perceived speaking ability after receiving teacher's delayed feedback. The examples are:

CG3: "If you mean the teacher feedback like what we had in class, I don't think so because I think the word confidence relates to our image to the others. When you gave feedback at the end of the class, we didn't remember whose mistakes were mentioning, only the person who made it would remember. So, I think it's like we then know what is right to get improved, but we don't feel losing confidence because everyone can make mistakes."

CG5: "No, I didn't feel anything because the teacher didn't point out whose mistakes were mentioning. Or even I remember that is my mistake, I think I'd feel good that I'm learning new things."

CG6: "I'm not worried. I don't know I think teacher just summarized how to say things and then we try to remember, that's it. Why do I have to worry?"

Delayed corrective feedback seems to benefit learners' self-confidence and motivation in speaking. This finding supported the theory of language acquisition and teaching methodology in that not all errors should be corrected, and those that are corrected should not be done immediately (Krashen 1985; Lewis 1993). This is because errors are normal and unavoidable during the learning process. However, as

revealed from repeated studies on corrective feedback, teacher's correction after students' mistakes does play a role in promoting learners' language acquisition. Thus, the important question raised here is whether the effects on learners' language ability or on their psychological concerns such as confidence and attitude are more important in the application of corrective feedback techniques. In other words, what should be prioritized between being confident and being correct? As every teacher would expect positive effects on both sides, future qualitative studies are needed to shed more light on the issue.

In light of these findings, prompts were found to be the more effective corrective feedback technique in promoting learners' pragmatic production, awareness, and confidence in making appropriate refusals compared to explicit feedback. The key factors influencing the effectiveness of prompts are: 1) the provision of multiple opportunities for uptake, and 2) the unobtrusive rejection of mistakes.

1) the provision of multiple opportunities for uptake

Learner's uptake has been defined as "a student's utterance that immediately follows the teacher's feedback and that constitutes a reaction in some way to the teacher's intention to draw attention to some aspect of the student's initial utterance" (Lyster & Ranta, 1997: 49). A number of studies have investigated the effectiveness of corrective feedback using learners' uptake and repair as measurement (e.g. Ellis et al., 2001; Loewen, 2004; Lyster, 1998a, 1998b; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Mackey et al., 2003; Panova & Lyster, 2002). This is because uptake might be an indication of language acquisition as it indicates learners' noticing of teachers' corrective purpose, while learners' immediate repair demonstrates learning.

Although some researchers cautioned that uptake is not necessarily indicative of learning, and learning may take place without uptake (Mackey & Philp, 1998), it is likely that there is a strong relationship between learners' uptake and their awareness (Bardovi-Harlig, 2006). Further, pragmatic awareness is the key factor leading to improvement in pragmatic production (Bardovi-Harlig, 1996, 2006; Schauer, 2006; Takahashi, 2005). Thus, it is likely that the type of corrective feedback that leads to greater opportunities for learners' uptake and immediate repair benefits learners' pragmatic competence in terms of their awareness and production. This is because when teacher prompts a cue or a question to push learners to do self-repair, it would activate learners' pragmatic awareness as they have more opportunities to perform

mental processes like rethinking, retrieving, and reformulating their utterance (production). According to Schmidt (1993, 2001), language acquisition requires awareness at the level of noticing and what learners notice in the input will become intake for learning. To do self-repair, first, learners need to notice their mistakes (to be aware of what is wrong) from the teacher's input (prompts). In other words, instructors' prompts would activate students' awareness at the level of noticing. Then, the learners will need to refer to their awareness at the level of understanding to retrieve the target form from the language rules, patterns, or socio-cultural concerns stored in their mind. Therefore, learners who are prompted to retrieve more target-like forms are more likely to consult their pragmatic awareness and thereby improve their pragmatic production in the subsequent situations than learners merely hearing explicit correction.

2) the unobtrusive rejection of mistakes

This factor is relevant to the psychological effects of corrective feedback on learners' perception, attitude and their confidence. Although explicitness and clarity of corrective purpose play key roles in making the input be noticed, the overt pinpointing and rejecting of a learner's error may affect their attitude towards making mistakes and receiving feedback.

According to the interviews, all participants from both the EG and the PG reported that they perceived the teacher's corrective purpose and were able to recall their mistakes. This is evidence that the explicitness of teacher's corrective purpose is the characteristic shared by explicit feedback and prompts. However, what is different between these two feedback types may be the obtrusiveness of the rejection of the non-target utterances. The obvious rejection resulting from the overt correction of explicit feedback may, to some extent, cause learners to have negative feelings towards language mistakes. As can be seen from the examples shown in the third hypothesis discussion, subjects of the explicit feedback group revealed that they felt uncomfortable and lost some confidence after receiving overt correction. In contrast, prompts provide immediate reactions to learner's utterances to signal mistakes, then provide metalinguistic cues to help learners discover the correct answer by themselves. Prompts thus play an unobtrusive and supportive role in providing corrective feedback and, at the same time, enhance learners' communicative confidence.

Table 5.2 summarizes the major findings of the present study together with their related explanations in brief.

Table 5.2: Summary of research findings

Concept	Research question	Dependent variable	Instruments and analyses	Results	Possible explanations
1. The effects of corrective feedback on learners' pragmatic production	1. Does learners' production of pragmatically appropriate refusal improve after receiving explicit feedback and prompts? If so, which kind of feedback is more effective?	1 oral refusal production	1 oral production tests / analysis of variance (ANOVA) and repeated measures ANOVA	1.1 The prompts group and the explicit feedback group significantly improved their refusal production, whereas the control group did not see significant progress. 1.2 Prompts are more effective than explicit feedback in promoting learners' refusal production, and its effectiveness becomes more robust in the long term.	1.1 The immediate-time feature shared by prompts and explicit feedback helps learners notice the mismatch between the target and non-target form, thereby developing their pragmatic production 1.2 Prompts require learners' self-generated repairs which promote understanding and language acquisition as well as learning autonomy

Concept	Research question	Dependent variable	Instruments and analyses	Results	Possible explanations
2. The effects of corrective feedback on learners' pragmatic awareness	2. Does learners' awareness of pragmatically appropriate refusals improve after receiving explicit feedback and prompts? If so, which kind of feedback is more effective?	2. pragmatic awareness regarding appropriate refusals	2.1 pragmatic awareness MCT/ t-test and analysis of variance (ANOVA)	2.1 The prompts group significantly improved their pragmatic awareness, while the explicit feedback group only slightly developed. 2.2 Prompts are more effective than explicit feedback in promoting learners' pragmatic awareness.	2.1 Prompts require learners' self-generated repairs which enhance learner's thinking process and pragmatic awareness.
			2.2 interview/ content analysis	2.3 The prompts group reported the highest number of aspects concerning pragmatic awareness, and also recorded the greatest number of reporters of each aspect.	

Concept	Research question	Dependent variable	Instruments and analyses	Results	Possible explanations
3. The effects of corrective feedback on learners' confidence	3. Does learners' confidence level in making pragmatically appropriate refusals improve after receiving explicit feedback and prompts? If so, which kind of feedback is more effective?	3. level of confidence	3.1 confidence rating scales/ t-test and analysis of variance (ANOVA)	3.1 The prompts group significantly improved their level of confidence, while the explicit feedback group only slightly progressed.	3.1 Prompts are less face-threatening as they do not overtly reject learners' mistake.
			3.2 interview/ content analysis	3.2 Prompts are more effective than explicit feedback in promoting learners' confidence in their refusal production.	3.2 The multiple opportunities for self-generated repair provided by prompts enhance learners' language confidence.
				3.3 The control group recorded the greatest improvement of confidence.	3.2 The delayed feedback may benefit learners' confidence as it does not immediately point out their errors.

5.3 Contributions of the Study

The findings from the present study support theoretical and empirical research in that:

- 1) immediate corrective feedback plays an essential role in helping learners notice the mismatches between the target- and non target form, which leads to reformulation (Schmidt, 2001)
- 2) the corrective feedback technique that pushes learners to do self- or peer-repair can promote learners' language acquisition (Allwright, 1975; Allwright & Bailey, 1991; Ammar, 2003; de Bot, 1996; Lyster 1998; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Pica et al., 1989; Swain, 1985).
- 3) prompts are effective in leading to language development, and its effects become more apparent in the long term (Ammar & Spada 2006; Nobuyoshi & Ellis, 1993)
- 4) consciousness-raising approaches towards teaching and giving corrective feedback plus multiple opportunities for language use may result in gains in learners' L2 pragmatic development (Silva, 2003)

The present study has also revealed a new dimension in investigating the role of corrective feedback, i.e. its effects on interlanguage pragmatic development. The findings of the present study are among the initial works that reveal the effectiveness of prompts on learners' pragmatic competence. Further, it provides greater understanding of several issues pertaining to the implementation of corrective feedback in the classroom: 1) the psychological effects of corrective feedback, i.e. its effects on learners' level of confidence, 2) learners' perception and attitude towards each corrective feedback technique, 3) the advantages and limitations of immediate and delayed corrective feedback, and 4) the role of each feedback technique in relation to learner's proficiency level. These findings could help teachers be more aware of the role and proportion of each feedback technique in language teaching.

5.4 Teaching Implications

A number of teaching implications emerged from the development of the research instruments and major findings of the current study.

5.4.1 Implications raised by research instruments

Recommendations for teachers teaching pragmatics are regarding two main issues, namely teaching activities and scoring systems.

1) Teaching activities for speech acts lessons

Two types of recommended activities for teaching pragmatics are raised from the instructional interventions.

1.1) Analytical activities

In teaching pragmatics, teachers may add activities that require analytical skills such as the contrastive analysis activities. Possible tasks may be organizing group or whole class discussion on the differences of the target speech act strategies used in American, or other varieties of English, and Thai. Suggested materials are those representing authentic language such as ads, movie clips, or excerpts from newspapers or magazines. Students' generated dialogues and interviews with native speakers could also be interesting sources for doing contrastive analysis. These kinds of activities can help learners develop their skills in language analysis and equip them with insights on the reality of English usage in the real world. Also, teachers should introduce learners to the concept of world Englishes and cultural impacts in language use to help them better understand the concept of sociopragmatics, and also to prepare them to be open-minded to other varieties of English.

1.2) Self-reflection activities

One possible way to promote learners' confidence and intrinsic motivation in learning is to allow them to do self-reflection and assessment of their language production. In the current study, where learners had to listen to their production on the pre-test and again on the post-test in order to rate their level of confidence, learners expressed major interest in the activity and were willing to participate. Based on this investigation, allowing learners to look back to their performance at different learning stages may help them see the evidence of their developmental path in language acquisition, which could encourage their self-confidence and boost intrinsic motivation in learning English.

2) Scoring system for speech act production

A number of studies have employed analytical assessment as the scoring system for pragmatic production (e.g. Martinez-Flor, 2004). However, such a scoring scheme seems too artificial in grading certain speech acts such as refusals and apologies. This is because speech act production is often a combination of various speech act strategies, which hearers perceive and interpret as chunks. Thus, dividing the whole production into pieces would alter the quality of the expression to the hearer.

According to the present study, a holistic scoring scheme is more appropriate for rating pragmatic production in classroom due to its authenticity. Further, since scoring system tells the goal of language lessons, teachers may use an authentic holistic scoring band to introduce learners to whole components of appropriate language use, which include several other factors apart from grammar and target expressions.

5.4.2 Implications raised by research findings

Four major findings can be summarized from the current study:

- I. Immediate corrective feedback is more effective than delayed feedback in promoting learners' pragmatic awareness and production.
- II. Prompts are more effective than explicit feedback in helping learners develop their production, awareness and confidence in making pragmatically appropriate refusals.
- III. Delayed corrective feedback may benefit learners' confidence in speaking.
- IV. Learners' anxiety, self-confidence and attitudes towards receiving corrective feedback vary according to the teacher's manner in delivering feedback.

In light of these findings, a number of implications for language teachers are suggested. These implications are relevant to three main topics pertaining to the use of corrective feedback, namely selection, manner and attitude.

1) Selection of corrective feedback technique

First and foremost, the findings from the present study can be used as guidelines for teachers to consider the advantages and limitations of each feedback technique. However, these findings do not yield conclusive claims for language learning as there is no best method to suit all teaching and learning contexts. Teachers then need to consider the context before planning their use of corrective feedback. Firstly, teachers should determine the objective of each activity; whether it is to promote grammatical accuracy or to develop speaking confidence. The former objective matches well with immediate corrective feedback, while the delayed correction is more appropriate for the latter. Regarding the immediate corrective feedback technique, the better approach may be to elicit learners' self-repair first. If it does not work, opening the floor to peer correction may be better than forcing the same student to answer again and again. If no one in the class can correct it, then the

teacher's explicit feedback is needed. In this way learners may pay more attention to the class activity as it requires them to take part at all stages. Also, self-repair and peer correction can promote learner autonomy as it decreases their reliance on teachers. Nonetheless, when the focus of the activity is on meaning or fluency, delayed corrective feedback may be a more appropriate choice as it neither interrupts the communicative flow nor marks individual mistakes, and thereby encourages learners' speaking confidence.

Another point to consider regarding the context is learner factors. Although it is not possible to match a teacher's practice with every learner's needs, general characteristics of learners may be drawn from their age, goals and L2 proficiency. Teachers' decision to provide a particular type of feedback needs to take into account the students' background knowledge or their familiarity with the content of the lesson. If the mistakes are on the language content learners already know, prompts may be more beneficial as they elicit learners' self-generated repair. However, if the mistakes are regarding the linguistic or pragmatic matters that are beyond learners' proficiency level, the types of feedback which provide positive evidence, e.g. explicit feedback and recasts, might be the better solution. As recommended by Lyster (2007), "interaction about content with which students are unfamiliar is propitious for the use of recasts, whereas interaction about content familiar to students provides ideal opportunities for the use of prompts" (Lyster, 2007: 123). Further, the learner's age is also an important issue to consider when delivering feedback. According to Tedick and Gortary (1998), learners at early stages of language acquisition need to be encouraged to produce language in a meaning-focus way. Thus, the feedback techniques that elicit learner's reflections of their mistake are not appropriate for these groups of learners. Instead, they may better suit more cognitively mature and L2 proficient learners.

To conclude, teachers should balance corrective feedback techniques, and also their amount by considering learners' characteristics, the nature of the mistakes and objectives of the activity. As learners' learning motivation was found to be closely related to their awareness (Takahashi, 2005), and awareness is a key factor leading to improvement in production as well, it is important for the teacher to handle class interactions, which include corrective feedback, in a way that promotes both learners' motivation and language awareness as well as the quality of their production.

2) Manner of feedback delivery

Not only the correction technique, but also the manner and time in delivering the corrective feedback influence learners' perception and attitude. Thus, teachers should bear in mind that a supportive personality is needed when providing feedback, coupled with the appropriate amount of the correction. A number of teachers use humor in the hope of signaling to learners that mistakes are not serious matters. However, they should be very careful of how and when to use humor with learners' mistakes or it would make learners feel humiliated.

3) Attitude towards mistakes and correction

As attitude is the key factor in learners' intrinsic motivation in learning and confidence, teachers should shift their focus to the positive aspects of mistakes. A brief explanation of interlanguage can be helpful. Teachers may explain that mistakes are evidence of language acquisition and are the by-product of learners' experiments in using the target language. Corrective feedback is then not a 'picking' instrument, but a helper for them to achieve their goal. Further, special interest should be paid to some types of errors. As stated earlier, teachers should introduce learners to the relationships between language and culture. Teachers may pay more attention to some pragmatic mistakes that originate from cultural impact or language transfer. These kinds of non-target utterances should be treated as 'a reflection of cultural differences' rather than an error from a lack of knowledge. Explicit feedback with metalinguistic information can play a supportive role in such a case. The introduction to this idea can help learners to be open-minded and thereby hold positive attitudes towards pragmatic mistakes, and also towards other varieties of English.

5.5 Limitations of the Study

As the subjects of the present study were first year students who volunteered to participate in the study, the total amount of subjects was 43 students; four dropped out of the post-tests. The actual subjects were then 39 students, which when divided into three groups, the sample size was rather small. Further, the use of average means scores of the pre-test to categorize the subjects into high-proficiency (H) and low-proficiency (L) subgroups resulted in an unequal number of the H and L in each group (8 H and 5 L). As a result, research findings pertaining to the interaction between the improvement of the H and the L cannot be calculated due to the unequal sample sizes.

Also, each group including merely five learners of the L subgroup also limits interpretation of the research findings in relation to low-proficiency learners.

5.6 Recommendations for Future Research

Recommendations for future research stem from the findings and limitations of the present study. Three recommended areas of future research are:

1) A replication of the present study with a larger number of subjects in each experimental group might be done. The larger sample size would allow the use of certain statistics to examine the within-group interaction before and after the treatment.

2) A study on the effects of different corrective feedback techniques in relation to learners' level of proficiency could be done. The findings from this study revealed the effectiveness of prompts over explicit feedback for both high- and low-proficiency subgroups. However, the operationalized definition of proficiency in this study does not refer to general English proficiency, but the subjects' ability in making English refusals. Thus, the effects of corrective feedback types in relation to learners' general language proficiency need further exploration.

3) The psychological effect of corrective feedback techniques on learners' perception, attitude and confidence is another scarce area in ELT research. The findings of the present study revealed several interesting issues regarding the mental and psychological effects of corrective feedback. Future research might be done to compare the effects of immediate and delayed oral feedback, or between implicit and explicit written feedback on learners' perceptions.

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APPENDICES

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APPENDIX A

Refusal Expressions Questionnaire

I. Personal information

- 1. Your sex: male female
- 2. Your age:
- 3. Your first language (L1)
- 4. Your most frequently used language

II. Refusal Expression Rating Scale: You will read eight different situations in which you are talking to an interlocutor. There are five possible responses provided for each situation. Please rate the level of appropriateness of each response when it is said to different interlocutors, either your classmate, professor, boss, colleague, or neighbor. Please note that your relationship to each person is not too close, nor too distant.

Situation 1: You are talking to a person, either your classmate or professor, about the plan for the coming weekend. Your interlocutor invites you to his place for a dinner party on Friday. You cannot make it because you already have plans with your sister. The following is his invitation and your possible responses to him.

Interlocutor: I’m having some people over to my house for dinner this Friday. Would you like to come?

Level of appropriateness: 1=very unsatisfactory, 2=unsatisfactory, 3=acceptable, 4=appropriate, 5=completely appropriate

Your responses	Interlocutor	Level of appropriateness
Thank you for the invitation, but I can’t make it because I already have plans with my sister.	classmate	1 2 3 4 5
	professor	1 2 3 4 5
Thank you for the invitation, but I don’t think I can make it because I already have plans with my sister.	classmate	1 2 3 4 5
	professor	1 2 3 4 5
Thank you for the invitation, but I’m afraid I can’t make it because I already have plans with my sister.	classmate	1 2 3 4 5
	professor	1 2 3 4 5
Thank you for the invitation. I wish I could, but because I already have plans with my sister.	classmate	1 2 3 4 5
	professor	1 2 3 4 5
Thank you for the invitation. I’d love to, but I already have plans with my sister.	classmate	1 2 3 4 5
	professor	1 2 3 4 5

Your own response to the classmate's invitation:

.....

Your own response to the professor's invitation:

.....



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Situation 2: You are talking to a person about a newly published book you bought last week and just finished reading. The person would like to borrow the book, but you have to use it in writing a report this weekend. The following is your interlocutor's request and your possible responses to her.

Interlocutor: Oh... that book looks very interesting. Would you mind if I borrowed the book this weekend? I'm sure to finish it by Monday.

Level of appropriateness: 1=very unsatisfactory, 2=unsatisfactory, 3=acceptable, 4=appropriate, 5=completely appropriate

Your responses	Interlocutor	Level of appropriateness
I'm sorry. I can't lend it to you this weekend because I'm writing a report on it.	classmate	1 2 3 4 5
	professor	1 2 3 4 5
I'm sorry. I don't feel comfortable with this because I'm writing a report on it.	classmate	1 2 3 4 5
	professor	1 2 3 4 5
I'm sorry. I'm afraid I have to use it this weekend because I'm writing a report on it.	classmate	1 2 3 4 5
	professor	1 2 3 4 5
I wish I could , but I'm writing a report on it this weekend. I'm sorry.	classmate	1 2 3 4 5
	professor	1 2 3 4 5
I'd love to , but I'm writing a report on it this weekend. I'm sorry.	classmate	1 2 3 4 5
	professor	1 2 3 4 5

Your own response to the classmate's request:

.....

Your own response to the professor's request:

.....

Situation 3: A person you are working with is quitting his job for a better opportunity. You are talking to him about his plans. He invited you to his farewell party, which will be held on the same day and time that you have a dentist's appointment. The following is his invitation and your possible responses to him.

Interlocutor: My farewell party is on Friday at 5 p.m., would you like to come?

Level of appropriateness: 1=very unsatisfactory, 2=unsatisfactory, 3=acceptable, 4=appropriate, 5=completely appropriate

Your responses	Interlocutor	Level of appropriateness
Thank you for the invitation, but I can't make it because I've got a dentist's appointment.	colleague	1 2 3 4 5
	boss	1 2 3 4 5
Thank you for the invitation, but I don't think I can make it because I've got a dentist's appointment.	colleague	1 2 3 4 5
	boss	1 2 3 4 5
Thank you for the invitation, but I'm afraid I can't make it because I've got a dentist's appointment.	colleague	1 2 3 4 5
	boss	1 2 3 4 5
Thank you for the invitation. I wish I could , but because I've got a dentist's appointment.	colleague	1 2 3 4 5
	boss	1 2 3 4 5
Thank you for the invitation. I'd love to , but because I've got a dentist's appointment.	colleague	1 2 3 4 5
	boss	1 2 3 4 5

Your own response to the colleague's invitation:

.....

Your own response to the boss's invitation:

.....

Situation 4: You are talking to a person at your office about Jenny, the new foreign colleague who just started her job. Jenny is having communication problems in the office because not many colleagues speak fluent English. The person asked you to show Jenny around this week. The following is your interlocutor's request and your possible responses to her.

Interlocutor: I think Jenny needs someone to show her around this week. Do you think you can help?

Level of appropriateness: 1=very unsatisfactory, 2=unsatisfactory, 3=acceptable, 4=appropriate, 5=completely appropriate

Your responses	Interlocutor	Level of appropriateness
I'm sorry. I can't because I'm very busy this week.	colleague	1 2 3 4 5
	boss	1 2 3 4 5
I'm sorry. I don't think I can because I'm very busy this week.	colleague	1 2 3 4 5
	boss	1 2 3 4 5
I'm sorry. I'm afraid I can't because I'm very busy this week.	colleague	1 2 3 4 5
	boss	1 2 3 4 5
I wish I could, but I'm very busy this week. I'm sorry.	colleague	1 2 3 4 5
	boss	1 2 3 4 5
I'd love to, but I'm very busy this week. I'm sorry.	colleague	1 2 3 4 5
	boss	1 2 3 4 5

Your own response to the colleague's request:

.....

Your own response to the boss's request:

.....

Situation 5: You are walking out of the office after an evening meeting when a person you know offers you a ride home. You know that she lives not far away from you, but you need to buy something at the supermarket before going home. The following is your interlocutor's offer and your possible responses to her.

Interlocutor: Are you going straight home? I can give you a lift. We are in the same direction.

Level of appropriateness: 1=very unsatisfactory, 2=unsatisfactory, 3=acceptable, 4=appropriate, 5=completely appropriate

Your responses	Interlocutor	Level of appropriateness
Oh thank you, but I'm not going home now.	colleague	1 2 3 4 5
	boss	1 2 3 4 5
Oh thank you, but I'm going to do some shopping before I go home.	colleague	1 2 3 4 5
	boss	1 2 3 4 5
Thank you very much, but I'm going to do some shopping before I go home.	colleague	1 2 3 4 5
	boss	1 2 3 4 5
Thank you, but I'm going to do some shopping before I go home. But thank you anyway.	colleague	1 2 3 4 5
	boss	1 2 3 4 5
Thank you very much for the offer, but I am afraid that I have to buy something at the supermarket before going home.	colleague	1 2 3 4 5
	boss	1 2 3 4 5

Your own response to the colleague's offer:

.....

Your own response to the boss's offer:

.....

Situation 6: You are talking to a person at your university about a research project. The person offers you a part-time job as a research assistant, but you cannot accept it because your schedule for this semester is already full. The following is your interlocutor's offer and your possible responses to him.

Interlocutor: It'd be nice if you could be my research assistant. Are you interested?

Level of appropriateness: 1=very unsatisfactory, 2=unsatisfactory, 3=acceptable, 4=appropriate, 5=completely appropriate

Your responses		Level of appropriateness
Oh thank you, but I can't fit it into my schedule.	senior	1 2 3 4 5
	supervisor	1 2 3 4 5
Oh thank you for your offer, but I'm afraid I can't fit it into my schedule.	senior	1 2 3 4 5
	supervisor	1 2 3 4 5
Oh thank you for your offer, but I'm not available because my schedule is already full. I'm sorry for that.	senior	1 2 3 4 5
	supervisor	1 2 3 4 5
Oh thank you. Your project sounds great. I would really like to work with you on it, but my schedule is already full.	senior	1 2 3 4 5
	supervisor	1 2 3 4 5
Oh thank you. I wish I could, but I'm afraid I can't because my schedule is already full.	senior	1 2 3 4 5
	supervisor	1 2 3 4 5

Your own response to the senior's offer:

.....

Your own response to the supervisor's offer:

.....

Situation 7: You are having a problem deciding which subject to take next year—Business English or Public Speaking—because both of them are offered at the same time. A person at your study program suggests that you take the Public Speaking course, but you find out that Business English has some more benefits. The following is your interlocutor’s suggestion and your possible responses to him.

Interlocutor: Perhaps you should take Public Speaking. It helps with your presentations in other courses.

Level of appropriateness: 1=very unsatisfactory, 2=unsatisfactory, 3=acceptable, 4=appropriate, 5=completely appropriate

Your responses	Interlocutor	Level of appropriateness
But I think Business English might be more beneficial to me because ...	classmate	1 2 3 4 5
	supervisor	1 2 3 4 5
Thank you for your advice, but I think Business English might benefit my future study more.	classmate	1 2 3 4 5
	supervisor	1 2 3 4 5
Thank you for your advice, but I think Business English might benefit my future study more because...	classmate	1 2 3 4 5
	supervisor	1 2 3 4 5
Yes, you are right. But I am wondering if Business English would benefit my future study more because... What do you think?	classmate	1 2 3 4 5
	supervisor	1 2 3 4 5
Yes, you are right. But I think Business English would benefit my future study more because... I'll take a look again and make a final decision. Thank you.	classmate	1 2 3 4 5
	supervisor	1 2 3 4 5

Your own response to the classmate’s suggestion:

.....

Your own response to the supervisor’s suggestion:

.....

Situation 8: You are the secretary of the faculty summer camp and are thinking of an outdoor activity at the end of the camp. A person you are talking to suggests the same activity as of the previous year’s camp. You do not agree because you want something new. The following is your interlocutor’s suggestion and your possible responses to her.

Interlocutor: Why don’t you use the same activity as last year? I think it was fun and interesting.

Level of appropriateness: 1=very unsatisfactory, 2=unsatisfactory, 3=accepted, 4=appropriate, 5=completely appropriate

Your responses	Interlocutor	Level of appropriateness
It’s the same activity as last year. I don’t think it’s the best choice.	teammate	1 2 3 4 5
	Faculty Dean	1 2 3 4 5
I think it might be a good choice to try another activity this year.	teammate	1 2 3 4 5
	Faculty Dean	1 2 3 4 5
Thank you for your suggestion, but I think we may try another activity this year.	teammate	1 2 3 4 5
	Faculty Dean	1 2 3 4 5
Yes, it’s a good idea, but I wonder if we should try another activity this year.	teammate	1 2 3 4 5
	Faculty Dean	1 2 3 4 5
Yes, this is a good idea, but I think it might also be a good choice to try another activity this year.	teammate	1 2 3 4 5
	Faculty Dean	1 2 3 4 5

Your own response to the teammate’s suggestion:

.....

Your own response to the dean’s suggestion:

.....

APPENDIX B: Examples of Teaching Materials

Lesson 1: Refusals

I'd like to go, but...

Feel the Act...

- ① Here are different responses to the same question. The dialogue was between new colleagues. Discuss how appropriate they are.

Ben: "I'm having a party at my place. Would you like to come over on Friday at 6 p.m.?"

Pete: "Oh.. I'm sorry, I can't make it on Friday. I'm having a date."

Sam: "Oh.. I definitely can't go, I'll be on duty Friday evening. Thanks anyway though."

Jules: "Uhm... I already have plans, but I'll think about it. Thanks."

Cherry: "Oh.. thank you for inviting me. I'm gonna drop in when I pass away."

Do the Act...

- ② What would you say in the following situations?

It is Friday afternoon that you just finished class and want to go straight home. You have two reports due on Monday waiting for you. You met three people, one at a time, when you were walking. Each person asked you something. Considering your situation, what would you say to each one?

I love Friday! How about going to a movie this evening?

a classmate

Hi, Pam. Are you free this weekend? I'm looking for one more volunteer for our Sunday's book fair.

a professor

Ploy, wait.. I don't know what to say... but can you lend me 200 Bht.?

another classmate

Think about the Act!

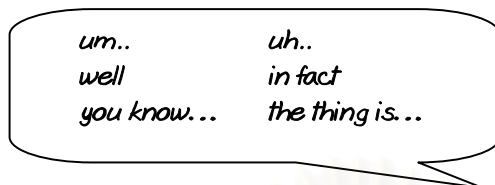
Sometimes you need to say no when someone makes a suggestion, offers something or asks you to do something for them. Of course, just saying 'no' can be rather rude. Here are some of the most common ways to say 'no' nicely - or at least not rudely. Look at five ways of making refusals below. Most refusals include expressions stating the reason why you are refusing. The following types of expressions can be used together with expressions stating the reason for refusing.

- Would you like to see a film tonight?
I'm afraid I can't go out tonight. I've got a test tomorrow.
- Why don't we have some Chinese food?
Sorry, but **I don't particularly like** Chinese food.
- How about taking a nice walk?
I'd rather not take a walk this afternoon.
- Would you like to come to the museum with us?
Thank you, but **I'm not really fond of** museums.
- Why don't you stay over at our place?
That's very kind of you, **but I really have to** get back to the city.

<i>Refusal strategies</i>	<i>Example expressions</i>
<i>Positive opinion</i>	That sounds wonderful, but... I'd like/love to, but... I wish I could, but...
<i>Thanking</i>	Thank you for asking, but... Thank you for asking me, though.
<i>Apology/ regret</i>	I'm sorry, but...
<i>Direct refusal</i>	I can't... I don't...
<i>Softener</i>	I'm afraid I can't... I don't think I can... I don't particularly like... I'm not really fond of... I'd rather not ...
<i>Reason</i>	I already have other plans. I have to... I'm going to... I can't afford to... I have a lot of homework to do.
<i>Alternative</i>	Maybe some other time. Perhaps next time.

Refusal techniques: Hesitation

Hesitation is a natural part of using a language. Here are some useful expressions you can use to fill the silence and to give you time to organize your thoughts and decide how to express them.



Do you think hesitation may help your refusal expression sound “better” for the listener?

3 Put the number representing different levels of formality in front of the expressions given (some items may allow more than one number).

1 = informal, 2 = neutral, 3 = formal

- I'm sorry.
- I'm sorry, I can't help.
- I'm afraid I couldn't be of help.
- That sounds nice, but I can't make it.
- I don't think so, I'm sorry.
- Sorry about that.
- I wish I could, but I have to take care of my baby.
- I wish I could, but I'll be away next week.
- Read my lips.. N-O
- I don't think I can make it today.
- Thank you for your invitation, but ...
- I don't feel comfortable with it. I'm sorry.
- I'm really sorry, maybe some other time.

Discuss the possible factors that make each expression more or less formal. Also, discuss the difference between the concept of formality and politeness. Is formal expression always polite and vice versa?

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Cross-cultural notes

- ④ Read the following story and discuss the cause of misunderstanding. Do you think it is the matter of different cultures or individual personality?

"I'm not so good at it."

Yukari has been studying at a university in New York for one year. One day her classmate, Cathy, found out that Yukari's hobby is playing the violin. A few days later Cathy said to Yukari, "Yukari, I'm planning a big party for my mom's 60th birthday. I wonder if you could play the violin at the party. I'm sure my mom will like it. It would make the party very special." Yukari, feeling modest and not so confident in playing in front of many people, said, "I'm really sorry, Cathy, I really can't. I'm not so good at the violin." Cathy could not understand why Yukari refused the proposal, because Cathy would not refuse such a good opportunity to show her talent to other people. Cathy would have understood if Yukari had given her clearer reasons for her refusal.

Adapted from Yoshida et al. (2000)

Use what you've learned!

⑤ Emotionally refuse!

First, complete this chart of adjectives and adverbs.

Adjective	Adverb	Adjective	Adverb
angry	nervously
brave	quick
.....	desperately	quietly
drunken	romantic
.....	excitedly	slowly
loud	soft

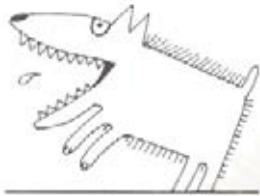

When you are emotionally involved, your intonation and language choice are changed.

Choosing an emotion, take turns making a refusal to the following questions.

- Can you just turn off the TV and listen to me?
- Could you lend me 500 Bht? I'm really broke this month.
- Do you mind giving me a lift home tonight?
- Do you want to go to the concert with me?
- Will you marry me?
- I broke up with my boyfriend, but please don't let on!
- Professor, would you mind if I submit my paper late?

6 Love Me, Take My Dog...

Read the following story. Using refusal expressions you have learned, take turns orally responding to the questions in the story.

	<p>Scene 1</p> <p>Your friend, Sarah, is having her bathroom fixed, so she comes to stay over with you tonight. Her dog comes with her but it seems unfriendly. ^^! She asks you to allow the dog to sleep in the bedroom. You don't want to. What would you say?</p>
<p><i>Draw it yourself.</i></p>	<p>Scene 2</p> <p>The dog barks and howls at night. You ask it to stop but it jumps over and breaks your vase. Sarah apologizes and says she will buy you a new vase. You think it is an accident, so you don't want her to pay. What would you say?</p>
	<p>Scene 3</p> <p>Sarah woke up early to walk her dog. The dog saw a man passing by. Curious and playful, it snapped at the man's wrist. Sarah pulled the dog back. She seriously apologized and offered to pay the compensation. The man was such a gentleman, so he refused by saying ...</p>
<p><i>Draw it yourself.</i></p>	<p>Scene 4</p> <p>A few days later Sarah wants to thank you for letting her stay over at your place. She invites you for a dinner at her apartment. You know what her dog is like, so you don't want to go. What would you say?</p>

<i>Draw it yourself.</i>	<p>Scene 5</p> <p>Sorry, your refusal was not good enough. Sarah managed to have you at her place finally. Now you just arrived home and find that your apartment has been robbed!!</p> <p>You tell your friends the next day. Someone said you should have a dog at home, and Sarah suggests you take her dog...</p> <p>What would you say?</p>
--------------------------	---

7 Role-play

Pair up with a friend and choose a situation in which you have to do a role-play.

Concert ticket

Your classmate, Nick, plays in a jazz band. He is going to have a concert soon, and he asks you to buy a ticket to the concert. You really don't want to go because it will cost you 300 baht, and you feel this is too expensive.

What would you say?

Party invitation

Dr. Kane, a professor at your university, invites you to a party at his house. You don't feel like going because you don't like him very much.

What would you say?

Try a new diet

You've been on diet for a month, but you are still putting on weight. Your manager suggests you try a new diet by being a vegetarian for a month. You don't like this idea since you hate vegetables.

What would you say?

Take my umbrella

You just finish the evening class when it begins to rain. You need to go home but you don't have an umbrella. Nick, your classmate, offers his umbrella to you. You don't feel like accepting because you know that Nick has feelings for you, but to you he is just a friend.

What would you say?

Could you please stop that?!

You are majoring in music and you are having a performance test tomorrow. So, today you have to practice playing your instrument(s). It is 8 p.m. when your neighbor rings your door and asks you to stop playing. You cannot because you need to practice more on some parts.

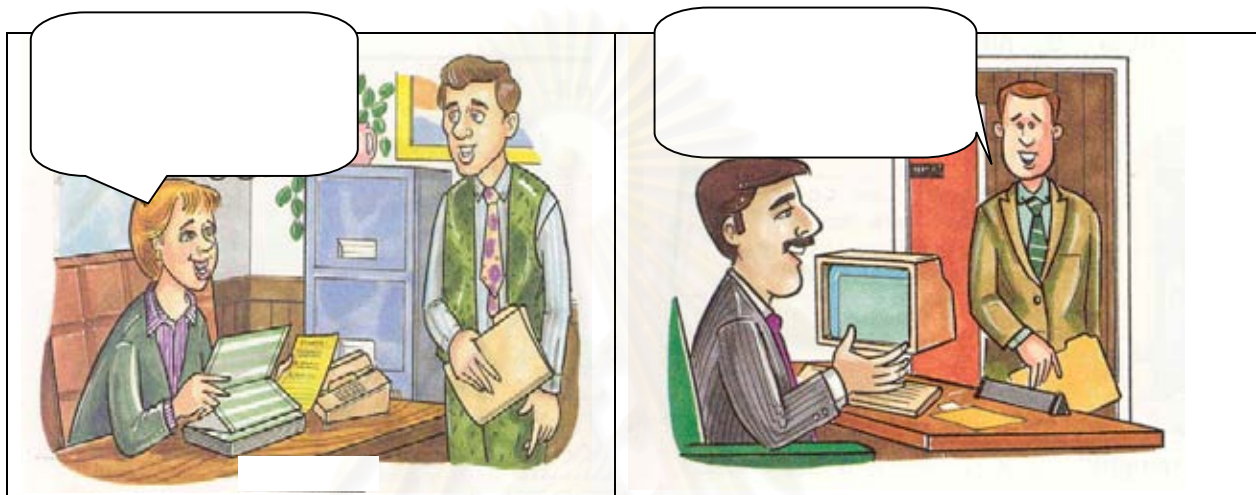
What would you say?

Refusal strategies	Example expressions
Positive opinion	
Thanking	
Apology/ regret	
Direct refusal	
Softener	
Reason	
Alternative	

Lesson 2: Invitation Would you like to come?

Feel the Act...

The two pictures below are about an invitation to a dinner party. One is the invitation to a colleague; the other is to the boss. Think of the invitation expressions and write them in the callouts.



Pictures from Molinsky, S. J. & Bliss, B. (1998). *Communicator II: The comprehensive course in functional English*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall Regents.

Do the Act...

In groups of three, you are organizing the university's movie week. Each group is responsible for finding three movies to show on each day of the week (Monday-Friday). Your team has to think of three good movies that you want to show.



Next, you have to compete with other teams to invite your classmates to buy an all-day pass for your three movies. The ticket costs 300 Baht, so you have to try hard to persuade your classmates to buy the ticket by giving good reasons. The group that succeeds in selling the ticket will win.

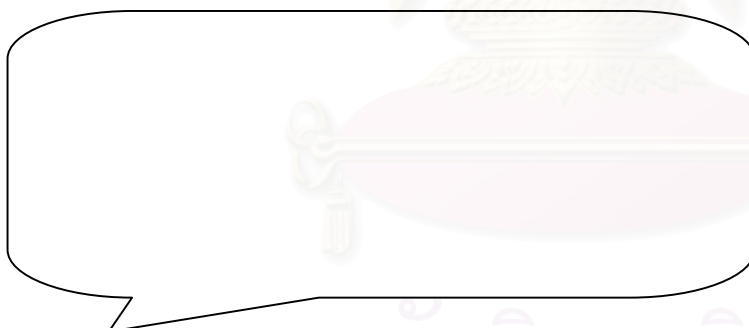
Think about the Act!

Below are conventional expressions in making invitation.

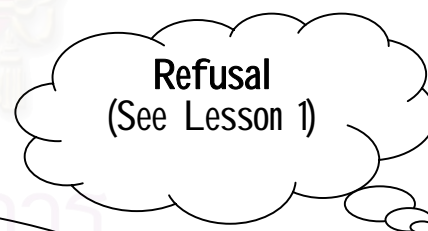
Useful Expressions	
Let's	
Do you want to ...?	
Would you like to ...?	
How would you like to ...?	
Would you be interested in ...ing?	
If you're not busy, If you're free, If you don't have any other plans,	would you like to ...?
Can you come? Can you make it? Do you think you can come? Do you think you can make it?	
We'd like to invite/ have you over.	

Responses to invitation

Think of the possible expressions to respond to invitations.



Accept



Hesitate

Cross-cultural notes

Read the following story and discuss the questions below.

Why don't you return my favor?

Julie is from Canada and this is her first time in Beijing. Julie's long time Chinese pen-pal, Hong, came to pick her up from the airport and also took her around. On the first day, Hong invited Julie to dine at a Chinese restaurant. The food and drinks were perfect. When the time for the bill came, Julie wanted to share the bill, but Hong insisted to pay for the meal. Julie really admired Hong's treatment of her for the whole week in Beijing. However, for Hong, she felt awkward as she was waiting for Julie to reciprocate the dining invitation. When it came to the last day of the visit, Julie noticed that Hong was much less talkative than from the first days. "Are you OK?", Julie asked. Hong finally decided to speak out "Do you really like me as a friend?" Julie's eyes looked twice bigger with surprise when she answered "Yes, sure!, why do you ask me this?" Hong went on with her first aloof voice, "Don't you know that when people invite you for a meal, subconsciously, you are expected to return their favor unless you don't want to maintain the relationship?!"

(story based on an interview with a Chinese graduate student)

- Who is wrong in this story? Why?
- What would you do if you were Julie?
- Can you think of any invitation *DO's* and *Don'ts* that are specific to Thai culture?

Use what you've learned!

1. What a weird party!

In groups of three, think of a bizarre party or an event that you want to organize. Write down the details of the party.

Example

Your Dog's Birthday Party

Date /Time: Sunday 12th March/ 4 p.m.

Place: your house

Attire: informal

Theme: animal fancy

Food: international

Then, choose two classmates to role play of the invitees, either your classmates, or teacher. The invitees will ask for the details of your party before making a decision on whether they want to go.

2. Role Play

Pair up with a friend. Each pair takes turns role-playing the situation.

Student A	Student B
Invite a classmate to your Birthday party on Monday.	You cannot go because you have tutoring class.
Invite your professor to join the school summer camp.	You don't want to go because you are very busy.
Invite the manager to your farewell party.	You accept the invitation.
Invite your classmate to participate in your rock concert.	You really don't want to go because you think the ticket is too expensive.
Invite your supervisor to participate in your rock concert.	You don't want to go because you're very busy and rock music is not your type.
Invite your basketball teammate to practice on Sunday.	You already have plans with your family, but you'll think about it.
Invite your friend's mom to your wedding party on the 12 th next month.	You cannot make it because you will have an eye operation around that time.
Invite your colleague to your Latin dance class in the gym because you got a free trial card for a guest.	You're a nurse and you'll be on duty at that time, but you're interested. So, you've to find the way out.
Invite your neighbor to repaint the fence and share the cost.	You don't want to because you think it's unnecessary and you're running out of money.
You got a scholarship by the help of your supervisor. So, you want to organize a thank you party for him. Invite your supervisor to the thank you party will be held at your home.	You don't want to have any parties because you think the student deserves the grant. So, you have to tell him that the party is not necessary.

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Lesson 3: Request

Would you mind . . . ?

Feel the Act...

Read the following conversation and think of the relationship between the two speakers.

A: Lisa?

B: Yes?

A: Are you busy?

B: No. Not at all.

A: Can I bug you for a sec?

B: Sure. What's up?

A: Well, I'm solving this puzzle and I'm trying to find an eight-letter word that begins with B.

B: Gee... I definitely can't help with English words, sorry.

Do the Act...

How would you ask someone to do something?

Write five requests that you would like the person sitting next to you to ask other students. Then, exchange requests. Go around the class and make the requests.

Amy's requests

Would you ask Antonio not to make so much noise?

A: Antonio, Amy says please don't make so much noise.

B: Oh, sorry, but I'm rehearsing the presentation.

Could you ask Julie to lend me \$20?

A: Julie, can you lend Amy \$20?

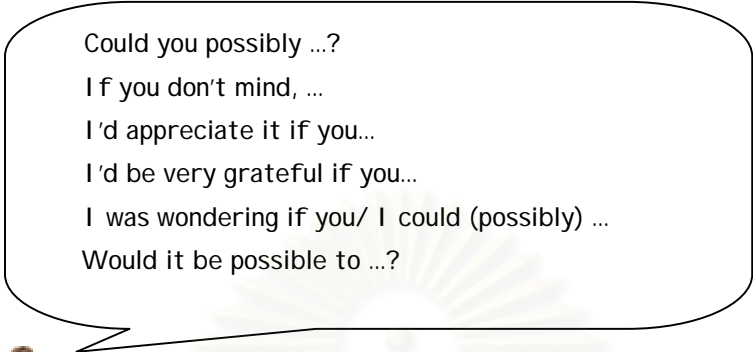
B: I'd like to help, but please tell her I'm broke this week.

Now tell your partner what each person said.

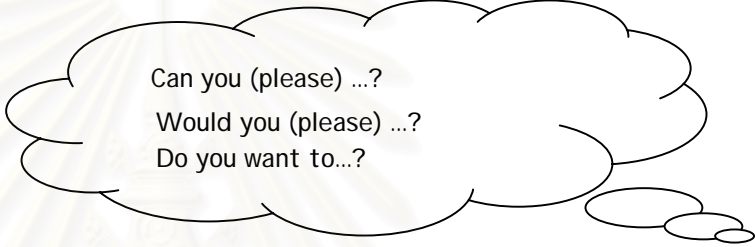
- Antonio said he was sorry, but he was rehearsing the presentation.
- Julie said that she'd like to help, but she was broke this week.

Think about the Act!

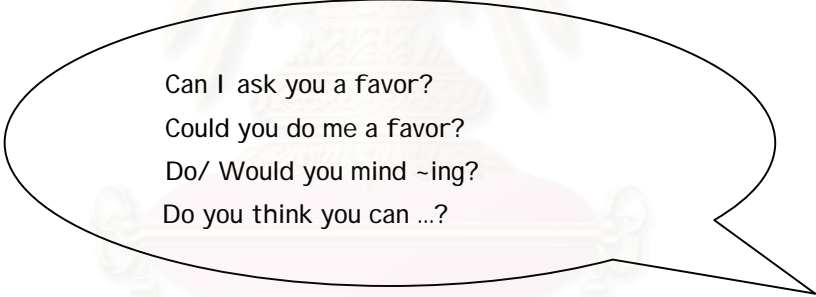
Below are some conventional expressions in making request.



Could you possibly ...?
 If you don't mind, ...
 I'd appreciate it if you...
 I'd be very grateful if you...
 I was wondering if you/ I could (possibly) ...
 Would it be possible to ...?

Can you (please) ...?
 Would you (please) ...?
 Do you want to...?



Can I ask you a favor?
 Could you do me a favor?
 Do/ Would you mind ~ing?
 Do you think you can ...?



What do you think the criteria for categorizing these expressions are?

What are the possible factors influencing your decision on how polite you will be in asking a request?

the hearer's _____

the _____ of request

Cross-cultural notes

Read the following story and discuss the following topics.

“Dr. Macintosh, aren’t you very thoughtful ...!?”

Tsutomo, a young Japanese researcher, arrived in San Francisco to work for a medical research institution. As his wife was expecting a baby, he wanted to find a good obstetrician as soon as possible. He thought Dr. Macintosh, his new boss, would be an appropriate person to ask to find one for him because he knew many people in the medical field. However, Tsutomu was too shy to ask him and was waiting for his boss’ offer to find an obstetrician for his wife. Days passed, but no such offer was made. Tsutomu, being annoyed, finally decided to ask him to find a doctor for him. Now being asked, Dr. Macintosh was surprisingly quick in helping him find a doctor. What was the misunderstanding between them? Tsutomu was waiting for Dr. Macintosh to raise the topic, but Dr. Macintosh thought he should not intrude on Tsutomu’s privacy unless the proposal was made.

Adapted from Yoshida et al. (2000)

- What is the cause of misunderstanding?
- Discuss the idea of intruding on someone’s privacy. Can you think of a time that your privacy was invaded and how did you feel?
- Do you agree or disagree with Tsutomu’s and Dr. Macintosh’s behavior?

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Use what you've learned!

1. Think of a possible request in each picture. Write the request expressions in the callouts. Then, role-play the situation to class.

1. give me tomorrow

2.

3.

4.

5.

6.

7.

Ask if somebody would be willing to do something for you.

Pictures from Molinsky, S. J. & Bliss, B. (1998). *Communicator II: The comprehensive course in functional English*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall Regents.

2. Begging the Landlord

You just moved into a new apartment where the landlord is very neat and strict. Here are the apartment rules.

- **Pets are not allowed.**
- **Keep the apartment clean.**
- **Keep quiet after 10:00 P.M.**
- **Do not screw nails or knots on the wall.**
- **Do not smoke in the aisle.**
- **Do not have parties on weekdays night.**

Now think of two situations that you cannot follow the apartment rules. Then, take turns role playing the conversation between the tenant and the cold landlord, who tends to reject all requests.

3. Role-play

Pair up with a friend. Each pair takes turn role-play the situation.

Student A	Student B
You are a teacher. In class, a student's cellphone rings. You ask the student to turn it off.	No choice. You have to accept!
You are now shopping in a department store. You see a beautiful bag on the counter and want to see it. You ask the salesperson to show you the bag.	The bag is the last one and it was just bought. You are about to pack it in the gift box.
You are an assistant in a bus. A man sitting in the front row is now smoking, though smoking is not allowed in the bus. You go up to the man and ask him to stop smoking.	You accept the request.
You missed a sociology lecture because you were sick. You want to borrow notes from your classmate.	You don't bring the notes with you today and you are using it to write a report this week.
You are now taking a taxi to the airport to catch a plane which will take off in forty minutes. The driver is driving very fast, but you want to ask him to drive faster, though you know it is very dangerous.	You cannot drive faster because it is too dangerous.

Student A	Student B
<p>You are now discussing your assignment with your teacher. You think if you follow his advice, you'll not be able to finish it in time. You ask him if you can submit it a few days late.</p>	<p>You cannot allow the student to do so because it would show favoritism towards him. You don't want to bias towards anyone.</p>
<p>Your laptop is down because of a virus. One of your teachers is very skillful in fixing computers. You know he has been very busy recently, but you still want to ask him to fix your laptop.</p>	<p>You are even busier this week. You really can't help. You suggest that the student go to the multimedia service of the faculty.</p>
<p>You need some help moving a heavy desk out of your room. You run into your next door classmate, Fred, and ask him to give you a hand.</p>	<p>Unfortunately, you twisted your wrist yesterday from playing basketball. You absolutely cannot help.</p>
<p>You are graduating soon. So, you are applying for a job in a company. The manager is very busy and only schedules interviews on Monday afternoons. However, you have to take the final-term exam at that time. You want to schedule the interview on Tuesday.</p>	<p>You are having two meetings on Tuesday. After that, you are going abroad for two weeks. You think it might not be possible to rearrange your schedule.</p>

Lesson 5: Suggestion

Why don't you...?

Feel the Act . . .

Lisa is a new staff member in the office. One day she talked to Kate and realized that Kate was having a problem. Wanting to help, Lisa gave Kate some advice.

Kate: "Hmm... I don't know what to do. Why can everyone finish their work on time except me?"

Lisa: "Don't make a mountain out of a molehill! Just buy an organizer."

Kate: "But I'm the kind of person who works and thinks slow. I'm not that smart."

Lisa: "Why don't you just stop blaming yourself and start doing it?"

If you were Kate, what would you think about Lisa? Despite Lisa's good intentions, what do you think caused the misunderstanding?

Do the Act . . . What is the expression?

As a class, think of the possible expressions to respond to these situations, also, the appropriate ways to show your agreement or disagreement to the suggestion.



Pictures from Molinsky, S. J. & Bliss, B. (1998). *Communicator II: The comprehensive course in functional English*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall Regents.

Think about the Act!

Below are some conventional expressions in making suggestions.

Formal/ Polite

Informal

How about ...-ing?
 Why don't you ...?
 Have you tried ...?
 You can just ...
 Perhaps you should ...
 I think you need

Maybe you could ...
 I think it might be better to ...
 I'd probably suggest ...
 Personally, I'd recommend ...
 It would be helpful if you...
 Have you considered ...-ing?
 I'm not sure, but I think a good idea would be...

Use what you've learned!

3. Role-play

Pair up with a friend. Each pair takes turns role-playing the situation to the class. One student makes a suggestion, while the other cannot follow the advice and then has to find an appropriate way to refuse.

1. switch to another department

2. form a carpool

I just can't seem to lose any weight.

3. join "Weight Watchers"

My apartment is crawling with cockroaches!

4. ask your landlord to call an exterminator

I've "had it" with exams and term papers!

5. take a semester off

I have to have an expensive heating system installed in my house.

6. get a loan from the bank

I've been feeling depressed lately.

7. see a therapist

I want to be an engineer, but I can't afford to go to college.

8. enlist in the armed forces

My girlfriend and I have been "at each other's throats" for the past several weeks.

9. see each other a little less

Ask a friend for some advice about a problem you're having.

Pictures from Molinsky, S. J. & Bliss, B. (1998). *Communicator II: The comprehensive course in functional English*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall Regents.

2. Dr. Phil-to-be

Dr. Phil, a famous psychologist in the United States, has his own TV show to consult people with different problems. Today on Dr. Phil's Show, the guests are a group of Thai university freshmen.

- You are having a problem where you cannot find a way out. Think of a difficult problem you may have, or you may choose one from the following. Next, tell your problem to Dr. Phil.
- Take turns playing the role of Dr. Phil. Imagine that if you were Dr. Phil, what would you suggest your classmates do?
- After Dr. Phil gave you some advice, you have to defend yourself by giving a reason why you cannot take such advice thereby forcing him to give you other advice.

Your possible problems

I HATE STUDYING.

I FEEL SAD ALL THE TIME.

I FALL IN LOVE EASILY.

I AM ALWAYS LATE.

MY FACE IS UNATTRACTIVE.

I KEEP LOSING MY KEYS.

MY FRIENDS DONT WANT TO SEE ME.

I AM ALWAYS CRASHING MY CAR.

I CANT FORGET MY EX.

MY STOMACH IS HUGE

I AM VERY HOT-BLOODED.

MOTHER SAYS I AM ATTRACTIVE BUT WHY CAN'T I FIND ANY BOYFRIEND/ GIRLFRIEND?

Lesson 6: Offer

Need any help?

Feel the Act . . .

Listen to three short dialogues. Write down what was offered in each situation, also the expressions used.

1. Lisa is depressed because she just broke up with her boyfriend.
Greg, her classmate, offers her by saying
.....
2. The boss is so tired because he is overworked.
Ken then offers him by saying
.....
3. The salesperson wants to sell the magic cooking pot to the customer.
He offers her by saying
.....

Do the Act . . .

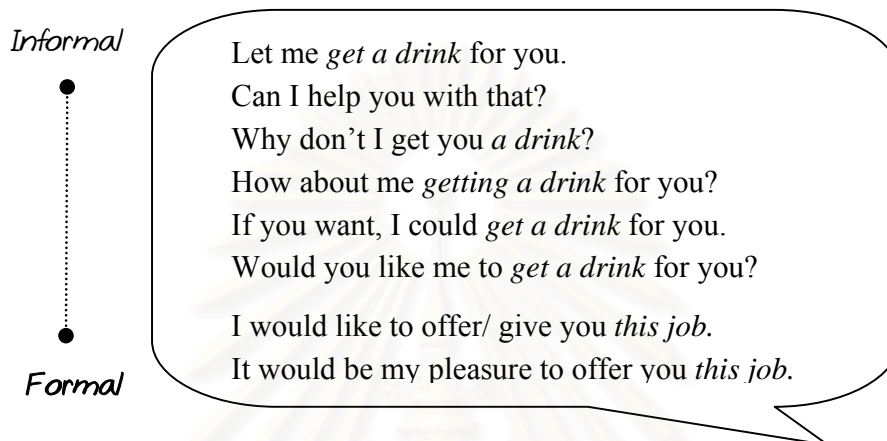
You are a salesperson trying to sell your product (the product will be randomly given by the teacher). In groups of three, prepare your advertisement of the product and offer a promotion to your customers. If the customers are not interested, persuade them more by giving more special offer(s).



Think about the Act!

When something has to be done, you can ask someone else to do it, offer to do it yourself, or just do it without saying anything. If you want to be very polite when someone else is doing something, you can also offer to help.

Here are some useful ways of offering to do something or providing something to someone.



I want to do something for you!

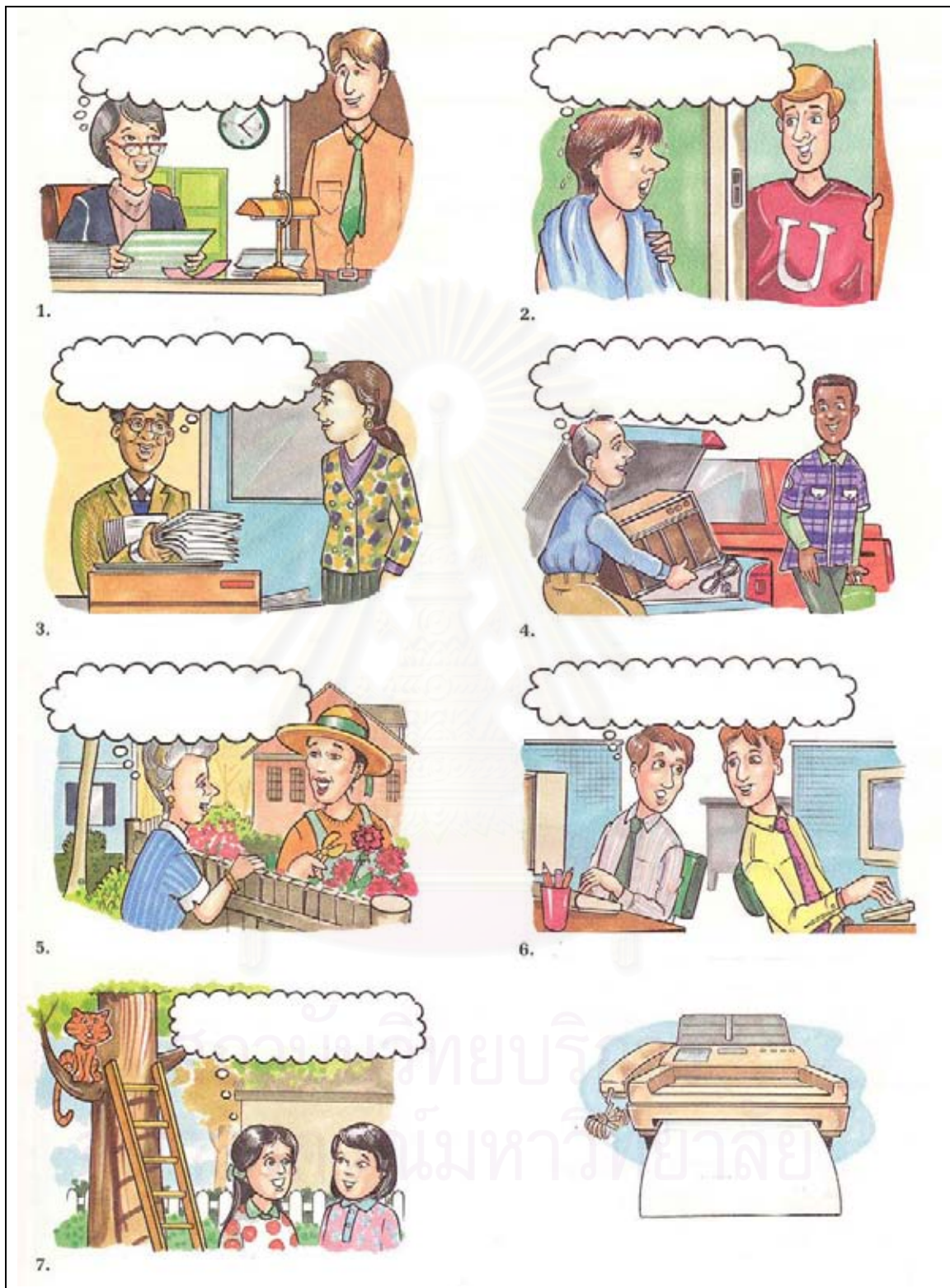
Here are four situations in which someone you know are having a problem. As a nice person, it is your job to offer them your help. What would you say in each situation?

Situations	
Your new classmate, an exchange student, is lonely because he knows no one.	Your professor is thirsty because she has been teaching for two hours.
Your colleague is hard up this month.	Your classmate is out of shape because she can't stop eating.

Use what you've learned!

1. What are they saying?

In pairs, look at the pictures below and think about whether the dialogue is **a request** or **an offer**. Present the possible dialogue in each picture to the class.



Pictures from Molinsky, S. J. & Bliss, B. (1998). *Communicator II: The comprehensive course in functional English*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall Regents.

2. Travel Agency

In groups of 3-4, you will each get a role card in which you have to play a particular role. One group will play the role of a customer deciding to buy a tour package. Other groups will perform the role of the tour agency trying to sell the package by offering several promotions.

Step 1: In 10 minutes, tour agency groups think of your tour package. Prepare some details, e.g. accommodation, transportation, meals, tourist attractions. The customer group has to think of their special needs or interests to ask the tour company.

Step 2: The tour agency groups take turns negotiating with the customer group using the situation given and the language expressions you have learned (requesting, suggesting, inviting, offering and refusing).

The group that succeeds in selling the tour package by using a good negotiation will win.

Customer	Wonder Travel
Budget: 20,000 baht	Package Tour:
Passangers: 2 adults, 1 child, 1 doberman	Price:
Special needs: (e.g. allergy, food, single bed, pet)	Accommodation:
	Meals:
	Attractions:
	Special promotion(s):
The Wanderer	Comfy Tour
Package Tour:	Package Tour:
Price:	Price:
Accommodation:	Accommodation:
Meals:	Meals:
Attractions:	Attractions:
Special promotion(s):	Special promotion(s):

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Lesson 7: Review & Interaction

❶ Poor Sophie

Listen to the story and discuss the following questions.

- a. How many characters are there in the story?
- b. If you were the characters' friend, what kind of advice would you give to each person?
- c. Now let's role play Sophie! Your classmates will take turns either offering help or giving advice to you. You will have to find good reasons to refuse them because you cannot live without Phillip.

❷ Review activity II: Talking Cards

Each of you will get one card at a time. You will have to make a proposal corresponding to that card. Then, the classmate(s) who gets the same face and the same color as you will accept your proposal, while the classmate(s) who gets the same face but different color will refuse your proposal.

For example, if you get "*King of Spades*", you will have to ask someone to take care of your pets for a while. Your classmate(s) who gets "*King of Clubs*" will accept your request, while the others who get "*King of Hearts* and "*Diamonds*" will find an excuse not to help you.

The student is awarded 4 points for a complete answer, 3 points for a reasonable answer, 2 points for an incomplete answer, and 1 point for any answer at all.

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Talking Cards

Spades	Requests
Ace	Ask someone to loan you 1,000 Bht.
King	Ask to someone to take care of your pets.
Queen	Ask someone to be your sweetheart.
Jack	Ask someone to help you move a shelf.
Hearts	Suggestions
Ace	Three of your students fail the exam, give them a suggestion.
King	Three of your colleagues are heartbreaking from breaking up with their boy/girl friend, give them a suggestion.
Queen	Three of your classmates cannot choose a hair-style, suggest them one.
Jack	Three of your workers are about to be fired, suggest them something.
Clubs	Offers
Ace	Offer your employees a promotion but they must move to a small town.
King	Offer someone to get him/her a drink.
Queen	Offer your students a TA job.
Jack	Offer someone a lift home at night.
Diamonds	Invitations
Ace	Invite your classmates to your pool party.
King	Invite your students to your farewell party.
Queen	Invite your colleagues to join a rally team.
Jack	Invite your neighbors to a picnic.

APPENDIX C

Teaching Materials Evaluation Checklist

Topics	Excellent	Good	Moderate	Poor	Comments
<i>A. Program and Course</i>					
1. The materials support the objectives of the course.					
2. The content difficulty and language level appropriate for the target group of learners.					
3. The materials reflect learners' preferences in terms of layout, design, and organization.					
4. The materials are sensitive to the cultural background and interests of the students.					
<i>B. Skills</i>					
5. The skills presented in the materials appropriate to the course?					
6. The skills that are presented in the materials include a wide range of cognitive skills that will be challenging to learners.					
<i>C. Exercises and Activities</i>					
7. The exercises and activities in the material promote learners' English pragmatic development.					
8. There is a balance between controlled and free exercises.					

Topics	Excellent	Good	Moderate	Poor	Comments
9. The exercises and activities reinforce what students have already learned.					
10. The exercises and activities represent a progression from simple to more complex.					
11. The exercises and activities varied in format so that they will continually motivate and challenge learners.					

Additional comments/ recommendations

.....

.....

.....

.....

.....

APPENDIX D

Corrective feedback rubrics

Learner's utterance	Appropriate usage	Correct form	Treatments (feedbacks)	
			Explicit correction	Prompts
Type I	+	+	n/a	n/a
Type II	+	-	overtly point out the error and provide the correct form	give one, or a combination of the three prompt techniques to elicit self-repair on forms
Type III	-	+	provide metalinguistic information about the inappropriate expression and give an alternative of the appropriate forms	give one, or a combination of the three prompt techniques to elicit self-repair on appropriate expression
Type IV	-	-		

Note: For the control group, teacher collects the frequent mistakes made during the class and provides delayed corrective feedback by means of explicit feedback at the end of each class.

Error type II: ungrammatical

For example, if a student responds to a party invitation as “*I wish I can**, but I’ve a lot of homework”, any of the following options can be adopted.

Explicit Feedback

1. No. I wish I could.
2. It’s *I wish I could*.
3. I wish I can? It’s I wish I could.
4. We use *I wish I could*.
5. *I wish I could*, not I can.
6. You should say *I wish I could*.
7. We don’t say I wish I can, we say I wish I could.
8. We use *I wish I could* because it’s impossible.

Prompt

1. Not I wish I can.
2. I wish I can?
3. I wish I can? Is that what we say?
4. Do we say I wish I can?
5. We don’t say I wish I can. What so we say?
6. We use I wish and past tense, remember?
7. What should we say? I wish...
8. Not I wish I can. I wish...

Control Group

1. I wish I could.
2. Pardon me?
3. Can you say it again?
4. What did you say again?

Error type III/ IV: inappropriate / ungrammatical + inappropriate

Error type III and IV will be treated the same way in that teacher provides a particular type of feedback regarding the inappropriateness. For example, if a student responds to the boss's request to stay up late for an urgent agenda as "*Sorry, I can't stay late today, I've dentist* appointment*", any of the following options can be adopted.

Explicit Feedback

1. Sorry, I can't? *I'm afraid I can't make it today because... I'm sorry.*
2. What about a softer refusal? *I'm afraid I can't make it today because...*
3. You'd better make it more polite. *I'm afraid I can't make it today because...*
4. You should make it softer, he's the boss. *I'd love to, but...I'm sorry.*
5. He's your boss. Refuse softly may be better. *I'd like to help, but...I'm sorry.*
6. Don't for get he's your boss. You may say *I'd love to, but...I'm sorry.*
7. Grammatically correct, but a bit too direct. You may say *I'm afraid I can't help today because...I'm sorry.*

Prompt

1. Sorry, I can't?
2. Can you make it a bit softer?
3. Is that too direct for the boss?
4. He's your boss. Can you refuse a bit softer?
5. Do you think it sounds polite enough?
6. He's your boss. What about trying indirect refusal strategies?
7. Don't for get the relationship here. Can you say it again?

Control Group

1. *I'm afraid I can't make it today because...*
2. Pardon me?
3. Sorry? Can you say it again?
4. What did you say again?

APPENDIX E**Oral production tests****SET A**

You will read and hear twelve different conversational situations. In each situation you will hear a person saying something to you. After the person finish asking or mentioning, you will hear the beep sound. Then, respond to the person by speaking into your microphone.

Situation 1

You and your classmate missed a class on Statistics. Unfortunately, the lecture of that class will be the main topic of the test next week. Your classmate then invites you to study together at her house. You don't want to because you think you can concentrate more when studying alone.

Now listen to your classmate.

Classmate: "I think we may get together some time to study for the test. What about going to my place on Saturday?"

Situation 2

Today is the last day of the semester. Your supervisor invites you and other advisees to his house for a dinner party next Friday. You cannot go because you have booked the flight back to your hometown on Thursday night.

Now listen to your supervisor.

Supervisor: "I'm having some people over for a dinner party next Friday. Do you think you can come?"

Situation 3

You are watching a football game. A student you don't know comes and stands just in front of you blocking your view. You want to ask the student not to block your view. What would you say?

Situation 4

You are jogging with your sister in the morning when you meet your next door neighbor. After talking for a while, your neighbor tells you that she is going to other city for a week and asks you to help water her plants sometimes. Unfortunately, you cannot help because you are going camping next week either.

Now listen to your neighbor.

Neighbor: "I'll have to go to other city for the whole week next week. Could you possibly help water my plants sometimes while I'm away?"

Situation 5

You are fourth-year university student. One day your professor calls you in and offers you a part-time job as the reception in the university seminar next month. You cannot take it because you are having three exams during that time.

Now listen to your professor.

Professor: "I'm looking for the reception in the university seminar next month. It will be Monday to Friday, 4 hours a day, in the first week of August. Are you interested?"

Situation 6

Something is wrong with your computer, but you have to finish your report due tomorrow. Your roommate has a computer, but he is also writing a course paper on his computer. His homework is due the day after tomorrow. You want to ask him to stop working and let you use his computer to finish your work first.

What would you say?

Situation 7

You are doing a survey for the company's new project. You have to interview many people to collect data. Your colleague suggests you to interview Dr. Cole. However, you cannot interview him because you know Dr. Cole does not agree with this project.

Now listen to your colleague.

Colleague: "I can think of one person who can help you. Why don't you interview Dr. Cole for the issue?"

Situation 8

Your classmate is having problems. She just broke up with her boyfriend and can't stop thinking about him. Now she even can't concentrate on her study at all. Today she just knew that she almost fail the midterm exam, so she came to you for advice.

Now listen to your classmate.

Classmate: "I don't know what to do.. I really can't stop thinking of him. I can't concentrate on my study at all. You know I almost fail the midterm exam last week."

Situation 9

As a third-year university student, you are talking to your supervisor about your English speaking problem. Your supervisor suggests that you take an extra English speaking course on Saturday. However, you cannot take any courses on Saturday because you are working full-day every weekend to support yourself.

Now listen to your supervisor.

Supervisor: “Uhm.. I think it might be a good idea if you take the English speaking course on Saturday. I heard this one is a small class so you will have more chances to speak. ”

Situation 10

You are studying for the final exam tomorrow. The next-door neighbor has a party tonight. They have been making too much noise for many hours and now it is almost 10 p.m. You want to complain them about the noise because you cannot concentrate on your study.

Then, you ring their door and say...

Situation 11

You are in the party at the university. A new friend you just met today offers to bring you a drink. You are really full and don't want to eat or drink anything else.

Now listen to your new friend.

Friend: “I'm going to get one more punch. Do you want anything to drink?”

Situation 12

You are working in a magazine company. Your country is having a controversial political issue. Your boss wants you to give your signature for a political cause. You don't want to because you think people should wait and see the new policy for few months before judging it.

Now listen to your boss.

Boss: “I think we should do something to stop the government. Could you sign this petition please?”

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Oral production tests**SET B**

You will read and hear twelve different conversational situations. In each situation you will hear a person saying something to you. After the person finish asking or mentioning, you will hear the beep sound. Then, respond to the person by speaking into your microphone.

Situation 1

Today is Friday and there will be the midterm exam on Monday. A classmate who often missed the class comes to you and asks to borrow your lecture notes to make copy and will return it to you in the evening. You don't want to because you want to go straight home this afternoon to study.

Now listen to your classmate.

Classmate: "Excuse me, I missed some classes on the exam topics. Can you lend me your notes for few hours? I'll make a copy and return them to you this evening."

Situation 2

You are talking to your classmate discussing a good place for your Birthday party. The classmate suggests an Indian restaurant. However, you don't like Indian food and you think the restaurant is too far.

Now listen to your classmate.

Classmate: "I'm thinking of Maharaja restaurant. It's an Indian restaurant on Milton Street, the food is really tasty and reasonably priced."

Situation 3

One day your classmate runs to you for your advice. She told you that when she walked to the classroom, she pushed the door of the classroom very hard. A professor was standing just behind the door reading a poster attached to the door. The door hits very hard on his forehead making him cry out loud. Your classmate was so shocked of what she had done that she automatically ran away. She was not sure whether the professor saw her. Now she needs your advice. What would you say?

Situation 4

This week is the last week of the semester. You are going to have a meeting regarding your final paper with your supervisor on Friday. Now your supervisor calls you to postpone the meeting a week. However, you have already bought the train ticket back to your hometown.

Now listen to your supervisor.

Supervisor: "I'm terribly busy this week and haven't finished reading your work. Can I change our meeting to be somewhere next week?"

Situation 5

You are a new staff member of the office. The manager of the department is quitting his job for a better opportunity. He invites you to his farewell party, which will be held on the same day and time that you have a dentist's appointment.

Now listen to your classmate.

Manager: "My farewell party is on Friday at 5p.m., would you like to come?"

Situation 6

You are studying in the library. The student sitting next to you in the library has been talking on her mobile phone not so quietly for a while. You don't know her but you want to ask her to talk somewhere else.

What would you say?

Situation 7

Today is the last day of the semester. All students of the faculty are having a party together. At the party a student who you just met asks you whether you want to join a volunteer camp upcountry. The camp lasts a month. You think it's too long and you already have plans to travel in summer, so you don't want to join.

Now listen to the student.

Student: "This summer I'm organizing a volunteer camp to help repair the houses for poor people upcountry. It will be the whole month of April. Would you like to join us?"

Situation 8

You are discussing with your classmate courses to take next semester. Your classmate suggests that you take *Advanced Writing*. You do not agree because you think the subject is too difficult for freshmen. You think *Public Speaking* is a more interesting choice.

What would you say?

Situation 9

You are a secretary in a company, and you are having your car fixed for few days. Thus, this morning you are waiting for your boyfriend/ girlfriend to pick you up. While you are waiting in front of your house, your neighbor stops his car and asks whether you want to go with him so he can drop you at the subway.

Now listen to your neighbor.

Neighbor: "Good morning, Kim. Are you waiting for a taxi? You can come with me, I can drop you at the subway if you'd like."

Situation 10

Everyone in the department knows that you are planning for a vacation. Your boss put a tour company card on your desk and suggested you contact the company because he used their service once and was really impressed. You know this well-known company and think it is too expensive for you.

Now listen to your boss.

Boss: “I found the card of the tour company I told you about. You should call them, I think the service is impressive.”

Situation 11

Your friend is having a problem and she needs your advice. A few days ago, she did not realize that she put a classmate’s lecture notes into her bag. The classmate had been looking for them and felt very upset about losing the notes because she needed them to prepare for the exam. Yesterday, she took the exam and did not seem to have done well. Today, your friend just found out that the notes are in her bag. Now she does not know what to do.

What would you advise her to do?

Situation 12

You are working for a fashion magazine company. Today your boss comes to you and offers a free ticket to the fashion show tonight. Regrettably, today is your boyfriend/girlfriend’s birthday and you already have plans.

Now listen to your boss.

Boss: “Do you want to go to the fashion show tonight? I got a ticket, but I can’t make it.”

APPENDIX F

The Refusal Strategies Grading System

Topics	Attribution	Scores			
		0 unacceptable	1 falls beyond expectations	2 demonstrate adequate command with some weakness	3 demonstrate good command
1. Speech act (purpose of interaction)	1. Correctness 2. Clarity	Incorrect speech act is elicited, or intended speech act cannot be implied.	Intended speech act may be vaguely implied , but may cause misunderstanding. Test rater needs doubt and test situation in interpretation.	Intended speech act is not clearly elicited, but can be implied.	Intended speech act is clearly elicited.
2. Language expression	1. Comprehensibility 2. Contextual appropriateness	Language expression is unacceptable . It may sound irrelevant, offensive, or incomprehensible .	Language expression is non-typical, but still comprehensible and acceptable . It may sound awkward (e.g. repeat only sorry, say 'sorry' to an offer), or too formal/ casual to the context.	Language expression is comprehensible and generally appropriate with some weaknesses in connotation, collocation or word choice.	Language expression is comprehensible and completely appropriate as it sounds polite and natural to the context.
3. Grammatical accuracy	1. Major grammatical errors* 2. Minor grammatical errors**	Major grammatical errors obstruct understanding.	Major grammatical errors often impede understanding , or lead to vague understanding. OR students just read the information from the rubric.	Major and minor grammatical errors occur sometimes, but do not affect understanding.	Major grammatical error is not found. Minor grammatical errors may occur, but do not affect understanding.
4. Amount of information	1. Adequacy for understanding 2. Appropriateness of length	The amount of information is not adequate for understanding or cause misunderstanding.	The amount of information is adequate for understanding, but is inappropriately much or little , which may affect the relationship between the interlocutors.	The amount of information is generally appropriate , but may lack of adjuncts to refusals (e.g. thank you, sorry).	The amount of information is completely appropriate.

* Major grammatical errors: word order, tenses, parts of speech, passive-active, modals, and pronoun

**Minor grammatical errors: preposition, plurals, s-ending

APPENDIX G

SET A

Multiple-Choice Test

Name..... ID.....

Read the following situations in which you are talking to a person. Decide which response **BEST** suits each situation. Please note that your relationship to each person is **NEITHER too close NOR too distant**.

1. You are talking to your new classmate about a book you bought last week and just finished reading. The classmate asked you to lend her the book for a couple of days, but you have to use it in writing a report this weekend. What would you say?
 - A. Uhm... I'm sorry, I can't because I'm writing a report on it. Maybe next time.
 - B. I'm afraid I have to use it this week because I'm writing a report on it. I'm sorry.
 - C. I'm sorry to say that I can't lend it to you this weekend. I'm writing a report on it. Sorry about that.

2. You are talking with your boss about his new house, which he just moved into. He invited you and other colleagues for a dinner at his place on Friday. You cannot make it because you already have plans. What would you say?
 - A. Oh.. thanks for asking me, but I already have plans.
 - B. Oh.. thank you. I'd love to, but I already have plans. Maybe some other time.
 - C. I'm so sorry, I'm afraid I can't make it because I already have plans. Thank you anyway for the invitation.

3. You are having software problems with your project. A professor you are talking to suggested you take an extra computer class on Saturdays. You cannot take it because you are working part-time all day on Saturdays. What would you say?
 - A. Uhm.. I'm really sorry that I can't take your advice because I work part-time on Saturdays.
 - B. That sounds interesting, but I'm afraid it's not possible because I work part-time on Saturdays.
 - C. Thank you, but I can't take it because I work part-time on Saturdays.

4. You borrowed your classmate's notes on Sociology to make a copy. However, you forgot your friend's notes at the copy center and when you went back it was gone. The final exam on Sociology is coming next week. What would you say to her?
 - A. Pan, I'm terribly sorry. I didn't mean it, but I lost your notes at the copy center.
 - B. Pan, will you forgive me if I say that I lost your notes at the copy center? I'm so sorry.
 - C. Pan, I have to apologize that I lost your notes at the copy center. I'm so sorry.

5. Your new classmate calls you today to ask you out for a horror movie. You don't feel like watching horror movies because you are staying home alone this week. What would you say?
- A. Thanks for asking me, but this week I'm staying home alone so I don't want to watch something too scary.
 - B. Thank you for your invitation. I'd love to see a movie but since I'm alone all this week at home, I'd prefer to watch something less scary.
 - C. No, I don't think it's a good idea because I'm home alone all this week, but thank you for asking me though.
6. You are having dinner at your friend's house when you said you will have to go to the seminar in another city for a few days. Your friend's mom knows you live alone and you have two dogs. She loves dogs very much, so she offers to take care of the dogs for you. However, you already have your sister at your place to take care of many things at that time. What would you say?
- A. Thanks but it's unnecessary because my sister is going to do it.
 - B. Oh... Thank you so much, but I've already arranged for my sister to take care of everything while I'm away.
 - C. How very kind of you to offer, but my sister has already agreed to help me so there's no need to inconvenience you.
7. You are going to the Birthday party of your friend's mom this weekend. Your friend's mom knows that you can play piano amazingly. She asked you to show your talent in the coming party. You feel humble and not comfortable with this because you know that there will be a lot of people coming, and you don't like playing in public. What would you say?
- A. Uhm.. I'm sorry Mrs. Lee. I don't feel comfortable with this because I normally don't play in public.
 - B. Uhm.. Thanks so much for asking me but I don't think I can play in public very well. I'm so sorry.
 - C. Uhm.. I'm honored that you would consider me but I'm truly sorry, I definitely can't play in public.
8. You and your teammate, which includes a number of students you do not know, are organizing a university exhibition. You want to suggest that everyone stays late today to finish preparing everything. What would you say?
- A. Perhaps we should stay late today to finish everything.
 - B. I think we should stay late and finish everything today.
 - C. Why don't we stay late to day to finish everything?

9. You are having the final exam next week, but you don't understand much of the topic. A classmate to whom you are complaining offered to tutor you in that topic, but you already have someone to explain it to you. What would you say?
- A. Oh.. that's very kind of you, but I'm having Jess to explain it to me. Thanks anyway though.
 - B. Oh.. Thanks a lot, but I'm having Jess to help me with this.
 - C. Oh.. thank you for your kindness, but I don't need to trouble you. I already have Jess to do this.
10. You just finished the final exam. Your classmates are going camping in the country next week. They asked you to join the trip. You cannot make it because you are taking a trip with your family. What would you say?
- A. Really? Oh.. I'm so sorry. I can't make it because I'm taking a trip with my family.
 - B. Really? Oh.. that's too bad that I'll miss it. I'm taking a trip with my family too. Anyway, thank you for asking.
 - C. Oh.. thank you for your invitation. I'd love to, but I can't. I'm taking a trip with my family.
11. You just told your new classmate that your landlord is going to raise the monthly rent of your apartment. The classmate said you should find a new apartment and suggested a place near hers. You don't want to because your present one is really close to the university. What would you say?
- A. Well, it sure would be great to be neighbors but I think I should try to stay there because my place is so close to the university. Thanks anyway.
 - B. That's not a bad idea but I prefer to stay closer to the university.
 - C. I really appreciate your suggestion, but I'd like to remain in my current place because it's more convenient for me.
12. You have just moved into a new department of your workplace. Your department manager is retiring this month. He invited you to his farewell party. You cannot make it because you have a dentist's appointment on the same day and time. What would you say?
- A. Thanks for inviting me. I'd love to, but I'll be very busy that day. I'm so sorry.
 - B. Thank you so much for inviting me, but unfortunately I have a dentist's appointment that day.
 - C. Unfortunately I can't because I have a dentist's appointment. Please accept my apologies.
13. You are talking to your colleague about the new apartment that you are moving into. Actually, you want to ask him to help you move your stuff on Sunday because he has a van. What would you say to him?
- A. Do you mind helping me move my stuff on Sunday?
 - B. I'd hate to bother you, but I need your help to move my stuff on Sunday.
 - C. If you are free on Sunday, could you possibly help me move my stuff?

14. Your new classmate is the secretary of the university summer camp. She said that the camp needed more volunteers to work on it and asked you to join the team. You don't want to because you want to have a long vacation at that time. What would you say?
- A. Uhm... unfortunately I already have made plans so I'm afraid I can't help out this time.
 - B. I'd love to but I already have plans for the summer. Maybe next time.
 - C. I'm afraid I'm unavailable this summer. Thanks so much for the great opportunity though.
15. You are working part-time in a bakery shop. It is almost the time you finish and you need to go home because you don't feel well. Your employer came to you and asked you to stay late today because another worker could not come today. What would you say?
- A. Oh.. I'm sorry. I definitely can't stay. I don't feel well and need to go home.
 - B. I'd really like to help but I'm not feeling well and must go home and rest. Maybe next time.
 - C. I wish I could, but I'm not feeling very well so I think I'd better go home and rest. I'm so sorry.
16. You are an exchange student at the university. You do not know where the main library is, so you want to ask a student who is passing by. What would you say?
- A. Excuse me, do you know where the main library is?
 - B. Excuse me, could you possibly tell me where the main library is?
 - C. Sorry to bother you, but where is the main library, please?
17. You just finished an evening class and found that it is raining outside. A new classmate passes by and asks if you want to go with him. He knows that you live nearby so he can give you a ride. You are not going straight home because you need to buy something at the supermarket before. What would you say?
- A. Oh, thank you for the offer but actually I'm not going straight home.
 - B. It's very kind of you to offer but I have some errands to run first. I appreciate the offer though.
 - C. Thank you for your kindness, however, I'm not going straight home. Sorry about that.
18. You are talking to your manager about your plan to visit Japan during the coming long weekend. The manager suggested you go with a tour agency he knows so that you may get a discount from the company. You don't want to because you want to travel by yourself. What would you say?
- A. Oh... thank you, it sounds great but to be honest I prefer traveling alone. I'll keep it in mind though.
 - B. Thanks for your advice, but honestly I'd much rather travel by myself.
 - C. I'm sure it's a great company but I usually travel alone. I appreciate your suggestion anyway though.

19. Your boss called you in his office today. He offered you a promotion, but you will have to move to another branch in a small town. You don't want to because your family is here and you don't want to move away. What would you say?
- A. I'm sorry to disappoint you. I'll have to decline the offer because it's important for me to be close to my family.
 - B. I really appreciate your support, but I prefer to stay here because it's important to me to be close to my family.
 - C. Thank you very much, but I can't accept it because I'd like to stay with my family. I'm really sorry.
20. You are having the final exam on Linguistics next week. Everyone in the class is worried about the exam. One of your classmates suggests you study together with her this weekend. You don't want to because you prefer to study alone so that you will be able to concentrate more on the lessons.
- A. I'd like to spend more time with you, but I find it hard to study with friends. I'm sorry.
 - B. It'd be great to study together, but we'd have too much fun and probably end up not studying enough.
 - C. Thanks for your offer but I much prefer to study by myself so that I can concentrate better.

SET B

Multiple-Choice Test

Name ID

Read the following situations in which you are talking to a person. Decide which response BEST suits each situation. Please note that your relationship to each person is NEITHER too close NOR too distant.

1. You are in a party at your friend's house. A person you just met at the party offers you a piece of cake. You are so full and don't want to eat anything else. What would you say?
 - A. Thanks, that looks nice but I'm so full. Maybe I'll try some later.
 - B. Oh, no, thank you, I'm really full.
 - C. That's kind of you, but I'm so full. Maybe I'll try some later.

2. Today is the last day of the semester. Your classmate invites you to apply for a part-time job in a coffee shop together. You had been working and studying so hard for the whole semester. This summer you want to take a rest and travel somewhere. What would you say?
 - A. It'd be fun to work together but I'm afraid I'm not available this summer.
 - B. I'm sorry. I already have plans to travel this summer. Maybe next time.
 - C. I'd love to but to be honest, I already have plans to travel this summer.

3. Your office just recruited a new foreign staff member. Your boss asked you to take care of the new staff during the first week because your English is better than other colleagues. However, you have to go to the seminar for the whole week. What would you say?
 - A. I would love to help out but unfortunately next week I'll away for a seminar all week.
 - B. Of course I'd love to but I can't. I'll be away for a seminar. So sorry.
 - C. Next week I'll be away for a seminar so I won't be able to. I apologize for this.

4. You are short on money this month so you run to one of your classmates to borrow her 500 Baht. What would you say?
 - A. I'm terribly sorry to bother you, but would you mind lending me 500 Baht? I'm really broke this month.
 - B. Can I trouble you for 500 Baht? My finance is running out.
 - C. I'm short on money this month. Do you think you can lend me 500 Baht, please?

5. You are finishing discussing your project with your supervisor when it starts raining. Your supervisor offers to lend you her umbrella. Your sister is going to pick you up today. What would you say?
- A. Thank you very much, but it's unnecessary since my sister is coming to pick me up today.
 - B. That's very kind of you, but my sister is coming to get me so I'm afraid I don't really need it. Thank you though.
 - C. Thank you for your offer, but my sister is coming to pick me up so I guess I won't be needing it. Thanks anyway though.
6. You have been on a diet for a month, but you are still putting on weight. A colleague suggested you try a new diet she had been through by being a vegetarian for a month. You don't like this idea because you can't eat only vegetables. What would you say?
- A. Thank you for your suggestion, but I'm afraid I can't eat only vegetables for the whole month.
 - B. Oh... I definitely can't eat only vegetables for the whole month. Thank you for your suggestion anyway.
 - C. Uhm.. that sounds interesting, but eating only vegetables for the whole month would be a big problem for me.
7. You are having problems in your English communication class. The professor suggests you participate more in conversation in English in the class. You are not confident in your English, so you don't want to speak much. What would you say?
- A. I appreciate your advice but I'm not confident enough yet to speak much in class.
 - B. Thank you for your advice, however I think I need more time to be confident enough to participate freely in the conversation.
 - C. Yes, you are right but I'm too shy to speak in class. I'm sorry.
8. You and your friend are working together on a movie report. Your friend suggests that you include the movie script in the report. You disagree with this idea because you think the script is not necessary and would make the report too long. What would you say?
- A. That's a laugh! The script would make the report too long.
 - B. You have a point there, but don't you think that the script would make the report unnecessarily long?
 - C. I'm not sure if I agree with this because the script is not that necessary and would make the report too long.

9. It's almost 5 p.m. and you are waiting to go home when your boss asked you to fix his computer. You know it would take more than two hours to fix everything, so you think you should do it tomorrow. What would you say?
- A. I'm really sorry I finish at five o'clock so I don't have enough time to do it today. I'll get to it tomorrow.
 - B. I'd love to help you, but it's almost time to go. I think tomorrow morning might be a more appropriate time.
 - C. It looks as if this is going to take a while. Don't you think it's better if I have a fresh start tomorrow morning?
10. Summer is coming soon. You and your friends are going shopping together. A new friend suggests you try on a trendy short skirt. You don't like it because you think it is too flashy for you. What would you say?
- A. Wow, that's really hot but it's not really my style. I guess I'm used to wearing more simple outfits.
 - B. Oh, thank you for your suggestion, but I think it's a bit too trendy for me.
 - C. That is really cute, but it might be too flashy for me. Thanks anyway though.
11. A professor in your program would like to meet you today. He offers a teaching assistant (TA) job for you. You are taking five courses this semester and your schedule is already full. You think you cannot make it. What would you say?
- A. Thank you so much for considering me, but unfortunately my schedule is overloaded so I'm afraid I can't take on anything else for the time being.
 - B. I would really love to help you, but unfortunately my schedule is already full so I'm afraid I can't take it. I'm sorry.
 - C. I'm really sorry but I'm too busy to do anything else this semester. Thank you for asking me though.
12. You are the secretary of the university summer camp. A professor who is the camp supervisor suggests that students go to the camp by train. You think arranging the bus is more convenient. What would you say?
- A. I couldn't agree. I think going by bus is more convenient.
 - B. That's a good idea, but I think a better option would be taking bus because it's more convenient.
 - C. I don't think so. I think arranging the bus would be more convenient.

13. You are walking your dog when your neighbor comes to you. He asks you to sign a political petition. You don't agree with the petition, so you don't want to sign. What would you say?
- A. You certainly have a good point, but I have some other views on the matter so it's probably better if I don't sign it.
 - B. I'm sorry, I'm afraid I can't because I don't quite agree with this petition.
 - C. I can't really say that I agree with it, so I don't think I should sign it. I'm sorry.
14. Your program of study is having a party at a restaurant tonight. You are waiting for your classmates to go to the restaurant together. You see a professor's car passing by. The professor stops the car and invites you to get in the car to go to the party. You see there is only one seat available in his car, so you prefer to share the taxi with other classmates. What would you say?
- A. Thanks so much for the offer but my classmates and I will share a cab.
 - B. Oh, thank you very much, but I've gotta stay here and wait for the others.
 - C. Oh, thank you. It's kind of you to offer but I'm actually waiting for other classmates so please go on ahead and we'll see you there.
15. You just met an old friend who you had not met for a long time. You were talking over a coffee. Now it's time to go. Your old friend offers to pay for the coffee, but you don't want her to. You want to pay for her because you know that she is having a tough time finding a new job. What would you say?
- A. Oh, thanks so much but I don't want to trouble you.
 - B. I appreciate your offer but please let me treat you.
 - C. That's very nice of you but please let me.
16. You take a taxi to school today. When the taxi stopped at the university gate, you just found out that you forgot your purse at home. Fortunately, you see a new classmate who you rarely talk to passing by. You want to borrow her 100 baht to pay for the taxi. You open the door and say ...
- A. Uhm.. Can I bug you for a sec.? I forgot my purse. Can I borrow you 100 baht for the taxi?
 - B. Excuse me, sorry to bother you but I forgot my purse. Would you mind lending me 100 baht for the taxi, please?
 - C. Excuse me, I forgot my purse at home. I would appreciate it if you lend me 100 baht for the taxi.

17. You are having dinner at your friend's place. Your friend's mom invites you to an 80's fashion party on Friday. You are not interested in it at all. What would you say?
- A. That sounds great, but this week is quite busy for me, so I'll have to pass this time. Thanks so much anyway though.
 - B. I'd love to attend, but unfortunately I'm really busy this week.
 - C. Thanks so much for the information, but unfortunately this week I'm too busy.
18. Your new roommate is having a problem with her computer. She is in a rush to finish her homework, so she comes to you and asks whether she can use your computer for few hours. You are also working hard on your report due tomorrow. What would you say?
- A. That's too bad but I definitely can't spare it right now because I have a report due tomorrow too. Sorry about that.
 - B. I'm sorry to say that I myself am working on a report for tomorrow so it's not possible right now.
 - C. I wish I could help you out, but I've got a report due tomorrow too. Sorry.
19. One day your neighbor says to you he wants to repaint the fence between his and your house. He invites you to do the same so that you and he can share the cost. You think it is not necessary and you have to save your money these days. What would you say?
- A. Thank you for inviting me, but I really can't spare the money right now. Maybe another time.
 - B. I'd love to but money is a bit tight at the moment, so I can't really help you out now. Sorry.
 - C. I'm sorry, I'm afraid I can't afford it at the moment. Maybe next time.
20. You are planning your Birthday party. Your manager suggests an Italian restaurant to you. You know that restaurant and think the food there is overpriced. What would you say?
- A. Thanks for the suggestion but I'm looking for something less expensive.
 - B. That's a great restaurant, but unfortunately I'm trying to find something a little more affordable. Thanks anyway though.
 - C. That would be really nice but I don't think I can afford it.

APPENDIX H

SET A

Name Group

Listen to your responses on the two speaking tests. Circle the number that indicates your level of confidence in your response to each situation.

situations	How much confident are you in the appropriateness of your responses?	How much confident are you in the grammatical accuracy of your responses?
1 = not confident at all, 2 = not confident, 3 = little confident, 4 = fairly confident, 5 = very confident		
1	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
2	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
3	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
4	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
6	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
7	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
8	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
9	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
10	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
11	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
12	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

SET B

Name Group

Listen to your responses on the two speaking tests. Circle the number that indicates your level of confidence in your response to each situation.

situations	How much confident are you in the appropriateness of your responses?	How much confident are you in the grammatical accuracy of your responses?
1 = not confident at all, 2 = not confident, 3 = little confident, 4 = fairly confident, 5 = very confident		
1	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
2	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
3	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
4	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
5	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
6	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
7	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
8	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
9	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
10	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
11	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
12	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

APPENDIX I

Interview questions and task

Part 1: Stimulated Recall Task

You will read three different situations. Role play each situation with your pair.

A: You are calling your student, Ken. You want to ask him to arrange the meeting room this Friday. You want him to come to your office at 4 p.m.

B: You are Ken. You are going to a concert on Friday. You already bought the ticket.

A: You are an undergrad. You are looking for the judge for the university English Competition which will be held next month. You want to invite Dr. Jones to this position.

B: You are Dr. Jones. You will go abroad for a long vacation next month.

A: You have not finished writing your English essay. Call your teacher and ask if you can turn it in late.

B: You are an English teacher. The phone rings. It's one of your students. You cannot accept any late submits.

Part 2: Interview

Concepts	Item	Interview Questions
1. Noticing		
1.1 Objective of feedback	1	จากการทดสอบที่ผ่านมา คุณคิดว่าเพราะเหตุใดผู้สอนจึงทักท้วงคำตอบของคุณ
1.2 Student's own mistake(s)	2	จากการที่ผู้สอนทักท้วงคำตอบของคุณ คุณทราบหรือไม่ว่าคุณมีข้อผิดพลาดเรื่องใด
2. Attitude		
2.1 Attitude towards language mistakes	3	คุณคิดว่าการพูดภาษาอังกฤษผิดพลาดในห้องเรียนเป็นเรื่องน่าเสียน้ำหรือไม่
2.2 Attitude towards corrective feedback	4	คุณคิดว่าการที่ผู้สอนพูดทักท้วงคำตอบของคุณในห้องเรียนเป็นเรื่องน่าเสียน้ำหรือไม่
	5	คุณคิดว่าการที่ผู้สอนพูดทักท้วงคำตอบของคุณในห้องเรียนเป็นการขัดจังหวะการฝึกสนทนาภาษาอังกฤษของคุณหรือไม่
2.3 Attitude towards the nature of feedback	6	เมื่อมีข้อผิดพลาดเกิดขึ้นในคำตอบของคุณ คุณชอบให้ผู้สอนบอกแก้ไขข้อผิดพลาดนั้นให้ หรือบอกไปให้คุณแก้ไขเอง
	7	หากคำตอบของคุณมีข้อผิดพลาดด้านไวยากรณ์ คุณอยากให้ผู้สอนบอกแก้ไขข้อผิดพลาดนั้นให้ หรือบอกไปให้คุณแก้ไขเอง
	8	หากคำตอบของคุณมีข้อผิดพลาดด้านความเหมาะสมของภาษา คุณอยากให้ผู้สอนบอกแก้ไขข้อผิดพลาดนั้นให้ หรือบอกไปให้คุณแก้ไขเอง
3. Confidence		
3.1 Anxiety	9	คุณรู้สึกกังวลใจเมื่อต้องพูดภาษาอังกฤษกับผู้สอนในห้องเรียนหรือไม่
	10	คุณรู้สึกกังวลใจเมื่อต้องพูดภาษาอังกฤษกับเพื่อนในห้องเรียนหรือไม่
	11	เมื่อผู้สอนทักท้วงภาษาของคุณในห้องเรียน คุณมีความกังวลใจในการพูดเพิ่มขึ้นหรือไม่
	12	หากคุณพูดภาษาอังกฤษในห้องเรียน และรู้ว่าจะไม่ถูกผู้สอนแก้หรือทักท้วงภาษา คุณจะมีความกังวลใจลดลงหรือไม่
3.2 Perceived competence	13	เมื่อคุณพูดภาษาอังกฤษในห้องเรียน และผู้สอนทักท้วงภาษาของคุณ คุณรู้สึกเสียความมั่นใจหรือไม่
	14	คุณคิดว่าการที่ผู้สอนทักท้วงภาษาของคุณ มีส่วนพัฒนาความสามารถในการใช้ภาษาของคุณหรือไม่
	15	ก่อนการเรียนในคอร์ส คุณคิดว่าตนเองพูดปฏิเสธผู้อื่นได้ดีเพียงใด ให้ตอบเป็นระดับตัวเลข 1 2 3 4 5 (1 = ไม่ดีเลย, 5 = ดีมากที่สุด)
	16	หลังจากเรียนจบคอร์สแล้ว คุณคิดว่าตนเองสามารถพูดปฏิเสธผู้อื่นได้ดีเพียงใด ให้ตอบเป็นระดับตัวเลข 1 2 3 4 5 (1 = ไม่ดีเลย, 5 = ดีมากที่สุด)

Part 3: Group Discussion

อ่านประโยคปฏิเสธในสถานการณ์ต่อไปนี้ และวิเคราะห์รูปแบบการปฏิเสธในแต่ละสถานการณ์ว่าข้อใดมีความเหมาะสมมากกว่า พร้อมแสดงเหตุผล

Sit* **Classmate:** “The university band is playing tonight. The ticket is free.

1. Would you like to come?”

A: “Oh.. I’m sorry. I think I cannot go because I’m having an exam tomorrow. Sorry again.”

B: “That sounds great! Thanks for asking me, but I don’t think I can make it because I’m having an exam tomorrow.”

Sit* **Supervisor:** “I’m looking for someone who can arrange the meeting room this evening. It’s really urgent. Can you do that, please?”

2.

A: “Oh.. I’m really sorry. I want to help out, but I already have plans this evening. I’m so sorry.”

B: “Oh.. It would be my pleasure to help you, but unfortunately, I already have a dentist’s appointment this evening. I’m so sorry.”

Sit* **Supervisor:** “We’re looking for a new teacher assistant this semester. I can recommend you to this position because your grade is outstanding. Are you interested?”

3.

A: “I’m deeply honored that you offered me this. Unfortunately, my schedule is so full this semester, so I don’t think I can take this opportunity. I’m really sorry.

B: “Thank you very much. I appreciate your offer. Unfortunately, my schedule is so full this semester, so I’m afraid I can’t take it.”

Sit* **Classmate:** “If you like Chinese food, why don’t you have your party at Munkie restaurant? It’s one of my favorites.”

4.

A: “Yeah.. Munkie is good, but I think I can’t afford it. The food is overpriced.”

B: “That’s a good idea, but I’m afraid I can’t afford it. Thank you for your suggestion anyway. ”

Sit* = Situation

APPENDIX J

Distribution of oral test scores

One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test

		PRETEST
N		39
Normal Parameters ^{a,b}	Mean	56.128
	Std. Deviation	15.3746
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	.124
	Positive	.112
	Negative	-.124
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z		.776
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.584

a. Test distribution is Normal.

b. Calculated from data.

Distribution of scores on the pragmatic awareness MCT

One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test

		Pre-test
N		39
Normal Parameters ^{a,b}	Mean	19.05
	Std. Deviation	3.300
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	.130
	Positive	.130
	Negative	-.084
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z		.812
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.524

a. Test distribution is Normal.

b. Calculated from data.

Distribution of scores on the confidence rating scale

One-Sample Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test

		Pre-test
N		39
Normal Parameters ^{a,b}	Mean	39.26
	Std. Deviation	10.445
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	.092
	Positive	.078
	Negative	-.092
Kolmogorov-Smirnov Z		.578
Asymp. Sig. (2-tailed)		.893

a. Test distribution is Normal.

b. Calculated from data.

APPENDIX K



English as an International Language Program,
Room 1327, Faculty of Arts,
Chulalongkorn University

หนังสือแสดงความยินยอมของการมีส่วนร่วมในงานวิจัย

ข้าพเจ้า.....ยินยอมมีส่วนร่วมในงานวิจัย

ชื่อ (ตัวบรรจง)

หัวข้อ: ผลของการให้ข้อมูลป้อนกลับแบบโดยนัยและการให้ข้อมูลป้อนกลับแบบชัดเจนต่อความสามารถ
ทางวินปฏิบัติศาสตร์ด้านการปฏิเสธของผู้เรียน

ข้าพเจ้าขอรับรองว่า:

1. ข้าพเจ้าได้รับการอธิบายขั้นตอนต่างๆในงานวิจัยและเวลาที่เกี่ยวข้อง และผู้ทำวิจัยได้ตอบคำถามต่างๆเกี่ยวกับงานวิจัยที่ข้าพเจ้าสงสัยอย่างพึงพอใจ
2. ข้าพเจ้าได้อ่านเอกสารข้อมูลสำหรับผู้มีส่วนร่วมในงานวิจัยและได้รับโอกาสในการสนทนา รายละเอียดและการมีส่วนร่วมของข้าพเจ้าในงานวิจัยและต่อผู้ทำวิจัย
3. ข้าพเจ้าตระหนักดีว่าข้าพเจ้าสามารถถอนตัวจากการมีส่วนร่วมในงานวิจัยได้ทุกเมื่อโดยปราศจากผลกระทบต่อความสัมพันธ์ของข้าพเจ้ากับผู้ทำวิจัยในปัจจุบันและอนาคต
4. ข้าพเจ้าเข้าใจว่าการมีส่วนร่วมของข้าพเจ้าจะถูกเก็บเป็นความลับและผู้ทำวิจัยจะไม่เปิดเผยข้อมูลเกี่ยวกับตัวข้าพเจ้าไม่ว่าในกรณีใดๆ

ยินยอม

ไม่ยินยอม

ข้าพเจ้ายินดีทำแบบสอบถาม

ข้าพเจ้ายินดีทำแบบทดสอบ

ข้าพเจ้ายินดีเข้าร่วมการสัมภาษณ์กลุ่ม

ข้าพเจ้ายินดีให้สัมภาษณ์รายบุคคล

ข้าพเจ้ายินดีมีส่วนร่วมในการเรียนการสอน

ลายเซ็น:.....

ชื่อ:

วันที่:

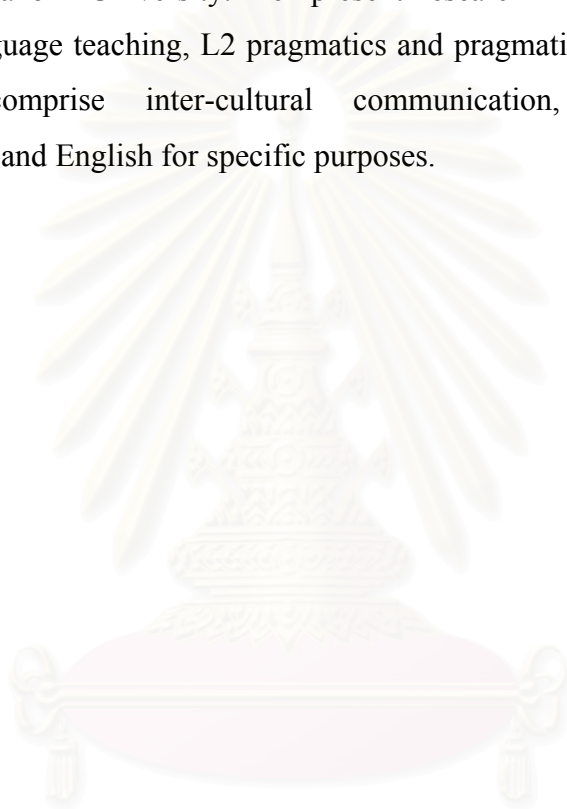
นางปาริย์ นิพาสพงษ์

Tel. 02 423 3655

E-mail address yinyin9@yahoo.com

VITAE

Pajaree Nipaspong received her B.A. in Library and Information Science from the Faculty of Liberal Arts, Thammasat University in 1998. Her interests veered towards language teaching, and she went on to receive her M.A. in English Instruction from the English as an International Language Program, Chulalongkorn University in 2002. She is currently an English language instructor at the Department of Western Languages, Silpakorn University. Her present research interests include corrective feedback in language teaching, L2 pragmatics and pragmatic assessment. Other areas of interest comprise inter-cultural communication, language instruction, sociolinguistics, and English for specific purposes.



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