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Pragmatics and Pedagogy: An Examination of
College English Teaching in China

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A thesis submitted in fulfillment of requirements for

the degree of

Doctor of Philosophy

Faculty of Education and Social Work

The University of Sydney

September 2007

AUTHOR'S DECLARATION

This is to certify that:

- I. this thesis comprises only my original work towards the Doctor of Philosophy in Education Degree
- II. due acknowledgement has been made in the text to all other material used
- III. the thesis does not exceed the word length for this degree
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ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I am extremely grateful to Dr. Hui Zhong Shen, my supervisor at the Faculty of Education and Social Work, without whom I can truly say that this would never have happened. It was his grasp of both the scope and details of the process of writing a thesis, his insightful guidance, encouragement and trust that led me to set exactly the right pace for the research and the writing. It was he who read five complete versions of this thesis and provided me with valuable constructive feedback. His constant aid made me a much better writer than I thought I could be.

My thanks also go to Associate professor Brian Paltridge for recommending me reference materials; Dr. Lesley Harbon and Dr. Alyson Simpson for reading my research proposal and attending my research proposal defence; Dr. Lindy Woodrow for helping me administer questionnaires; and Dr. Lesley Scanlon who gave help and support professionally and personally while I was studying in the University of Sydney.

Special thanks are due to my colleagues and the students as well who participated in the study by consenting to be interviewed, allowing me to observe the classroom teaching, and patiently doing questionnaires.

I would like to give my sincere thanks to Fudan University for support, and The University of Sydney for scholarship that allowed to complete the PhD study.

Finally I am grateful to my husband, Mr. Zhu Ye and my daughter, Zhu Yiqing for understanding and supporting me during this long and difficult process.

ABSTRACT

This study examines the pragmatic input observable in College English textbooks and the process of College English teaching and learning in the Chinese context. The primary aim of the study is to investigate qualitatively the nature of pragmatic information and the extent to which it is included in the textbooks and in teaching and learning in the classroom.

The study draws upon broadly research and scholarship from Second Language Acquisition (SLA) and language pedagogy (Communicative Language Teaching, Task-based Instruction, and Intercultural Language Teaching) to conceptualise and map out the scope of English language learning and teaching in the classroom context.

Specifically, data analysis and theorization rely on concepts from research on pragmatics, particularly the notions of pragmatic competence (Bachman & Palmer, 1996), interlanguage pragmatics, intercultural pragmatics, sociopragmatics, and speech acts theory (Austin, 1962; Searle, 1976).

With a central focus on pragmatics, the study employs a mixed research method: questionnaires, content analysis, classroom observation, and semi-structured interview. Data obtained from the various instruments are analysed by way of triangulation.

The main findings of the study argue that (1) neither College English textbooks nor College English classroom teaching provide adequate pragmatic input to learners with regards to quantity and quality of pragmatic input. (2) The extent of pragmatic knowledge in College English textbooks and classroom teaching is limited and predominantly concentrates on metapragmatic information, metalanguage, speech acts, and cultural information. (3) Pragmatic information in the textbooks and classroom teaching is randomly distributed. (4) The pragmatic input is taught explicitly with

limited tasks and task varieties. (5) The content- or information-based approach reflecting an information-transmission model neglects the appropriate use of the target language, essential for effective communication, and affords students with little opportunities for interactive learning and the use of English for real purposes.

The findings of the study provide empirical evidence for College English textbook writing and classroom teaching and learning in an EFL context in China. The theorizing of the study as well as a proposed instructional model highlights a need for a language pedagogy that systematically incorporates pragmatics in the English curriculum for second and foreign language teaching and learning.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Globalisation of English

There is no doubt that English is becoming an international language for trade and education in the global and glocal context (Pakier, 1999). English as a global language grew with the spread of British colonial power in the 19th century and its dominant position has been strengthened by the powerful influence of the United States in the 20th century. Kachru (1996) maintains that the various roles English serves in different countries of the world are best conceived of in terms of three concentric circles: (a) *the Inner Circle*, where English is the first or dominant language: the United States, the United Kingdom, Australia, Canada, and New Zealand; (b) *the Outer Circle*, where English serves as a second language in a multilingual country such as in Singapore, India, and the Philippines; and (c) *the Expanding Circle*, where English is widely studied as a foreign language such as in China, Japan, and Korea (Kachru, 1996, pp.70-102).

The concept of English in its Inner, Outer, and Expanding Circles is equivalent to native, English as second language (ESL), and English as foreign language (EFL) (Kachru & Nelson, 1996, p. 79). It is estimated that at the beginning of the twenty-first century the number of English L1 speakers is 375 million, the same as the number of people who use English as L2, and as many as 750 million use English as a foreign language (Graddol, 1997). The number of speakers of English in these three circles has reached 2,213,507,500, making up over a third of the world's population (Crystal, 2003, p. 107).

English learning in China is considered as EFL. China's rapid economic development and open-door policy has increased the importance of learning English. This fact has indirectly promoted the status of the English language in China, so much so that

English has been the dominant foreign language in the curricula of educational institutions and in foreign language learning in Chinese society for more than two decades (Chang, 2006).

The Chinese government attaches special importance to English language teaching. There is a nine-year compulsory education system in China, from elementary school to junior high school (Chinese Government, 1998: Art, 2, 7, 8). The Chinese Ministry of Education requires that English education should start from third grade at the elementary school level and elementary school students should have at least four periods of English education per week.

Since the beginning of the 21st century English learning in China has gained even more momentum from the Ministry of Education down to individuals due to the further implementation of the open-door policy and accelerating economic development across China. The entrance into the World Trade Organisation (WTO) and the hosting of the Olympic Games in 2008 have all promoted the teaching and learning of English. Although it is far from being a lingua franca in urban China, English is the dominant staple of foreign language in progressive education. It is a qualification for many jobs, a required skill for exposure to the influx of English audio and visual materials, and a stepping-stone to an education abroad (Yang, 2003).

1.2 College English teaching in China

College English is an integrative university course. It is a two-year compulsory subject for non-English major students at university level. According to the recent statistics, about 5.5 million college students study College English every year in China (Zhang, 2006). The large number of English learners has huge implications for quality assurance of the curriculum, which involves syllabus, teaching methodology, textbooks, and teachers and students.

College English has also drawn strong attention of the Ministry of Education of China.

The College English curriculum and requirements must be compiled by experts and should be approved by the Ministry of Education. All the universities and colleges are required to implement the College English requirements in College English teaching. In other words, College English teaching in China is guided by one curriculum document.

Looking back on the history of College English teaching in China, it is observed that College English teaching in universities and colleges has been conducted according to the requirements. The first *College English Requirements* was implemented in 1985, which indicated that the objective of College English teaching was to develop learners' language skills, such as reading, listening, speaking and writing, and laid great emphasis on linguistic competence. It also required students in key universities to pass the College English Band Four examination before graduation. The second *College English Requirements* was published in 1999. It aimed to further strengthen learners' linguistic competence. Developing learners' communicative competence was also mentioned, but there was no explicit explanation on what communicative competence was and how to develop it. All university students were required to pass at least tests at the College English Band Four level before graduation. Under the guidance of the two requirements, College English teaching was teacher-centered, examination-oriented with emphasis on developing linguistic competence (Cai, 2007).

Since the late 1990s the notion that language teaching should not only include grammar, semantics, but also pragmatics, has been introduced to the College English teachers in China. This inclusion is further emphasised with the release of a new *College English Requirements* in 2004 (Chinese College English Education and Supervisory Committee, 2004). The ministerial document points out that

“(T)he objective of College English is to develop students' ability to use English in an all-round way, especially in listening and speaking, so that in their future work and social interactions they will be able to exchange information effectively through both spoken and written channels, at the same time they will be able to enhance their ability to study independently and improve their cultural quality so

as to meet the needs of China's social development and international exchanges.”
(College English Curriculum Requirements, 2004, p.24)

The emphasis is obviously on “language use, social interactions, and cultural quality”. English teaching and learning in China should no longer be confined to the acquisition of grammatical knowledge. The development of communicative competence should also become a primary goal of the teaching of English as a foreign language. College English teachers need to give greater attention to the development of communicative competence, among which pragmatic competence is one of the main components.

Pragmatic competence is an important part of the language proficiency construct (Canale, 1983; Canale & Swain, 1980; Bachman, 1990). It is the ability to use language appropriately according to the communicative situations and considered important for successful engagement in face-to-face interactions in the target language (Davies, 1989). In order to communicate successfully in a target language, pragmatic competence in L2 must be reasonably well developed (Kasper, 1997).

However, studies show that College English students' pragmatic competence is poor (Liu, 2004; Men & Liu, 2000; Zhang, 2002). This is often reported in research and anecdotal account. The following example is taken from Ji (2006) that illustrated Chinese students' poor pragmatic competence.

Alison wants to change her tutorial time, so she has gone to see the course coordinator during his office hour.

CC: How's it going?

Alison: Good. Ah could you do me a favour?

Question: How appropriate do you think the underlined sentence is?

Very appropriate.

Appropriate

Not at all appropriate

Inappropriate

A total of 196 university students answered this question. The result shows that 66.7% of the students give a positive answer. Among them, 18.8% of the students consider the

underlined sentence very appropriate, 47.9% think it appropriate. Obviously students understand the semantic meaning of the sentence without the knowledge of context – social relationship. This sentence should be used between close friends (Ji, 2006, pp.1-2).

Teachers have always observed that students can do well on a test but fail to use English effectively when they engage in spontaneous conversation. Students complain that after years of language study, they still can't order breakfast. The general concerns of language practitioners and students all point to a less than desirable sentiment, which culminates in a disgruntled dismissal of the current language teaching as producing "mute" or "deaf" language learners with poor pragmatic competence. Harsh as the criticism may be, there is no empirical base, on which well-considered curricular decisions could be made.

1.3 Information about College English textbook writing in China

Four decades have passed since the advent of the first English textbook for non-English major students in China. According to Li (2001), the history of College English textbook writing can be divided into four periods: first period (before the Cultural Revolution, 1960s); second period (1966-1985); third period (1986-mid 1990s); and fourth period (late 1990s to present). Up to now about 10 series of College English textbooks have been published, five of which have been used nationwide. They are *College English*, *New College English*, *College English (New)*, *21st Century College English*, *New Experiencing English*. Generally speaking, College English textbooks written in 1980s and mid 1990s have been greatly influenced by structural linguistics. They have attached great importance to the acquisition of language forms, such as pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, which has exerted great influence on College English learners. College English textbooks written in late 1990s and early 2000s not only show the traditional language teaching and learning principles, but also new principles in second language acquisition, such as the communicative principle.

The Chinese Ministry of Education is greatly concerned with College English teaching and learning. As a result it always recommends those College English textbooks that have high quality for the universities and colleges in China. Consequently it is easy to see that many students use the same College English textbooks.

College English textbooks in China are written by Chinese experts who themselves teach College English in universities and colleges. A group of nationally famous professors from different universities work together with support from the publishers. They collect materials and design exercises. As textbook writing is getting to be a more and more profitable industry and English is becoming more and more important, great attention has been given to it by administrators, teachers, and publishers.

1.4 Aim of the study

Unlike second language learners, students learning English as a foreign language in China do not have many opportunities to be exposed to authentic language use. If they are not provided with sufficient pragmatic knowledge, they will have more difficulty in understanding and producing appropriate use in the target language.

As the two sources of input in the learning environment, materials (In the current study materials refers to textbooks.) and classroom input play an important role in English language teaching, particularly in the English as a foreign language classroom (Kim & Hall, 2002; Bardovi-Harlig, 2001) as they are the essential elements in determining L2 learners' pragmatic competence (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001). China is no exception in that students learn English with formal explicit instruction and textbooks. In China textbooks provide the main linguistic input, pragmatic input, pedagogical guide and exemplary materials and tasks for learners and teachers.

The research focus on the development of pragmatic competence and awareness on the part of English learners in China derives from the concern of foreign/second language acquisition researchers about pragmatic aspects of the target language. Foreign/second

language learning/teaching has shifted from a focus on learning and using structural and lexical aspects of the target language towards a more discourse-centred perspective (Pilar et al., 2005). On account of the fact that pragmatic competence is identified as one of the main components of Bachman's communicative language competence model and the important role that textbooks and classroom teaching have played in learning English in EFL context in China, the current study focuses on pragmatics and foreign language acquisition, which is termed interlanguage pragmatics by Kasper (2001a).

Interlanguage pragmatic research has centred on two perspectives: learners' pragmatic use and pragmatic development (Kasper & Blum-Kulka, 1993; Barron, 2003). Scholars investigating developmental issues have provided some interesting assumptions.

Considering the fact that textbooks and classroom teaching are the main input for College English learners in China, the current study assumes that they might be the two possible variants which will affect the development of pragmatic competence. The issues of how material developers deal with pragmatics in developing materials and how College English teachers incorporate pragmatics into classroom teaching need particular attention.

In the present study, it is argued that existing textbooks and classroom teaching, among other variables, may have contributed to the current status quo of English education in China, at least at the college level. A lack of sufficient pragmatic input as well as inadequate pedagogical guide to teachers may have made it hard for learners to use language appropriately.

This study examines the pragmatic input in College English textbooks and how teachers teach pragmatic knowledge in College English classrooms in the Chinese context. The primary aim of the study is to investigate qualitatively the nature of pragmatic input that is contained in the College English textbooks, and the extent to which it is included in the textbooks and in teaching and learning in the classroom. It is also the aim of this

study to provide empirical evidence to inform effective material development and classroom teaching in pragmatic terms for optimal language learning and teaching in College English in China, where English language teaching and learning is expected to move away from a focus largely on linguistic elements to a more communicative and intercultural approach. As sources of input, textbooks and classroom teaching which involve classroom activities and pedagogical materials such as textbooks and teachers' own materials, are explored.

This study was based on theoretical frameworks of SLA and pragmatics. While the study drew upon theories from SLA and language pedagogy (Communicative Language Teaching, Task-based Instruction, and Intercultural Language Teaching) to conceptualise and map out the scope of English language learning and teaching in the classroom context in terms of linguistics (e.g. lexis, syntax and grammar), and pragmatics (e.g. how speakers use and understand speech acts), data categorisation and theorisation of the thesis relied on arguments and concepts from research on pragmatics, particularly the notion of pragmatic competence (Bachman & Palmer, 1996), interlanguage pragmatics, intercultural pragmatics, sociopragmatics, and speech acts theory (Austin, 1962; Searle, 1976). Data analysis is conducted by using the frameworks adapted from the work of Bachman and Palmer (1996), Vellenga (2004), Hatoss (2004), and Byram (1997).

For the methodology of this study, this is a single case study and four instruments were used: questionnaires, content analysis, classroom observation, and interviews. Questionnaires were administered to find out College English teachers' (N=44) and students' (N=196) perceptions of pragmatics in textbooks and classroom teaching. In content analysis, eight of the College English (New) textbooks (four Integrated Coursebooks and four Listening and Speaking Coursebooks) were examined in terms of pragmatics. Furthermore, three College English teachers' classroom teaching with regard to teaching pragmatics was observed. Finally four teacher interviews and one student focus group interview were conducted to obtain further in-depth perceptions of

pragmatics in materials development and classroom teaching. Triangulation of data analysis was carried out in the study.

1.5 Significance of the study

English language learning has gained an unprecedented momentum in China. However, there is much to be desired in language pedagogy, classroom practices and the development of appropriate EFL materials and tasks for learning and teaching at the classroom level. It is believed that pragmatic information, as one important aspect of language teaching, is missing in the language curriculum, which inevitably over emphasises the linguistic aspect (the discrete elements of the language such as lexis and grammar). Little attention is given to the study of pragmatics (Kasper, 1997; Vellenga, 2004; Bardovi-Harlig, 2001; Kasper & Rose, 2001), which is an equal, if not more important, aspect of language learning. Questions regarding development of pragmatic competence have been less frequently addressed. Research on English textbooks and classroom teaching for EFL contexts is limited, particularly those on pragmatics in EFL materials and classroom teaching. The findings from this study provide an empirical base upon which EFL College English pragmatic materials and tasks can be developed in textbook writing and classroom instruction. A re-conceptualisation of teaching and learning informed by key concepts from SLA and pragmatics also indicates a pedagogical orientation for language learning and teaching in China and similar education contexts.

1.6 Research questions

Considering the importance of classroom input, which includes both textbooks and classroom teaching in EFL teaching in China, the present study focused on College English textbooks and classroom teaching with regard to promoting learners' pragmatic competence. The research questions that guided the study can be summarized as follows:

RQ1: How do Chinese teachers and students perceive pragmatic knowledge in the process of teaching and learning and in College English textbooks?

RQ2: What is the nature of the pragmatic materials and tasks included in College English textbooks?

RQ3: How do Chinese College English teachers incorporate pragmatic materials and tasks into the classroom?

1.7 Organization of the thesis

This study is organised into seven chapters. Chapter 1 introduces the background of current related research and states the aim and significance of the study. Chapter 2 deals with the field of pragmatics, and thus it focuses on reviewing the relevant literature about the discipline of pragmatics and the issues of pragmatics in ESL/EFL teaching/learning and materials development. This chapter starts with an overview of the development of the new discipline of pragmatics with focus on its main issues and features (Levison; 1983; Trosborg, 1995; Thomas, 1996; Verschuer, 1999; Yule, 1996; Mey, 2001; LoCastro, 2003; Cummings, 2005). This is followed up with a review of research conducted in pragmatics in ESL/EFL teaching/learning and materials development. About thirty studies are reviewed where pragmatics is analysed in relation to the teaching of pragmatic knowledge in classroom and developing materials focusing on teaching and learning pragmatics in the ESL/EFL context. The results of the overview confirm that the present study has theoretical support.

Chapter 3 incorporates a discussion of two strands of theories derived from research on Second Language Acquisition (SLA) and pragmatics in which the present study is grounded and theorised. Theories of SLA entail cognitive perspectives of second language acquisition, socio-cultural perspectives of second language acquisition, communicative language teaching, task-based teaching, and intercultural language teaching. Theories and concepts of pragmatics cover notions of pragmatic competence,

interlanguage pragmatics, intercultural pragmatics, sociopragmatics, and speech acts theory.

Chapter 4 is devoted to describing in detail the methodological aspects of the current study. It includes the research design, the instruments used, the participants, data collection and analysis procedures.

Chapter 5 presents and classifies the quantitative and qualitative data obtained from the four instruments: questionnaire, content analysis, classroom observation, and interview. Data sources are compiled to present a complete picture of the nature of the pragmatic input in College English textbooks and classroom teaching.

Chapter 6 provides an interpretive discussion of the findings in relation to theoretical framework and relevant previous studies. The discussion focuses on materials and tasks in College English textbooks and classroom teaching, emphasizing both content and process of teaching pragmatics in the EFL context in China.

Chapter 7 presents the conclusions of the study based on the discussion. It also includes consideration of implications for teaching and research as well as suggestions for further research related to the fields of foreign/second language acquisition and pragmatics. The thesis proceeds as it has been set out.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

The past twenty-odd years have seen an ever-growing interest in pragmatics. Many publications including theses, working papers, reference books, and textbooks have been turned out. Reference textbooks on pragmatics, for example, include Thomas's *Meaning in Interaction: An Introduction to Pragmatics* (1996); Verschueren's *Understanding Pragmatics* (1999); Yule's *Pragmatics* (1996); Mey's *Pragmatics* (1993, 2001); LoCastro's *An Introduction to Pragmatics* (2003); and Cummings' *Pragmatics: A Multidisciplinary perspective* (2005). The picture is complete and pragmatics has come into its own (Mey, 2001, p. 3). Meanwhile pragmatics has been applied to the study of second language acquisition. This review comprises two parts: an overview of research on pragmatics in general, and research on pragmatics in ESL/EFL teaching/learning and materials development.

2.1 Pragmatics: an overview

Pragmatics, a subfield of linguistics which is concerned with the analysis of language use, is a relatively new area of linguistics compared to syntax and semantics (Trosborg, 1995). It became a recognised field with the publication in 1983 of two seminal books, Leech's *Principles of Pragmatics* and Levinson's *Pragmatics* (LoCastro, 2003, p. vii). Why is pragmatics needed in the study of language? The following example is likely to answer the question.

'I just met the old Irishman and his son, coming out of the toilet.'

'I wouldn't have thought there was room for the two of them.'

'No silly, I mean I was coming out of the toilet. They were waiting' (Mey, 2001, p.12).

How do we know what the first speaker meant? Linguists usually say that the first

sentence is ambiguous. However, pragmatics do not agree. Mey (2001) explained that strictly speaking there is no ambiguity. The first speaker knows what she means, but the hearer misunderstands it. Therefore, pragmatics is needed if we want a fuller, deeper and generally more reasonable account of human behaviour. In other words, pragmatics offers what cannot be found in traditional linguistics and pragmatic methods help us understand how humans use language.

2.1.1 Pragmatics: a definition

Levison (1983) argued that “the diversity of possible definitions and lack of clear boundaries may be disconcerting, but it is by no means unusual: since academic fields are congeries of preferred methods, implicit assumptions, and focal problems or subject matters, attempts to define them are rarely wholly satisfactory”(ibid, p. 5). A set of possible definitions of pragmatics will be considered. These have been defined in various ways, reflecting authors’ theoretical orientation and audience.

The term pragmatics was coined by a philosopher of language, Charles Morris, in 1938. Morris defined pragmatics as “the study of the relation of signs to interpreters” (Morris, 1938, cited in LoCastro, 2003, p.5). Morris was concerned to outline the general shape of a science of signs, or semiotics. He distinguished three distinct branches of inquiry: syntactics (or syntax), being the study of “the formal relation of signs to one another”, semantics, the study of “the relations of signs to the objects to which the signs are applicable”, and pragmatics, the study of “the relation of signs to interpreters” (Levinson, 1983, p. 6). Morris located pragmatics within the philosophy of language (specifically semiotics). He used the term in a very broad sense as the scope of pragmatics was extended to include sociolinguistics, psycholinguistics, neurolinguistics.

Since Morris’s introduction of the trichotomy, syntax, semantics and pragmatics, a number of distinct usages of the term pragmatics have sprung from his original division of semiotics. Numerous attempts have been made to explain pragmatics. The main

problem is to determine what should be included in the term (LoCastro, 2003, p. 6).

Levinson considers pragmatics as being “the study of those relations between language and context that are grammaticalized, or encoded in the structure of a language” (Levinson, 1983, p. 9). This definition accepts only those uses of language as pragmatically relevant that have a distinct grammatical expression, i.e., that operate with phonological, morphological and syntactic elements under the direction of grammatical rules (Mey, 2001, p. 6).

Leech (1983) develops a model of pragmatics within an overall functional model of language. He defines pragmatics as “the study of meaning in relation to speech situations.” He is concerned about the difference between semantic meaning and pragmatic meaning. According to Levinson, semantic meaning is defined as “a property of expressions in a given language” (“*What does X mean?*”). Pragmatic meaning is “relative to a speaker or user of the language” (“*What did you mean by X?*”) (Leech, 1983, p.6). He follows the speech act theory of Austin and Searle, and the theory of conversational implicature of Grice, but at the same time enlarges pragmatics to include politeness, irony, communion, and other social principles of linguistic behaviour.

Crystal (1985) defines pragmatics as “the study of language from the point of view of users, especially of the choices they make, the constraints they encounter in using language in social interaction and the effects their use of language has on their participants in the act of communication” (Crystal, 1985, p.240). Pragmatics is defined as the study of communicative action in its sociocultural context. Communicative action includes not only using speech acts (such as apologising, complaining, complimenting, and requesting), but also engaging in different types of discourse and participating in speech events of varying length and complexity (Rose & Kasper, 2001, p.2). Crystal (1985) broadens the original conception of pragmatics, noting the need to include the users and the addressee’s linguistic and nonlinguistic

response.

Yule (1996) emphasises the study of meaning as communicated by a speaker (or writer) and interpreted by a listener (or reader). It has consequently more to do with the analysis of what people mean by their utterances than what the words or phrases in those utterances might mean by themselves. Yule points out that meaning consists of the study of speaker meaning, the interpretation of what people mean in a particular context and how the context influences what is said; the study of contextual meaning, exploring how a great deal of what is unsaid is recognised as part of what is communicated; the study of how more gets communicated than is said and the study of the expression of relative distance (Yule, 1996, p. 3).

Mey (2001) proposes that “Pragmatics studies the use of language in human communication as determined by the conditions of society” (Mey, 2001, p.6). She lays emphasis on the use of language, communication and social context by highlighting that the users of language, as social beings, communicate and use language on society’s premises; society controls their access to the linguistic and communicative means. Like Crystal’s definition Mey (2001) emphasises social interaction. They underscore the notion that pragmatics is not only concerned with the actions of the producing (speaking, writing) participant but also with the effect of such actions on their recipients (Kasper & Rose, 2002, p.4).

It is obvious from the above definitions that the term pragmatics is defined in different ways with different foci. However, by adopting elements from the definitions and approaches to pragmatics reviewed above, this study uses as a working definition that pragmatics is the study of meaning as communicated by a speaker (or writer) and interpreted by a listener (or reader) in their joint actions that includes both linguistic and nonlinguistic signals in the context of socioculturally organised activities (LoCastro, 2003; Yule, 1996). Some main features which are frequently discussed by the researchers, such as context, meaning, social interaction, language use and users,

and interdiscipline/multidiscipline, are further explained in the following section.

2.1.2 Features of pragmatics

From the above set of definitions of pragmatics, some features have been found which have drawn researchers' attention. Features such as context, social interaction, language use and user, meaning, and interdiscipline are discussed.

Context

The notion of context extends beyond its obvious manifestation as the physical setting within which an utterance is produced to include linguistic, social and epistemic factors. Pragmatically speaking, the decisive importance of context is that it allows us to use our linguistic resources to the utmost, without having to spell out all the tedious details every time we use a particular construction (Mey, 2001, p. 45).

Kramsch (1993) points out that the notion of context has five dimensions: linguistic, situational, interactional, as well as cultural and intertextual. Linguistic context refers to the choice of one linguistic form over another determined by the co-text which refers to those linguistic elements that precede or follow. Situational context consists of setting, participants, ends, act sequence, key instrumentalities, norms of interaction and interpretation, and genre (cf. Hymes, 1974).

Interactional context is defined by Ellis and Roberts (1987) as follows: "Context is created in interaction partly on the basis of particular and individual choices by speakers at a local level and partly by those speakers being able to make inferences about each other on the basis of shared knowledge and assumptions about the world and about how to accomplish things interactionally" (Ellis & Roberts, 1987, p. 20). Cultural context describes the institutional and ideological background knowledge shared by participants in speech events. Intertextual context is the relation of a text with other texts, assumptions, and expectations (cf. Halliday & Hasan, 1989).

Context is a dynamic, not a static concept. It is to be understood as the continually changing surroundings, in the widest sense, that enable the participants in the communication process to interact, and in which the linguistic expressions of their interaction become intelligible. It includes the speaker, the hearer, the linguistic forms, which provide the meaning potential, and the physical, social, and linguistic environment of the utterance. No matter how natural our language facilities or how convention-bound their use, as language users, we always operate in contexts (Mey, 2001, pp. 39-42).

Context is action. Context is about understanding what things are for; it is also what gives our utterances their true pragmatic meaning and allows them to be counted as true pragmatic acts (Mey, 2001).

Social interaction

Language is considered as a tool of human interaction. By means of language, we express our personality, our thoughts, intentions, desires, and feelings; and by means of language we relate to other people (Wierzbicka, 2003, p. 453). In pragmatics, social interaction can be interpreted in a narrow or a broad sense. In a narrow sense, social interaction refers to encounters in which at least two participants are co-present and engaged in a joint activity. This sense is the same as the interaction defined in conversation analysis: interaction is specified as “talk-in-interaction” and distinguished from text. But in a wider sense, social interaction consists of all sorts of written and mixed forms of communication. The interaction taking place in reading and responding to the work of others is now often referred to as “conversation” (Kasper & Rose, 2002, p. 3).

There are many different possible modes of interaction. They depend partly on what you and I feel and want at any particular time; but they depend also on who you and I are – both as individuals and as members of particular social, cultural, and ethnic groups (Wierzbicka, 2003, p. 2). This is the field cross-cultural pragmatics concerns

and more discussion about it will be found in the following literature review.

Language use and users

At the most elementary level, pragmatics can be defined as the study of language use, or, to employ a somewhat more complicated phrasing, the study of linguistic phenomena from the point of view of their usage properties and processes (Verschueren, 1999, p.1). Mey (2001) explains that use refers to the ways people actually speak and write. It refers to how linguistic forms function for the purpose of communication in specific instances. Pragmatics is interested in the process of producing language and in its producers, not just in the end-product. Meanwhile, users are doing things in and with language, so pragmatics comprises everything that characterises people as users of language. The language user is in the centre of attention in pragmatics (Mey, 2001, pp.5-6). Mey further points out that a truly pragmatic approach would concentrate on what users do; but it would not stop there. Users are part of a world of usage: they use their language as members of a speech community that reflects the conditions of the community at large (Mey, 2001, p.114).

Meaning

Language is the major instrument in attempts to construct meaning in a world which does not have meaning in itself. However, meaning is a complex notion indeed. As Thomas (1996) explains:

“Meaning is not something that is inherent in the words alone, nor is it produced by the speaker alone or the hearer alone. Making meaning is a dynamic process, involving the negotiation of meaning between speaker and hearer, the context of utterance (physical, social and linguistic), and the meaning potential of an utterance” (ibid, 1992, p. 22).

The complexity of meaning is reflected in the range of academic disciplines that has converged on the study of this notion. Cummings (2005) puts forward three

approaches to meaning: referential approach to meaning, psychological approach to meaning, and social/pragmatic approach to meaning (Cummings, 2005, pp. 41-42). There are represented in the following Figure 2.1. These three dimensions exist dependently of each other. In the present study the focus is on pragmatic meaning.

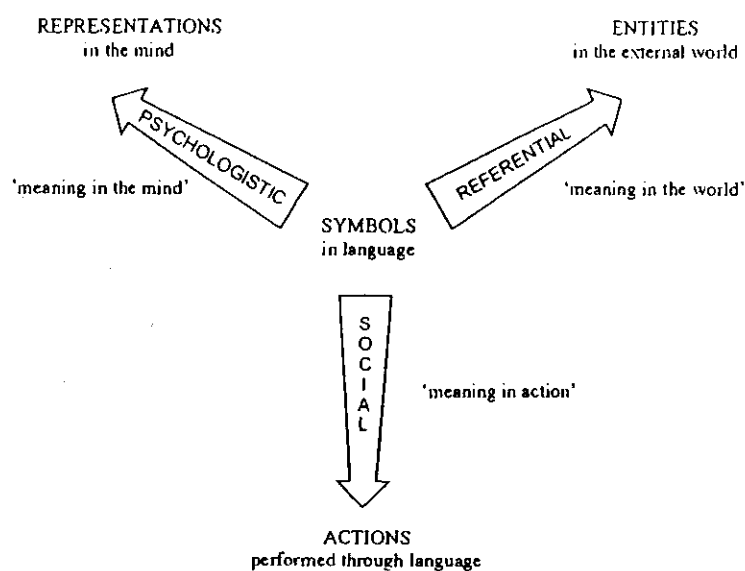


Figure 2.1 Theories of meaning
 Source: Cummings, 2005, p. 42

Meaning is a key problem within the field of pragmatics. Meaning in pragmatics is defined relative to a speaker or user of the language, whereas meaning in semantics is defined purely as a property of expressions in a given language, in abstraction from particular situations, speakers, or hearers (Leech, 1983, p.6). According to LoCastro (2003), there are sentence meaning, contextual meaning, reference, the speaker's meaning, meaning in interaction (LoCastro, 2003, pp. 40-51).

Multidisciplinary

Pragmatics is by definition interdisciplinary. Cummings (2005) cites the following definition of pragmatics that is advanced by Cruse (2000) to illustrate it:

“Pragmatics can be taken to be concerned with aspects of **information** (in the widest sense) conveyed through language which (a) are not **encoded** by generally accepted **convention** in the linguistic forms used, but which (b) none the less arise

naturally out of and depend on the meanings conventionally encoded in the linguistic forms used, taken in conjunction with the **context** in which the forms are used” (Cruse, 2000, p.16).

Each of the bolded words in the above quotation introduces into this definition of pragmatics considerations that are properly multidisciplinary in nature (Cummings, 2005, p. 2).

Cummings’ exposition illustrates the multidisciplinary feature of pragmatics in two ways. On the one hand, pragmatics is significantly informed by a range of academic disciplines. Some of these disciplines – for example, philosophy – have established in large part the conceptual foundations of pragmatics. On the other hand, pragmatics has a capacity to influence the conceptual development of other disciplines (Cummings, 2005). Pragmatics can be further specified as a general cognitive, social, and cultural perspective on linguistic phenomena in relation to their usage in forms of behaviour (Verschueren, 1999, p. 7).

LoCastro (2003) sums up the distinguishing features of pragmatics:

“Meaning is created in interaction with speakers and hearers.

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

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

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

The effects of choices on coparticipants are analyzed” (LoCastro, 2003, p. 29).

2.1.3 Focus and content of pragmatics

Being a relatively new discipline the scope and boundaries of pragmatics have not been defined. What components does pragmatics have? The pragmatic component is understood as the set of whatever pragmatic functions can be assigned to language, along with a pragmatic perspective, i.e., the way these functions operate. We could

either ask how users 'mean what they say', that is, how they communicate, using language, or how they 'say what they mean', employing the linguistic devices at their disposal to express themselves (Mey, 2000, p. 9).

Byram (2000) summarises studies of pragmatics as including:

- "Deixis: meaning 'pointing to' something. In verbal communication, however, deixis in its narrow sense refers to the contextual meaning of pronouns, and in its broad sense to what the speaker means by a particular utterance in a given speech context;
- Presupposition: referring to the logical meaning of a sentence or meanings logically associated with or entailed by a sentence.
- Performative: implying that by each utterance a speaker not only says something but also does certain things: giving information, stating a fact or hinting an attitude. The study of performatives led to the hypothesis of speech act theory.
- Implicature: referring to an indirect or implicit meaning of an utterance derived from context that is not present from its conventional use.
- Pragmatics also focuses on research on interlanguage (learner language), intercultural and social factors, developing into a broader disciplinary base to include studies of interlanguage pragmatics, intercultural pragmatics, and sociopragmatics" (Byram, 2000, p.477).

2.1.4 Pragmatics and its academic neighbours

The term pragmatics has been applied to a very wide and heterogeneous range of phenomena. It is often called the 'waste-basket of linguistics' (Mey, 2001, p. 19) as linguists dropped their unresolved questions into this new pragmatic basket. However, if we look at the definitions and scope of pragmatics, it becomes clear that pragmatics is definitely more than just a linguistic wastebasket. On the contrary, this position gives pragmatics a very broad scope. It enables us to approach different aspects of language use in a quite coherent manner. The once-popular "wasted basket" view of pragmatics, assigning to pragmatics the task of dealing with whatever syntax and

semantics could not properly cope with, will be radically left behind (Verschueren, 1999, p.11).

Morris (1938) places pragmatics within semiotics, the study of the relation of signs to the world. Leech (1983) discusses the question of whether or not pragmatics should be regarded as an “added” layer of linguistic description; he suggests a linear processing model:

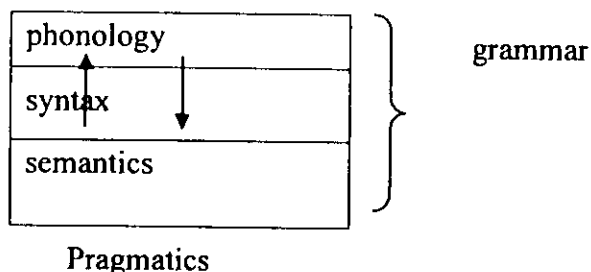


Figure 2.2 Linear processing model
Source: Leech, 1983, p.12

Leech (1983) distinguishes between three possible ways of structuring this relationship: semanticism (pragmatics inside semantics), pragmaticism (semantics inside pragmatics) and complementarism (semantics and pragmatics complement each other, but are otherwise independent areas of research) (Mey, 2001, p. 7). The three views are diagrammed and labeled as shown in Figure 2.3:

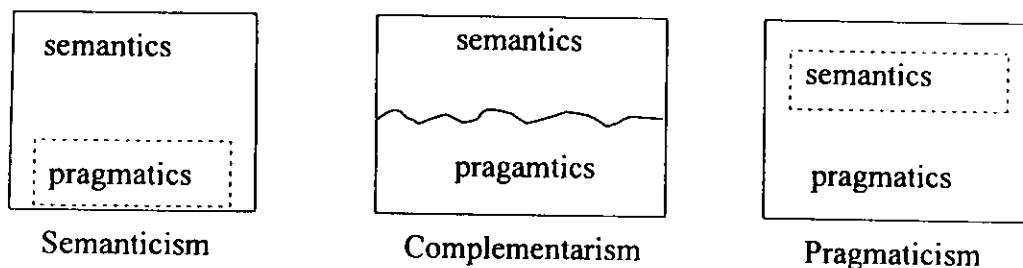


Figure 2.3 Relationship between semantics and pragmatics

Source: Leech, 1983, p. 6

Yule (1996) provides one traditional distinction in language analysis which contrasts pragmatics with syntax and semantics. He defines syntax as the study of the relationships between linguistic forms, how they are arranged in relationships

between linguistic forms, how they are arranged in sequence, and which sequences are well-formed. Syntax generally doesn't consider any world of reference or any user of the forms. Semantics refers to the study of the relationships between linguistic forms and entities in the world. Semantic analysis also attempts to establish the relationships between verbal descriptions and states of affairs in the world as accurate or not, regardless of who produces that description. Pragmatics studies the relationships between linguistic forms and the users of those forms. Only pragmatics includes humans in the analysis (Yule, 1996).

The advantage of studying language via pragmatics is that one can talk about people's intended meanings, their assumptions, their purposes or goals, and the kinds of actions that they are performing when they speak (Yule, 1996, p.4). Similarly, Thomas (1995) gives a very explicit account of the place of pragmatics in linguistics:

“Pragmatics is a level of linguistic description like phonology, syntax, semantics and discourse analysis. Like the other levels, it has its own theories, methodologies and underlying assumptions. It has its own foci of interest...” (Thomas, 1995, p. 184).

As mentioned above, pragmatics is multidisciplinary. Pragmatics is significantly informed by a range of academic disciplines. An early conceptual impetus for pragmatics was provided by philosophical reflections on meaning (Cummings, 2005, p. 308); psychological notions such as intention and reasoning are borrowed by pragmaticists. They have established in large part the conceptual foundations of pragmatics. In her recent book *Pragmatics and Natural Language Understanding*, Georgia (1996) remarks:

“Linguistic pragmatics... is at the intersection of a number of fields within and outside of cognitive science: not only linguistics, cognitive psychology, cultural anthropology, and philosophy (logic, semantics, action theory), but also sociology (interpersonal dynamics and social convention) and rhetoric contribute to its domain” (ibid, pp.1-2).

Cummings (2005) explores the relationship of pragmatics to philosophy, psychology, artificial intelligence, and language pathology and argues that this relationship has served to develop pragmatic concepts and theories.

For another, pragmatics also influences the conceptual development of other disciplines. For example, pragmatic phenomena have helped to shape philosophical discussions about the structure and function of the mind.

2.2 Research on pragmatics in language teaching and materials development: an overview

Compared with phonology, morphology, and syntax, second language pragmatics was a relatively neglected area of second language acquisition and applied linguistics until about 15 years ago, but it has seen a veritable explosion of work of late (Ellis, 1999). There is a growing interest in research on pragmatics in English education in a second and foreign language context. The development of communicative competence has been a primary goal of the teaching of English as a second language or English as a foreign language for close to 20 years, shaping the field's research interests and instructional approaches in significant ways (Kim & Hall, 2002, p. 332).

In many second and foreign language teaching contexts, curricula and materials developed in recent years include strong pragmatic components or even adopt a pragmatic approach as their organising principle (Rose & Kasper, 2001, p. 3). This literature review includes studies where pragmatics is analysed in relation to the teaching of pragmatic knowledge in the classroom and developing materials focusing on teaching and learning pragmatics in an ESL/EFL context.

Thirty-one studies are selected for this critical review. Nearly half of them were published in 1990s, the other half in 2000s. They represent the latest development in this research field. Table 2.1 lists the studies in this review and outlines the topics they

focus on and the contexts in which they were conducted. This summary highlights the diversity of research on pragmatics. These studies can be classified into two categories: (1) pragmatics in EFL/ESL teaching, and (2) pragmatics in materials development.

The sense of diversity becomes even more apparent when the contexts for these studies are considered. Studies have been conducted in various countries or regions, such as USA, the UK, Canada, Japan, France, Korea, Hong Kong, Germany, Italy, Hungary, Australia, and Iran. Some studies were carried out in an ESL context, whereas others are in an EFL context. A few studies concern Japanese as foreign language (JFL) (e.g. Tateyama et al., 1997; LoCastro, 1998; Ohta, 2001; Cook, 2001b; Yoshimi, 2001; Tateyama, 2001), French as foreign language (FFL) (e.g. Liddicoat & Crozet, 2001) and Korean as foreign language (KFL) (e.g. Byon, 2004).

Great variations in the number and characteristics of the students and textbooks studied are also evident from Table 2.1. With regard to learners' first language, English (Liddicoat & Crozet, 2001; Tateyama et al., 1997; Tateyama, 2001; Yoshimi, 2001) and Japanese (Fukuya & Clark, 2001; LoCastro, 1997b; Takahashi, 2001; Takahashi, 2005) are more represented. Other studies involve native speakers of German (House, 1996), Hebrew (Olshtain & Cohen, 1990), Cantonese (Rose & Ng, 2001), Spanish (Soler, 2005), and Iranian (Zohreh et al., 2004) with other studies drawing on mixed language groups (Bouton, 1994a, 1994b). English is the most frequently chosen target language in the studies. At the time of writing the other languages chosen as target languages in the studies are Japanese (e.g. Tateyama et al., 1997; Tateyama, 2001; Yoshimi, 2001) and French (Liddicoat & Crozet, 2001). In terms of first- and second-language pairs, the English/Japanese pairing accounts for more than the other pairing in studies.

Table 2.1: topics and contexts in pragmatics in language teaching and material development research

Source	focus	context
Scotton & Bernstein (1988)	Natural conversations as a model for textbook dialogue	216 American students, 20 international students of Michigan State University in USA. (the Michigan State University campus, post office, graduate university dormitory information desk, McDonalds restaurant, Waffle House restaurant)
Olshain & Cohen (1990)	Learning and teaching of the more subtle and complex features of the speech act of apology in English	18 advanced adult learners of English who are native speakers of Hebrew in a foreign language context
Bardovi-Harlig et al. (1991)	Developing pragmatic awareness: closing the conversation	Twenty current ESL textbooks which contain dialogues
Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford (1993)	Longitudinal study of pragmatic change	6 native speakers of English, 10 advanced adult non-native speakers of English
Kaplan & Knutson (1993)	Discourse competence and the foreign language textbooks	Eight widely used elementary and intermediate French textbooks
Schmidt (1994)	Authenticity in ESL: a study of requests	Four ESL textbooks
Bouton (1994a)	Can NNS learn to use implicature with little or no direct instruction	Two groups of international students at an American university
Bouton (1994b)	Can NNS skill in interpreting implicature in American English be improved through explicit instruction	International students from various departments at the university of Illinois
Boxer & Pickering (1995)	Problems in the presentation of speech acts of complaint in ELT materials	Seven ELT textbooks that teach functions, four from the US and three from Britain
House (1996)	Whether learners profit more when additional explicit instruction in the use of conversational routines is provided	Two groups of advanced German university students of English (15 students in one group, 17 in the other)

LoCastro (1997a)	Whether pedagogical intervention can facilitate the development of the pragmatic competence in English	Japanese first-year university students at a liberal arts college in Tokyo
LoCastro (1997b)	Politeness and pragmatic competence in foreign language education	17 Ministry of Education-approved textbooks of senior high school English
Tateyama, et. al (1997)	Effectiveness of explicit and implicit approaches to developing pragmatic competence in ELT	15 students in an intact class of JPN 101(11 students are NS of American English, 2 spoke Chinese, 1 Spanish, and 1 Ilokano as L1) at the university of Hawai'i
Cane (1998)	Teaching conversation skills more effectively	Some EFL textbooks
Bardovi-Harlig & Dornyei (1998)	Pragmatic versus grammatical awareness in instructed L2 learning	543 learners of English in two countries, Hungary and the U.S.; 112 EFL speakers in Italy
Berry(2000)	Effect of "youser-friendly" metalanguage on learners of English	258 first-year undergraduates studying for a degree in Business Administration at Lingnan College, Hong Kong..
Park, Chang, & Lee (2000)	Non-native speakers' performance of apology and compliments: what can they learn from EFL textbooks?	Eight EFL middle school textbooks published in Korea and used across the nation
Liddicoat & Crozet (2001)	Effect of instruction on acquiring French interactional norms	A group of ten second-year university-level French students studying in Australia (in a foreign language context)
Rose & Ng (2001)	effects of inductive and deductive teaching of compliments and compliment responses	First-year and third-year students at the City University of HongKong; undergraduate students in first-year composition courses at the university of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign
Takahashi (2001)	effects of input enhancement on the development of English request strategies	Japanese EFL learners at a Japanese university
Tateyama (2001)	Explicit and implicit teaching of pragmatic routines	Beginning students of Japanese as a foreign language (JFL)

Yoshimi (2001)	study of instructional approaches to facilitate development in the comprehension and production of discourse markers in JFL	Students from three classes of third-year Japanese at the University of Hawai'i (JFL)
Grant & Starks (2001)	Focus on screening appropriate teaching materials by comparing closings of conversations from textbooks and television soap operas	Twenty-three ESL/EFL textbooks related to teaching functions/conversation/speaking skills; fifty episodes of the New Zealand week night soap opera Shortland Street
Wong (2002)	Evaluating dialogues in ESL textbooks by using findings in conversation analysis research	Eight ESL textbooks
Kim & Hall (2002)	role of interactive book reading program in the development of second language pragmatic competence	Four native Korean-speaking children who learn English as foreign language
Vellenga (2004)	amount and quality of pragmatic information encompassed in both the ESL and EFL textbooks.	Eight ESL and EFL textbooks; four teachers with both ESL and EFL teaching experience
Zohreh, et. al. (2004)	Effect of explicit metapragmatic instruction on the speech act awareness of advanced EFL students	66 fourth-year students in the Faculty of Foreign Languages at Isfahan University in Iran
Gilmore (2004)	Comparison between discourse features of textbook dialogues with its authentic equivalents	Eight English textbooks
*Soler, E.A. (2005)	Efficacy of pragmatic instruction (request)	132 students in three groups (explicit, implicit and control)
Koike & Pearson (2005)	Effectiveness of teaching pragmatic information through the use of explicit or implicit pre-instruction	99 adult native speakers of English in five groups at the University of Texas at Austin
Takahashi (2005)	Instructional effects in L2 pragmatics (request)	49 Japanese college students in two general English classes

The students' language proficiency ranges from beginners to advanced university level. The students in the research come from primary schools, middle schools and universities. The range extends from detailed case studies of individual students (e.g. Ellis, 1992) to larger scale surveys of students (e.g. Scotton & Bernsten, 1988; Bardovi-Harlig & Dornyei, 1998). As for textbooks used in the studies, the number of textbooks examined in the studies ranges from 4 to 23 (e.g. Schmidt, 1994; Grant & Starks, 2001). Various research methods can also be found in these studies, such as pretest and posttest, content analysis, questionnaire, observation, experiment, and interview.

2.3 Research on pragmatics in ESL/EFL teaching/learning: past studies

Ever since Krashen (1982) first proposed the notion of comprehensible input, second language teachers and teachers in training have been aware of the importance of providing appropriate, adequate, and rich input to foster learners' pragmatic development (LoCastro, 2003, p. 316). The need for teaching pragmatic competence in ESL contexts seems to be taken for granted since ESL learners have both an immediate need for pragmatic competence, as well as a speech community in which to acquire and use that competence. EFL contexts represent unique challenges for the teaching of pragmatic competence (Rose, 1994, p. 52). In general studies on instruction in pragmatics in ESL/EFL contexts have been carried out in order to seek to answer the following types of questions:

1. Is the targeted pragmatic feature teachable at all?
2. Is instruction in the targeted feature more effective than no instruction?
3. Are different teaching approaches differentially effective?
4. What opportunities for developing L2 pragmatic ability are offered in the language classroom (Kasper & Rose, 2002, p. 249)?

The following pages are devoted to a critical overview of studies of pragmatics in language teaching (For a summary of the review, see Table 2.2).

Table 2.2 Topics and contexts in pragmatics in language teaching.

Source	focus	context
Olshain & Cohen (1990)	Learning and teaching of the more subtle and complex features of the speech act of apology in English	18 advanced adult learners of English who are native speakers of Hebrew in a foreign language context
Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford (1993)	Longitudinal study of pragmatic change	6 native speakers of English, 10 advanced adult non-native speakers of English
Bouton (1994a)	Can NNS learn to use implicature with little or no direct instruction	Two groups of international students at an American university
Bouton (1994b)	Can NNS skill in interpreting implicature in American English be improved through explicit instruction	International students from various departments at the university of Illinois
House (1996)	Whether learners profit more when additional explicit instruction in the use of conversational routines is provided	Two groups of advanced German university students of English (15 students in one group, 17 in the other)
LoCastro (1997a)	Whether pedagogical intervention can facilitate the development of the pragmatic competence in English	Japanese first-year university students at a liberal arts college in Tokyo
Tateyama, et. al (1997)	Effectiveness of explicit and implicit approaches to developing pragmatic competence in ELT	15 students in an intact class of JPN 101(11 students are NS of American English, 2 spoke Chinese, 1 Spanish, and 1 Ilokano as L1) at the university of Hawai'i
Liddicoat &	Effect of instruction on acquiring French interactional	A group of ten second-year university-level French students

Crozet (2001)	norms	studying in Australia (in a foreign language context)
Rose & Kwai-fun (2001)	effects of inductive and deductive teaching of compliments and compliment responses	first-year and third-year students at the City University of HongKong; undergraduate students in first-year composition courses at the university of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign
Takahashi (2001)	effects of input enhancement on the development of English request strategies	Japanese EFL learners at a Japanese university
Tateyama (2001)	Explicit and implicit teaching of pragmatic routines	beginning students of Japanese as a foreign language (JFL)
Fukuya & Clark (2001)	Comparison of input enhancement and explicit instruction of mitigators	34 Adult ESL learners at the university of Hawai'i
Yoshimi (2001)	study of instructional approaches to facilitate development in the comprehension and production of discourse markers in JFL	Students from three classes of third-year Japanese at the University of Hawai'i (JFL)
Zohreh, et. al. (2004)	Effect of explicit metapragmatic instruction on the speech act awareness of advanced EFL students	66 fourth-year students in the Faculty of Foreign Languages at Isfahan University in Iran
Soler (2005)	Efficacy of pragmatic instruction (request)	132 students in three groups (explicit, implicit and control)
Koike & Pearson (2005)	Effectiveness of teaching pragmatic information through the use of explicit or implicit pre-instruction	99 adult native speakers of English in five groups at the University of Texas at Austin
Takahashi (2005)	Instructional effects in L2 pragmatics (request)	49 Japanese college students in two general English classes

2.3.1 Teachability

A topic attracting increasing attention is whether a particular area of pragmatics is at all teachable. Olshtain and Cohen (1990) conducted a training study to test the efficacy of explicit teaching of the complex features of the speech act of apology in English. Eighteen Hebrew speaking advanced adult learners of English, ten studying in private language schools and eight in a teachers' college and 11 native speakers of American took part in this training program. Five strategies of the speech act of apology: choice of semantic formulas; length of responses; use of intensifiers; judgment of appropriacy; students' preference for certain teaching techniques, were analysed. Two types of instrumentation were used in the study: pre- and post-teaching questionnaires, materials for the teaching of the specific features of apology.

Although it is hard to draw definitive conclusions on the overall efficacy of a teaching program in speech acts, the findings indicate that the fine points of speech behaviour such as (1) types of intensification and downgrading, (2) subtle differences between strategy realisations, and (3) consideration of situational features, can and should be taught in the second and foreign language classroom (Olshtain & Cohen, 1990, p. 57).

This is an interventional study carried out in a foreign language context. Explicit instruction is used in the teaching of the speech act of apology. The scope of the study is limited because of the number of the participants. The instructional period is too short as treatment lengths are 20-minute sessions. It can hardly be considered sufficient for learners to master the more advanced aspects of apologising in English (Kasper & Rose, 2002, p. 253-254).

LoCastro (1997a) designed a nine-week term of an intensive language program. Forty-two Japanese first-year university students at a liberal arts college in Tokyo took part in this language learning program. The purpose was to assess the results of the pedagogical intervention in the acquisition of pragmatic competence by explicit teaching. The author's pedagogical intervention dealt with politeness strategies in the

group discussion, such as requesting answers, directing the talk, and seeking agreement. The results indicated that there was no positive change in the learners' language behaviour after nine weeks of instruction.

There are a number of factors that may have affected the result of the study. Norris and Ortega (2000) pointed out that there was reason to believe that the author's pretest-posttest measures may have contributed to the lack of instructional effects, despite a relatively lengthy instructional period. This finding made perfect sense in light of Bialystok's (1993) notion of control of processing because fluent and appropriate conversational responses required high degrees of processing control in utterance comprehension and production, and such complex skills may be very hard to develop through the few occasions for conversational practice that foreign language classroom learning provides (Tateyama et al., 1997, p. 167).

Liddicoat and Crozet (2001) conducted a study to seek to determine whether discourse rules relating to different degrees of ritualization between two languages could be taught and learned within the context of the foreign language classroom. A group of ten second-year university – level French language students studying in Australia, having completed one year of study of French, were involved in this study. In Australia French is studied as a foreign language and students had little contact with French language and culture outside the classroom. The study was based on students' performance in a role-play task entitled "*Did you have a good weekend?*". Students were pretested, then posttested after a four-phase teacher's instruction of appropriately elaborated responses to the French question "*T'as un bon week-end?*", consisting of awareness-raising, experimentation, production and feedback.

Results of the first posttest showed that the instruction had a greater impact on the overall content of the responses than on use of appropriate interactional devices such as feedback and repetition, that is, all of the content features that were included in the treatment were present in the role play production of most learners, but the instruction

had little impact on the interactive devices. The authors concluded that interactional norms can be acquired even within the confines of a short-term program and consciousness-raising about conversational style and content can lead to changes in learner's language (Liddicoat & Crozet, 2001, p. 143). However, because of the short period of instruction, the argument needs further evidence.

These three studies typically adopt a one-group pretest-posttest design. The type of instruction in the three studies can be considered as explicit. The learning targets include apologies (Olshtain & Cohen, 1990), discourse characteristics (Liddicoat & Crozet, 2001), politeness strategies (LoCastro, 1997). Treatment lengths varied from three 20-minute sessions (Olshtain & Cohen, 1990) to a maximum of instruction spread out over a nine-week period (LoCastro, 1997a). The first- and second-language pairings are different among the three studies: Hebrew-English pairing (Olshtain & Cohen, 1990), Japanese-English pairing (LoCastro, 1997a), and English-French pairing (Liddicoat & Cozet, 2001). Assessment measures also vary from written Discourse completion tests (DCTs) (Olshtain & Cohen, 1990), observation of small group interaction (LoCastro, 1997a), and role-play (Liddicoat & Crozet, 2001). Their results have been mixed. However, together with the other studies (e.g. Kasper, 1997; Kasper & Schmidt, 1996; Rose, 1997a; Kasper & Rose, 2002), the research provides ample evidence demonstrating that pragmatic knowledge can be taught.

2.3.2 Role of instruction

Studies (Bardovi-Harlig, 1996, 2001; Kasper & Rose, 2002; Rose & Kasper, 2001; Kasper, 2001a, 1997; Rose, 2005) show that instruction of pragmatics is necessary in classrooms. Bardovi-Harlig (2001) documents that second language learners who do not receive instruction in pragmatics differ significantly from native speakers in their pragmatic production and comprehension in the target language. It is true that adult learners get a considerable amount of L2 pragmatic knowledge without making an effort because some pragmatic knowledge is universal and other aspects may be successfully transferred from the learners' L1 (Kasper & Rose, 2002, p.4). However it

is known from educational psychology that students do not always transfer available knowledge and strategies to new tasks. Pragmatic transfer sometimes may be negative (Richards & Schmidt, 2003).

Furthermore empirical studies (Olshtain & Cohen, 1990; Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford, 1993; House, 1996; Bardovi-Harlig, 1996; Bardovi-Harlig & Dornyei, 1998; Bouton, 1994a, 1994b) show that native speakers (NSs) and non-native speakers (NNSs) of a given target language have different systems of pragmatics. There are differences between L1 and L2 pragmatics. Many aspects of L2 pragmatics are not acquired without the benefit of instruction, or they are learned more slowly (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001). There is thus a clear role for pedagogical intervention here. Teachers need to provide learners with new pragmatic information, but also make them aware of what they know already and encourage them to use universal or transferable L1 pragmatic knowledge in L2 contexts (Kasper, 1997).

Classrooms essentially offer two kinds of opportunities for learning the pragmatics of a second or foreign language – students may learn as a result of planned pedagogical action directed toward the acquisition of pragmatics, or they may learn from exposure to input and production of output through classroom use of the target language even when pragmatics is not an intended learning target (Kasper & Rose, 2002, p. 237).

Although L2 classrooms often supply little L2 pragmatic input (Vellenga, 2004), different interactional arrangements can provide learners with rich and relevant L2 pragmatic data. As environments for learning L2 pragmatics, language classrooms have some distinct advantages compared to interaction in non-instructional settings. Teachers can explicitly model and guide students in their use of target practices, engage students in awareness-raising activities of L2 pragmatics, and provide feedback on students' productions (House, 1996; Bardovi-Harlig, 1993; Rose & Ng, 2001; Zohreh et al., 2004). Peer activities enable students to collaboratively work on tasks and support each other's development of pragmatic ability through using the

target language and metapragmatic discussion (Kasper & Rose, 2002, p. 233).

2.3.3 Effect of instruction

The research on the effects of instruction in second language pragmatics is a subset of the literature on instructed second language acquisition, but pragmatics as a learning target does not figure prominently in most surveys of this area (Rose, 2005, p. 385). However, there is now a growing body of research which addresses the issue of whether pedagogical intervention in pragmatics contributes to more effective learning than no instruction. Recent classroom research on interlanguage pragmatics has found that, in general, teaching pragmatics is beneficial to second and foreign language learners (Kasper, 1997; Kasper & Rose, 1999). These findings are made largely in the following areas: 1) speech acts (Olshtain & Cohen, 1990; Bardovi-Harlig, 1993; Liddicoat & Crozet, 2001; Rose & Ng, 2001; Zohreh et al., 2004; Soler, 2005; Koike & Pearson, 2005; Takahashi, 2005); 2) pragmatic routines and strategies (House, 1996; Tateyama et al., 1997; Tateyama, 2001; Takahashi, 2001; Yoshimi, 2001); 3) conversational implicatures (Bouton, 1994a; 1994b).

Instruction of speech acts

A speech act is an utterance as a functional unit in communication (Richards et al., 2000, p. 429). There are many different kinds of speech acts, such as requests, orders, complaints, compliments, promises. In language teaching speech acts are often referred to as “functions” or “language functions”. In recent years, teachers have been encouraged to give attention in their instruction to speech acts. Some researchers have conducted studies on the classroom instruction of speech acts (Olshtain & Cohen, 1990; Bardovi-Harlig, 1993; Liddicoat & Crozet, 2001; Rose & Ng, 2001; Zohreh et al., 2004; Soler, 2005; Takahashi, 2005). Speech acts explored in these studies are: 1) compliment (Rose & Ng, 2001), 2) apology (Olshtain & Cohen, 1990; Zohreh et al., 2004), 3) complaint (Zohreh et al., 2004), 4) suggestion and rejection (Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford, 1993; Koike & Pearson, 2005), 5) responding to a question about weekend (Liddicoat & Crozet, 2001), 6) request (Zohreh et al., 2004; Soler, 2005;

Takahashi, 2005).

Rose and Ng (2001) reported the results of a study on the effects of inductive and deductive approaches to instruction in pragmatics with the target features being compliments and compliment responses. University-level learners of English at the City University of Hong Kong and undergraduate students in first-year composition courses at the University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign took part in the study. Data were collected using three instruments: self-assessment questionnaire (SAQ), metapragmatic assessment questionnaire (MAQ), and discourse completion task (DCT). These measures of learner performance were administered in a pretest-posttest design. All three questionnaires incorporated the same eighteen compliment scenarios. The results indicated that instruction in pragmatics could make a difference in a foreign language context, but that a deductive approach may yield better results for both pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics.

In this study, explicit instruction is conducted in a foreign language context. The findings are more reliable due to the use of three instruments. However, if more teaching subjects were included rather than compliments and compliment responses, the results would be more convincing.

Bardovi-Harlig and Harford (1993) reported a study of the change in the performance of speech acts in advanced speakers (NNS) of English. Sixteen graduate students participated in the study. Six were NSs of English and ten were grammatically proficient NNSs of English with TOFEL scores of 537 or higher, representing six language backgrounds: Arabic (1), Catalan/Spanish bilingual (1), Chinese (2), Indonesian (1), Korean (4) and Japanese (1). Seven native English speaking faculty members also took part in the study. These advanced adult non-native speakers of English studied in 35 advising sessions over the course of a semester. These sessions were task-oriented and highly structured. They were taped. Two speech acts, suggestions and rejections, were analyzed with reference to their frequency, form, and

successfulness.

The results of the study were complex. Change in one area was accompanied by concurrent changes in other areas. There were changes in the number and placement of suggestions and the number of rejections. However, NNSs did improve their pragmatic competence at the end of the advising sessions. Students could successfully participate in the building of their schedules; learn to make good suggestions and get them accepted by the advisor; use more suggestions and fewer rejections and become more successful negotiators. As the study lasted one semester, the results are reliable.

Unlike the above two studies which focus on only one speech act, Zohreh et al. (2004) selected the speech acts of request, apology, and complaint as the focus of teaching. The authors aimed to show the effect of explicit metapragmatic instruction on the speech act of comprehension of advanced EFL learners. Sixty-six Iranian undergraduate EFL students at Isfahan University in Iran took part in the study. They were arranged in two groups (one control and one treatment).

The study consisted of two phases: test construction and twelve-week session of explicit metapragmatic instruction. Teacher-fronted discussions, role-play, and other pragmatically oriented tasks were used to help the students comprehend the speech acts. A pretest and posttest control group design was used. The results claimed that explicit metapragmatic instruction facilitated pragmatic development in EFL setting to a considerable degree as the students' comprehension of the speech acts improved a lot.

Compared to Rose and Ng's (2001) and Bardovi-Harlig's (1993) studies, the findings in this study are more conclusive because more speech acts are taught and support the claim that pragmatic development can be improved by explicit instruction in EFL context. Different tasks are used in the study to help develop students' acquisition of pragmatic knowledge. The Iranian setting of the study further supports the argument

that speech acts can be taught by explicit instruction in EFL contexts.

Soler's study (2005) examined the efficacy of pragmatic instruction. It investigated to what extent explicit versus implicit instruction affected learners' knowledge and ability to use request strategies. One hundred and thirty-two students who were in the last year of their secondary education in a state high school in Spain were participants. The students were divided into three groups (44 students per group). The explicit group was provided with a focus on form instruction by means of direct awareness-raising tasks and written metapragmatic feedback on requests. The implicit group received a focus on form instruction on pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic factors involved in requests. The control group did not receive any instruction on requests. Excerpts taken from different episodes of the series *Stargate* were used.

The data from pretest and posttest showed the benefits of instruction on the development of learners' pragmatic competence in requests. Explicit instruction outweighed implicit instruction in teaching requests. This study involved a large number of students, which ensures the reliability of the result.

Similarly, Takahashi (2005) analysed the instructional effects in L2 pragmatics qualitatively by exploring how Japanese EFL learners' noticing of target English request forms was constrained by different kinds of treatment tasks. Forty-nine Japanese college students divided into two general English classes participated in the study. One group was assigned to a form-comparison instructional condition, the other a form-search condition. The findings show that the learners in the form-comparison instructional group noticed much more English request forms than those in the form-search group. If the treatment sessions lasted longer than 4 weeks, the result would be more convincing.

Koike and Pearson (2005) examined the effect of instruction of pragmatic information by teaching Spanish suggestions and suggestion responses to 99 adult native speakers

of English who formed five experimental groups. Explicit or implicit pre-instruction and explicit or implicit feedback were used in the study. They concluded that explicit/implicit instructions and feedback helped develop learners' pragmatic competence.

Similarities and differences can be found in the above studies in terms of speech acts. The subjects are all advanced EFL students who receive explicit instruction in a foreign language context. Pretest and posttest design is used in the studies. However, different speech acts are chosen to teach and the results are mixed.

Instruction of pragmatic routines and strategies

Conversational routines in many cultures are lexicalised and/or grammaticalised. They consist of uttering certain phrases in certain situations, or using certain constructions, which encode certain language-specific interactional meanings. It seems clear that meanings of this kind have to be revealed and described (Wierzbicka, 2003, pp. 131-132). Apart from the studies on speech acts, some studies have been carried out on pragmatic routines and strategies (House, 1996; Tateyama et al., 1997; Tateyama, 2001; Fukuya & Clark, 2001).

House (1996) conducted a longitudinal study of development of pragmatic fluency through instruction and the role of metapragmatic awareness. The purpose is to explore whether pragmatic fluency can be better acquired by advanced adult foreign language learners through input and practice and whether the provision of additional explicit instruction in the functions and use of conversational routines is more profitable for foreign language learning in the classroom. Advanced German university students of English in two randomly selected groups took part in the study. They participated in two different versions (implicit and explicit) of a communication course for one term (14 weeks). Both versions provided rich input of routines involving gambits, discourse strategies, and various speech acts to students through different varieties of role-play. In the explicit version, students received explicit metapragmatic information about the sociopragmatic conditions governing the use of

routines and their pragmatic functions. No metapragmatic information was provided in the implicit version of the course. Three instruments were used in data collection: initial and final informal interviews, extensive audio-recording of learner-learner and learner-NS interactions in the course, and three pragmatic tests.

The findings indicate that both groups improved over the one term's instruction in terms of routine mastery. The explicit group was superior to the implicit group in making requests in the areas of gambits, discourse strategies, and speech acts. The author concluded the acquisition of pragmatic fluency could be improved in certain aspects by consciousness-raising techniques such as giving learners explicit metapragmatic information. However the argument is still challenging and needs further study.

Tateyama et al. (1997) conducted a study of the effectiveness of explicit and implicit approaches to developing pragmatic competence. Fifteen students in an intact class of JPN 101 at the University of Hawai'i participated in one 50-minute class session. They were beginning learners of Japanese as a foreign language (JFL). The class was divided into two groups: an explicit one and implicit one. The learning materials consisted of the functions of the routine formula *sumimasen*. The explicit group was engaged in explicit metapragmatic activities whereas the implicit group was not. The instruments used for data collection were: questionnaire, DCT, written self-reports, role-play, and interview. The authors concluded from this study that the explicit instruction is more effective than the implicit one and some aspects of L2 pragmatics are teachable to beginners of JFL. The combination of consciousness raising and communicative practice is a very useful way to help learners develop their pragmatic competence.

But as this class session only lasted 50 minutes, the practice aspect was not adequately addressed. This is one of the two studies that examine whether pragmatics is teachable to beginners (Tateyama, 2001, p. 200). As it is conducted in a Japanese as

foreign language context, the study again supports the argument that pragmatic knowledge can be taught in EFL context.

In a follow-up study, Tateyama (2001) conducted another study and Tateyama, Kasper, Mui, Tay and Thanamart's study (1997) serves as a pilot for it. There are a number of similarities between these two studies in population, purpose (the latter one has one more purpose of exploring the effect of long-term treatment as compared to short-term treatment), teaching objective (functions of the routine formula *sumimasen*), instruments (questionnaire, DCT, written self-reports, role play, and interview), context (JFL), and teaching approach (explicit). However, differences also exist in duration of the session, number of participants, ways of data analysis, and findings.

In Tateyama's (2001) study, two classes were taught, one class (13 students) taught during the fall semester of 1996 serving as the explicit group; the one taught (14 students) during the spring semester of 1997 serving as the implicit group. The teaching sessions last eight weeks. Data were analysed both quantitatively and qualitatively. The results show that there was no statistically significant difference between the two groups in the multiple-choice and role-play tasks. However close examination of the errors in the multiple-choice tasks indicates that the participants in the explicit group were more successful. It seems that these participants benefited from explicit teaching, which suggests that some aspects of interlanguage pragmatics are teachable to beginners (Rose & Kasper, 2001, p.123). More participants are involved and more instruments are used in the study which makes the results more reliable.

Takahashi (2001) explored the effects of input enhancement on the development of English request strategies. One hundred and thirty-eight Japanese college EFL learners majoring in science took part in the treatment sessions that were offered over 4 weeks (90 minutes per week). The treatment sessions were carried out in general

English classes. Four input conditions were set up: explicit teaching, form comparison, form search, and meaning focused conditions. A quasi-experimental, pretest/posttest design was adopted. Questionnaires, discourse completion tests and written retrospection were used for data collection: both quantitative and qualitative analyses were made.

The findings show that the target pragmatic features were most effectively learned under the condition in which a relatively high degree of input enhancement was realised with explicit instruction of metapragmatic information. The degrees of input enhancement influenced the acquisition of request forms. The author concluded that providing metapragmatic information on the target features is most likely to advance the learners' L2 pragmatic competence (Takahashi, 2001, p. 198) and enhance their confidence in performance.

This study had a bigger sample of participants. Like the studies conducted by House (1996), Tateyama et al. (1997) and Tateyama (2001), Takahashi's study (2001) also evidences the superior effect of explicit metapragmatic instruction (the explicit group) to instruction without providing such metapragmatic information (the implicit group). More tasks are conducted in this study which supports the argument that tasks play a very important role in helping learners enhance their pragmatic competence.

Yoshimi (2001) conducted a survey in JFL (Japanese as foreign language) context. He attempted to determine whether an explicit instructional approach with expanded opportunities for communicative practice and feedback can facilitate learners' development of the target-like use of Japanese discourse markers in the production of extended telling. Students from three classes of third-year Japanese at the University of Hawai'i were involved. They form two groups: one intact class of five students was designated as the experimental group; twelve from the other two classes as the control group. A pretest/posttest, experimental group design was used and a story telling task was administered as a pretest and posttest to all participants.

The result is that despite the explicit instructional focus on discourse markers, the extensive NS input, and the structured opportunities for learner production, learner use of the target discourse markers in extended turns at talk was extremely limited in a number of ways (Rose & Kasper, 2001, p. 123).

The findings from this study imply that explicit instruction is not effective in facilitating learners' development of Japanese discourse markers. That is to say, not all the aspects and features of pragmatics can be taught explicitly which is a challenge to teach pragmatic knowledge. More research in this aspect is needed.

Fukuya and Clark (2001) compared the efficacy of two forms of teaching paradigm: Focus on FormS and Focus on Form. They intended to determine to what extent does input enhancement (Focus on Form) affect learners' ability to recognise the appropriate use of a mitigator, and to what extent does explicit instruction (Focus on FormS) affect learners' ability to recognise appropriate use of a mitigator. Mitigators are pragmalinguistic items that soften the impositional force of a request by means of lexical and phrasal modification (Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper, 1989).

Thirty-four students enrolled at three language schools at the University of Hawai'i took part in the study. They were divided into three groups: experimental group receiving explicit instruction (Focus on FormS); experimental group receiving input enhancement (Focus on Form); and control group. Focus on Form group watched a videotape that contained typographical enhancement of mitigators in captions; Form on FormS group watched a videotape that gave the participants explicit instruction on mitigators; the control group watched a different videotape that did not show any requests. Two instruments (listening comprehension test and pragmatic multiple-choice test) were used.

The findings are not encouraging. They show that there are no significant differences

between the two groups (Focus on FormS and Focus on Form) in terms of their general listening comprehension ability as the result of a random assignment; there were no significant differences among the three groups in terms of their pragmatic ability after the participants watched the videos. The author argues that the brevity of treatment (48-minute video), combined with weak statistical power (sample size of 32) made statistically significant results unlikely in this study (Fukuya & Clark, 2001, p. 123). The findings are still disputable and more evidence is needed.

Conversational implicatures

Conversational implicature refers to the use of conversational maxims to imply meaning during conversation (Richards et al., 2000, p.107). Conversational implicature can only be understood in the context of the particular utterance.

e.g. *A: I finished writing all the Christmas cards.*

B: The stamps are in the drawer.

A could be expressing great relief or even pleasure with having finished this annual task. Then *B* provides useful information about the stamps, possibly signaling that *A* can stick them on the envelopes and conveying *B*'s desire not to do it (LoCastro, 2003, pp. 139-140). Green considered it as "an absolutely unremarkable and ordinary conversational strategy" (Green, 1989). So it is a part of any proficient speaker's communicative competence (Bouton, 1994b).

However, other studies indicate that differences exist in the way people from one culture or another perceive the various aspects of the conversational context (Bouton, 1994b, p. 89). Non-native speakers interpret implicatures in American English differently from native speakers (Bouton, 1990, 1992).

Bouton (1994a, 1994b) conducted two studies with two different purposes. In the former study, the author investigated the possibility that NNS learn to use implicatures with little or no direct instruction. Two groups of international students at

an American university took part in it. Subjects took part in IMPLC (implicature test) in 1986 and retested on the same 20 items on IMPLC in 1991. The comparison between the scores of the two tests indicates that although NNS interpreted implicatures differently from NS when they arrived on an American university campus in 1986, those differences had greatly diminished after four and a half years. The author argued that if NNS are given opportunities to live in an English-speaking community long enough (for example four and a half years), NNS would have no difficulties in understanding implicatures, hence improve their proficiency.

Although the findings are very encouraging, there is a question of the length of staying in an English-speaking community. For many EFL learners it is almost impossible for them to have any opportunity to learn English in an English-speaking community. Therefore this is not a practical way to help EFL learners improve their pragmatic competence.

Bouton (1994b) conducted a pilot study to determine to what extent explicit classroom instruction can enhance a learner's ability to interpret implicatures in American English as the native speakers do in ESL classroom. International students from various departments at the University of Illinois took part in the study. They were arranged in two groups: experimental group and control group. The experimental group was given the explicit instruction involving: introduction of implicature items, finding examples, explaining how they work in different contexts and practising using implicature in appropriate situations. Implicature items: the POPE Q implicature; indirect criticism; irony; relevance, and sequence are compared.

The results show that explicit classroom instruction can enhance a learner's ability to interpret implicatures in American English as the native speakers do in ESL classrooms. The experimental group made significant improvement. The control group did not significantly change in their performance. Some types of implicature seem to be more amenable to the instructional approach, such as formulaic

implicatures. The author concluded that it would seem that helping NNS learn to interpret and use the various types of implicature that we can teach successfully should be an integral part of an ESL program (Bouton, 1994b, p. 106). However the findings are challenging and more research is needed in terms of the range of teaching conversation implicatures.

Summary of the findings and arguments

A summary of major findings of the above studies is as follows:

- Most pragmatic features such as speech acts, conversational implicature, pragmatics routines and strategies, and metapragmatic information are teachable (Olshtain & Cohen, 1990; Liddicoat & Crozet, 2001; Rose et al., 2001; Soler, 2005; Koike & Pearson, 2005; Takahashi, 2005). However, not all pragmatic features can be taught explicitly (LoCastro, 1997a; Yoshimi, 2001; Bouton, 1994a).
- Pedagogical intervention has at least an important facilitative role in developing learners' pragmatic competence (Rose, 2005; Koike & Pearson, 2005).
- Explicit instruction is necessary and yields better results than implicit teaching (Rose et al., 2001; Bardovi-Harlig, 1993; Zohreh et al., 2004; House, 1996; Tateyama et al., 1997; Tateyama, 2001; Takahashi, 2001, 2005; Bouton, 1994b).
- The instruction of pragmatic routines, strategies, and metapragmatic instruction can improve learners' pragmatic competence (Zohreh et al., 2004; House, 1996; Tateyama et al., 1997; Tateyama, 2001; Takahashi, 2001, 2005; Yoshimi, 2001).
- Pragmatically oriented tasks (e.g. role-play), and consciousness-raising can enhance learners' pragmatic competence (House, 1996; Tateyama et al., 1997).
- Different teaching approaches have different effects in terms of different pragmatic knowledge (Liddicoat & Crozet, 2001; Rose & Kasper,

2001).

--- It is also necessary to teach learners of high grammatical proficiency pragmatic knowledge because even grammatically advanced learners may use language inappropriately and show differences from target-language pragmatic norms (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001; Kasper, 1997).

Literature on pragmatics in language teaching has indicated that it is necessary to help learners develop their pragmatic competence with explicit instruction of pragmatics, especially for EFL learners, as the classroom is the main place to get input. Results of the above studies are encouraging, but more research focusing on different populations, contexts, and aspects, using different research instruments are much desired.

2.4 Research on pragmatics in ESL/EFL materials development: past studies

Language teaching has placed its focus on the facilitation of learners' communicative competence. In the traditional approach to language teaching such as the grammar-translation approach, the acquisition of linguistic knowledge - vocabulary, pronunciation, and syntax - is emphasised. However, it is now reconsidered as only a partial account of the knowledge required to use a language. The knowledge of the rules of language use and communicatively appropriate performance (communicative competence) is now thought to be a large part of language learning (Schmidt & Richards, 1980, cited in Schmidt, 1994). Without knowledge of the target language's rules of usage, language learners have great difficulty in acquiring the appropriate ways to communicate language functions. One of the means that assist the development of L2 learners' pragmatic competence is textbook input (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001).

Textbooks, without question, are among the most important components of any educational system. Research in many countries and in different contexts has shown that textbooks have an important influence on teaching and learning (Altbach, 1991,

pp. 237-254). They play an important role in English Language Teaching (ELT), particularly in EFL classroom where it provides the primary (perhaps only) form of linguistic input (Kim & Hall, 2002). The studies listed in Table 2.3 are some of the studies on pragmatics in EFL/ESL materials development. They are reviewed in detail in the following. The review consists of four sections: 1) authenticity in textbooks, 2) presentation of speech acts in textbooks, 3) pragmatic knowledge in textbooks, and 4) effect of pragmatic input on the development of pragmatic competence.

2.4.1 Authenticity of textbooks

The term 'authentic' has been used as a reaction against the prefabricated artificial language of textbooks and instructional dialogues. Kramersch defines it as the way language is used in non-pedagogic, natural communication (Kramersch, 1993). An authentic text is a text that was created to fulfill some social purpose in the language community in which it was produced (Little & Singleton, 1988, p. 21). Authentic texts in the written form require readers to adopt the communicative reading strategies of native speakers: skim and scan for desired information, capitalise on the natural redundancy of a text and get clues from its context, recognise authorial intention and act upon it. Authentic texts as spoken exchanges require participants to respond with behaviours socially appropriate to the status of the interlocutors, the purpose, the setting, key, genre, and instrumentalities of the exchange, and the norms of interaction agreed upon by native speakers (Kramersch, 1993, pp. 178-179).

Without doubt, the main goal of most modern language teaching is to enable learners to function outside the classroom, using language to achieve goals such as communicating, working, and pursuing education. Littlewood (2007) indicated that:

“...what we are trying to achieve with classroom materials...is to produce learners who are able to communicate effectively in the target language of a particular speech community, that is to say, learners who are communicatively competent.” (ibid, p. 98)

Table 2.3: Studies on pragmatics in ESL/EFL materials development

Source	focus	context
Scotton & Bernsten (1988)	Natural conversations as a model for textbook dialogue	216 American students, 20 international students of Michigan State University in USA. (the Michigan State University campus, post office, graduate university dormitory information desk, McDonalds restaurant, Waffle House restaurant)
Bardovi-Harlig et. al. (1991)	Developing pragmatic awareness: closing the conversation	Twenty current ESL textbooks which contain dialogues
Kaplan & Knutson (1993)	Discourse competence and the foreign language textbooks	Eight widely used elementary and intermediate French textbooks
Schmidt (1994)	Authenticity in ESL: a study of requests	Four ESL textbooks
Boxer & Pickering (1995)	Problems in the presentation of speech acts of complaint in ELT materials	Seven ELT textbooks that teach functions, four from the US and three from Britain
LoCastro (1997b)	Politeness and pragmatic competence in foreign language education	17 Ministry of Education-approved textbooks of senior high school English
Cane (1998)	Teaching conversation skills more effectively	Some EFL textbooks
Berry(2000)	Effect of “youser-friendly” metalanguage on learners of English	258 first-year undergraduates studying for a degree in Business Administration at Lingnan College, Hong Kong.

Park, Chang, & Lee (2000)	Non-native speakers' performance of apology and compliments: what can they learn from EFL textbooks?	eight EFL middle school textbooks published in Korea and used across the nation
Grant & Starks (2001)	Focus on screening appropriate teaching materials by comparing closings of conversations from textbooks and television soap operas	Twenty-three ESL/EFL textbooks related to teaching functions/conversation/speaking skills; fifty episodes of the New Zealand week night soap opera Shortland Street
Wong (2002)	Evaluating dialogues in ESL textbooks by using findings in conversation analysis research	Eight ESL textbooks
Kim & Hall (2002)	role of interactive book reading program in the development of second language pragmatic competence	Four native Korean-speaking children who learn English as foreign language
Vellenga (2004)	amount and quality of pragmatic information encompassed in both the ESL and EFL textbooks.	eight ESL and EFL textbooks; four teachers with both ESL and EFL teaching experience
Gilmore (2004)	Comparison between discourse features of textbook dialogues with its authentic equivalents	Eight English textbooks

However, a common criticism of current methods is that students often have trouble transferring skills and knowledge taught in the classroom into the outside world (Schmidt, 1994). Although most ESL professionals have adopted a preference for authentic materials and presenting language from natural texts rather than made-up examples (Biber & Rippen, 2002, p.200), a worldwide survey of textbooks would generate numerous examples of inadequate materials, which put teachers and learners at a disadvantage in pragmatic development, particularly in foreign language acquisition settings (LoCastro, 2003, p. 263).

Textbook authors write their textbooks according to their intuition of how language is used (Dubin, 1995; Biber & Rippen, 2002). Unfortunately, their intuitions about language use are often wrong. Bouton (1994a) showed that 80% of the invitations in one ESL textbook used a form of invitation, which appeared only 26% of the time in a published corpus on native-speaker invitations. As a result, teaching and assessment materials often fail to provide an accurate reflection of the language actually used by speakers and writers in natural situations. The language classrooms lack “reality and credibility” (Biber & Rippen, 2002, p.200). Similar findings emerge from the following research on EFL/ESL textbooks.

Scotton and Bernsten (1988) investigated the natural data from two types of conversational exchanges in American English: direction-giving and making requests in service encounters and compared them with textbook conversations. Their work consists of two studies. One is the study of direction-giving conducted on the Michigan State University campus. Two hundred and sixteen students were asked the same question “*How do I get to the Vet Clinic from here?*” in the same location and the students' response and the overall structure of the exchange are studied. The other is the study of making requests in service encounters. Both native speakers of American English and international students are involved. The directive types they used in different places (post-office, undergraduate university dormitory information desk, two fast food restaurants) are studied.

The findings of the two studies for TESOL indicate that natural conversations are more complex and variable across situations than many textbook dialogues. Naturally occurring dialogues are considerably different from textbook dialogues. Naturally occurring direction-giving typically consists of several parts: an opening sequence, the directions themselves, a pre-closing, and possibly a closing, whereas most textbook direction-giving dialogues only contain three parts: a request for directions, a set of directions as the response, and a statement of thanks from the direction-seeker. Natural non-fluencies feature in the exchange. Fillers or pauses are used in the natural exchange.

The findings also claim that expected choices of linguistic forms exist for service encounters. The same form is not favoured for all service encounters. The authors point out that international students need to know the full array of directive forms, but also should know the unmarked usage of each form. The authors argue that unless classroom materials contain the interactional and peripheral parts characteristic of real direction-giving, the learner will have little chance to develop selective listening skills. Also, unless classroom directive exercises pay attentions to what form is unmarked for what situation, the learner may use syntactically well-formed directives in marked ways (Scotton & Bernsten, 1988, p. 372).

The comparison between real conversations and textbook conversations only focused on two conversation exchanges: direction-giving and making requests in service encounters. It was conducted in one American university. And the sampling of the participants was limited. Thus its validity seems to be questionable. Besides, the number of ESL textbooks examined is not mentioned.

Like Scotton and Bernsten (1988), Schmidt (1994) conducted a survey on authenticity in a similar way. He made a comparison between real request utterances and the request forms presented in ESL textbooks. The purpose is to determine whether the language models provided in ESL textbooks accurately reflect authentic language use. The real request utterances used at service counters are collected at Southern Illinois

University.

The data were obtained systematically by writing down all identifiable requests as they occurred. One hundred and twenty utterances were collected during the period of October 1993 to February 1994. At the same time four ESL textbooks that emphasize communicative competence were examined. All data were transcribed and categorized following the system of Scotton and Bernsten (1988). Seven types of request used in this study are: need statements; mitigated need; statements' imperatives; imbedded imperatives; permission directives; question directives; hints.

The findings indicate that native speakers and non-native speakers differ in their use of requests. Native speakers used question directives (e.g. *Is there a list of advisors for this semester?* (Schmidt, 1994, p.25)) significantly more than the other request types. Among all the request types, 33.3% are question directives. Non-native speakers use question directives and permission directives equally (27.4%) (e.g. Question directive: *Do you have a VCR by any chance?* (Schmidt, 1994, p. 29); Permission directive: *Can I have the conference room key?* (Schmidt, 1994, p. 32)).

Results from the examination of the four textbooks reveal that a wide range of request types used in authentic communication was seldom entailed in the textbooks and there was not enough clear explanation of variables affecting the choice of request types. In the textbooks, the types of request were limited and the request forms presented in the textbooks are not the most common ones in real language use. It is suggested that if the primary goal of language learning is to enable learners to function outside the classrooms as effectively and efficiently as possible, teaching materials should reflect what goes on in the real world, preparing learners as much as possible to deal with real language, even at a low level (Schmidt, 1994, p. 41). This argument will be further discussed in the present research.

Schmidt's study follows the model of Scotton and Bernsten (1988) and further confirms their findings. The criteria for how to present utterances in ESL/EFL

textbooks are called into question.

The subjects of comparison are limited in the previous two studies with focus on dialogues of direction-giving and making requests. To make the findings more plausible and convincing, more comparisons are made in different types of conversations with different focus.

Wong (2002) compared the telephone dialogues in ESL textbooks with what is reported about real telephone interaction in conversation analysis research. The purpose is to find out whether textbook telephone conversations match naturally occurring language. A corpus of thirty dialogues taken from eight ESL textbooks published in 1990s are analysed with the focus on the openings of telephone dialogues.

Schegloff's (1986, 1993) framework of analyzing the beginnings of telephone dialogues is applied in this study. According to Schegloff (1986), four basic actions, that is, four sequence types, typically occur in naturally occurring telephone openings: summon-answer, identification-recognition, greeting and "how are you". The findings indicate that the match between ESL textbook telephone dialogues and naturally occurring ones is unsatisfactory. None of the thirty openings contained all four of the canonical sequence types of real telephone interaction. The four basic sequence types are absent, incomplete, or problematic in the textbook telephone conversations. The paper also reaffirms the notion that the language of the textbook is frequently reflective of a "can do" society (McCarthy & Carter, 1994, p. 69). The author argues that as one of the goals of language education is to teach our students to be communicatively competent (Hymes, 1967), textbook writers are suggested to use authentic spoken language data for the development of language teaching materials (Burns, 1998; Carter & McCarthy, 1996; Scotton & Bernstein, 1988).

Only the openings of telephone dialogues as opposed to the other parts are compared. It would be more interesting to involve other parts such as closings, content, etc.

However more ESL textbooks are examined in this study than the previous ones.

Gilmore (2004) investigated seven “service encounter” dialogues taken from textbooks and compared them with their authentic equivalents to find out how artificial the dialogues in the textbooks have been, and what is it that makes them less real. The transcripts were taken from the textbooks. The dialogues were recorded, transcribed, and a comparison was made in terms of discourse features: length and turn-taking patterns, lexical density, number of false starts and repetitions, pausing, frequency of terminal overlap or latching, and the use of hesitation devices and back-channelling.

The findings reveal that there are considerable differences between textbook dialogues and their authentic equivalents. For example, conversations in the authentic dialogues were twice as long as those of their textbook equivalents on average. False starts and repetitions occur frequently in the authentic data but rarely in the textbook dialogues. Pauses are very common in the real dialogues, whereas rare in the textbook dialogues. The author argues that learners have to be shown the true nature of conversation so that they can use L2 well outside the classroom. As Carter and McCarthy (1996) put it:

“We know from our own knowledge of our first language that in most textbook discourse we are getting something which is concocted for us and may therefore rightly resent being disempowered by teachers or materials writers who, on apparently laudable grounds, appear to know better. Information or knowledge about language should never be held back; the task is to make it available, without artificial restrictions, in ways which most answer learners' needs”(ibid, p. 370).

All these studies reveal that there are clear differences between actual language use and what is presented in ESL textbooks for learners. Despite the fact that more than two decades have passed since Widdowson (1972) pointed out that there was a need to take discourse into consideration in language teaching, there continues to be a substantial mismatch between what tends to be presented to learners as classroom

experiences of the target language and the actual use of that language as discourse outside the classroom (Yule, 1995, p. 185). Learners may not benefit from language learning classrooms unless ESL textbooks present what they can transfer to authentic situations (Schmidt, 1994, p. 20).

2.4.2 Presentation of speech acts in textbooks

Communicative language teaching has emphasised the importance of “real communication” and “authentic” teaching materials (cf. McDonough & Shaw, 1993). Since the majority of currently available materials draw extensively on models of grammar, which are rooted in descriptions of written English (Burns, 1998, p. 105), it is hard to find authentic spoken interaction in teaching materials. Studies have highlighted a number of problematic areas involving ELT materials in the presentation of speech acts of closing of conversation, complaint, apology, compliments and requests (Boxer & Pickering, 1995; Burns, 1998; Park et al., 2000; Bardovi-Harlig et al., 1991; Grant & Starks, 2001; Cane, 1998).

Boxer and Pickering (1995) examined seven ELT textbooks that were popular for teaching functions. Four were American textbooks: *Say it Naturally: Verbal Strategies for Authentic Communication* (Wall, 1987), *Speaking Naturally* (Tillit & Bruder, 1985), *Expressways* (Molinsky & Bliss, 1986), and *The Culture Puzzle* (Levine, Baxter, & McNulty, 1987); and three were British: *Functions of English* (Jones, 1981), *Meanings into Words* (Doff, Jones, & Mitchell, 1984), and *Cambridge Advanced English* (Jones, 1991). The purpose was to explicate some problems in the presentation of speech acts in ELT textbooks. The analysis focused on the specific speech act of complaint/commiseration.

The findings pointed out that the majority of the material focusing on the teaching of complaining dealt with direct rather than indirect complaining. Explicit rather than tacit knowledge of how we speak was wrongly emphasised. A mismatch existed between data from spontaneous speech and data that were contrived through native

speaker intuitions of textbook developers. Important information on underlying social strategies of speech acts was often neglected entirely. It was pointed out that many ELT texts that were currently popular for the teaching of functions continued to concentrate on the acquisition of linguistic competence, with insufficient attention to a fuller communicative competence (Boxer & Pickering, 1995, pp. 52-56).

The authors put forward a suggested lesson plan for indirect complaints which was based on spontaneous data from face-to-face interaction in a US university speech community. The purpose was to help learners know how to realise the speech act itself; what speakers' intentions are in their use of the speech act; how to respond appropriately; how to maintain cohesion and coherence in their part of the conversation, and how to keep the conversation flowing when their linguistic resources fail them. It concluded that "only through materials that reflect how we really speak, rather than how we think we speak, will language learners receive an accurate account of the rules of speaking in a second or foreign language" (Boxer & Pickering, 1995, pp. 52-56).

In this study seven ELT textbooks for adult ESL-EFL classes examined are published in America and Britain. The sample of texts is small and the analysis focuses on the pragmatics of one speech act of complaint. However, a lesson plan is suggested which sheds some light on how to present speech acts in textbooks pragmatically.

Burns (1998) presented an influential review of the nature and scope of current teaching materials that was considered in terms of the kinds of representations of spoken interaction they portray. It was reported that representations of authentic spoken interaction in teaching materials were generally hard to find. Textbook writers produced materials on their intuitions, hence "deauthenticate" speech. And many classroom materials designed for the teaching of speaking failed to provide second language speakers with depictions of conversational data or with effective strategies for facilitating spoken communication in English (Burns, 1998, p. 106).

In a separate study, Park Kyung-Ja, Chang Bok-Myung, Lee Jaekeun, and Ko Insung (2000) explored the two speech acts of compliments and apologies in eight EFL middle school textbooks published in Korea and used across the nation. They aimed to find out the presence of speech acts of compliments and apology and how EFL textbooks writers present and incorporate them for Korean middle school learners of English in their textbooks and to make some suggestions about what can be done to help students develop their pragmatic competence. Data analysis of compliments and apology was conducted by examining: vocabulary, sentence pattern, speech act strategy, and response strategy. The findings show that the speech act situations of compliment and apology seem to be limited in the textbooks and there is little variation according to grade. The authors concluded:

“...that more variety concerning how speech acts are presented in textbooks is needed so learners can acquire socio-pragmatic competence in a wider context; awareness of socio-cultural differences in the use of speech acts in L1 and L2 should be emphasized and enhanced; appropriateness of speech acts and responses needs to be taught so learners can make the appropriate choices according to situational contexts” (Park et al., 2000, p. 229).

The context of this study is different from the above studies. Eight EFL middle school textbooks published in Korea are examined. Quantitative data are collected and frequency analysis is conducted. Two speech acts of compliment and apology are analysed. All these make the findings more reliable.

Bardovi-Harlig et al. (1991) surveyed the presentation of closings by twenty current ESL textbooks that contain dialogues. Their purpose was to examine how these textbooks present the closings of conversations. The findings showed that only twelve textbooks included complete closings represented in at least one of the dialogues, and very few did so on a consistent basis (Bardovi-Harlig et al., 1991, p. 8). Most of the dialogues aimed at introducing a new grammatical structure rather than providing a source for realistic, natural, or even pragmatically appropriate conversational input to

learners. As teaching pragmatics empowers students to experience and experiment with the language at a deeper level - communication, rather than just words (Bardovi-Harlig et al., 1991, p.13), the paper argued that the role of pragmatics should be increased in English language instruction, and teachers should have the responsibilities to teach students not only the structural aspects of the language, but also the pragmatics as well. Five steps for integrating pragmatics into the language classroom were suggested.

More textbooks were examined in this research, and the sampling of the textbooks is one of the largest among all the studies reviewed for this thesis. However only ESL textbooks were analysed with a focus on the closings of conversations.

Similarly Grant and Starks (2001) explored the closings of conversations to show that scripted conversations from textbooks fail to replicate natural conversation (Bardovi-Harlig et al., 1991; Burns et al., 1996; Myers & Bernstein, 1985). But unlike Bardovi-Harlig et al. (1991) this paper determined the usefulness of soap opera language in the teaching of conversation to ESL and EFL learners. By using Schegloff and Sacks' (1973) description of native speaker conversational closings as a framework (Closings were divided into pre-closings and terminal exchanges.), the study analysed conversational closings from twenty-three ESL/EFL textbooks related to teaching functions/conversations/speaking skills and fifty episodes containing 1557 conversations of the New Zealand soap opera *Shortland Street*. Results indicated that a large number of the textbooks failed to provide examples of conversation closings, while those that did, tended to follow one simple type which made reference to time or the reason for leaving (e.g. *Eleven o'clock already, I really must go.*). The vocabulary of terminal exchanges in most textbook conversations was restrictive (such as "goodbye/bye", or "see you later").

Furthermore textbook conversational closings overlooked multiple participants or people leaving or joining a topic part way through and lacked informal terminal exchanges common in daily conversation (such as "Catch you later"). On the

contrary, television materials such as soap opera appeared to make ideal materials for language teaching. The authors reported that the majority of the conversations in soap operas were complete. There were a variety of terminal exchanges used in soap opera conversations (*Ciao; Spot you; See you around, etc.*). The structure of the conversations was also better than that in the textbook conversations. Most of soap opera conversations closed with a pre-closing and a terminal exchange. The authors concluded that:

“...while soap operas do not always provide examples of complete conversations, they do provide examples of a variety of functional conversational English that is considered both “natural” and appropriate by the viewing audience...there are some good examples of appropriate pragmatic ways to end conversations...An additional advantage soap opera materials bring is the contextualisation of closings including the use of body language” (Grant & Starks, 2001, p. 49).

Both ESL and EFL textbooks were examined and more textbooks (twenty three) were included in this study, which makes the findings more generalized. The study implied that language teachers should take into consideration using appropriate screened conversational data from television programs to help their students learn various aspects of the target language and culture, which is very useful for teaching pragmatics in EFL language learning environment.

Cane (1998) examined several EFL textbooks in terms of teaching conversations to find out how conversation skills were presented in EFL textbooks and courses and to suggest some alternative sources and approaches in teaching these skills. The author argued that most EFL textbooks did not provide language teachers with the information and materials they need to help learners obtain communicative competence. Although conversation analysts have pointed out the differences between speech and writing in terms of linguistic forms and discourse organisation, textbook writers still use written texts to teach conversation skills and ignore the mismatch between spoken conversation involving multi-sensory communication and writing

involving a single sense (Cane, 1998, p. 32).

According to McLuhan (Miller, 1971), in spoken conversation, we are placed in a situation that calls many of our senses into play, and we use these senses to help us interpret a speaker's message. With a written text, however, the medium is exclusively visual and a completely different process of comprehension is at work. As a result, to try to represent multi-sensory speech on a single-sensory written page is likely to create serious communication problems (Cane, 1998, p. 33). The study also suggested that teachers should use a more direct, more linguistically aware approach to teaching the communicative strategies and formulas used by native speakers as the indirect approach was less effective than a direct approach which provides explicit language strategies and input required for fluent conversation. Video and audio materials were suggested to use in classroom instruction to provide direct language input in the conversation class.

In this study the details of EFL textbooks examined were not provided and the number of the textbooks surveyed was small.

2.4.3 Pragmatic knowledge contained in textbooks

Studies indicate that textbook input plays an important role in the development of L2 learners' pragmatic competence (LoCastro, 2003; Kim & Hall, 2002). However, what and how much pragmatic knowledge is contained in ESL/EFL textbooks? The following studies will cast some light on this issue.

Politeness is one aspect of pragmatic knowledge. Literature review on the use of politeness which is defined as situationally appropriate language (Thomas, 1995; Grundy, 1995) reveals that Japanese speakers of English have low pragmatic competence. Some Japanese speakers of English seldom use linguistic politeness forms in the speech. As it is possible that the learning materials Japanese students used in secondary school EFL had an influence on their ability to use politeness markers in their L2, LoCastro examined 17 Ministry of Education-approved textbooks

of senior high school English.

The purpose was to find out whether the textbooks entailed the resources of politeness and helped students develop their pragmatic competence to carry out linguistic etiquette. Several features which are formal, linguistic markers of politeness drawn from Lakoff (1972), Carrell and Konneker (1981), and Blum-Kulka et al. (1989) were used as a baseline for the textbook analysis (Lexical: *please, gladly, be happy to, etc.*, forms of address; syntactic/semantic: *tags, negation, sentence type, modals, and tense*). The author argued that there is a noticeable absence of politeness in the textbooks and suggested five possible explanations for the absence of politeness, hence hoping to raise the teachers' awareness of politeness of pragmatic competence.

This study used data exclusively collected in Japan. The analysed textbooks were EFL textbooks for senior high school English learners in Japan. Quantitative data were analysed and only one aspect of pragmatic knowledge (politeness) was explored. More research on other aspects of pragmatic knowledge is desired.

Vellenga (2004) studied four single ESL and four single EFL textbooks for university-aged adult students written by native speakers to find out the amount and quality of pragmatic information encompassed in both the ESL and EFL textbooks. He examined eight textbooks in terms of the general pragmatic information, the use of metalanguage, treatment of speech acts (such as requests, apologies, etc.), and metapragmatic information (including register illocutionary force, politeness, appropriacy and usage). He interviewed four teachers with both ESL and EFL teaching experience via email and on telephone to find how teachers use the textbooks in the classroom. Through qualitative and quantitative textual analysis, Vellenga indicated that textbooks contained a paucity of explicit metapragmatic information. He reported:

“Although the amount of pragmatic information is small across all texts, a larger percentage of pages of EFL texts are comprised of pragmatic

information; however, the quality of pragmatic information is better in terms of number of speech acts presented and amount of metapragmatic cues in ESL text. However, even when metapragmatic information is included, it is frequently limited in the range of options for expression presented to students. Findings in interviewing the teachers show that teacher seldom use supplementary material related to pragmatics” (Vellenga, 2004, p. 17).

This study presents a broad definition of pragmatic information and clarifies what pragmatic knowledge consists of, which might provide some help in analyzing pragmatic knowledge for other research. However single text analysis is conducted rather than series of textbooks. Two instruments (content analysis and interview) are used, but teachers are interviewed only via email and on telephone and the conclusion is based on their self-report. All these will affect the validity of the arguments. Although the amount of the pragmatic information in the textbooks is counted by pages, which is not accurate, this is an effective and manageable way.

2.4.4 Effect of pragmatic input on the development of learners' pragmatic competence

The following studies discuss the effect of pragmatic input on the development of learners' pragmatic competence.

Kaplan and Knutson (1993) discussed how discourse helps facilitate oral proficiency, and determine how discourse is addressed in textbooks. Discourse competence is the ability to produce and understand those features of extended speech or writing which facilitate connectedness and cohesion, whether in non-interactive report/monologue or in interactive conversation (Kaplan & Knutson, 1993, p. 167). This is one very important aspect of effective communication. And discourse refers to language beyond the sentence level in a broad sense (Brown & Yule, 1983, p.191). Five beginning and three intermediate level French textbooks were examined with focus on speaking and listening skills. Explicit claims and implicit assumptions about discourse

reflected in grammar explanations, oral exercises, and samples of text were analysed.

The study showed that although all the reviewed textbooks emphasised the importance of proficiency, communicative language use and related concepts such as interaction, strategic competence, socio-linguistic appropriateness, and authentic language, teaching discourse competence was limited in the textbooks because textbooks tended to be production-oriented rather than reception-oriented and sentence-based. Textbooks gave priorities to structure and syntax. But at the same time, in exercises students were asked to use language effectively beyond sentence level. In other words, students were asked to produce oral texts on the basis of little textual input. The authors suggested that textbooks should provide longer samples of authentic text for purposes of analysis rather than rehearsed production (Kaplan & Knutson, 1993, p. 173).

In this study both elementary and intermediate French textbooks were examined with focus on speaking and listening skills. The inclusion of two levels of textbooks makes the findings more reliable.

Berry (2000) reported an experiment in which 258 first-year undergraduates studying for a degree in Business Administration at Lingnan College, Hong Kong were involved. These students were divided into three groups and given three different texts describing the same area of English usage and a test on the area. The texts were taken from a book written by the author (Berry, 1993, pp, 51-52). They aimed at questioning whether user-friendly metalanguage could help English learners understand grammar reference materials more easily. The author defined metalanguage as language writers use of lexical and grammatical descriptions and explanations (Berry, 2000, p. 195). The features of user-friendly metalanguage were the use of full sentences and the use of active and personal constructions (for example, *you*). Some tentative conclusions were drawn from the experiment:

“[T]he style of metalanguage is relevant to the effectiveness of grammar

reference materials; a consistent style, whether it is impersonal or user-friendly, is preferable to a mixed one” (Berry, 2000, p. 205).

A quantitative approach alone was used in this study. One aspect of metalanguage - user-friendly metalanguage was explored and the context of the study was in Hong Kong. Actually, a more detailed study should be conducted in order to test the effectiveness of a certain style of metalanguage.

L2 learner participation in interactive book reading programs helps learners to develop their vocabulary and general oral language skills (Cho & Krashen, 1994).

Kim and Hall (2002) explored the use of this approach to facilitating the development of native Korean-speaking children's pragmatic competence in English. Four native-Korean-speaking children who were learning EFL took part in the study. Seven books describing the context of school in the United States written by Miriam Cohen were chosen to be used in the study. Kim and the children engaged in interactive book reading sessions over four months for a total of 35 sessions. The children read the books, answered the researcher's questions, and conducted role-play. All sessions were audio-and video- recorded. Microgenetic observation methods were used to observe the children's development of pragmatic competence. All role-play sessions were transcribed and coded in terms of the number of words, context-specific vocabulary words, and utterances and the skills used to manage interaction and meaning management.

The findings showed that children's participation in the interactive book reading program led to significant changes in the mean number of words, utterances, and talk management features. The authors concluded that:

“[...] such book-based programs should be particularly useful in the teaching of pragmatic competence specific to those contexts with which they may have had little experience. By using books and role play to help to create these contexts in the classroom, these teachers can provide access to pragmatic knowledge and skills in the target language to which both the

learners and the teachers may not otherwise be exposed” (Kim & Hall, 2002, p. 345).

Both quantitative and qualitative methods were used in this study. The findings are encouraging. However, only four Korean children are involved in the study, which will affect the validity of the study.

Summary of the major findings and arguments

Having reviewed the studies relevant to pragmatics in textbook writing, the findings and arguments are summarised as follows:

---Despite a decade of complaints of the inadequacy of textbooks’ language, little seems to have changed in the authenticity of language examples. The match between the language used in textbooks and the one in the real world is unsatisfactory (Scotton & Bernsten, 1988; Schmidt, 1994; Wong, 2002; Bardovi-Harlig et al., 1991; Gilmore, 2004).

---Textbooks contain limited pragmatic information, and aspects such as metapragmatic explanation, explicit treatment of speech acts, and cultural information are particularly scarce (Boxer & Pickering, 1995; Burn, 1998; Grant & Starks, 2001; Cane, 1998; Vellenga, 2004; Kaplan & Knutson, 1993; LoCastro, 1997).

---Presentation of speech acts in textbooks are simple and lacks variety in terms of types and vocabulary (Park et al., 2000; Boxer & Pickering, 1995; Kaplan & Knutson, 1993).

---Metalanguage, and pragmatically oriented tasks can help learners’ development of pragmatic competence (Berry, 2000; Kim & Hall, 2002).

The review conducted above shows that a) there are only a few studies on pragmatics in ESL/EFL materials development; b) these studies are conducted in different

contexts. They are conducted in America, Korea, Hong Kong, Japan, New Zealand, and France. None of them was done in China. c) The instrument used in the studies is very simple as most of them draw on content analysis (except Vellenga's), and the majority of textbooks examined are ESL textbooks; only a few studies cover both ESL and EFL textbooks. d) Single textbooks are compared rather than series of textbooks; only one unit/section is chosen to analyse. e) Most of the studies concentrate on only one aspect of pragmatic knowledge [with the exception of Vellenga's (2004)], hence they are narrow. Few comments are made on what pragmatic knowledge should be entailed in ESL/EFL textbooks.

The empirical studies reviewed in this and the previous section cast some light on the studies on pragmatics in materials development and learning and teaching in the classroom. They point out a need for more research on pragmatics in materials and tasks in the EFL context, involving different samples and different populations with different research methods.

2.5 Summary

A detailed literature review is presented in this chapter. On the one hand, it traces the development of pragmatics, which is viewed as a new subfield of linguistics. On the other hand, it examines studies on pragmatics in ESL/EFL teaching/learning and materials development. It argues that pragmatic knowledge is teachable and instruction of pragmatics in the ESL/EFL classroom is beneficial to the development of pragmatic competence. It also points out that ESL/EFL textbooks contain inadequate pragmatic materials that may put learners at a disadvantage in the development of pragmatic knowledge, particularly in EFL settings. However, this review shows that more research is needed on pragmatics in materials development and classroom teaching focusing on the EFL context, different populations, different textbooks published in the countries other than the ones mentioned above, and more pragmatic aspects. In the next chapter I will outline the theoretical framework as a

base for developing and theorizing the arguments.

CHAPTER 3

THEORETICAL PERSPECTIVES

The previous chapter reviewed the development of pragmatics and two categories of pragmatic studies in materials development and in classroom teaching and learning. While pragmatic studies in materials development focus on pragmatic knowledge, the priorities of pragmatic studies in English teaching and learning emphasise the process of teaching pragmatics in the classroom. This chapter employs two strands of theories from research on Second Language Acquisition (SLA) and pragmatics to theorise and conceptualise the present study.

3.1 Theories of language teaching and learning

The study draws upon theories from SLA, such as language acquisition (Lightbown, 2000; Larsen-Freeman, 2001; Krashen, 1981, 1982, 1985), cognitive perspectives of second language acquisition (Doughty & Long, 2003; Sealey & Carter, 2004; DeKeyser & Juffs, 2005), socio-cultural perspectives of second language acquisition (Lantolf, 2000; Lantolf & Pavlenko, 1995), communicative language teaching (Widdowson, 1999; Littlewood, 1981; Richards, 2006), task-based language teaching (Skehan, 1996, 1998a; Long, 1989; Ellis, 2000; Yule, 1997), and intercultural language teaching (Crozet & Liddicoat, 1999; Crozet et al., 1999), to conceptualise and map out the scope of English language teaching in the classroom context in terms of linguistics (e.g. lexis, syntax and grammar), paralinguistics (e.g. body language, facial expression, gestures) and pragmatics. Figure 3.1 shows the broad theoretical framework of language teaching.

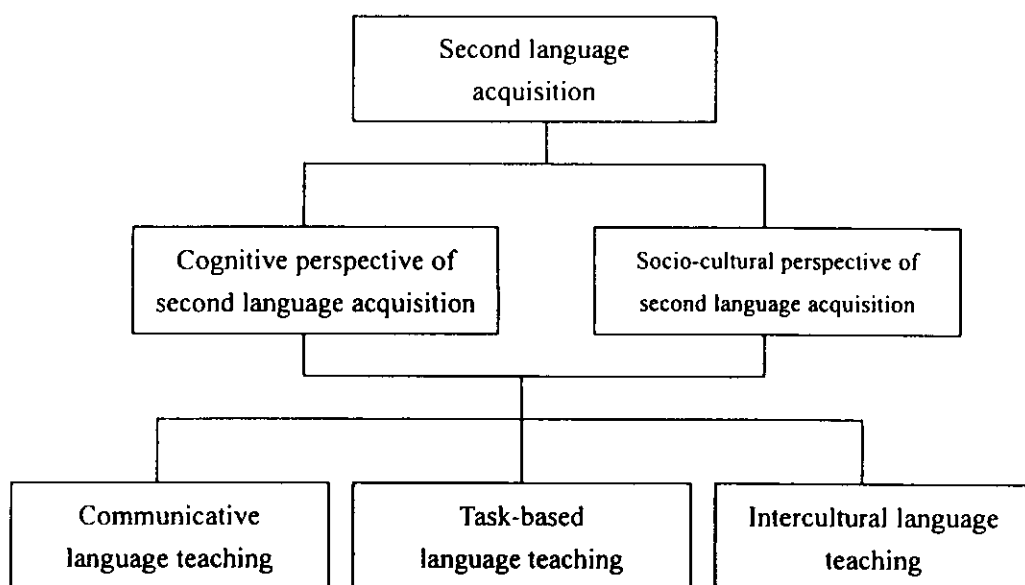


Figure 3.1 Theoretical framework of language teaching based on Ellis (1999), Krashen (1981, 1985), Larsen-Freeman (2001), Bachman and Palmer(1996), Crozet and Liddicoat (1999), and Skehan (2002)

3.1.1 Second language acquisition (SLA)

Second language acquisition refers to the processes by which people develop proficiency in a second or foreign language. These processes are often investigated with the expectation that information about them may be useful in language teaching (Richards et al., 2000, pp. 407-408). The main goal of SLA is to describe and explain the learner's linguistic or communicative competence.

Learner language and learner-external factors are two major areas in SLA research. In the area of learner language, the acquisition of pragmatic competence has not been considered in its own right only until recently (Rose & Kasper, 2001). Learners have to learn how to use and encode language appropriately. Without this knowledge, learners are likely to have both sociopragmatic failure and pragmalinguistic failure. The former occurs when learners produce socially inappropriate behaviour and the latter occurs when learners do not express themselves in a linguistically appropriate manner (Ellis,

1999, p. 23).

Learner-external factors refer to the environment in which learning happens. It is related to social factors, input and interaction. Input is decisive for language learning. Without exposure to linguistic material no learning can take place (Barron, 2003; Krashen, 1982). Textbooks and classroom teaching are two forms of input in EFL classroom (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001; Trosborg, 1995). In general, the assumption behind foreign language teaching and learning is that the FL can be successfully taught.

The term acquisition is also an important construct in SLA. It refers to the spontaneous and incidental process of rule internalisation that results from natural language use, where the learners' attention is focused on meaning rather than form (Ellis, 1999). Krashen (1982) describes this process as a natural one, where there is no conscious focusing on linguistic forms. It is what is informally called the process of picking up a language.

Second language researchers debate the ways in which acquisition and learning relate to each other and the ways in which both might function in the language classroom (Hedge, 2002). Krashen (1981,1982,1983,1985) argues that there are bi-polar dimensions of learning and acquisition. There are two related systems working side by side in language functioning. One is the acquired system which refers to subconscious knowledge of the language. The other is the learned system which refers to conscious knowledge of the language. It is beneficial to identify the two systems at work in the process of language learning. However, Krashen was challenged for having taken his acquisition model too far, and for having overlooked the conscious aspect of learning (Shen, 2007).

A number of SLA researchers (Schmidt, 1990; Long, 1991; Ellis, 1995; Truscott, 1998) have recognised the role of conscious learning. Schmidt (1990) argues that the role of unconscious learning has been exaggerated and emphasises that some degree of

consciousness is necessary. At the same time, the argument that effective learning is not possible unless the acquisition process is triggered is also favoured by the SLA researchers (Larsen-Freeman, 2001; Lightbown & Spada, 1999; Swain, 1991, 1999). Johnson argued that we are doing a bit of learning and a bit of acquisition in foreign language learning (Johnson, 2000). This view is used in the current study.

The past decade has seen the debate on SLA which involves cognitive versus sociocultural understanding of learning (Zuengler & Miller, 2006). The concern of the present study is not to discuss which of these is more important. Instead, both cognitive and socio-cultural orientations will be considered in conceptualising and theorising the current study. In actual fact a growing number of language acquisition researchers consider the social and cognitive aspects of language to have co-evolved from the beginning and to function interdependently and believe they can not usefully be separated (Ochs, 1996). Atkinson (2002) even put forward a sociocognitive approach to second language acquisition with a view of “language and language acquisition as simultaneously occurring and interactively constructed both in the ‘head’ and ‘in the world’” (Atkinson, 2002, p. 525).

3.1.2 Cognitive perspectives of second language acquisition

Language is stored in, comprehended by, produced by, and reflects the basic design features of the human brain. Language acquisition is a cognitive phenomenon. Cognition and language develop hand in hand in early childhood and less dramatically into the later years (Atkinson, 2002). Language acquisition is a mental process including the use of strategies explaining how the language knowledge system is developed and used in communication.

L2 learning also constitutes a ‘process’, governed by mechanisms of a general cognitive nature (Ellis, 1999). Learners use a variety of processes which enable them to work on input to learn a second language. In other words, language, whether first or second, is an aspect of human cognition and the SLA process is considered as cognitive process

(Larsen-Freeman, 1991; Doughty & Long, 2003; Sealey & Carter, 2004; DeKeyser & Juffs, 2005).

The cognitive theory of second language acquisition has motivated using tasks as the basis for language teaching (Ellis, 2003; Skehan, 2003). This approach is also adopted in the current study. However the literature of task-based research indicates that task-based language use and learning/teaching are not only related to the development of cognition/thinking skills, but also an approach of a refined version of communicative language teaching (CLT) and intercultural language teaching (ILT) approach with regard to the two different theories: psycholinguistic perspective and socio-cultural theory (Ellis, 2000; Arkinson, 2002; Skehan, 2003; Lantolf, 2000). CLT views communicative competence as the goal of second and foreign language teaching and continue to evolve as our understanding of the processes of second language learning has developed (Richards, 2006).

Researchers on task-based teaching (TBT) who have taken a more cognitive perspective have focused on the psychological processes, whereas those who have taken a more socio-cultural perspective have concentrated on how learners co-construct meaning while engaging in interaction.

3.1.3 Sociocultural perspectives of second language acquisition

Unlike cognitive understandings of language acquisition, sociocultural perspectives view language use in real-world situations as fundamental to learning as language is social—a social practice, a social accomplishment, a social tool (Atkinson, 2002). Language learning is considered as socially constructed through interaction of one kind or another. These researchers focus on language as a resource for participation in the activities our daily lives comprise (Zuengler & Miller, 2006).

Sociocultural perspectives on language acquisition are based on Vygotskian sociocultural theory and language socialisation. According to Vygotskian sociocultural

theory (Vygotsky, 1975), when learners appropriate mediational means, such as language, made available as they interact in socioculturally meaningful activities, these learners gain control over their own mental activity and can begin to function independently (Lantolf, 2000; Lantolf & Pavlenko, 1995). Sociocultural theory provides an ideal framework to analyse classroom interaction because one of its main principles is that learning as cognitive development, originates in a social context.

Language socialisation is interested in understanding the development of socially and culturally competent members of society. Its research has focused on the interconnected processes of linguistic and cultural learning in discourse practices, interactional routines, and participation structures and roles (Watson-Gegeo, 2004; Watson-Gegeo & Nielson, 2003; Zuengler & Miller, 2006).

3.1.4 Communicative language teaching

Since its inception in the 1970s, Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) has dominated the EFL/ESL profession and served as a major source of influence on language teaching practice around the world. It has been put forth around the world as the new way to teach English as a second or foreign language. Teaching materials, course descriptions, and curriculum guidelines proclaim a goal of communicative competence (Savignon, 2001). The main principles of the communicative approach can be summarised as follows: 1) Learners use a language through using it to communicate; 2) Authentic and meaningful communication should be the goal of classroom activities; 3) Fluency and accuracy are both important goals in language learning; 4) Communication involves the integration of different language skills; 5) Learning is a process of creative construction and involves trial and error (Richards et al., 2003).

Teaching methodologies have shifted from traditional teacher-centred instruction to a learner-centred classroom, where learning, learner needs and purposes, and meaningful processes of communication are integrated (Nunan, 1988; Tudor, 1996). Teachers and learners take new roles in a CLT classroom. As facilitator and monitor, teachers have to

develop a different view of learners' errors and of her/his own role in facilitating language learning. Learners should participate in classroom activities and work together with their peers in a cooperative way. They are supposed to take more responsibility for their own learning (Richards, 2006). In this context, teacher and learner roles are considered dynamic dimensions of the communicative process. The classroom is viewed as "a bridge to the outside world rather than as a linguistic quarantine station where learners are protected from the risks involved in having to engage in genuine communication" (Nunan, 1999, p. 77).

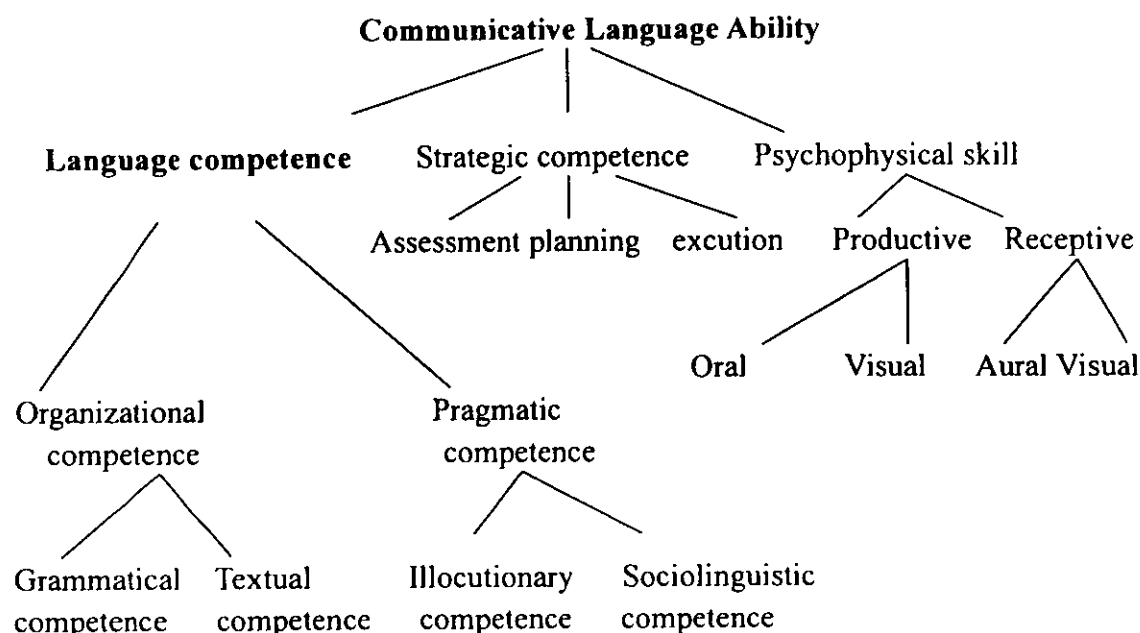
Richards (2006) classifies CLT into two phases: classic communicative language teaching (1970s to 1990s), and current communicative language teaching (late 1990s to the present). The former lays more emphasis on communication in language teaching; the latter evolves from the classic CLT and is characterized by two methodologies that can be described as extensions of CLT. They are process-based CLT approaches – content-based instruction and task-based instruction, and product-based CLT approaches – text-based instruction and competency-based instruction (Richards, 2006).

The goal of communicative language teaching is communicative competence which has been one of the most influential theoretical developments in natural language studies and in applied linguistics (Firth & Wagner, 1997; Stern, 1983; Ellis, 1994). Bachman (1990) suggested a model of communicative language competence which was revised by Bachman and Palmer (1996) (see the following Figure 3.2.).

In this model communicative competence is seen as a dynamic system. Communicative language ability entails three parts: language competence, strategic competence, and psychophysical skill. Language competence consists of two main components: organizational competence and pragmatic competence. Organizational competence concerns a speaker's control of the formal aspects of language and abilities involved in the production and identification of grammatical and ungrammatical sentences, understanding their meaning and ordering them to form texts. It is further subdivided in

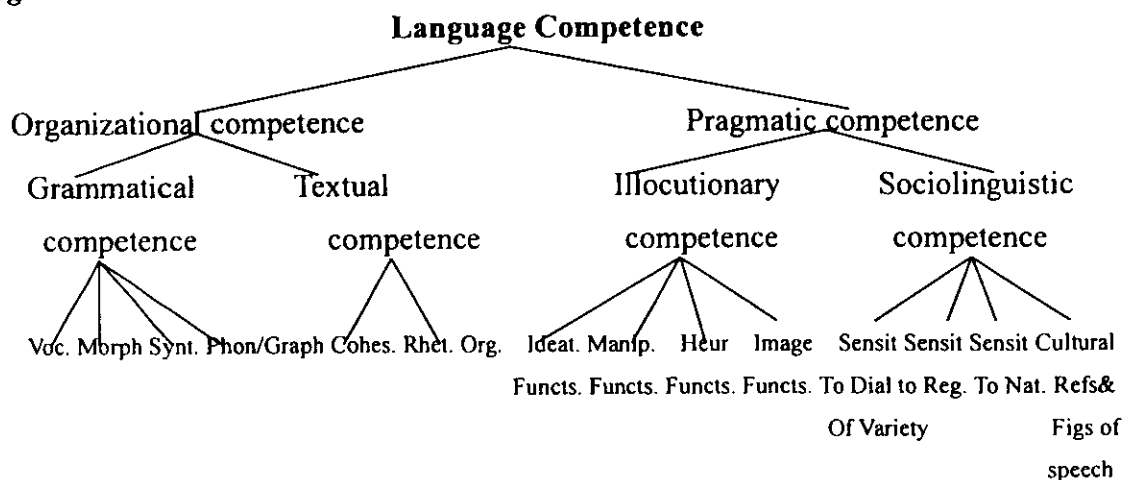
grammatical competence (vocabulary, syntax, morphology, phonology) and textual competence (cohesion/coherence, rhetorical organization). Pragmatic competence subsumes sociolinguistic competence and illocutionary competence (For details, see 3.2.1).

Figure 3.2-1 Bachman's model of communicative competence



(Source: Bachman, 1990, p. 87; Bachman & Palmer, 1996, pp. 66-73)

Figure 3.2-2



(Source: Bachman, 1990, p. 87)

Studies have shown that learners' grammatical competence and pragmatic competence do not necessarily increase hand in hand (Kasper, 2001a). Grammatical competence and

pragmatic competence are separate and independent components of communicative competence (Kasper & Rose, 2002, p. 65). Actually grammar teaching also needs to include pragmatics in accordance with Larsen-Freeman's (2001) three dimensional grammar framework (form/structure, semantics, and pragmatics). Knowing a language includes both organizational and pragmatic competence. On account of its identifying pragmatic competence as one of the main components of communicative competence, Bachman's (1990) model has been rather influential regarding the development and use of pragmatic aspects in a foreign language (Pilar et al., 2005).

Bachman and Palmer's notion of pragmatic competence is used to theorize textbook development and classroom teaching in the study. The study emphasizes that the development of second language learners' pragmatic competence needs to remain an important goal of language learning classrooms as pragmatic failure can "deny learners access to valuable academic or professional opportunities" (Tanaka, 1997, p.15). Pragmatic competence "is not extra or ornamental, like the icing on the cake" (Kasper, 1997).

3.1.5 Task-based language teaching

Task-based approach to second language instruction has been practised since the 1980s when it was introduced because of dissatisfaction with conventional linguistically based syllabuses, along with a growing understanding from research findings of how people learn second/foreign languages (Byram, 2000).

Task-based instruction is an extension of the principles of Communicative Language Teaching which takes as a starting point a focus on creating classroom processes to better facilitate language learning. It claims that the best way to create the right kinds of interactional processes in classrooms is to use specially designed instructional tasks (Richards, 2006). It is an attempt by its proponents to apply principles of second language learning to teaching (Richards & Schmidt, 2003, p. 540). It takes a fairly strong view of communicative language teaching.

A task is an activity which is designed to help achieve a particular learning goal. It is characterised by the following elements: meaning driven, outcome oriented, problem solving, real-world relationship, time pressure, oral (speaking and listening); involving two or more participants, having a communicative goal, and involving interactional activity on the part of the participants (Skehan, 1996, 1998a, 1998b).

Willis (1996) offers a simple definition: “tasks are always activities where the target language is used by the learner for a communicative purpose...in order to achieve an outcome.” (Willis, 1996, p. 23) In other words, task-based language learning is goal-oriented, leading to a “solution” or a “product”. Tasks in language study generally bear some resemblance to real-life language use. It is the task which drives the learners’ system forward by engaging acquisitional processes (Long & Crookes, 1993). A task-based approach sees the learning process as one of learning through doing. It is by primarily engaging in meaning that the learner’s system is encouraged to develop (Skehan, 2002).

In spite of the fact that the L2 acquisition and pedagogy literature defines task in different ways (Ellis, 2003; Willis, 1996; Skehan, 1998a), most studies agree that the crucial feature of tasks is their focus on the communication of meaning (McDonough & Chaikitmongkol, 2007).

Tasks can be designed to develop learners’ knowledge and thinking skills in accordance with the revised Bloom’s taxonomy which is crucial in the process of learning. In his article “A revision of Bloom’s taxonomy”, Krathwohl (2002) illuminated the revised Bloom’s taxonomy. It includes four knowledge dimensions and six cognitive process dimensions.

The knowledge dimension contains factual knowledge, conceptual knowledge, procedural knowledge, and meta-cognitive knowledge. Factual knowledge refers to the basic elements that students must know to be acquainted with a discipline or solve

problems in it. Conceptual knowledge is about the interrelationships among the basic elements within a larger structure enabling them to function together. Procedural knowledge focuses on how to do something, methods of inquiry, and criteria for using skills, techniques, and methods. Meta-cognitive knowledge refers to knowledge of cognition in general as well as awareness and knowledge of one's own cognition (Krathwohl, 2002, p. 214).

The cognitive dimension covers six thinking skills involving six levels and the process used to learn at each level. They are: level of remembering: learn the information (sample verbs: define, duplicate, list, memorize, recall, repeat, reproduce state); level of understanding: understand the information (sample verbs: classify, describe, discuss, explain, identify, locate, recognize, report, select, translate, paraphrase); level of applying: use the information (sample verbs: choose, demonstrate, dramatize, employ, illustrate, interpret, operate, schedule, sketch, solve, use, write.); level of analyzing: break the information down into its component parts (sample verbs: appraise, compare, contrast, criticize, differentiate, discriminate, distinguish, examine, experiment, question, test); level of evaluating: put information together in new and different ways (appraise, argue, defend, judge, select, support, value, evaluate); and level of creating: judge the information (assemble, construct, create, design, develop, formulate, write) (Anderson & Krathwohl, 2001, pp. 67-68) (see Table 3.1: Revised Bloom's Taxonomy).

The task-based approach provides not only major components of the methodology but also units around which a course may be organised. It is these units that link outside classroom reality and inside classroom pedagogy (Littlewood, 2004, 2007).

3.1.6 Intercultural language teaching (ILT)

Intercultural language teaching is an emerging new paradigm in foreign language education which considers teaching of culture as an integral part of language. It aims to “support the development of intercultural competence through the learning of foreign

languages and by extension through the learning of how language and culture connect in one's first and target language" (Crozet et al., 1999, p. 11). Intercultural communication is viewed as communication between non-native speakers and native speakers rather than communication in the target language.

Table 3.1: Revised Bloom's Taxonomy

Bloom's Taxonomy						
	The Cognitive-Process Dimension					
The Knowledge Dimension	Remember	Understand	Apply	Analyze	Evaluate	Create
Factual Knowledge	List	Summarize	Classify	Order	Rank	Combine
Conceptual Knowledge	Describe	Interpret	Experiment	Explain	Assess	Plan
Procedural Knowledge	Tabulate	Predict	Calculate	Differentiate	Conclude	Compose
Meta-cognitive Knowledge	Appropriate use	Execute	Construct	Achieve	Action	Actualize

Source: Designer/Developer – Dianna Fisher (2005)

Intercultural competence is the ability to interact effectively with people from cultures that we recognize as being different from our own (Byram, 2000, p. 297). Intercultural competence is linked to communicative competence in a foreign language. So intercultural communicative competence builds on communicative competence and enlarges it to incorporate intercultural competence. The notion of intercultural competence has removed the exclusive focus on native speaker norms. Intercultural competence is composed of the knowledge, skills and attitudes that have been organized in a conceptual framework comprising five saviours (cf. Byram, 1997).

To develop learners' intercultural communicative competence, language teachers need to take a close look at the three dimensions of the goal of ILT. They are: learning about culture, comparing cultures, and intercultural exploration. Culture as embedded in language use is however not learned through osmosis, it must be taught explicitly (Crozet & Liddicoat, 1999, pp. 116-118).

The second dimension implies that language teaching is not only teaching about another linguaculture, but also teaching language learners about their native linguaculture by contrasting it to the target linguaculture (Crozet & Liddicoat, 1999). In the intercultural approach to language teaching, teachers need to compare learners' first language/culture and target language/culture, and develop learners' awareness of their own culture, then use that knowledge as a point of departure to relate to another's culture.

The last dimension of ILT implies that language learners need to develop the ability to create for themselves a comfortable third place between one's first linguaculture and the target linguaculture – mediation of a third place between two differing cultures. The notion of 'third place' refers to a comfortable unbounded and dynamic space which intercultural communicators create as they interact with each other and in their attempt to bridge the gap between cultural differences (Crozet & Liddicoat, 2000). However, this competence cannot be 'taught' by a language teacher as negotiation of differences is a personal and inter-personal creative process. Teachers can help learners articulate and resolve the conflicts they will encounter in trying to reconcile the opposite values between their native and target cultures (Crozet & Liddicoat, 1999, p. 118). The following is an articulation of the ILT model by Crozet and Liddicoat.

Table 3.2: Points of articulation between culture and language

Culture				Language
World	spoken/written	pragmatic	norms of	grammar/lexicon
knowledge	genres	norms	interaction	kinesics/prosody
				pronunciation
↓	↓	↓	↓	↓
Culture	culture in	culture within	culture in	culture in
in context	general	shorter units	organization	linguistic
	structure of	of text	of units of	structures/words/
	text		text	syntax/non-verbal

Source: Crozet and Liddicoat (1999, p. 116)

The continuum model from world knowledge, genres, pragmatic norms, patterns of interaction through to a focus on linguistic/paralinguistic matters, maps out the aspects that need to be addressed in different stages of learning and acquisition. This model is useful in the examination of the processes and procedures of teaching and learning in classrooms as reflected in College English textbooks.

3.2 Theories and concepts of pragmatics

The other strand of theories adopted in the current study has been taken from research on pragmatics, particularly the notions of pragmatic competence (Bachman & Palmer, 1996), interlanguage pragmatics, intercultural pragmatics, sociopragmatics, and speech act theory (Austin, 1962; Searle, 1976) on which data categorization, categorization of pragmatic knowledge, analysis and theorisation of the framework of pragmatic knowledge and thesis are relied. As these aspects of pragmatics (except speech act theory) are newly emergent and theories have not been fully formed, a synthesis of the concepts and ideas put forward by several main researchers in these fields has mainly been used in this study.

3.2.1 Pragmatic competence

Pragmatic competence (ability) in a second or foreign language is part of a non-native speaker's (NNS) communicative competence and therefore has to be located in a model of communicative ability (Savignon, 1991).

The notion of communicative competence includes not only rules for correct language behaviour, but also knowledge that enable speakers to use language to achieve their communicative goals. Speakers of a language have to have more than grammatical competence in order to communicate effectively in a language. They need to know how language is used by members of a speech community to accomplish their purposes as well. It is about knowing what to say, when, with whom, how and why. Notions of communicative competence proposed by Hymes (1972) from the perspective of linguistic anthropology served as guiding constructs for the design of communicative

competence as the overall goal of language teaching and assessment (Rose & Kasper 2001, p. 1).

Built on Hymes's contribution, Canale and Swain (1980), Canale (1983), and Bachman (1990, revised by Bachman and Palmer, 1996) have all attempted to specify in detail the components of communicative competence.

Canale and Swain (1980) reformulated the notion of communicative competence that generally includes two aspects: linguistic competence and pragmatic competence. Linguistic competence includes phonological competence, grammatical competence, lexical competence and discourse competence. Pragmatic competence contains functional competence, sociolinguistic competence, interactional competence, and cultural competence.

Bachman (1990) suggested a model of communicative language ability that was revised by Bachman and Palmer (1996). It not only includes pragmatic competence as one of the two main components of language competence (Bachman & Palmer also call it language knowledge), parallel to organizational competence, but subsumes illocutionary competence and sociolinguistic competence under pragmatic competence.

Pragmatic knowledge (which Bachman (1990) calls pragmatic competence) enables us to know "how utterances or sentences and texts are related to the communicative goals of the language user and to the features of the language use setting" (Bachman & Palmer, 1996, p. 68). It consists of two broad categories of knowledge: illocutionary knowledge and sociolinguistic knowledge (see Figure 3.2.2).

"Illocutionary competence enables us to use language to express a wide range of functions, and interpret the illocutionary force of utterances or discourse"(Bachman, 1990, p. 94). It involves the relationship between the utterances and the speakers' intentions specified in them. It consists of knowledge of four categories of language

functions: ideational, manipulative, instrumental, and imaginative. Knowledge of ideational functions helps us express meaning in terms of our experience of the real world. Knowledge of manipulative functions enables us to use language to affect the world around us. Knowledge of heuristic functions enables us to use language to extend our knowledge of the world around us. Knowledge of imaginative functions enables us to use language to create an imaginary world around us for humorous purposes (Bachman & Palmer, 1996, pp. 69-70). Whether these functions are used appropriately and how they are performed varies in different language use contexts according to sociocultural features.

Sociolinguistic competence comprises the ability to perform language functions appropriately according to context. It refers to sensitivity to differences in variety and register and to the ability of interpreting cultural references. It includes knowledge of sensitivity to conventions determining the appropriate use of dialects or varieties, registers, natural or idiomatic expressions, cultural references, and figures of speech (Bachman, 1990).

3.2.2 Speech act theory

Speech act theory has aroused the researchers' widest interest among all the issues in the theory of language usage. Speech acts has been one of the basic ingredients of pragmatics for a long time (Levinson, 1983). It is a fundamental theoretical construct that seeks to provide an alternative approach to the study of the meaning of sentences.

Austin's speech act theory

The concept of speech act was introduced by the Oxford philosopher John Austin (1962) in his book published in 1962 under the general title *How to do things with words*. He put forward the basic notion that human beings use language to act on the world, both to create obligations and new social relations as well as do such things as reassure, promise, and apologize. When uttering a speech act, I do something with my words (Mey, 2001, p.95). His important realization that "in saying something a speaker also

does something” has been widely accepted (Trosborg, 1995, p. 5).

Austin proposed that a speech act consists of three sub-acts: locutionary act (the utterance of a sentence with determinate sense and reference), illocutionary act (the making of a statement, offer, promise, etc. in uttering a sentence, by virtue of the conventional force associated with it (or with its explicit performative paraphrase), and perlocutionary act (the bringing about of effects on the audience by means of uttering the sentence, such effects being special to the circumstances of utterance) (Levinson, 1983, p.236). Of these three dimensions, the most discussed is illocutionary force. Indeed, the term ‘speech act’ is generally interpreted quite narrowly to mean only the illocutionary force of an utterance (Yule, 1996, pp. 48-49).

Searle’s development of speech act theory

Austin’s work was further systematized and developed in American philosopher John Searle’s (1969) theory of speech acts (Marmaridou, 2000; Mey, 2001). Through Searle’s writings speech act theory has perhaps had most of its impact on linguistics (Levinson, 1983).

Searle (1976) proposes that there are just five basic kinds of action that one can perform in speaking, using the following five types of utterance: representatives; directives; commissives; expressives; and declarations. Representatives are those kinds of speech acts that state what the speaker believes to be true. Directives are those kinds of speech acts that speakers use to get someone else to do something. Commands, orders, requests, suggestions belong to it. Commissives are those kinds of speech acts that speakers use to commit themselves to some future action. They express what the speaker intends. They are promises, threats, refusals, pledges. Expressives are those kinds of speech acts that state what the speaker feels. They express psychological states, such as pleasure, pain, likes, dislikes, joy, or sorrow. Declarations are those kinds of speech acts that change the world via their utterance. In using a declaration, the speaker changes the world via words (Yule, 1996, pp. 53-54).

Searle extended Austin's theory of pragmatic functions and has been particularly concerned with establishing a set of conditions, the so-called "felicity conditions" on which the successful performance of a speech act depends. Searle systematized Austin's intuitions about felicity with the proposal that for a proper definition of every type of speech act four kinds of conditions should be specified:

Propositional content conditions: specification of a future state of affairs;

Preparatory conditions: the speaker/writer has adequate information to form a 'valid' opinion about the future state of affairs.

Sincerity conditions: the speaker/writer believes that the future state of affairs will indeed be as described.

Essential conditions: utterance counts as an act committing the speaker/writer to the likelihood of the future state of affairs to be as described.

(Verschueren, 1999, pp.23-24)

Searle argued that the pragmatic use of language is rule governed and that these rules can be stated precisely.

Another important notion Searle puts forward is the direct and indirect speech act. If there is a direct relationship between the structure and the function of a speech act, it is a direct speech act. If there is an indirect relationship between the structure and the function of a speech act, it is an indirect speech act. It is also possible that different structures can be used to accomplish the same basic function.

People do not always mean exactly what they say. On the contrary, they perform speech acts indirectly on some occasions. However, indirect speech acts are often difficult for second language learners to recognize.

Speech act theory, as part of pragmatic knowledge, has had a major impact on second/foreign language teaching. In this study it provides a tool for content analysis of the textbooks.

3.2.3 Interlanguage pragmatics

Interlanguage pragmatics is the study of non-native speakers' use and acquisition of linguistic action patterns in a second language (Kasper & Blum-Kulka, 1993, p.3). It is concerned with the pragmatic competence and performance of second and foreign language learners. Underlying this are two basic points. One is that the main focus of ILP has been on "linguistic action." The other is that research should concentrate both on learners' use and acquisition of pragmatic knowledge.

The application of pragmatics to problems in second language learning is based on the assumption that, despite the probable universality of processes like implicature, there are likely to be significant differences not only in the structure of languages but in their use (Hymes, 1972). There is considerable room for cross-cultural misunderstanding (Levinson, 1983, p. 376).

Interlanguage pragmatics aims to give pragmatic explanation of the issues appearing in learners' understanding and use of interlanguage. It takes the perspective that it is the task of the language learners to acquire the norms of the native speakers' societies or communities (Boxer, 2002). It involves many cross-language and cross-cultural variants. The research issues examined in ILP have thus essentially been the same as those studied in cross-cultural pragmatics (Kasper & Schmidt, 1996, p. 150). Issues are concerned with learners, contexts, languages, effect of levels of proficiency, length of stay, pragmatic development, pragmatic comprehension, pragmatic knowledge use, and identifying the obstacles to learners' situationally appropriate production of pragmatic meaning, etc. Speech act theory and implicature theory are its main theories. The former has been discussed in the previous section and the latter one will be omitted in that it is not the main focus in the present study.

3.2.4 Intercultural pragmatics

Unlike interlanguage pragmatics which focuses on second language acquisition, intercultural/cross-cultural pragmatics is applied sociolinguistics (Boxer, 2002). It may

be defined as the study of linguistic acts carried out by language users with different cultural backgrounds (Kasper & Blum-Kulka, 1993). It aims to define the systematic relationships between the sociocultural contexts and the functions and structure of language in use. The main premise of this field of pragmatics is that language use reflects the underlying values, beliefs, cultural assumptions, and communication strategies of the users (LoCastro, 2003, p.226).

Rather than taking a one-way perspective of cross-cultural communication that has an exclusive focus on native speaker norms, intercultural pragmatics takes a two-way perspective of cross-cultural communication. It assumes that individuals from two societies use their own norms in their interactions, which often results in misconceptions (Boxer, 2002, p. 151). To carry out a successful cross-cultural communication, learners' cross-cultural interactional competence is critical. Learners should possess the ability to interact effectively with people from different cultures.

Most of the research questions, the methodology and indeed the theoretical background of interlanguage pragmatics have stemmed from cross-cultural pragmatics rather than from second language acquisition, the other parent discipline of interlanguage pragmatics (Barron, 2003, p.27). In fact, to a large extent learning language and learning culture are interrelated since the intrinsic relationship of language and culture is widely recognized. Language is the means by which we talk about culture (Shaul & Furbee, 1998, p.1). The strong bond between language and culture suggests that greater appreciation of culture should help promote more successful language learning, which can lead to greater cultural understanding.

Culture is really an integral part of the interaction between language and thought. Adaskou, Britten, and Fahsi (1990) discuss the following dimensions of culture: 'the aesthetic sense' in which the literature, film, and music of a target language country are examined; 'the sociological sense' in which the customs and institutions of this country are explained; 'the semantic sense' in which how a culture's conceptual

system is embodied in a language is investigated; and 'the pragmatic sense' in which how cultural norms influence what language is appropriate for which contexts is examined (McKay, 2000, p. 82).

By examining cultural content in textbooks, Hatoss (2004) illustrates in detail one specific aspect of pragmatic knowledge—culture. Cultural knowledge includes high culture (culture with a capital 'C') such as literature, the arts; low culture (culture with a small 'c') such as everyday lifestyle; surface culture, such as food, dressing, and other visible elements of culture; and deep culture, such as orientations, values, non-visible and nontangible elements of culture (Hatoss, 2004, pp.25-38).

Byram (1997) also points out that pragmatic knowledge should also include the following aspects: knowledge: how to interpret and relate information (e.g. discussion, comparison); how to discover cultural information (project, viewing and responding, comparison); how to relativise oneself and value the attitudes and beliefs of the other (e.g. reflection, role play, discussion) (Byram, 1997).

Cultural patterns, customs, and ways of life are expressed in language; culture-specific world views are reflected in language (McKay, 2002). The difference lies in the fact that interlanguage pragmatics emphasizes the language perspective, whereas cross-cultural pragmatics the cultural perspective. Cross-cultural pragmatics investigates cultural differences in expectations regarding how particular speech acts should be enacted, whereas interlanguage pragmatics deals specifically with the behavior of non-native speakers attempting to communicate in their second language (McKay, 2002, p. 73). It is impossible to separate them explicitly.

As Kramsch (1993) puts it in her book *Context and culture in language teaching*:

"If... language is seen as social practice, culture becomes the very core of language teaching. Cultural awareness must then be viewed both as enabling language proficiency and as being the outcome of reflection on language

proficiency. ... Once we recognize that language use is indissociable from the creation and transmission of culture, we have to deal with a variety of cultures” (ibid, p. 89).

In the present study, the concept of intercultural (both the source culture and the target culture) is adopted rather than the target culture. Furthermore, the target culture does not only refer to American and British culture. The cultural boundary of English is extended and a more fluid, dynamic and inclusive approach will be adopted in learning and teaching English culture in a foreign language context like China. In accordance with Kachru’s three concentric circles and English as the international language, English culture is viewed as the culture of English as an international language.

3.2.5 Sociopragmatics

Sociopragmatics has been described by Leech (1983, p. 10) as “the sociological interface of pragmatics,” referring to the social perceptions underlying participants’ interpretation and performance of communicative action (Rose & Kasper, 2001, p.2). It is concerned with the analysis of significant patterns of interaction in particular social situations and/or in particular social systems (Trosborg, 1995). Sociopragmatic research is based on the interactive aspect and the acknowledgement of the social context in which a speech act occurs.

In explaining the variation in speech act realization, aspects of social variation, such as the power relationship of the participants, the setting, and the aim of communication, are all very important. Sociopragmatics is very much about proper social behavior, making it a far more thorny issue to deal with in the classroom – it is one thing to teach people what functions bits of language serve, but it is entirely different to teach people how to behave “properly.” Here learners must be made aware of the consequences of making pragmatic choices, but the choice to act in a certain way should be theirs alone (Rose & Kasper, 2001, p.3).

Aspects of social variation, social context and social behavior are seen as part of pragmatic knowledge – metapragmatic knowledge, and have had great impact on second/foreign language teaching and appropriate language use. In this study they also provide a tool for classroom observation and content analysis of the textbooks.

3.2.6 Categorization of pragmatic knowledge

Guided by Bachman and Palmer’s notion of pragmatic competence and theories of speech acts, interlanguage pragmatics, intercultural pragmatics, and sociopragmatics, pragmatic knowledge in the current study is categorized as follows: general pragmatic information, metalanguage, metapragmatic information, speech acts, cultural knowledge, pragmatically oriented tasks, and information on how to learn cultural knowledge (see Figure 3.3).

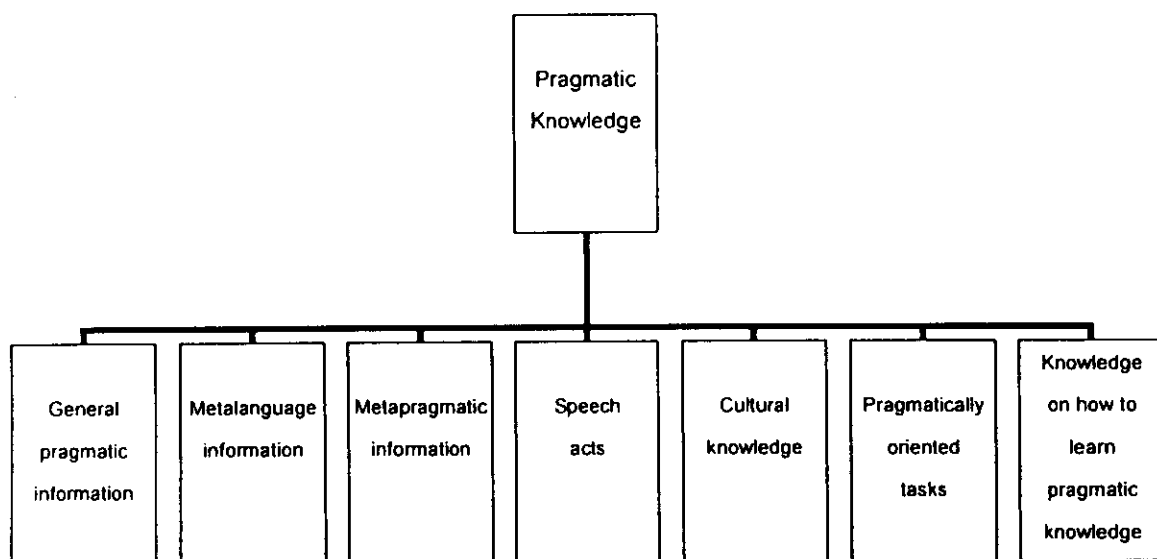


Figure 3.3 Categorization of pragmatic knowledge

General pragmatic information encompasses a variety of topics related to politeness, appropriacy, formality, register and culture. Metapragmatic information mainly includes a general explanation of the functions of speech acts, discussion of politeness such as formality, appropriacy, register and illocutionary force, conversation norms

and implicature, register, discourse, social variants, and context (Vellenga, 2004).

Metalanguage refers to the language used to analyse or describe a language (Richards, et al., 2000). The explanatory nature of metalanguage can provide learners with extralinguistic information such as usage notes and contextual information (Vellenga, 2004). Metalanguage in textbooks could be an important source of linguistic input for EFL learners (Kim & Hall, 2002). Metalanguage focuses on semantic usage, and collocation.

Speech acts centre on the explicit mention and metapragmatic description of speech acts. Pragmatically oriented tasks refer to tasks aiming to develop learners' pragmatic competence with focus on knowledge dimension and cognitive dimension.

Cultural knowledge including L1 culture and L2 culture contains high culture, low culture, surface culture, and deep culture. Information on how to learn culture focuses on how to discover cultural information, how to interpret and relate information, how to relativise oneself and value the attitudes and beliefs of the other, etc (Byram, 1997).

3.2.7 Textbook analysis framework

Guided by the theories of second language acquisition and pragmatics, and on the basis of the categorization of pragmatic knowledge and the work of Bachman and Palmer (1996), Vellenga (2004), Hatoss (2004), and Byram (1997), the textbook analysis framework used in the current study has been formulated (see Table 3.3). It will guide the analysis of the textbooks.

Table 3.3: Textbook analysis framework

Textbook analysis framework	
Questions	Theories/concepts
1. Does the textbook contain general pragmatic information, such as a variety of topics related to politeness, appropriacy, formality, register and culture?	Pragmatic competence; Interlanguage pragmatics; Intercultural pragmatics Sociopragmatics
2. Does the textbook contain metapragmatic information, such as discussion of politeness, register, illocutionary force, context, social variants, and appropriacy?	Sociopragmatics;
3. Does the textbook contain metalanguage, such as semantic usage, and collocation?	Interlanguage pragmatics;
4. Does the textbook contain explicit treatment of speech acts, such as explicit mention and metapragmatic description of speech acts?	Speech act theory; Sociopragmatics; Interlanguage pragmatics
5. Does the textbook contain pragmatically-oriented tasks, such as tasks to develop learners' thinking skills?	Task-based language teaching; pragmatic competence; communicative language teaching
6. Does the textbook teach high culture (culture with a capital 'C') such as literature, the arts? 7. Does the textbook teach low culture (culture with a small 'c') such as everyday lifestyle? 8. Does the material teach surface culture only (e.g. food, dressing, and other visible elements of culture)? 9. Does the material teach deep culture (orientations, values, non-visible and non-tangible elements of culture)?	Intercultural pragmatics; Intercultural language teaching
10. Does the textbook teach students how to interpret and relate information? (e.g. discussion, comparison) 11. Does the textbook show students how to discover cultural information? (e.g. project, viewing and responding, comparison) 12. Does the textbook allow students to relativise oneself and value the attitudes and beliefs of the other? (e.g. reflection, role play, discussion)	Intercultural language teaching

Textbook analysis framework adapted from Vellenga, 2004; Hatoss, 2004; and Byram, 1997

3.3 Summary

Theories of language learning and teaching and pragmatics are considered to show the theoretical orientation of the present study. The arguments and concepts from a range

of theories on pragmatics highlight aspects such as speech acts, intercultural pragmatics and sociopragmatics, all of which need to be considered in our data analysis and incorporated into the processes of materials development and classroom instruction. In the following chapters, theories such as second language acquisition, Bachman's communicative language ability model, intercultural language teaching and task-based language learning, are used for content analysis of College English textbooks as well as to conceptualize the teaching and learning of pragmatics in the classroom.

CHAPTER 4

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The chapter deals with the research methodology used in the study. The purpose of this chapter is to describe in detail the design of the study to investigate Chinese teachers' and students' perception of pragmatic knowledge in the process of teaching and learning and in College English textbooks, the nature of pragmatic materials and tasks included in teaching and College English textbooks, and how Chinese College English teachers incorporate pragmatic materials and tasks into the classroom. The participants who took part in the study are introduced and the textbooks used to elicit the data are described. There is also a detailed description of the four instruments used in the study. Procedures for data analysis are described as well.

4. 1 Designing the study

This is primarily a qualitative research study involving four research methods. The research focuses on a single case in a Chinese university. Case studies focus on one instance (or a few instances) of a particular phenomenon with a view to providing an in-depth account of events, relationships, experiences or processes occurring in that particular instance (Denscombe, 2003, p. 32). The strength of the case study approach is that it allows for the use of a variety of methods depending on the circumstances and the specific needs of the situation (Neuman, 2003, Denscombe, 2003, Silverman, 2005, Denzin & Lincoln, 2000, Yin, 2003).

Although there is a tendency to associate case studies with qualitative research, case studies are frequently sites for the employment of both quantitative and qualitative research (Bryman, 2001, p. 48). In the present study both qualitative and quantitative approaches are used and qualitative data and quantitative data are collected and analyzed.

An important goal of the present research is to gain both a holistic perspective from the teachers and students as well as an in-depth view of the teachers who participated in the present study. It is believed that a combined quantitative and qualitative approach is the better approach and an avenue for uncovering the nature of pragmatics in College English textbooks and College English teaching and learning.

This study was conducted at one of the top ten universities in China. As a matter of fact this was the only university, out of a total of 10 universities in Shanghai requested that responded positively to the request to conduct the research. Shortly after I designed my study, I phoned the directors of College English Centers in the ten universities in Shanghai telling them my request to conduct the research in their universities. Nine of the directors declined because they were concerned that my research might disturb classroom teaching. Only one university agreed to my request as the university was undertaking a curriculum reform in College English teaching and believing that this research might benefit their reform.

Given the fact that this university is an elite university and its College English Center takes a leading role in College English teaching in China, the data gathered from this university might not be the most representative sample for making generalizations. However, the data are at least representative of a considerable mass of universities of similar standing in China. Perhaps this is one of the unavoidable constraints researchers often encounter in the exercise of conducting empirical research, a limitation that can only be overcome by conducting large-scale research of a similar nature involving a number of universities at different levels.

4.2 Research methods

Four research instruments – questionnaires, content analysis, classroom observation, and semi-structured interview are used. Various sources can complement each other and can be combined to produce differing but mutually supportive ways of collecting data (Denscombe, 2003; Yin, 2003). The use of multi-data-collection methods allows for the

use of both normative and interpretive techniques. By incorporating both forms of research, a broader explanation of human behaviour unfolds. Patton (1990) views the combination of methodologies as a means of strengthening the research design when the same phenomenon is being studied and of lessening the possibility of errors that are tied to a particular approach. This important way to strengthen a study design is termed triangulation (Patton, 1990, p.187). It is worth using multiple methods, comparison analysis, and convergent validity checks to enhance the quality and credibility of findings.

4.2.1 Study 1 Questionnaires

The purpose of the use of quantitative research is to gain a broad perspective from the teachers and students. The quantitative instruments used were questionnaires. Questionnaires were used to identify how Chinese teachers and students perceive pragmatic knowledge/competence observable in the process of teaching and learning and in College English textbooks. A questionnaire is a self-report instrument used for gathering information about variables of interest to an investigator (Keeves, 1988, p.478). Questionnaires are easier to arrange and economical as they can supply a considerable amount of research data for a relatively low cost in terms of materials, money and time. They supply standardized answers as all respondents are posed exactly the same questions and data are easily collected (Dörnyei, 2003; Bryman, 2001; Denscombe, 2003).

There are two written questionnaires, one for students, the other for teachers, (see Appendix I and II), each of which consists of closed questions with forms of multiple choice, Likert-type and yes-or-no, and open-ended questions. Both the student questionnaire and the teacher questionnaire consist of two parts. Part I covers demographical information, such as gender, age, major, length of English studying (for students), learning setting, length of English teaching, degree type, length of staying overseas, teaching setting. Part II involves questions concerning both teachers' and students' perception of pragmatic knowledge/competence in College teaching and

learning, and in the College English textbooks they use.

In the teachers questionnaire, the eight items have a Likert-type, five point multiple choice answer that ranges as follows: 1=strongly disagree; 2=disagree; 3=neutral; 4=agree; 5=strongly agree. It also includes two open-ended questions. Teachers were asked to elaborate on the answer if they were inclined to. In the students questionnaire, the six items have a Likert-type, five point multiple choice answer that ranges as follows: 1=strongly disagree; 2=disagree; 3=neutral; 4=agree; 5=strongly agree. It also includes two open-ended questions. The questionnaires were conducted in English because of the teachers' and students' high English proficiency. It took 25 minutes.

A total of 44 questionnaires were administered to a group of 44 College English teachers at one of the top universities in China. The teachers in this group taught undergraduates College English. The questionnaires were given to the teachers by the secretary of the CE centre, while they had group meetings in the staff room of the CE centre in March, 2006.

The sample size of the students was much larger than that of the teachers as there were more students than teachers. Usually the first-year students were arranged in the College English classes at three levels (Level 1, 2, and 3) according to the results of an English proficiency test given by the College English Center at the beginning of the first semester (September, 2005). A total of 196 first-year students from six groups who took the College English courses (College English II, College English III, and Advanced English) in the second semester participated in the study. They were chosen on a voluntary base to do the questionnaires. The students were given the option of not doing the questionnaires or withdraw from the study at any point in time. The second semester of the College English course was deemed a more appropriate time than the first semester given the complexity of the questionnaire and interview. The reason was that the students' English proficiency had improved after one semester's study. The questionnaires were given to the students by the College English teachers. The students

completed the questionnaires together in the classrooms in March 2006. It took 25 minutes. Table 4.1 summarizes the details of questionnaire.

Table 4.1 Questionnaire

Method	Date	Participants	Place	Length of time
Questionnaire (students)	March, 2006	196 students	Teaching Building 2	25 ms
Questionnaire (teachers)	March , 2006	44 teachers	Meeting room, College English Center	25ms

4.2.2 Study 2 Content analysis

Content analysis focuses on the analysis of the textbooks entitled College English (New) textbooks. Content analysis is a method that can be used with any 'text', whether it be in the form of writing, sounds or pictures, as a way of quantifying the contents of that text (Denscombe, 2003, p. 221). Researchers measure information in the content as numbers and present it as tables or graphs. Content analysis is very transparent as the coding scheme and the sampling procedures can be clearly set out. Besides, it is often referred to favorably as an unobtrusive method because it does not contain participants in a study (Bryman, 2001; Neuman, 2003). The purpose of content analysis is to find out the nature of pragmatic materials and tasks in College English textbooks.

College English (New) is compiled by a group of professors from ten key universities in China, published by Shanghai Foreign Languages and Education Press. It is a series of textbooks in six levels. Each level includes: Integrated course book (students book and teachers book), Listening and Speaking course book (students book and teachers book), Reading course book (students book and teachers book), and Faster Reading course book. The frameworks of each type of books are similar, but levels are different.

This series of College English textbooks was chosen based on the following factors. According to the information provided by the Shanghai Foreign Languages and Education Press, the textbooks were used by approximately two million university students every year nationwide. It was one of the four exemplary textbooks (*College*

English, New College English, College English (New), New Experiencing English) recommended by the Chinese Ministry of Education. At the university observed in the current study only *College English (New)* textbooks were used rather than the other three. This series of textbooks is compiled by Chinese EFL professors for EFL students in China. As the current study focuses on the *College English* textbooks compiled by Chinese writers, the adapted EFL/ESL textbooks written by foreign textbook writers are excluded.

Eight main textbooks are chosen to be analyzed from the whole series. They are: Integrated coursebook Books 1, 2, 3, and 4 (students book), and Listening and speaking coursebook Books 1, 2, 3, and 4 (students book). The reason for the choice is that students are usually required to learn four levels, however only Integrated and Listening and Speaking course books are used in class, and the others are for students' self-study. Textbook analysis was conducted word-by-word using the adapted framework from Vellenga (2004), Hatoss (2004), and Byram (1997) (see Appendix III).

4.2.3 Study 3 Classroom observation

Classroom observation is used in Study 3 to examine the teacher's classroom instruction. Observation offers the social researcher a unique way of collecting data. It draws on the direct evidence of the eye to witness events first hand (Denscombe, 2003, p. 192). The purpose is to explore the nature of pragmatic materials and tasks in English classroom teaching and find out how *College English* teachers incorporate pragmatic materials and tasks into the classroom, and how teachers approach the teaching of pragmatics.

The focus of classroom observation is on teachers and their classroom instruction. The observations were conducted in classrooms. The researcher observed the teachers practicing their classroom instruction. The benefit of working within the actual language learning classroom is that research results can be translated into recommendations for pedagogical practice with more plausibility than results from

laboratory studies. Such findings are generalizable and transferable (Rose & Kasper, 2001).

The three College English groups involved in Study 1 (two College English III groups, one Advanced English group) with a total of 130 students (Group 1: 43 students; Group 2: 42 students; Group 3: 45 students) were chosen to be observed on a voluntary basis due to the inflexible university teaching timetable and the limited time the researcher had. During the semester the researcher taught five hours a week, so it was almost impossible to observe more teachers' classes.

As teachers from other universities often audited the English classroom teaching at this university, the students had become accustomed to classroom observation. Those students who were unwilling to be observed in the classroom or who wanted to withdraw half way through could be incorporated into other parallel classrooms to continue their study. So the observation was non-intrusive.

A checklist was used in the classroom observation. This was a list of expected behaviors pre-prepared. Every time some behavior occurred during the specified observation time unit the observer entered a tally mark next to the appropriate category (Keeves, 1988). Its aim is to provide a framework for the observation that will enable the observer to be alert to the same activities and be looking out for the same things; record data systematically and thoroughly; produce data which are consistent (Denscombe, 2003, p. 195). Observations focus primarily on (a) pragmatic materials (both from textbooks and supplementary materials by teachers) (b) pragmatically oriented tasks (both from textbooks and the classroom teaching) (c) teaching approach (d) categories of pragmatic knowledge. Classroom observation adds another layer to the research and helps in finding answers to the research questions.

The classroom observation checklist (see Appendix IV) is based on COLT (Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching Observation Scheme) given by

Spada and Fröhlich (1995) with some adjustment for the purpose of the present study. Field notes were also used.

Classroom observation was conducted in the spring semester (February-July) 2006 in Teaching Building 2. The inflexible university timetable and tight curriculum requirements meant that classroom observation was only possible for 10 weeks which covered four units of study. Classroom observation took place in one group twice a week as students attended English class twice every week. There were two periods each time. Each period lasted 45 minutes. Procedures of classroom observation can be seen in Table 4.2.

Table 4.2 Classroom observation

Method	Date	Participants	Course	Place	Length of time
Classroom observation	02/27/06— 03/23/06	Mary (Group 1)	CE III	Rm 2209 Teaching Building	630 ms
	02/27/06— 03/20/06	Lesley (Group2)	CE III	Rm 2206 Teaching Building	540ms
	03/27/06— 04/27/06	Sue (Group3)	Advanced English	Rm2113 Teaching Building	540ms

4.2.4 Study 4 Semi-structured Interview

A semi-structured interview was conducted to extend the classroom observation. Interview is an essential data collection strategy in case studies as most case studies are about people and their activities (Burns, 1994). The semi-structured interview is useful because it falls between the structured and unstructured format of interview, and has the characteristic of being partly interviewer-led and partly informant-led (Arksey & Knight, 1999). Merriam (1998) claims that a semi-structured interview has the following characteristics:

The largest part of the interview is guided by a list of questions or issues to be explored, and neither the exact wording nor the order of the questions is

determined ahead of time. This format allows the researcher to respond to the situation at hand, to the emerging worldview of the respondent, and to new ideas and the topic (ibid, p.74).

The interviews aimed to collect both teachers' and students' personal views on pragmatic knowledge/competence in the process of their teaching and learning and that contained in College English textbooks and also to identify potential and perceived challenges to the learning and teaching of pragmatic knowledge. Sample interview questions are attached as Appendix V and Appendix VI.

Four teachers who taught College English in levels 1, 2, and 3, and six students in the observed class were interviewed. These teachers were chosen for two reasons. On the one hand, they taught College English at different levels. On the other hand, all of them showed their great interest in the research and were willing to share their ideas. The teachers were interviewed on a one-to-one base. They were all female teachers. As for the students, the teacher who taught the observed class was requested to pick the students as she was very familiar with her students. The students representing the top ten of total 40 (ranking was determined by students' scores on the course "College English" in the first semester.), were invited to take part in a focused group interview. The interviews lasted 45-60 minutes. They were conducted in May and June 2006, immediately after the classroom observation sessions. Data were collected in the form of field notes.

The interview questions were in English, however, both the teachers and students could answer the questions in Chinese to ensure a comfortable and friendly atmosphere and a free flow of information because conveying their perceptions precisely was of paramount importance to the validity of the data. Transcripts of interviews were translated into English by professional translators. They were conducted in a meeting room at College English Center at the end of the first term in April 2006. Although there was a set of interview questions, the researcher tried not to interrupt the

participants' response. As a result, the questions were not asked in sequence and as each participant had his/her own concerns and emphasis, time taken to respond to the particular questions varied. Table 4.3 summarizes the procedures of interview.

Table 4.3 Interview

Method	Date	Participants	Place	Length of time
Interview (students)	05/15/06	Six freshmen from School of Life Science: Tom, Jim, Henry, Ann, Grant, Cindy	Staff room, Teaching Building	40ms
Interview (teachers)	06/12/06	Alyson, teaching CE II	Staff room, CE Center	60ms
	06/05/06	Mary, teaching CE III	Staff room, CE Center	60ms
	06/26/06	Lesley, teaching CE III	Staff room, CE Center	50ms
	06/28/06	Sue, teaching Advanced English	Staff room, CE Center	70ms

4.3 Data collection and data analysis

The techniques for collecting data are qualitative and quantitative. Qualitative data refer to data that is not in numerical form, such as a written account of what happened during a lesson or an interview, whereas quantitative data refer to data that is in numerical form, obtained through counting and measurement (Richards, Platt & Platt, 2000).

The data collection procedures of this research occurred in the following chronological order. First the research project was approved by the university ethical committee in December 2005. Next the research participants were recruited from February through June 2006, and over the same period of time questionnaires, classroom observation, and interviews were conducted.

Data were gathered from the four instruments (questionnaires, content analysis, classroom observation checklist and field notes, and interview transcripts.) to allow triangulation. The application of multiple sources of evidence is likely to make any finding in a case study more convincing and accurate (Yin, 2003).

Coffey and Atkinson (1996) argued that analysis is not simply categorizing and identifying patterns out of data. Instead, analysis is about the representation or reconstruction of social phenomena (p. 108). In analyzing the data, grounded theory (Strauss & Corbin, 1998) was used, beginning with open coding to identify concepts. Labels were assigned to units of text from transcripts, field-notes, textbooks, and interviews, forming the basis to identify concepts through the data set. At the same time, constant comparisons were made in order to find similarities and differences. Next, main categories and subcategories were generated to establish large categories and make connection between larger categories and subcategories. After returning to the literature, the emerging categories were conceptualized into two themes.

Open coding is the process of breaking down, examining, comparing, conceptualizing, and categorizing data (Strauss & Corbin, 1998). Open coding is used with line-by-line analysis. This type of coding involves close examination of data, phrase by phrase, and sometimes word by word. By using this method, it is possible to generate and develop categories through further sampling along dimensions of a category's general properties.

Qualitative data analysis was carried out on completed textbook analysis, questionnaires, checklists and field-notes of classroom observation, semi-structured interview transcripts combined with some quantitative data analysis of questionnaires and content analysis. Since a large amount of qualitative data can be obtained, those data need to be organized and categorized. Neuman's (Neuman, 2003) three steps of coding were used. They are: 1) open coding by assigning initial codes to condense the data into categories and by building an indexing system for the data; 2) axial coding by organizing preliminary concepts based on the categories; 3) selective coding by looking selectively at cases that illustrate the themes and by comparing and contrasting them after most of the data collection is completed. At the end of the data coding process, a table of categorization for collected data was formed.

Category 1: Pragmatics in teaching

Availability of input

Materials and tasks

Ways of teaching – explicit/implicit

Proficiency level (grammatical competence and pragmatic competence)

Category 2: Pragmatics in textbooks

A. Determining amount of pragmatic information (quantitative data %)

General pragmatic information

Meta-pragmatic information

Meta-language

Cultural knowledge

Speech acts

Pragmatically oriented tasks

Learning how to learn pragmatic knowledge

B. Determining types of pragmatic knowledge (qualitative data)

General pragmatic information

Meta-pragmatic information

Meta-language

Cultural knowledge

Speech acts

Pragmatically oriented tasks

Learning how to learn pragmatic knowledge

The triangulation approach was used to compare and examine data gained from the multiple sources of evidence. Triangulation involves locating a true position by referring to two or more other coordinates (Denscombe, 2003). It has been generally considered a process of using multiple perceptions to clarify meaning and verify the repeatability of an observation or interpretation (Denzin & Lincoln, 2000, p. 443).

The type of triangulation used in this research is data triangulation (Yin, 2003) in which the researcher collects data from multiple sources, such as questionnaire, semi-structured interview, direct classroom observation, and textbook analysis.

The data analysis framework (see Appendix III) used in the present study is adapted from the Vellenga's framework (Vellenga, 2004), Hatoss' framework (Hatoss, 2004), and Byram's framework (Byram, 1997). The analysis focuses on mapping out the scope of pragmatic knowledge contained in the textbooks and classroom teaching, rather than exploring specific pragmatic knowledge.

4.4 Ethical issues

In conducting this study, several ethical issues associated with the study were considered because of the human involvement in the present study. The project received approval from the Human Ethics Committee of the University of Sydney before it was conducted. All the informants including teachers and students were briefed in advance, which enabled them to prepare for their participation fully aware. Participation in the study was not compulsory, and the participants were entitled to drop out. As required, all aspects of the study were strictly confidential and pseudonyms were used during all processes involved with researcher's analyzing questionnaire data, interview transcription, and classroom observation data, guaranteeing anonymity when results of the study reports were made public through the submission of the present dissertation.

4.5 Summary

In this chapter, details about the methodology of this research and the data analysis procedures were discussed. Four research methods – content analysis, questionnaire, classroom observation, and interview—were the major means of collecting both quantitative and qualitative data. One hundred and ninety six students and 44 teachers participated in the research and College English (New) textbooks including Integrated coursebooks and Listening and Speaking coursebooks were examined. The following chapter will present the data and the findings of this study.

CHAPTER 5

RESEARCH DATA REPORT

The previous chapter described in detail the research methods used in the study. In this chapter, both quantitative and qualitative data taken from questionnaires, content analysis, classroom observation, and interview are presented according to the categorization mentioned in Chapter 4. It focuses on reporting and description of the data, leaving more interpretive discussions to Chapter 6.

5.1 Questionnaire data

This section reports on the findings in relation to two of the inquiries of the study: How do Chinese teachers and students perceive pragmatic knowledge in the process of teaching and learning and in College English textbooks? How do Chinese College English teachers incorporate pragmatic materials and tasks into the classroom? Quantitative data obtained from 239 participants' responses (196 students and 43 teachers) to the questionnaires were analyzed by means of a factor analysis.

All demographic variables were analyzed for significance of the relationship between demographic factors and the students' and teachers' perception of pragmatics in College English learning and teaching and materials development. In the second part of the questionnaire, eight items in the teachers' questionnaire and six items in the students' questionnaire used a Likert 1-5 rating scale. On the basis of the criteria of mean (Oxford, 1990), a mean score equal to or greater than 3.50 was interpreted as having a strong degree of impact (3.5-5=strong); a mean score of 2.50 to 3.49 on the scale was considered a moderate impact (2.50-3.49=moderate), and a mean score equal to or less than 2.49 on the scale was interpreted as having a weak degree of impact (≤ 2.49 =weak).

Frequencies and percentages were reported on all of the demographic survey information obtained. All attitudinal statements were analyzed by the use of percentages, means, and standard deviations. Results were constructed in tables and figures and described in narrative form. The statistical analysis of the data was done using SPSS. Qualitative data from open-ended questions are stated in the end of the section.

5.1.1 Data of teachers' questionnaire

Demographic data

In the demographic profile section of the survey, the teachers were asked to list total number of years of teaching experience. Of the total population surveyed, 20.9% of the teachers had 0-5 years of teaching experience; 23.3% teachers had 6-10 years of teaching experience; 23.3% teachers had 11-15 years of total teaching experience, and 32.6% teachers had more than 16 years of total teaching experience. In the chronological age category, 20.9% of the teachers were 20-30 years of age; 48.8% of the participants were 31-40 years of age; 16.3% of those surveyed were aged 41-50, and 14% of the teachers were 51-60 years old.

In the area of grade level taught, 25.6% of the participants taught College English I; 27.9% taught College English II; 34.9% taught College English III; and 11.6% taught Advanced English. As for the highest degree of education teachers have attained, 4.7% of the teachers held a PhD degree; 72.1% held a Master's Degree; and 23.3% held a Bachelor's Degree. 90.2% of the teachers obtained their highest degrees in China, only 9.8% overseas. 65.1% of the teachers use College English New textbooks, whereas 34.9% used 21st Century English textbooks. The teacher demographic data are shown in Table 5.1.

Table 5. 1: Demographic data of teachers

Items	Number	Percentage
1. Gender		
male	12	27.9
female	31	72.1
2. Chronological age		
20-30	9	20.9
31-40	21	48.8
41-50	7	16.3
51-60	6	14
3. Highest Degree Held		
Master	31	72.1
PhD	2	4.7
BA	10	23.3
4. Where you have got your degree		
In China	37	90.2
Overseas	4	9.8
5. Teaching experience		
0-5 years	9	20.9
6-10 years	10	23.3
11-15 years	10	23.3
more than 16 years	14	32.6
6. Course		
College English I	11	25.6
College English II	12	27.9
College English III	15	34.9
Advanced English	5	11.6
7. Textbooks		
College English New	28	65.1
21 st Century English	15	34.9

Teachers' Perceptions on pragmatics in CE teaching/learning, and textbooks

As for the data about teachers' perceptions on pragmatics in English teaching, learning and textbooks, percentages, means, and standard deviations were utilized to represent the results of the survey instrument. A strong degree of agreement was determined by a mean of 3.50 or above, a moderate degree a mean of 2.49 to 3.49, and a weak degree a mean of 2.48 or below. Table 5.2 presents the result.

Table 5. 2: Teachers views on pragmatics in English teaching/learning and textbooks

Statement	SA	A	N	D	SD	Mean	SD
#8	3	10	13	13	4	2.8837	1.09565
Percentage	7.0	23.3	30.2	30.2	9.3		
#9	8	24	8	3		3.8605	.80420
Percentage	18.6	55.8	18.6	7			
#10	2	19	15	5	2	3.3256	.91862
percentage	4.7	44.2	34.9	11.6	4.7		
#11	1	20	13	7	2	3.2558	.92821
Percentage	2.3	46.5	30.2	16.3	4.7		
#12	2	20	16	4	1	3.4186	.82325
Percentage	4.7	46.5	37.2	9.3	2.3		
#13	2	1	7	27	6	2.2093	.88797
Percentage	4.7	2.3	16.3	62.8	14		
#14	18	23	1	1		4.3488	.65041
Percentage	41.9	53.5	2.3	2.3			
#15	5	9	11	18		3.0233	1.05759
Percentage	11.6	20.9	25.6	41.9			

Note. SA=Strongly Agree, A= Agree, N= Neutral, D= Disagree, SD= Strongly Disagree

Mean: 3.50-5.0=strong 2.50-3.49=moderate ≤2.49=weak

8. I believe learning English means learning English grammar, pronunciation, and vocabulary.

9. I think linguistic knowledge (e.g. vocabulary and grammar) is as important as the knowledge of how to use the language.

10. I often correct the mistake when my students use inappropriate words although they are grammatically correct

11. I find College English textbooks contain much information on culture, conversation rules, usage, style and how to use English appropriately.

12. I think College English textbooks I use can assist me to teach students how to use English appropriately.

13. I don't know how to teach cultural knowledge and appropriateness of language use in my teaching.

14. I think raising students' awareness of acquiring information on culture and appropriateness of language use is more useful than to teach specific knowledge.

15. I think it is the textbook writer's responsibility to provide information on language use.

As shown in Table 5.2, as far as importance of teaching pragmatics in classroom is concerned, 18.6% of the survey respondents strongly agree and 55.8% agree that learning pragmatic knowledge is as important as learning linguistic knowledge as demonstrated in means scores 3.8605. Four point seven percent of the teachers strongly agree and 44.2% teachers agree that they often correct the pragmatic mistakes made by their students. However, 51.2% respondents reported neutral,

disagree, or strongly disagree. Consequently only a moderate degree was recorded for this statement (Means=3.3256).

As for the textbooks, responses indicate a moderate agreement about pragmatics in textbooks. The data show that 48.8% respondents strongly agree or agree that College English textbooks contain much pragmatic knowledge and 51.2% respondents think that College English textbooks can assist them to teach their students pragmatic knowledge. A strong degree is reported for Statement 14 (Mean=4.3488). 95.4% respondents think that raising students' awareness of acquiring information on culture and appropriateness of language use is important. Only 7% respondents indicate that they do not know how to teach pragmatic knowledge in classroom as demonstrated in a low degree (Means=2.2093).

With regard to incorporating pragmatics in classroom teaching, percentages were used to represent the result, as shown in Figures 5.1-5.5.

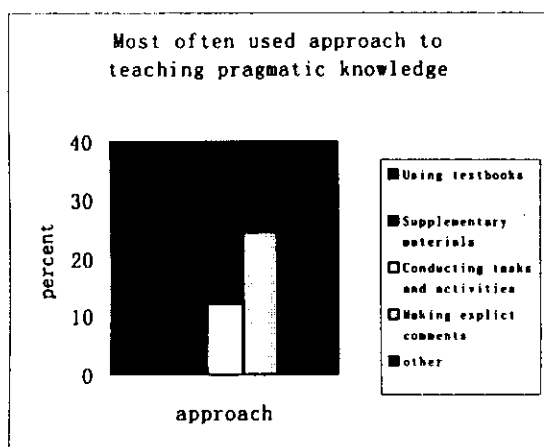


Figure 5.1

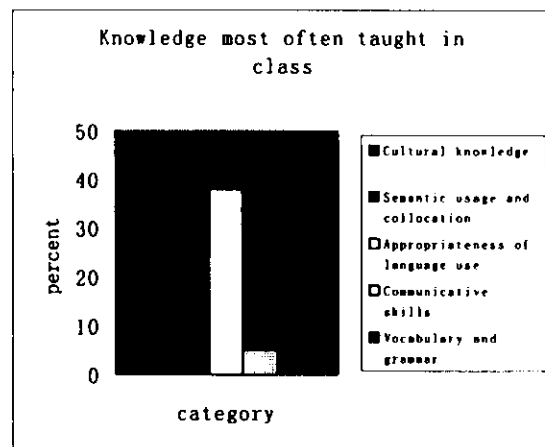


Figure 5.2

As shown in Figure 5.1 and Figure 5.2, the most frequently taught knowledge in the classroom is appropriateness of language use (38.1%). The others are ranked as follows: semantic usage and collocation (23.8%), cultural knowledge (21.4%), vocabulary and grammar (11.9%), and communicative skills (4.8%). The approach the teachers most frequently used to teach pragmatic knowledge is using

supplementary materials (36.6%). The others are listed as using textbooks (26.8%), making explicit comments (24.4%), and conducting tasks and activities (12.2%).

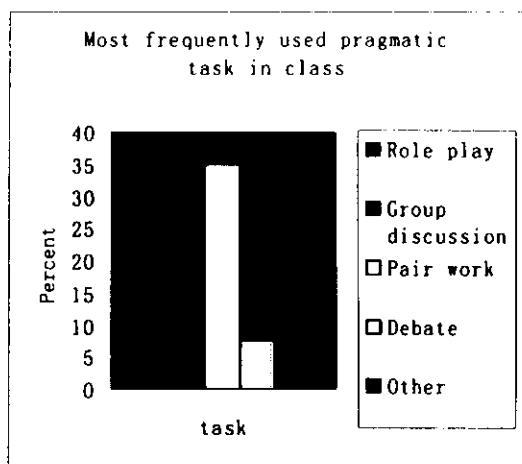


Figure 5.3

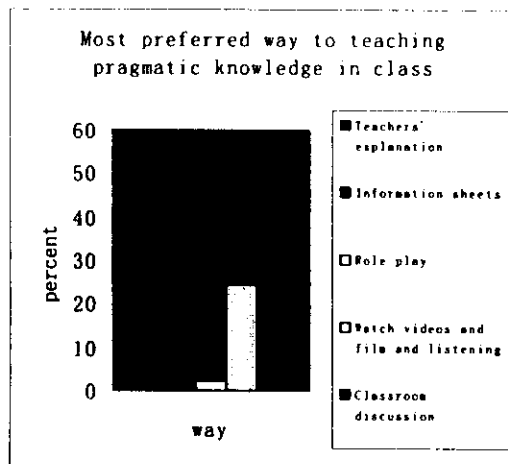


Figure 5.4

When it comes to the tasks teachers most frequently conducted in teaching pragmatic knowledge, pair work is most often used (35%), then group discussion (30%), role play (22.5%), debate (7.5%), other (5%) (see Figure 5.3). When asked which is the preferred way to teach pragmatic knowledge in the future, 51.2% of the teachers

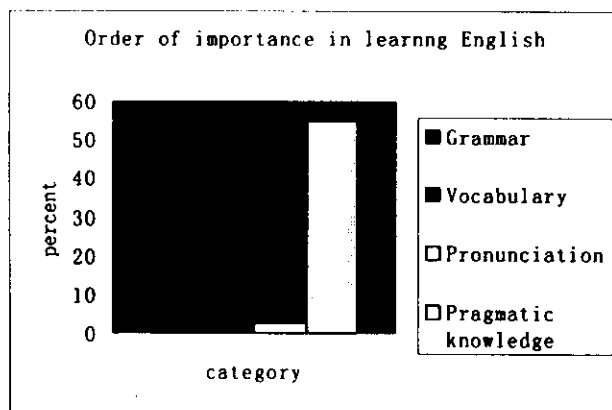


Figure 5.5

chose teacher's explanation, 24.4% of the teachers chose listening to dialogues and watch video. Seventeen point one percent of the teachers chose classroom discussion. Only 4.9% chose information sheet and 2.4% chose role play activities (see Figure 5.4).

When asked to rank the listed items about English learning in order of importance, 54.8% of the teachers chose knowledge on how to use English. The others are

vocabulary (35.7%), grammar (7.1%), and pronunciation (2.4%) (see Figure 5.5).

Two open-ended questions were provided at the end of the survey in order to elicit participants' personal responses. A summary analysis of these questions is presented in narrative form.

Open-ended question #1:

What kinds of tasks do you think need to be included in teaching language use in class?

Why?

Thirteen teachers suggested that watching videos and films should be included in teaching pragmatic knowledge because by watching videos and films students can learn the authentic language and experience the real English speaking context. Eleven teachers recommended classroom discussion. Ten teachers said that role-play should be included in teaching pragmatic knowledge. Five teachers chose pair work as it is easy to conduct and saves time. Seven teachers said that by doing presentations, students could not only practice their pragmatic knowledge but also find new pragmatic knowledge by themselves and share it with their classmates and teachers.

Other tasks such as listening to dialogues and practice, debate, listening to English songs, and playing games, were also mentioned by the teachers. They believed that the teachers' explanation of pragmatic knowledge is of great importance, however, it is also necessary for them to design various kinds of tasks in class and provide students opportunities to practice what they have learned about pragmatic knowledge.

Open-ended question #2:

Do you believe that the current College English textbooks will enable you to improve your teaching of language use in class? Why and why not?

Twenty teachers believed that to some extent the current College English textbooks can enable them to improve their teaching of pragmatic knowledge in class in terms of materials selection and lexical teaching. For example, the themes of some units are

related to American society, culture, and history which enhance the students' pragmatic competence. There is a large amount of exercises on grammar, usage and collocation. Teachers can make full use of these exercises and help students improve their lexical ability.

However, thirteen teachers held a negative view. They claimed that the current College English textbooks can't assist them to improve their teaching of pragmatic knowledge in class. Textbooks contain a little cultural background knowledge with few pragmatically oriented tasks and little metapragmatic explanation. As one of the teacher respondents said: "The current textbooks focus too much on language itself, such as how to use words and sentence patterns. But little pragmatic knowledge, such as metapragmatic explanation, context, speech acts, pragmatic rules, etc., is included in the textbooks. In fact students have a strong desire for knowledge of communicative skills, such as how to start a conversation, how to choose an appropriate topic, and in what context. "

5.1.2 Data of students' questionnaire

Demographic data

Like the teachers' questionnaire, the students' questionnaire consists of two parts. The demographic profile part of the survey revealed that 51.5% of the students are female and 48.5% males. The students have different majors. Thirty one point six percent of the students are specialized in science, 62.2% in liberal arts, and 6.1% in medicine. As for the length of time learning English, 40.5% of the students have learned English for more than ten years; 58.5% for 6-10 years; and 1% for less than 6 years. Only 4.1% of the students have overseas English learning experience. While they were doing the questionnaire, 30.1% of the students took College English II, 41.3% took College English III, and 27.6% took Advanced English. Ninety seven point four percent of the students used College English textbooks. The demographic data are shown in Table 5.3.

Table 5.3: Demographic data of students

Items	Number	Percentage
1. Gender		
male	95	48.5
female	101	51.5
2. Chronological age		
under 20	140	71.4
20 and above	56	28.6
3. Major		
Science	62	31.6
Liberal Arts	122	62.2
Medicine	12	6.1
4. Length of Learning English		
More than 10 years	79	40.5
6-10 years	114	58.5
Less than 6 years	2	1
5. Overseas learning experience		
Yes	8	4.1
No	186	95.9
6. Course		
College English I	2	1
College English II	59	30.1
College English III	81	41.3
Advanced English	54	27.6
7. Textbooks		
College English New	191	97.4
21 st Century English	4	2

Students' perceptions of pragmatics in CE teaching/learning, and textbooks

The result of the second part of the students' questionnaire is shown as follows (Table 5.4).

As shown in Table 5.4, a strong degree of impact was reported for Statement 9 (Mean=4.5052), Statement 12 (Mean=3.9793), and Statement 13 (Mean=4.2371). 60.8% of the students strongly agree and 32.5% agree that they want to develop knowledge other than grammar and vocabulary from their College English course. 22.8% of the students strongly agree and 60.6% agree that their English teachers give

them much knowledge about culture, rules of usage, style, and how to use English appropriately. 84% of the students strongly agree or agree that teachers should teach them explicitly how to communicate with people, and how to use English appropriately. At the same time, a moderate degree of impact was reported for Statement 10, (Mean=3.4741), and Statement 11 (Mean=3.2539). 58.3% of the students think that their College English textbooks contain much information on culture, rules of usage, style, and how to use English appropriately. Only 34.8% of the students strongly agree or agree that their College English textbooks provide them with tasks to improve their ability to use English appropriately.

Table 5.4: Perceptions on pragmatics in teaching/learning, and textbooks

Statement	SA	A	N	D	SD	Mean	SD
#8	7	34	23	90	40	2.3711	1.10411
Percentage	3.6	17.5	11.9	46.4	20.6		
#9	118	63	8	3	2	4.5052	.74282
Percentage	60.8	32.5	4.1	1.5	1.0		
#10	19	94	49	24	8	3.4742	.97207
percentage	9.8	48.5	25.3	12.4	4.1		
#11	9	58	80	32	13	3.2539	2.42229
Percentage	4.7	30.1	41.5	16.6	6.7		
#12	44	117	20	8	4	3.9793	.82890
Percentage	22.8	60.6	10.4	4.1	2.1		
#13	91	72	22	4	5	4.2371	.91926
Percentage	46.9	37.1	11.3	2.1	2.6		

Note. SA=Strongly Agree, A= Agree, N= Neutral, D= Disagree, SD= Strongly Disagree

8. I believe learning English means learning English grammar, pronunciation and vocabulary..

9. I want to develop knowledge other than grammar and vocabulary from my CE course.

10. I think my CE textbooks contain much information on culture, rules of usage, style, and how to use English appropriately.

11. My CE textbooks provide me with tasks to improve my ability to use English appropriately.

12. My English teachers give us much knowledge on culture, rules of usage, style, and how to use English appropriately.

13. I think teachers should teach us explicitly how to communicate with people, and how to use English appropriately.

The findings of the students' perception of pragmatic teaching and learning are shown

in Figures 5.6 –5.9.

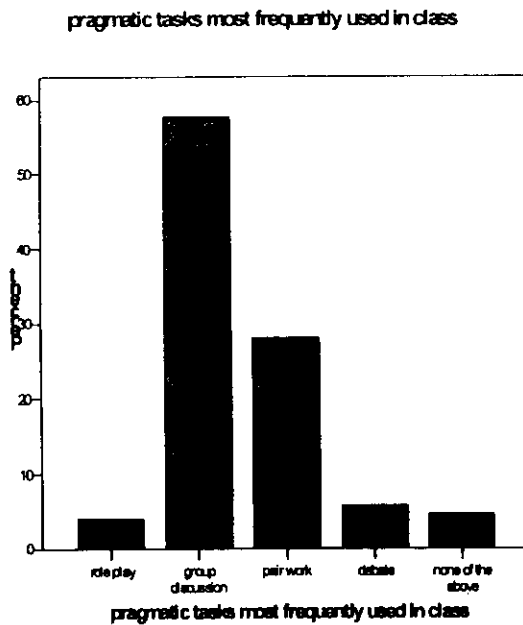


Figure 5.6

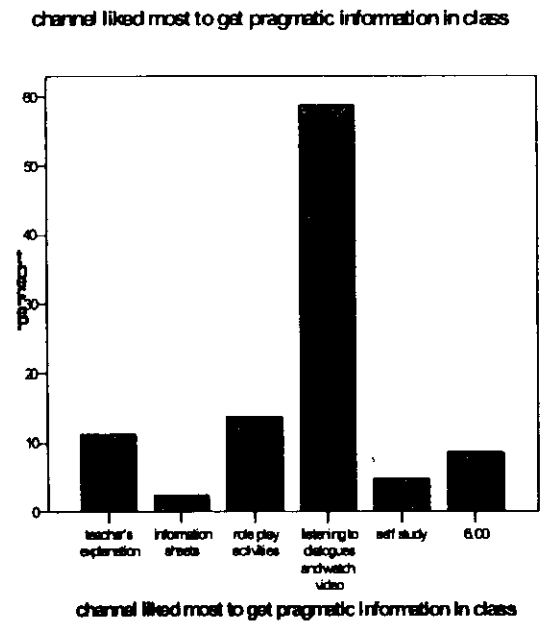


Figure 5.7

Figure 5.6 indicates that when asked what task their teachers most frequently use in teaching language use, 57.7% of the students chose group discussion, 28% of the students chose pair work, 5.7% chose debate, and 4% chose role play. Figure 5.7 shows that the way the students want most to get the pragmatic knowledge in classroom is accomplishing tasks (72.6%), in which listening to dialogues and watching videos accounts for 58.8%. The others are: teachers' explicit teaching (11.3%), implicit teaching (2.5%), and self-study (5%).

The ability with which the students want to improve their learning English most is ability to communicate with people (84.7%). Next are ability to translate (7.6%), ability to read materials 3.6%, and ability to take English examinations (3.5%) (see Figure 5.8). With regard to ranking the four items about English learning, the percentage of vocabulary is the highest (40.4%), pragmatic knowledge (38.9%), pronunciation (18.7%), and grammar (2.1%) (see Figure 5.9).

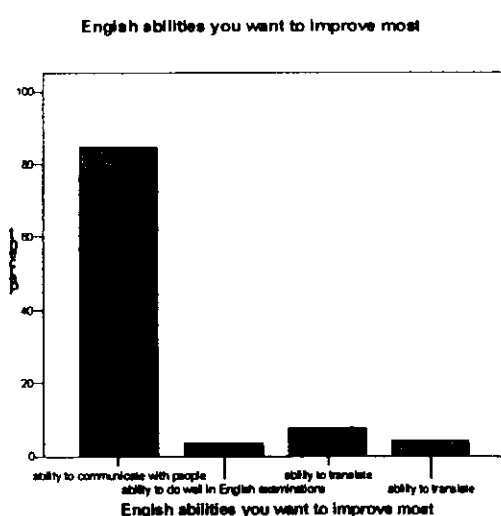


Figure 5.8

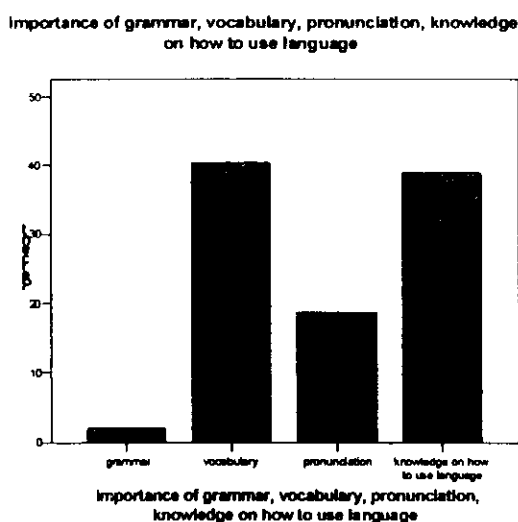


Figure 5.9

Students, regardless of different levels of proficiency, marked similar choices for the items in the questionnaire. The details can be found in the following table. These questions are about the students' perception of teaching and learning pragmatics. The mean scores of these questions done by three groups of students who are CE II students (intermediate level), CE III students (intermediate plus level), and Advanced English students (advanced level) are listed.

Table 5.5: Means of Questions 8-13 in students' questionnaire

Questions	CEII (Mean)	CEIII (Mean)	Advanced (Mean)
Q8: I believe learning English means learning English grammar, pronunciation, and vocabulary.	2.254	2.375	2.075
Q9: I want to develop knowledge other than grammar and vocabulary from my CE course.	4.322	4.600	4.604
Q10: I think my College English textbooks contain much information on culture, rules of usage, style, and how to use English appropriately.	3.661	3.600	3.113
Q11: My College English textbooks provide me with tasks to improve my ability to use English appropriately.	3.414	3.050	2.792
Q12: My English teachers give us much knowledge on culture, rules of usage, style, and how to use English appropriately.	3.931	3.975	4.019
Q13: I think teachers should teach us explicitly how to communicate with people, and how to use English appropriately.	4.189	4.388	4.132

All the students chose group discussion as the way most frequently used in classroom

teaching. They all want to get the pragmatic information most by watching videos and films. And the ability they most want to improve in learning English is ability to communicate with people. They think the most important part in learning English is learning knowledge on how to use the language.

Open-ended questions were also provided at the end of the survey in order to elicit participants' personal responses. The respondents' output was consequently not limited by asking them to choose categories from a list of ways. They were free to answer by providing any aspect of their language learning experience that they found most appealing. They were encouraged to offer additional information. Some students chose not to answer the questions. One hundred and fifty one respondents answered the questions and 45 chose not to answer. A summary of the answers to these questions is presented in narrative form.

Open-ended question #1:

*What do you think your teachers should do in teaching English use in classroom?
Why?*

Generally speaking, students suggested three ways for teaching pragmatic knowledge in the classroom. Thirty nine students thought teachers' instruction should focus on lexical explanation according to different contexts, cultural knowledge, pragmatic rules. One of the student respondents proposed that teachers should make a comparison between English and Chinese and attempt to find the differences. Generally they thought teachers' instruction was efficient and comprehensive. Eighty four students preferred teachers to teach them pragmatic knowledge by conducting tasks. Fifty students wanted to learn pragmatic knowledge by watching English videos and films, and listening to news. Fifteen students preferred discussion. Nine students liked making dialogues, seven students intended to augment pragmatic knowledge by reading authentic materials. Eight students suggested role-play. Only three students chose debate. Two students selected playing games. One student liked questioning. One student preferred singing songs. The tasks the students liked are presented in the order of the number of votes below:

1. Watching English videos and films, and listening to news (50)
2. Discussion (15)
3. Making dialogues (9)
4. Reading authentic materials (7)
5. Role play (8)
6. Debate (3)
7. Playing games (2)
8. Questioning (1)
9. Singing songs (1)

Students have their own reasons for learning pragmatics in the process of accomplishing tasks. One of the respondents said: "It is more vivid, effective and interesting and easy to understand the pragmatic knowledge by accomplishing tasks." Twenty eight students stated that they preferred teachers' instruction plus tasks. Another respondent explained: "Teachers' instruction could give us exposure to much pragmatic knowledge, while tasks could help us practice what we learned so that we could easily master the knowledge."

Open-ended question #2:

Do you believe that the current College English textbook will enable you to improve your ability to communicate with people and to use English appropriately? Why and why not?

Eighty five students gave a positive answer, whereas 89 students gave a negative answer. Eighteen students chose not to answer the question. The data indicate that the reasons for negative answers given by students are as follows: The content of the textbooks is not practical and what students learn from the textbooks cannot be applied to practice. Besides, some texts are boring and only focus on vocabulary, grammar and reading input. Furthermore there is a paucity of oral materials and tasks, and communicative skills in textbooks. Textbooks contain too many examination-oriented materials with only a few pragmatic oriented tasks and metapragmatic information.

5.2 Content analysis data

Eight textbooks chosen from College English (New) textbooks were analyzed. They are Integrated Coursebook (Books 1-4) and Listening and Speaking Coursebook (Books 1-4). In the preface, the authors state that this series of textbooks was designed according to the principles of eclecticism, which incorporates various kinds of teaching approaches into material design. It places emphasis on learners' classroom practice in simulated real-life contexts so as to develop their competence to use language. The design of the exercises is based on interaction between teachers and students and a task-based approach. It is not difficult to identify some mainstream communicative themes in the above statements -- real-life, context, task-based, and competence to use language. Furthermore, the textbooks are arranged on the basis of themes.

The framework of the analysis is adapted from Vellenga's framework (Vellenga, 2004), Hatoss' framework (Hatoss, 2004), and Byram's framework (Byram, 1997) (see Appendix III). Any information relevant to general pragmatic information, metapragmatic information, metalanguage, cultural information, and information on how to learn pragmatic knowledge is coded as pragmatic information.

General pragmatic information encompasses a variety of topics related to politeness, appropriacy, formality, register and culture. Metapragmatic information mainly includes a general explanation for the functions of speech acts, discussion of politeness such as formality, appropriacy, register and illocutionary force, conversation norms and implicature, register, discourse, social variants, and context (Vellenga, 2004).

Metalanguage refers to the language used to analyse or describe a language (Richards, et al., 2000). The explanatory nature of metalanguage can provide learners with extralinguistic information such as usage notes and contextual information (Vellenga, 2004). Metalanguage in textbooks could be an important source of linguistic input for EFL learners (Kim & Hall, 2002). Metalanguage in the current study focuses on

semantic usage and collocation.

Speech acts centre on the explicit mention and metapragmatic description of speech acts. Cultural knowledge includes high culture, low culture, surface culture, and deep culture (Hatoss, 2004). Information on how to acquire pragmatic knowledge focuses on how to discover cultural information, how to interpret and relate information, how to relativise oneself and value the attitudes and beliefs of the other (Byram, 1997).

A page including any of the above information, be it just one phrase or one line, is counted as one page. Thus the percentages shown below may appear inflated.

5.2.1 College English Integrated textbooks: quantitative/qualitative data

Pragmatic knowledge: quantitative data

Comparison of the number of pages and units in each of the four Integrated Course textbooks shows that the books are similar in terms of length and number of units. The overall structure of the first four textbooks has been highlighted in the following Table 5.6:

Table 5. 6: Pages and units in Integrated textbooks

Text	Number of unit	Number of page	Mean
Integrated Course Book 1	8	378	382.75 (SD=13.14)
Integrated Course Book 2	8	364	
Integrated Course Book 3	8	390	
Integrated Course Book 4	8	399	

As the textbooks are determined to be approximately equivalent in terms of length, page-by-page analysis of the textbooks is performed to investigate the amount and nature of pragmatic information contained in the textbooks. Table 5.7 shows the distribution of pragmatic information tabulated by number of pages.

Table 5.7: Pragmatic knowledge in CE Integrated textbooks

Textbook	Pages of pragmatic knowledge	Total number of pages	Percentage of pragmatic knowledge
BK1(Integrated course, students' book)	71	378	18.8%
BK2 (Integrated course, students' book)	63	364	17.3%
BK3 (Integrated course, students' book)	54	390	13.8%
BK4 (integrated course, students' book)	46	399	11.5%
Total	234	1531	15.3%

According to Table 6, pragmatic knowledge accounts for 15.3% on average of the four textbooks. The percentages of pages which include pragmatic knowledge in each textbook are ranked as 18.8% in Book 1, 17.3% in Book 2, 13.8% in Book 3, and 11.5% in Book 4. The descriptive statistics including means, ranges and standard deviations for the four Integrated Course textbooks are displayed in Table 5.8.

Table 5.8: Descriptive statistics of pragmatic knowledge in CE Integrated textbooks

	Mean	Range	Min	Max	Standard deviation
Pragmatic pages	58.5	25	46	71	12.89
Total pages	382.75	35	364	399	13.16
% Pragmatic information	16.5%	7.3%	11.5%	18.8%	2.94%

As shown in Table 5.8, the mean of the pragmatic pages in the four books is 58.5 (SD=12.89). The highest score is 71 and the lowest score is 46. As for the percentage of pragmatic information in the four books, the mean score is 16.5% (SD=2.94%). The highest percentage is 18.8% and the lowest percentage is 11.5%

As indicated earlier, pragmatic knowledge is defined in a broad sense in the present study. It includes general pragmatic information, metapragmatic information, metalanguage, speech acts, cultural information, pragmatically oriented tasks and information about how to acquire pragmatic knowledge. Table 5.9 demonstrates the descriptive statistics by percentage of different types of pragmatic knowledge included in the four College English (New) Integrated Course textbooks.

Table 5.9 Descriptive statistics on types of pragmatic knowledge in CE Integrated textbooks

Types of pragmatic knowledge	Pages	percentage
General pragmatic information	25	10.7%
Metapragmatic information	71	30.3%
Metalanguage	57	24.4%
Cultural information	46	19.7%
Pragmatically-oriented task	35	14.9%
Total	234	100%

As illustrated in Table 5.9, the percentages of each type of pragmatic information in the four textbooks are ranked from high to low as follows: metapragmatic information (30.3%), metalanguage (24.4%), cultural information (19.7%), pragmatically-oriented task (14.9%), and general pragmatic information (10.7%). No information about how to learn pragmatic knowledge is included in the four textbooks.

Amongst the pragmatic knowledge included in the textbooks, metapragmatic information accounts for the largest percentage (30.3%). Metalanguage and cultural information is ranked as second (24.4%) and third (19.7%). The amount of pragmatically oriented tasks is the smallest (14.9%).

Table 5.10 displays more descriptive statistics on means, range, and standard deviation of pragmatic information in the four College English (New) Integrated Course textbooks in terms of types of pragmatic information. Among five types of

pragmatic information, the mean score of general pragmatic information is the lowest 6.25 (SD=2.96), whereas the mean score of metapragmatic information is the highest 15.75 (SD=4.77).

Table 5.10: Descriptive Statistics of types of Pragmatic knowledge in CE Integrated textbooks

	Mean	Range	Min	Max	Standard deviation
General pragmatic information	6.25	4	4	8	2.96
Metapragmatic information	17.75	9	13	22	4.36
Metalanguage	14.25	6	11	17	4.33
Cultural information	11.5	7	8	15	5.39
Task	8.75	11	4	15	8.41

Pragmatically oriented tasks contained in the Integrated textbooks are presented in two forms: oral and written. Oral tasks consist of pair work, debate, role-play, and group discussion. Written tasks include filling in charts, checking your own work using a checklist, and answering questions. Among the pages containing tasks, written tasks largely outnumbered oral tasks (25 out of 35 pages).

Apart from the limited amount of pragmatically oriented tasks (14.9%), the percentage of cultural information is also comparatively small. Its percentage is only 19.7% of the total pragmatic information contained in the four textbooks.

Pragmatic knowledge: qualitative data

In addition to the quantitative analysis, a qualitative analysis of the nature and level of richness of the pragmatic information included in the textbooks was carried out. Metapragmatic information, metalanguage, cultural information, and tasks were selected for analysis. Considering the small amount (10.7%), general pragmatic information was not reported.

Metapragmatic information

The metapragmatic information contained in the four textbooks includes the discussion of politeness (including formality, appropriacy and illocutionary force), register, and discourse. Terms such as formal and informal, American English and British English are used in New Words and Expressions in the four textbooks. For example, “cabbie (*infml*), windshield (*AmE*), or something (*infml*)” in Unit 3, Book 1, “conductor (*AmE*); mess around (*infml*); no way (*infml*)” in Unit 7, Integrated coursebook Book 1. Descriptions of situations which indicate when formal or polite usage can be used are rarely included. For example, “no way” is indicated as “*infml*” in Unit 7, Book 1, but no further information about in what context it can be used is provided.

Discussion of illocutionary force focuses on new words and expressions. It is very brief and simple. For example: “rigid (*often disapproving*), prim (*usu. disapproving*); home and dry: definitely safe, here the phrase is used ironically. (p. 120); aggressive: derog (Unit 3, Integrated coursebook, Book 3); bide: (*arch*) wait (Unit 1, Integrated coursebook, Book 4).” Furthermore, in Unit 5, Integrated coursebook, Book 2, discussion of writer's tone is presented. The writers indicate that “to bring home the point the writer wants to convey to the reader, his/her tone - whether it is angry, sympathetic, amused, or admiring about the subject - plays an important role in a personal description.” (p. 173)

Discussion of register focuses on stylistic difference between speech and writing. In Unit 3, Integrated coursebook, Book 2, the writers provide detailed differences between speech and writing:

“Speech is informal, while writing is considered more formal. In speech sentences are shorter and use few complex structures. Sometimes they are incomplete. For example, when Father said to Diane: “I know how much you like young Kyle.” Diane was so embarrassed that she simply said: “Father!” When a word or phrase, such as “affect” or “come over”, expresses the same

meaning in writing one generally chooses the former while in speech, the latter.”
(p. 96)

It is indicated that in explaining the stylistic difference between speech and writing, writers take into consideration of context and formality.

Discourse discussion accounts for many pages in the metapragmatic information in the four Integrated textbooks. Almost every unit in the textbooks provides learners with discourse information on writing strategies. The main writing strategies included in the textbooks are: how to write a narrative; how to write a personal letter; how to write an expository essay; comparison and contrast; how to write formal and informal invitations; coherence; how to write a persuasive essay; how to write a thank-you letter; using cause and effect in essay writing; ways to conclude an essay. Discourse knowledge is distributed systematically.

Furthermore, the textbooks show progression and recycling of discourse knowledge by presenting writing strategies. For example, the writing strategy “how to write a persuasive essay” was first discussed in Unit 8 Book 2. It is discussed again in depth in Unit 8 Book 3.

Apart from writing strategies, metapragmatic information of formality (e.g. how to write formal and informal invitations), and information on genre (e.g. expository essay, narrative) are also presented in textbooks although in small amounts.

Metalinguage

In the present study only the text used to explain grammatical points, usage and collocation was chosen for report despite the fact that the entire contents of a textbook can be considered metalinguistic (Vellenga, 2004). Text within reading passages, examples, and exercises was ignored.

Metalinguage in the four Integrated textbooks is at lexical level. The use of words

(noun, adj., ad. etc.), phrases, and expressions are described and analyzed. Metalanguage here functions as description and instruction. For example, “English words are mainly formed by means of affixation (including prefixation and suffixation), conversion, compounding, back-formation, blending, and abbreviation. A prefix is a letter or group of letters added to the beginning of a word to form a new one.” (Unit 3, Integrated Book 1, p. 74)

In this example, metalanguage is used to explicitly explain how words are formed. Take another example:

“We sometimes have to talk about things which people find unpleasant, offensive, or embarrassing, for example, sex, the human body, or death. To avoid shocking or upsetting those we speak to, we tend, instead, to use a euphemism – a polite, pleasant, or indirect word or expression. For instance, instead of saying ‘die’, we may choose to use its euphemism ‘pass away’.”

Here metalanguage is used to instruct learners about the usage of a particular form “euphemism”.

Cultural information

The percentage of cultural information contained in the four textbooks is 19.7% of the total pragmatic information contained in the four textbooks. As for the variety of cultural information, the data indicate that cultural information about literature, society, history, music, holidays, famous people, and customs is often provided and explained. For example, the following examples can be found in the footnotes:

“The Last of the Just: The book records the cruelty suffered by the Jews, beginning in England in 1105 and ending with the Holocaust. Originally published in French in 1959 it won widespread praise and has been translated into several languages.” (Unit 1 Book 1, p. 23)

“Middle-class America: In America, the middle class refers to the class of

people between the very wealthy class and the class of unskilled laborers and unemployed people. It includes business people, professional people, office workers, and many skilled worker.” (Unit1, Book 2, p. 4)

Here the former example gives information about literature, and the latter is about American people and society.

As is also shown in the data, cultural information contained in the Integrated textbooks is mainly about two cultures: American culture and British culture. Only a few lines are concerned with the other cultures (see Table 5.11). For example, in Unit 7, Book 4, “Carl Gustav Jung: Swiss psychiatrist, who founded the analytical school of psychology” (Unit 7, Book 4, p. 235); in Unit 8, Book 4, “Joseph’s brethren: Joseph was the Hebrew boy who was sold into Egypt by his brothers and became the great prime minister of Pharaoh. His brothers went to him for food during the years of famine.” (Unit 8, Book 4, p, 290)

Table 5.11: Other cultures mentioned in CE Integrated textbooks

Unit/Book	Content	Country
U1/B4	Erwin Rommel	Germany
U1/B4	Pas de Calais	France
U7/B4	Carl Gustav Jung	Sweden
U8/B4	Joseph’s brethren	Hebrew

Tasks

Pragmatically oriented tasks contained in the Integrated textbooks are presented in two forms: oral and written. Oral tasks consist of pair work, debate, role play, and group discussion. Written tasks include filling in charts, checking your own work using a checklist, and answering questions. Among the pages containing tasks, written tasks largely outnumbered oral tasks (25 out of 35 pages).

As far as content of tasks is concerned, these tasks are designed to compare and

discuss differences between American and Chinese cultures, practice and check what students have learned about discourse knowledge, act out a text which is an American play, and make dialogues according to the given situations. Tasks about discourse knowledge accounts for 20 out of 35 pages.

5.2.2 College English Listening and Speaking textbooks: quantitative/qualitative data

Pragmatic knowledge: quantitative data

Comparison of the number of pages and units in each of the four College English Listening and Speaking (L&S) Course textbooks shows that the books are similar in terms of length and number of units. The overall structure of the four textbooks has been highlighted in the following table.

Table 5.12: Pages and units in Listening and Speaking textbooks

Text	Number of unit	Number of page	Mean
L&S Book 1	16	197	208
L&S Book 2	16	212	
L&S Book 3	16	208	
L&S Book 4	16	215	

As the textbooks were judged to be approximately equivalent in terms of length, page-by-page analysis of the textbooks was performed to investigate the amount and nature of pragmatic information contained in them.

As was the case with College English Integrated textbooks, any information relevant to general pragmatic information, metapragmatic information, metalanguage, speech act, cultural information and pragmatically oriented tasks was also coded as pragmatic information. Table 5.13 shows the distribution of pragmatic information tabulated by number of pages.

Table 5.13: Pragmatic knowledge in L&S textbooks

Textbook	Pages of pragmatic knowledge	Total number of pages	Percentage of pragmatic knowledge
L&S Book 1	58	197	29.4%
L&S Book 2	46	212	21.7%

L&S Book 3	5	208	2.4%
L&S Book 4	21	215	9.8%
Average	32.5	208	15.6%

As shown in Table 5.13, the average percentage of pragmatic information contained in the four Listening and Speaking textbooks is 15.6%. The distribution of pragmatic information in each Listening and Speaking textbook is not even. The percentages of pragmatic information contained in Book 1(29.4%) and Book 2 (21.7%) are much higher than those in Book 3 (2.4%) and Book 4 (9.8%). Table 5.14 displays more detailed descriptive statistics.

Table 5.14: Descriptive statistics on pragmatic knowledge in L&S textbooks

	Mean	Range	Min	Max	Standard deviation
Pragmatic pages	32.5	53	5	58	20.74
Total pages	208	18	197	215	13.64
Pragmatic information	15.83%	27%	2.4%	29.4%	19.04%

As shown in Table 5.14, the mean of the pragmatic pages in the four books is 32.5 (SD=20.74). The highest score is 58 and the lowest score is 5. As for the pragmatic information in the four books, the mean score is 15.83% (SD=19.04%). The highest percentage is 29.4% and the lowest percentage is 2.4%.

Table 5.15 displays the descriptive statistics on percentage of different types of pragmatic information contained in the four L&S textbooks.

Table 5.15: Number of pages including pragmatic knowledge

	GP	MP	ML	Speech	Culture	Task	Total
BK1	6	15	2	13	4	18	58
BK2	7	9		24		6	46
BK3	5						5
BK4	4	4			6	7	21
total	22	28	2	37	10	31	130
percentage	16.9%	21.5%	1.5%	28.5%	7.7%	23.8%	100%

As far as types of pragmatic information are concerned, the percentages of three types

of pragmatic information are above 20%. They are: speech acts (28.5%), task (23.8%), and metapragmatic information (21.5%). Metalanguage and cultural information only account for 1.5% and 7.7% amongst all the pragmatic information contained in the four textbooks.

Speech acts (28.5%) and tasks (23.8%) are highlighted in Listening and Speaking textbooks compared to the other types of pragmatic information. As also shown in the above table (Table 5.13), the textbooks at lower levels contain more pragmatic information than the ones at higher levels. The lower the level of the book, the more pragmatic information it has.

Pragmatic knowledge: qualitative data

In addition to the quantitative data report, we also carried out a qualitative data report on the nature and level of richness of the pragmatic information included in the textbooks. Considering the fact that these textbooks are for listening and speaking purpose, two areas were selected for analysis: speech acts and pragmatically oriented tasks.

Speech acts

Only Book 1 and Book 2 contain the information about speech acts. This consists of explicit mention of speech acts and metapragmatic explanations about speech acts. Explicit treatment of speech acts in Book 1 and Book 2 is listed in Table 5.16.

Table 5.16: Explicit mention of speech acts in L&S textbooks.

Speech acts	L&S B1	L&S B2
Greetings	x	
Making introductions	x	
Opening a conversation	x	
Expressing likes/dislikes	x	
Controlling and changing a conversation	x	
Telephoning	x	
Making apologies	x	

Accepting apologies	x	
Making reservations	x	
Making suggestions	x	
Expressing agreement/disagreement	x	
Inquiring about/responding to future activities		x
Expressing hope		x
Expressing certainty/uncertainty		x
Seeing the doctor		x
Giving compliments		x
Asking for permission		x
Giving permission		x
Ordering a meal at restaurant=having meals		x
Talking about preferences/one's occupation/accidents and disasters/famous people/unusual happening		x
Asking about people's opinion=showing attitude		x

The metapragmatic information contained in the four textbooks includes general explanation for the functions of speech acts, discussion of politeness (e.g. illocutionary force), conversation norms, and context.

Before a speech act is introduced, there is an introduction explaining the function of the speech act. For example: before introducing how to get information, you can read:

“In everyday life we have to deal with many kinds of situations that require us to obtain information from others. Different ways can be used to ask for information from different people.” (Unit 6, Book 1, p. 51)

Samples of language for speech acts are often provided with little further explanations. For example, samples of language for expressing disagreement are given without any mention of the significant differences in utterances in terms of politeness in Unit 15, Book 1 (see Figure 5.10 below).

Expressing disagreement

1. I wouldn't say so.
2. I couldn't agree with you less.
3. No way.
4. It's out of the question.
5. I'm not sure I can agree.
6. I couldn't disagree more.
7. Are you absolutely sure?
8. I wonder if there's a mistake.

Figure 5.10 Expressing disagreement (Listening and Speaking, Book 1, p. 147)

Discussion of illocutionary force focuses on inferences and listening strategies such as listening between lines, identifying speakers' attitude, detecting implied meanings, etc.

In Unit 3 Book 2, there is a paragraph about how to listen between the lines:

"People do not always say directly what they mean. Very often, we have to listen "between the lines". The English language offers many ways for people to imply, rather than directly state, their meaning. To find out what a speaker really means, we can rely on our understanding of the context, the language (the meaning of an idiom, for example), and the intonation used to help us."(Unit3, Listening and Speaking, Book 2, p.31)

Some contextual information is also contained in the textbooks. In Unit 4, Book 2, a paragraph is written about the importance of identifying the relationship between the speakers in a conversation. It reads:

"Identifying the relationship between the speakers in a conversation is an important skill in listening comprehension. Although sometimes the conversation itself does not contain words that say exactly what the relationship is, we can rely on contextual clues to find it out. Such clues include the degree of intimacy (e.g. how intimately the speakers address each other, what endearments are used), the degree of politeness (strangers tend to be more polite towards each other than friends or family members), and the particular situation (at a doctor's consulting room, at a shop, etc.)." (Unit 4,

Apart from providing sets of expressions of speech acts, textbooks also include some printed dialogues as samples for students to imitate. For example:

A: Good morning, Frank Qian's office.

B: Good morning. Can I talk to Frank, please?

A: Who's calling, please?

B: Brian Tong from BS Toy Company.

A: Well, Mr. Tong, I'm afraid Mr. Qian's not in the office at the moment. Can I take a message or would you like to ring him on his mobile phone?

B: I'll try his mobile. Could you give me the number, please?

A: 9093652781

B: Just let me check that. 9093652781.

A: That's it.

B: Thank you (Unit 5, Listening and Speaking, Book1, p. 46)

Another examples:

A: Yeah, maybe. Who knows?

B: Well, I have to run now. I have an appointment with the dean. See you.

A: See you. (Unit 2, Book 1, p. 17)

A: Thank you. Bye.

B: Good-bye. (Unit 5, Listening and Speaking Book1, p. 47)

Tasks

Pragmatically oriented tasks contained in the College English Listening and Speaking textbooks are listening and speaking tasks. Listening tasks include filling in blanks, multiple choice questions, and answering questions. The purpose of listening tasks is to learn and understand the information. Speaking tasks consist of pair work, role play, and group discussion. The tasks in Book One and Book Two are mainly pair work. Students are asked to listen to the dialogue, repeat, and practice the dialogues with partners. For example, the following instructions can be found in each unit in Book One:

"Listen to the dialogues and repeat after the recording. Practice the dialogues with your partner, playing the role of A or B. Then work with your partner to create your own dialogues by replacing the underlined parts with your own

words.” (Unit 1, Listening and Speaking, Book 1, p. 7)

In Book Two, students are asked to make similar conversations according to the given situations after listening to the dialogues. The instructions go like this:

“Make similar conversations according to the given situations. Use the structures and expressions above in your conversations where appropriate.”

(Listening and Speaking, Book 2, p. 8)

5.3 Classroom observation data

In order to investigate current classroom practice in EFL College English classroom from a pragmatic perspective, three teachers' classroom teaching was observed in the second semester in the academic year of 2005-2006. Among them, two teachers taught College English III, using College English Integrated coursebook 3, and Listening and Speaking coursebook 3. Another one taught Advanced English, using College English Integrated coursebook 4, and Listening and Speaking coursebook 4. They allowed the researcher voluntarily to observe their classroom teaching. The teachers were assigned pseudo-names for identification to insure anonymity. Henceforth, they were identified as Mary (teaching College English III), Lesley (teaching College English III), Sue (teaching Advanced English). The observation lasted two months. On average each class was observed for about 12 teaching periods (one period lasts 45 minutes).

The classroom observation schema (see Appendix 7) is used in classroom observation. This is based on COLT (Communicative Orientation of Language Teaching Observation Scheme) given by Spada and Fröhlich (1995) with some adjustment for the purpose of the present study. The report of classroom observation data includes the following aspects: availability of input (textbook/classroom instruction); materials and tasks (content, source, and type); ways of teaching – explicit/implicit; learning process (students' involvement in tasks); participant organization (class (T-S/C, S-C); group); proficiency level (grammatical competence and pragmatic competence).

5.3.1 Pragmatic input in College English classrooms

Pragmatic input occurred in each class and in every period although the amount of pragmatic input differed. Both Mary and Lesley once spent more than one period introducing American civil rights movement to their students when they taught Unit 2 (Civil Rights Movement) Integrated Coursebook, Book 3. They talked about the American revolution, the slavery system, civil rights events, civil rights heroes, etc. Mary spent about 45 minutes showing the documentary film "New Orleans" to her students. By watching it, she expected that the students would acquire a deeper understanding of American history, people and life. Sometimes, during the entire two periods, teachers only touched on one pragmatic point very briefly with no detailed explanation. For example, Lesley asked her students to read Langston Hughes' poem in Unit 2 Integrated Coursebook, Book 3 but didn't make any further comment. In general, the average percentage of pragmatic teaching in three observed teachers' class is 18%, whereas the average percentage of language teaching is 82%. Three teachers spent about 14% to 24% of their classroom instruction time to teach pragmatics. The detailed time allotment can be found in Table 5.17.

Table 5.17 Time allotment for classroom teaching

Instructors	Course	Total teaching time	Time for pragmatic teaching	Time for language teaching
Mary	College English III	630ms	90ms (14%)	540ms (86%)
Lesley	College English III	540ms	82ms (15%)	458ms (85%)
Sue	Advanced English	540ms	132ms (24%)	408ms (76%)
Average			101ms (18%)	469ms (82%)

What teachers teach in class in terms of pragmatic knowledge covers cultural information, speech acts, metalanguage, such as usage and collocation, and metapragmatic knowledge, such as style, formality, context, discourse (see Table 5.18) although the amount of each type of pragmatic knowledge varies. For example,

Lesley once explained the Deep South by showing a map of USA to her students. She stated:

“The Deep South includes the most southern states of the south-east US: Alabama, Florida, Georgia, Louisiana, Mississippi, South Carolina and eastern Texas. They are among the states that once had slaves and left the Union during the Civil War. They still have racial problems and the people there are mostly conservative in their politics and religion.”

Sue explained what a euphemism is by giving examples from both the textbook and supplementary material, such as “Senior citizen refers to old people”, “Mentally retarded people refers to idiots.”

Table 5.18 Types of pragmatic knowledge taught in class

Pragmatic knowledge	Cultural information (surface culture)
	Metalanguage (usage and collocation)
	Metapragmatic information (style, formality, context, discourse)
	Speech acts (greeting, persuasion)

When teaching Unit 2 Integrated Coursebook 3, Mary introduced the term “direct speech” to her students by explaining that direct speech can make the story more vivid. She pointed out the examples from the text and said:

“In the John Parker story, characters spoke short sentences to stress the urgency of the situation. For another example, Hosiath Henson threw himself to the ground and shouted to astonished onlookers: ‘Oh, no! Don’t you know? I’m free!’ His joy affects us all.”

The pragmatic materials used in the classroom are contributed by textbooks, teachers, and students in audio, visual, and reading form. In teaching Unit 2, Integrated Coursebook 3, both Mary and Lesley used the materials about the Underground Railroad contained in the textbook. In addition, they found supplementary reading

materials about American Civil Rights movements for their students. Lesley played recording of the speech delivered by Martin Luther King in the classroom. When giving a presentation, a group of students talked about black people's life by playing parts of the film "*Gone with the Wind*" to the class.

5.3.2 Ways of teaching pragmatics in College English classroom

Teachers used different ways to teach students pragmatic knowledge in class. Generally speaking, this included explicit instruction, implicit instruction, and conducting tasks. Explicit instruction was the method most frequently used in class by the three teachers. They presented much pragmatic knowledge in detail which helped students to master the information easily and quickly. Mary and Lesley told a lot of stories about the American civil rights movement to students. Sue introduced the two American political parties – Republicans and Democrats – to the class. Mary explained how to use some writing strategies, such as metaphor and coherence in class.

In terms of implicit instruction, teachers often exposed their students to materials which contained much pragmatic knowledge without any instruction. For example, Lesley played an episode of "*Desperate Wife*" in class, which reflected American daily life. She gave no explanation before the class watched it. And after watching, neither did she analyze the pragmatic knowledge in it. Furthermore teachers sometimes assign students homework, such as reading material, watching news, and seeking information on the Internet, etc. and just let them pick up some knowledge if they can.

5.3.3 Tasks

Conducting tasks in class is another way for teachers to develop students' pragmatic competence. Teachers usually conducted the following tasks in class: oral presentation, watching films and videos, listening, making conversation, discussion, question and answer. Oral presentation is a form of group work. Two-three students work together

and one of them is a key speaker. Watching films and videos and listening are a class activity. Making conversation and discussion are pair work. Question and answer is individual work. The oral presentations are summarized in the following Table 5.17:

Table 5.19 Students' oral presentations done in class

Presentation	T1/Content	T2/Content	T3/Content
P1	Comparing hometown (suzhou) with Shanghai	Rosa Parks and her incident	Cultural differences
P2	Civil rights movement	John Brown	"Farenheit 9.11"
P3	African-American campaign for freedom	Martin Luther King and his wife	NBA 2006
P4	Black discrimination	American slavery system	American politics
P5	National and international security		English expressions with color
P6	Talking about guns in America		Australian aboriginals
P7	American airport security after 9.11		Chinese festival

The oral presentation tasks were designed by both teachers and students. Teachers assigned an oral presentation task at least one week in advance and students worked together in choosing a specific topic, collecting material, writing article, making power point, and preparing for oral presentation.

The data indicate that all three teachers asked their students to watch films and videos in class in order to boost their pragmatic competence. Mary played videos such as "New Orleans", CNN news report, "Madonna", a clip of film "Good Neighbor Scheme". "New Orleans" is a documentary film. It presents history, historic site, people, customs and community. Before the class watched it, Mary wrote some key cultural words which would appear in the video on the blackboard, such as plantation, colony, jazz, Voodoo Museum without any explanation. While watching, transcripts were shown at the bottom of the screen. After words, Mary usually asked her students some questions to see whether they had obtained certain any pragmatic knowledge.

The clip of "*Good Neighbor Scheme*" is about an American airport. It tells us what happens to a young man from a small country at the airport when he was checked by an immigration official. Before watching, "Mary reminded students to pay attention to the scenes of how a foreign visitor was checked by an immigration official and what procedures he had to have before he entered USA. Mary didn't give any explanation. Here Mary used an implicit teaching approach to help her students obtain pragmatic information and raise their awareness of pragmatic knowledge." (Observation notes: Mary, March, 16, 2006)

Lesley showed an episode of "*Desperate housewife*" in class. "She didn't give any explanation either before and after watching. She just exposed students to these authentic materials or authentic contexts and let them experience them." (Observation notes: Lesley, March, 16, 2006)

Sue played a clip of film "*Dead Poets Society*" which was directed by Peter Weir and won an Oscar in 1989. The story goes like this: when charismatic English professor John Keating arrives at a strict boys academy, his unconventional teaching methods breathe new life into the curriculum steeped in tradition. With his wit and wisdom, Keating inspires his students to pursue individual passions and make their lives extraordinary. Before watching, Sue told students that Keating teaches in an unorthodox way. She asked students to compare it with the way in which Chinese teachers teach poetry. After watching, Sue asked students a question: "What impressed you most?" Students could easily find the answer: Professor John Keating asked students to tear up the textbook and encourage them to judge the greatness of a poem using their own criteria rather than the conventional way. Finally Sue emphasized that students have to struggle for their own voice and look at things which they have known in a different perspective. "Here Sue not only taught her students pragmatic knowledge but also how to gain pragmatic knowledge by themselves. She made her students compare and reflect on different cultures." (Observation notes: Sue, April, 27, 2006)

Listening tasks include listening to VOA/CNN news, and speeches. These kinds of tasks were designed by the teachers themselves. Teachers selected the latest news which was authentic and often about American and British society. The whole class did the same task together. After listening, the teachers asked some of the students to answer some questions related to what they had heard. To some extent, the purpose of the listening task was to learn and comprehend cultural information.

Mary asked students to listen to three pieces of VOA news about aviation security and security in air terminals which was similar to the theme of Unit3 College English Integrated Book 3. She wrote new words with Chinese explanations on the blackboard. Students listened twice and answered some comprehension questions. "The purpose is to understand the information." (Observation notes: Mary, March 16, 2006)

Lesley asked her students to listen to the part of Martin Luther King's speech "*I have a dream*", reminding them of the rhetoric devices used in the speech, such as metaphor and parallelism. After listening, she explained what metaphor and parallelism were by citing examples from the speech. "Here the explicit teaching approach is used." (Observation notes: Lesley, March 6, 2006)

Making conversation is another task the teachers conducted in class. It was done in the form of pair work. Teachers assigned a certain amount of time for students to practice and then invited some of the students to report to the class. "Exchanging ideas is more the concern of this kind of task rather than communicative function." (Observation notes: Sue, March 27, 2006)

Mary designed the following task, asking the students to make conversation with their partner according to the given situation: "Student A and Student B are classmates and going to graduate. Student A found a job in a multinational company and Student B got a job in a little town. They met each other one day talking about their jobs". Students were given 10 minutes to practice and then some of them were chosen to

report to the class. "This is a communicative-functional task. Students need to interact with each other talking about their jobs. The relationship of the speakers is identified as classmates. The conversation is informal and casual." (Observation notes: Mary, February 27, 2006)

Lesley asked the students to do pair work, discussing the questions on marriage from the textbook. Several pairs were chosen to report to the class after ten minutes' practice. "However this task is language-focused in spite of the interaction between the two speakers." (Observation notes: Lesley, March 16, 2006)

Neither Mary nor Lesley made any comment on the students' performance in terms of pragmatics although Mary provided the detailed information on context. "In fact it was noticed that students didn't follow the rules of making conversation. For example, their conversations did not have an opening and closing." (Observation notes: Lesley, March 16, 2006) For a detailed discussion, please refer to the next chapter (Chapter 6 Discussion).

Group discussion was also performed by the students in class. On most occasions, discussion questions, taken from the textbook, were about western/Chinese society and people. After several minutes' discussion, group leaders were chosen to report to the class. In learning Unit 3 College English Integrated Book 3 (The Land of Lock), Mary asked the students to discuss the question "Is there a security problem in China? And compare security both in China and America." "This is a pragmatically oriented task as the students are asked to compare the two different cultures." (Observation notes: Mary, March 23, 2006)

Question and answer was also used by Lesley, Mary, and Sue. It was done individually. Students were asked to answer different questions. Lesley asked the students to find words related to Bible or religion from Text A Unit 2, College English Integrated Book 3. The students found all the relevant words, such as Creator, Moses,

Quaker, and Methodist and performed the task well. Lesley also asked the students individually what was the symbol of America. The students' answers were various, such as: Uncle Sam, George W. Bush, Statue of Liberty, White House, etc. This task focuses on seeking cultural information.

5.4 Interview data

This section reports the findings of semi-structured interviews relevant to the first and third research questions: How do Chinese teachers and students perceive pragmatic knowledge/competence in the process of teaching and learning and in College English textbooks? How do Chinese College English teachers incorporate pragmatic materials and tasks into the classroom?

As previously mentioned, four teachers were interviewed individually and six students were interviewed in a focused group. As the teacher participants all preferred not to be recorded, the analysis of teachers' interviews was based on the researcher's detailed notes. The interview data were transcribed and analyzed through inductive analysis in conjunction with interpretive analysis. The researcher was involved from initial coding to discovering themes throughout the data processing. Both the teachers and the students were assigned codes for identification to insure anonymity. Henceforth, they were identified as TIM (Teacher Interviewee Mary), TIA (Teacher Interviewee Alyson), TIL (Teacher Interviewee Lesley), and TIS (Teacher Interviewee Sue); SIT (Student Interviewee Tom), SIJ (Student Interviewee Jim), SIH (Student Interviewee Henry), SIA (Student Interviewee Ann), SIG (Student Interviewee Grant), and SIC (Student Interviewee Cindy).

5.4.1 Teachers' interview

Teachers' demographic data

Four teachers were interviewed individually and face to face on four separate days during the period from May 11, 2006 to June 26, 2006 in the staff room at the College English Center. The duration of the interviews varied from 50 minutes (Alyson,

Lesley), 60 minutes (Mary) to 70 minutes (Sue). They were all females. Mary was 37 years old, Alison 42 years old, Lesley 28 years old, and Sue 30 years old. They had received MA degrees in China. There were differences among them in working experience. Mary had been a College English teacher for sixteen years; Alyson for twenty one years, Lesley for four years, and Sue for eight years. Mary and Lesley taught College English III when interviewed. Alyson taught College English II, whereas Sue taught Advanced English.

The interviews were guided by the interview questions (see Appendix V) based on the following three aspects: understanding of pragmatic competence; perception of pragmatics in classroom teaching; perception of pragmatics in College English textbooks.

Teachers' understanding of pragmatic competence

There seems to be a general consensus among the teachers that it is of great importance to teach pragmatic knowledge in the College English classroom as, in their experience, most of their students have poor pragmatic competence. Sue said: "Teaching pragmatic knowledge is particularly important for the students who took Advanced English course. They have a good command of language and what they need most is to obtain sufficient pragmatic knowledge. It is much more difficult for them to make further greater progress in English without it. I incorporate as much pragmatic knowledge as possible in my classroom teaching." (TIS: June 28, 2006)

However Mary, Alyson, and Lesley claimed that they focused more on teaching language itself in their classroom teaching. Mary made this point when she stated:

"There is no doubt that teaching pragmatic knowledge is important, but the teachers' current urgent task is to teach students language knowledge, such as vocabulary, grammar and help them improve their reading ability. It is enough for the students with low English level to gain only language knowledge in class. In a word, at present teaching students language knowledge is far more vital than

pragmatic knowledge.”(TIM: May 11, 2006)

Alyson hinted at this idea when she stated: “I pay much more attention to language knowledge itself than pragmatic knowledge. In fact I only teach a little pragmatic knowledge. However, I feel that pragmatic knowledge is necessary. If I don’t teach them this kind of knowledge, students’ English proficiency will be greatly affected.” (TIA: June 15, 2006) Lesley said: “I am not confident enough in teaching students pragmatic knowledge. I attempt to try it in my future classroom teaching.”(TIL: June 21, 2006)

Without exception, teachers’ responses to the question of correcting pragmatic errors were positive. Sue stated: “My students seldom make grammatical mistakes as they are at advanced level. But they make pragmatic errors in writing and speaking. Sometimes they don’t know how to use words appropriately. For example: a student wanted to tell us the advantage of the English placement test because it can position students according to their English level so that they can select appropriate English courses in the first semester. The student wrote: ‘English Placement Test is very useful and can distinguish vicious students and good students.’ What the student meant is those with poor English. Obviously he used the word inappropriately as it can refer to a person with bad qualities. I often correct the mistakes like this and make an explanation to the whole class.”(TIS: June 28, 2006)

The other three teachers admitted that they corrected much more grammatical errors than pragmatic errors. A good example came from Mary. She said: “My concern is usually on vocabulary and grammar. If my students make grammatical mistakes, I will definitely correct them. As for pragmatic errors, I usually ignore them unless they lead to misunderstanding.” (TIM: May 11, 2006) Lesley also made this point when she states: “On most occasions I correct grammatical mistakes. Pragmatic mistakes are corrected or underlined at random. I find it difficult to correct pragmatic mistakes.”(TIL: June 21, 2006)

Teachers' perception of pragmatics in classroom teaching

As far as incorporating pragmatic knowledge in classroom teaching was concerned, the pragmatic knowledge the teachers taught in class involved cultural knowledge (such as history, literature); knowledge about discourse, style, formality, context, and communicative skills; comparing Western culture with Chinese culture (such as values, customs). Mary stated: "When I taught Unit 3 (The land of lock) Integrated coursebook, Book 2, I introduced some American social problems to my students, such as security problem after 9.11. When teaching Unit 1 (Chinese way of learning) Integrated coursebook, Book 2, I asked my students to compare Western learning style with Chinese learning style and their values in education."(TIM: May 11, 2006) Alyson said: "I asked my students to compare western holidays with Chinese ones, such as Thanksgiving day, Christmas day, Spring festival, etc. when we studied Unit 4 Integrated coursebook, Book 3." (TIA: June 15, 2006)

The pragmatic knowledge the teachers taught in class came from both textbooks and supplementary materials by teachers themselves. Now and then students also contributed some materials to the class. Mary said: "I mainly teach pragmatic knowledge by using textbooks. If I find a very good pragmatic point in the text which is not indicated by the textbook writers, I will give my students some relevant supplementary materials."(TIM: May 11, 2006) Alyson gave a very good example to illustrate this point. She said: "In teaching Unit 2 College English Integrated Book 2 , there is a sentence which draws my attention. That is: '... says night manager Johnny Baker, who struggles to call the boss (Sam Walton) by his first name as a recent corporate memo commands.' Here I tell my students the American way of calling people which is different from the Chinese way." (TIA: June 15, 2006)

Teachers' explicit instruction was mostly used in teaching pragmatic knowledge in conjunction with only a few tasks. Lesley made this point when she stated: "More often I tell and explain the pragmatic knowledge to my students. Designing pragmatically oriented tasks seems a little bit difficult for me. Another reason is that

we have limited time in class. Teachers' explicit instruction is more time efficient."
(TIL: June 21, 2006)

Pragmatically oriented tasks included watching videos, making comparison between different cultures, pair work and discussion. Sue cited an example from her own class:

"Once I played a clip of a film about eating Thanksgiving dinner for the students. The plot is like this: the whole family including father-in-law, mother-in-law, daughter, son-in-law, and a grandson, are sitting at the table having Thanksgiving dinner. A big delicious turkey is on the table. The son-in-law intends to cut the turkey, but is stopped by the father-in-law, who pushes him away and does it by himself. According to the western culture, the one who has the most prestigious position in the family is entitled to cut the turkey. It indicates that Father-in-law looks down upon his son-in-law and thinks that he is the only person who is entitled to do it. Students are very interested in this kind of knowledge and by watching it they get a very deep impression." (TIS: June 28, 2006)

All the four teachers mentioned the difficulties they had in teaching pragmatic knowledge. Mary said: "It is far easier for me to teach language points than pragmatic knowledge due to two reasons. One is that there is a paucity of pragmatic knowledge in the textbooks; the other is that my pragmatic competence needs improving. Teaching pragmatic knowledge in class is a big challenge for me."(TIM: May 11, 2006)

Alyson had a similar feeling. She said: "Teaching pragmatic knowledge in class is closely related to teachers' own pragmatic competence. Sometimes I intend to introduce more pragmatic knowledge to my students, but I don't know how as I myself only know a little about it. I feel that there are more pragmatic points in the textbooks than I have found. I ignored many pragmatic points." (TIA: June 15, 2006)
Sue suggested that teachers should be sensitive to pragmatic points. Otherwise many

points would be ignored. She said: "My student writes a letter to me to express her thanks for my helping her in English She wrote: 'Thank you for leading me to the secret and amazing place of English world.' I appreciate this metaphor very much. I show the letter to my colleague –professor from America, sharing my appreciation of the letter with him. Out of my expectation, he said the sentence was too metaphorical and it was more appropriate to say 'Thank you for your help.' "(TIS: June 28, 2006)

Teachers' perception of pragmatics in textbooks

When asked questions on their perceptions on pragmatics in textbooks, the four teachers expressed the similar impression that the textbooks they used didn't contain as many pragmatic materials and tasks as they wished. Mary stated: "Grammar, structure, and vocabulary are emphasized systematically in the CE textbooks. However vocabulary is usually handled regardless of context. Pragmatic knowledge is scattered in textbooks. Only a small portion of the pragmatic knowledge is explicitly explained by the textbook writers. I have to find out the pragmatic knowledge which is hidden in the textbooks by myself. " (TIM: May 11, 2006) Sue said: "The fact that CE textbooks do not contain much pragmatic knowledge is due to the textbook writers, because they are not native speakers and not sensitive enough to pragmatic knowledge."(TIS: June 28, 2006)

Lesley mentioned: "Within the pragmatic knowledge contained in the textbooks, its variety is limited. The textbooks mainly contain pragmatic knowledge such as: cultural background knowledge; style (formal/informal); writing strategies; usage and collocation. There are many tasks in the textbooks, but a few are pragmatically oriented."(TIL: June 21, 2006)

In answering question 5 "Do you believe that the current College English textbook and classroom teaching will enable you and your students to develop pragmatic competence?" all the teachers said that to some extent it could. Meanwhile they also expressed that that was not enough and textbook writers and teachers had a long way

to go if they wanted to develop students' pragmatic competence.

Sue stated: "My students have a strong desire for pragmatic knowledge. Whatever pragmatic knowledge I teach them, they can learn well. I've found that they are very sensitive to this kind of knowledge. I have made my efforts to meet their needs, but I often have the feeling that it is beyond me. I feel I myself don't have enough pragmatic knowledge."(TIS: June 28, 2006) The other three teachers also admitted that teaching pragmatic knowledge in class was a big challenge for them.

5.4.2 Students' interview

The students' interview was a focus group interview. Six students, four male and two female from one of the observed classes participated in it on a voluntary base. They were taking the course College English III when they were interviewed. The interview questions were based on three aspects: understanding of pragmatic competence, perception of pragmatics in teaching, and perception of pragmatics in textbooks.

Students' understanding of pragmatic competence

Concerning the importance of developing pragmatic competence, all six students believe that it is very important to learn pragmatic knowledge in class. They even think that it is more important to learn pragmatic knowledge than language knowledge at college stage. Tom (SIT) gave a very good reason for that. He said:

"We have obtained sufficient knowledge about grammar, how to learn vocabulary, and how to read from our high school teachers. However, we are relatively poor in speaking and listening owing to our poor pragmatic competence. To be proficient in English, it is not enough if we only have knowledge of grammar and vocabulary." (SIT: May 15, 2006)

Henry said: "I feel that I have poor communicative skills. I have few chances to practice both in class and outside class. Neither do we have the context in which we can speak English. Once I tried to speak English with my roommates in the dormitory,

but felt rather awkward because we spoke English in Chinese pragmatic way, such as ‘Did you have your dinner? Where are you going?’” (SIH: May 15, 2006)

Students’ perception of pragmatics in textbooks

With regard to the perception of pragmatics in textbooks, most of the students said that the textbooks they used contained only a small amount of pragmatic knowledge. Grant (SIG) cited some examples from the textbooks. He said:

“Integrated coursebook Book 3 contains some pragmatic knowledge about writing style, such as differences between oral and written English. I can find examples in Unit 6 “Last Leaf” and Unit 4. The language used in Unit 6 is very colloquial. There are many conversations. Unit 4 combines oral and written English which displays a striking contrast. However, this kind of knowledge is scattered here and there in the textbooks and it is difficult for us to master them systematically.”

Cindy (SIC) added: “Compared with pragmatic knowledge, textbooks include fewer pragmatically oriented tasks.”

Students’ perception of pragmatics in classroom teaching

The data also reveal that teachers’ explicit instruction of pragmatic knowledge is welcomed by the students. Jim (SIJ) said: “The students with good English can probably find pragmatic knowledge from the textbooks by themselves. However it is difficult for those whose English is poor. Hence the teachers’ instruction is absolutely necessary.” Tom (SIT) stated: “I hope that the teachers can teach us pragmatic knowledge explicitly and systematically in class. Considering the limited teaching time in class, the teachers can instruct the students how to learn pragmatic knowledge and help them raise the awareness of learning pragmatic knowledge.”

Apart from explicit instruction, the students also wanted their teachers to conduct some tasks to help them learn pragmatic knowledge. Ann (SIA) said:

“Watching videos is a very useful way because we can see the real context and

feel as if we were part of it. It is better for teachers to select some interesting videos and films which contain much pragmatic knowledge. Before watching, teachers can remind us of the pragmatic points in the film. After watching the teachers can make further detailed explanation or ask us to compare what we saw in the film with Chinese situations.”

Cindy (SIC) pointed out some problems in teaching by saying: “My teacher did ask us to do some tasks in class, such as pair work, and making conversation. There was no metapragmatic explanation about the tasks, such as no explanation about the roles in conversation, nor explanation about the context. This kind of practice is not practical and of little use. We can not apply what we have learnt to daily life.”

The students’ responses to question 7 were positive. At the same time they also expressed the idea that the assistance from the textbooks and the teachers in learning pragmatic knowledge was smaller than what they expected. Ann (SIA) said: “The current textbooks and the teachers can not meet our needs. We have a strong desire for much more pragmatic knowledge. Is it possible for textbook writers to design one section in each unit introducing some pragmatic knowledge to us?” Jim (SIJ) stated: “Teaching us how to learn pragmatic knowledge is also quite important, hence we can obtain more pragmatic knowledge by ourselves after class.” Tom (SIT) said: “Explicit instruction is essential, however, a certain amount of tasks is also necessary. By accomplishing tasks, we can learn pragmatic knowledge more impressively and effectively.”

5.5 Findings

The results obtained from the data were mixed. The main findings of the study are as follows:

1. Both College English teachers and students think that pragmatics is an indispensable part of language learning and teaching, hence it is necessary and important to develop learners’ pragmatic competence.
2. Almost half of the College English teachers and students feel that College

English textbooks do not give them much assistance in teaching and learning pragmatic aspects of language in the classroom.

3. The findings from the four instruments indicate that neither College English textbooks nor College English classroom teaching provide adequate pragmatic input to learners.
4. Neither teachers nor students have good understanding of pragmatic knowledge and how to teach and learn pragmatic knowledge.
5. Students have strong desire to obtain pragmatic knowledge from the textbooks and classroom teaching, whereas teachers still pay more attention on language teaching in practice.
6. Students with different English proficiency have similar understanding of pragmatics in College English teaching and learning and textbooks. There is no co-relation between learners' proficiency and perception of teaching and learning pragmatics. Similarly there is no significant difference in the perception of pragmatics in teaching and textbooks among teachers who have different teaching experience with different degrees.
7. College English (New) Integrated Course textbooks and Listening and Speaking Course textbooks include a paucity of pragmatic information/input. The recurrent outcomes of the study are the shortage of metapragmatic information, cultural information, treatment of speech acts, information on learning how to learn pragmatic knowledge, and pragmatically oriented tasks.
8. Pragmatic information included in the textbooks is distributed at random which implies that textbook writers seem to have no guiding principle in writing their textbooks in terms of pragmatic aspect of language.
9. Textbooks contain insufficient input of the variety of pragmatic information:
 - Metalanguage input remains at lexical level and is more linguistically oriented.
 - Types of cultural information are limited in the textbooks. Only cultural information about literature, society, history, music, holidays, famous people, custom, are provided and explained. Most of the cultural

information is about American and British culture.

—Metapragmatic information entailed in the textbooks is sketchy and not illustrative enough with insufficient interpretation of language use.

—The treatment of speech acts in the textbooks is pragmatically inadequate. Textbooks present a simplified and context-free register of the target language with no explicit relationship between form and function in most cases. Furthermore, students are only provided with lists of useful expressions (sentences) about speech acts and some printed sample dialogues or examples with very little explicit metapragmatic discussion. Communicative functions are presented in the textbooks but how to use them appropriately is scarcely touched. Most of the dialogues in the textbooks are not very authentic.

—The textbooks at lower levels contain more pragmatic information than the ones at higher levels.

10. Compared with the time they spent on language teaching, the teachers spend far less time on pragmatic teaching.

11. The pragmatic knowledge the teachers teach in class mainly includes cultural information, speech acts, metalanguage (usage and collocation), and metapragmatic information (style, formality, discourse, etc.). The cultural information the teachers provide in class mainly belongs to "big culture". Teaching of metalanguage centers upon usage and collocation at lexical level.

12. The pragmatic materials used in the classroom are contributed by textbooks, teachers, and students in audio, visual, and reading form.

13. The teaching of pragmatics in the College English classroom is characterized by explicit instruction plus conducting a few tasks.

14. College English teachers did conduct tasks in classroom teaching albeit in small quantities. Watching videos and films and listening to news, and oral presentation are the two tasks frequently used in class. However on most occasions College English learners are only exposed to videos and films without explicit or implicit instruction or relevant tasks.

5.6 Summary

All the data taken from the four instruments – questionnaire, content analysis, classroom observation, and interview, have been reported quantitatively and qualitatively in accordance with the framework which is adapted from the Vellenga's framework (Vellenga, 2004), Hatoss' framework (Hatoss, 2004), and Byram's framework (Byram, 1997). The findings show that both College English teachers and students think that teaching and learning pragmatics in the classroom is necessary and important. However they have different perceptions of pragmatic materials and tasks contained in the textbooks. Furthermore students and teachers have different ideas about how to teach the pragmatic aspect of language in the classroom. College English textbooks include a paucity of pragmatic information distributed at random and a limited variety of pragmatic information.

The following chapter will center on the detailed discussion and interpretation of the data and the findings. Guided by the theoretical perspectives of the present study, this discussion chapter seeks possible answers to the research questions of the study.

CHAPTER 6

DISCUSSION: A PRAGMATIC ANALYSIS

The previous chapter reported on the data gathered from the four instruments: questionnaire, content analysis, classroom observation, and interview. It is the purpose of the present chapter to provide answers to the research questions posed in this study and to discuss and interpret the findings. As the data were collected from multiple sources, a triangulation approach is used to examine and compare the data in developing and theorizing the arguments. To help organize the answers, the research questions in the present study are used as headings.

6.1 RQ1: How do Chinese teachers and students perceive pragmatic knowledge in the process of teaching/learning and in College English textbooks?

Research question 1 concerns teachers' and students' perception of pragmatic input in College English classroom teaching and College English textbooks. The findings of the study and discussions are presented below.

6.1.1 Importance of pragmatics in teaching and learning English

The results of the questionnaires and interviews indicate that both College English teachers and students think that teaching and learning pragmatics in classroom is necessary and important. Students have a demonstrated need for pragmatic knowledge. In the questionnaires, students consider vocabulary learning (40.4%) and pragmatic learning (38.9%) as almost equally important. Eighty four point seven percent of the students express that what they want to improve is the ability to communicate with the people. In the teacher's questionnaire, 74% of the teachers agree that the teaching pragmatic aspect of language should be included in College English classroom teaching. In fact, they do so in actual practice. In the teachers' questionnaire, the

pragmatic knowledge taught in the classroom includes appropriateness of language use (38.1%), semantic usage and collocation (23.8%), cultural knowledge (21.4%), vocabulary and grammar (11.9%), and communicative skills (4.8%). In the classroom observation it is noted that the four teachers taught not only vocabulary and grammar in class, but also cultural knowledge, semantic usage and collocation, communicative skills, and appropriateness of language use (see 5.3).

The data from the interviews also show that all the four interviewed teachers and six interviewed students take the similar attitude toward teaching and learning pragmatics in classroom. SIJ (Student interviewee Jim), said: "High English proficiency in writing and speaking not only requires large vocabulary and good command of grammar, but also knowledge of how to use English appropriately. Without the latter, learners cannot speak and write English appropriately"(SIJ: May 15, 2006). TIA (Teacher interviewee Alyson) cited an example to illustrate the importance of pragmatic knowledge in learning English: "When grading my students' essays, I find the styles of their essays are very confusing. They often use the informal language in the formal essay, such as gonna, y (stands for you), well, 'cause."(TIA: June 15, 2006)

The findings show that teachers' and students' perception of language learning and teaching has been changing. Affected by the traditional view of language teaching and learning and old College English curriculums published in 1986 and 1997 (see 1.2), Chinese teachers and students used to hold to the belief that learning English meant learning the language itself, such as grammar, vocabulary, and syntax, which was reflected in English classroom teaching with a focus on language form and information transmission (Feng, 2000). The result of this approach was usually an inability on the part of the student to use the language for communication (Celce-Murcia, 2001). There is still criticism about the current College English teaching for producing "mute" or "deaf" English learners (Feng, 2000).

Both College English teachers' and students' understanding of the importance of pragmatics in language teaching and learning coincides with the model of communicative language ability which was put forward by Bachman (1990) and Bachman and Palmer (1996). In this model it is argued that to develop learners' communicative competence, it is indispensable to have both organizational competence and pragmatic competence (see 3.2.1).

The inclusion of both organizational competence and pragmatic competence in second and foreign language teaching is workable as previous studies on pragmatics in language teaching and learning have reported. Having realized the importance of providing appropriate, adequate, and rich input to foster learners' pragmatic development, second language teachers and teachers in training have practiced pragmatic teaching in an ESL/EFL context (e.g. Takahashi, 2001; Takahashi, 2001). LoCastro (2003) argued that teachers were supposed to provide content, such as the basic rules of politeness, and what to say to whom in which contexts although the research in this field was not as fruitful as the others (LoCastro, 2003, p. 316). (More examples can be found in 2.2.2).

An awareness of the importance of pragmatics has contributed to the practice of an emerging pedagogical practice in College English classrooms. The findings from the classroom observation fully support this point. TIA, Teacher Interviewee Alyson, said:

“Several years ago I only focused on teaching language itself in my English class. Having realized the importance of pragmatic knowledge in teaching and learning English, I have begun to deal with pragmatic aspect of language in class although it only accounts for a very small part of teaching. It's true that I am still not very clear about what is a pragmatic approach and how to use it in class, but one point is certain. That is: I will spend more efforts on it to help my students improve their pragmatic competence” (TIA: June 15, 2006).

College English teachers' ideological change has led to the practice of pragmatic teaching in College English classrooms because teachers' perceptual change lead to their actions as indicated in the process-product research paradigm in which teachers' change in mind (A) leads to their actions (B), which in turn trigger students' thoughts (C), which lead to their actions (D) (Freeman, 2002, p. 354). A similar research into teachers' beliefs has yielded similar findings that teachers' perceptions directly affect the way in which they shape their teaching practice (Sercu, 2005). One of the interviewed teacher's performance in classroom teaching illustrates the point. Sue, Teacher Interviewee, said:

"I teach my students pragmatic knowledge in class, such as how to open and close conversation, how to avoid the topic you dislike in communicating with the others by showing the clips of 'Friends'. The students are very sensitive to this kind of pragmatic knowledge. They take notes while watching. Then they imitate the conversations with their peers"(TIS: June 28, 2006).

If College English teachers implicitly followed this model, their perceptions on pragmatic teaching are bound to directly affect the way in which they shape their teaching practice.

6.1.2 Perception of pragmatics in College English textbooks

It was found that there are different perceptions of the College English textbooks among the teachers and the students with regard to the quantity of pragmatic materials and tasks. College English textbooks play a debatable role in assisting teachers to teach pragmatic aspects of language in classroom and students to develop their pragmatic competence. About half of the teachers and students (51.2%) do not think College English textbooks contain much pragmatic information which coincides with the findings of the content analysis. According to the content analysis, pragmatic information in the four College English Integrated Coursebooks accounts for 15.3% on average, and 15.6% in the four Listening and Speaking Coursebooks (see 5.2).

The same story was heard in the interviews. The interviewed teachers and students expressed the view that pragmatic materials contained in College English textbooks were inadequate (see 5.4). SIH (Student Interviewee Henry) said: "Only a small amount of pragmatic knowledge such as relevant cultural knowledge and usage and collocation is distributed at random in the textbook which is not sufficient for us." (SIH: May 15, 2006) TIM (Teacher Interviewee Mary) said: "Textbooks contain inadequate pragmatic input. I think it is unavoidable as the textbook writers themselves are non-native speakers" (TIM: May 11, 2006). This, in turn, shows that both teachers and students have really changed their ideas about English language teaching and learning. Learning vocabulary, grammar, and structure, is no longer all what they want. They are also concerned about obtaining pragmatic knowledge (see 5.4).

Both teachers and students expect that they would like to have more pragmatic information from the College English textbooks. The interviewed teachers explained the reason. TIM said: "My own pragmatic knowledge is limited. Sometimes I realize the differences between English and Chinese in terms of pragmatics, but I cannot provide the detailed pragmatic information to my students. In this case I would like to seek help from my American colleague who is working at my university"(TIM: May 11, 2006). TIA (Teacher Interviewee Alyson) explained: "I have a heavy work load and have no adequate time to find the pragmatic information by myself. Finding pragmatic information takes me too much time and on most occasions I have to give up."(TIA: June 15, 2006)

The high demand for pragmatic knowledge from textbooks is rational. As Bell and Gower (1998) point out, coursebooks provide teachers and learners with a range of professionally developed materials, allowing teachers to spend their valuable time more on facilitating learning than materials production.

The students have their own reasons for acquiring pragmatic knowledge from College

English textbooks as well. SIJ (Student Interviewee Jim) said: "Every week we have four hours to learn English in class which is not enough. If textbooks provide us with more pragmatic information we can learn it on our own"(SIJ: May 15, 2006). SIG explained: "I cannot find the pragmatic information on my own due to my low English proficiency. If textbooks have a section for pragmatic aspects of language learning in each unit, it will do us a lot of good" (SIG: May 15, 2006). SIH also mentioned: "After class I have little access to pragmatic knowledge and do not know where to get it. I rely so much on my textbooks" (SIH: May 15, 2006).

The findings highlight the important role textbooks play in English learning in an EFL context where access to authentic materials is limited. Textbooks are the center of the curriculum and syllabus in most EFL classrooms (Vellenga, 2004) and have an important influence on teaching and learning (Altbach, 1991). It is particularly true in the Chinese EFL context where students learn English using textbooks and explicit classroom instruction. That is why recent years have seen the explosion in interest in materials development for language teaching, both as a 'field of study and as a practical undertaking' (Tomlinson, 1998, 2003; Cunningsworth, 2002).

The data from the open-ended questions in the questionnaire show that nearly half of the students think that College English textbooks cannot help them develop pragmatic competence. This point is echoed in the focus-group interview as well. SIT said: "Both textbooks and teachers have provided us with adequate systematic knowledge in vocabulary and grammar which helps me get high marks in the examinations. However my ability to communicate with others is still weak due to the lack of pragmatic knowledge" (SIT: May 15, 2006).

The students have a strong desire for pragmatic knowledge and wish that textbooks could provide more pragmatic input. Just as SIC said: "I think textbooks should not only provide pragmatic information, but also do it systematically and explicitly. Meanwhile textbooks should give learners guidance in how to acquire pragmatic

knowledge so that learners can gain more pragmatic information after class” (SIC: May 15, 2006).

The fact that students with different English proficiency need different amounts of pragmatic input in the textbooks is a very common phenomenon documented in research on needs analysis (see Hutchinson & Waters, 2002). Even in the same class, students' level of proficiency is different, and their needs are likely to be different. In this case, teachers have to seek supplementary materials to cater for the needs of their students in the best possible way.

The findings indicate that the students from Sue's class have greater need for pragmatic input. Sue gave the explanation: “Students in my class have higher English proficiency as they are taking the ‘Advanced English’ course. They have good command of the language itself. What they need is to improve their ability to how to use language. Therefore I prepare more supplementary pragmatic materials which engage the students considering limited pragmatic information in the textbooks and students' different needs.” (TIS: June 28, 2006)

As for tasks, only 34.8% of the students think that College English textbooks provide them with pragmatically-oriented tasks to improve their pragmatic competence. Actually this is not a problem confined to textbook writers. In the classroom observation, it was shown that teachers used much more direct instruction than task assignment in teaching pragmatics in classroom. Detailed discussion can be seen in 6.2 and 6.3.

6.1.3 Ways of teaching pragmatics in College English classrooms

Both teachers and students have different perceptions on College English classroom teaching in terms of pragmatics.

Concerning the perception of pragmatics in College English classroom teaching, students had positive attitudes towards it. Eighty-three point four percent of the

students agree or strongly agree that their teachers provide them with much knowledge on culture, rules of usage, style, and how to use English appropriately by explicit instruction and conducting some tasks. The result is consistent with that of the classroom observation which shows that the teachers teach their students pragmatic knowledge. More detailed discussion will be seen in 6.3.

The data from the students' questionnaire show that group discussion (57.7%) was the most frequently used task by their teachers in the classroom when teaching pragmatics. Usually three to four students form a group. The discussions mainly center on cultural knowledge related to the textbooks. In contrast to the students, the teachers chose pair work as the most frequently used task in the classroom.

The data from the classroom observation show that teachers did organize pair work that also centered on cultural knowledge. However pair work was not the most frequently used task in the classroom. According to classroom observation, the tasks conducted in class by the teachers include watching videos and films and listening to news, oral presentation, pair work, group discussion, and questioning and answering.

Watching video and films and listening to news, oral presentation, and question and answer are the most used tasks. Further, group discussion is not the task the students liked best. According to the data from the questionnaire, what students like best is watching films and videos (58.8%).

The differences between students' and teachers' opinions about how to teach pragmatics in class imply that neither teachers nor students have an adequate understanding of how to teach and learn pragmatics in College English class. The result coincides with Xiao's study (2005) reporting a perceptual mismatch between teachers and students in the areas of communicative and non-communicative language learning activities.

Apparently there is a need to do longitudinal and cross-sectional research on approaches to teaching pragmatics in the classroom effectively and appropriately

taking into consideration their learners' needs. Research indicates that there is relative shortage of developmental pragmatics research (see Rose, 2000).

Furthermore, the contradictory results from the questionnaires and the classroom observation also reflect that the pedagogical approach to pragmatic teaching in College English class has not reached maturity and is still at an early stage. The teachers are not sure which approach is appropriate and appreciated by the students. Mary said: "Research has offered us a lot of approaches to teaching vocabulary, grammar, and reading. There are no rules for me to follow in teaching pragmatic knowledge in class. I do it according to my own understanding."(TIM: May 11, 2006)

Alyson, Teacher Interviewee, expressed a similar view: "Sometimes I feel that teaching pragmatic knowledge in classroom is out of my reach as my pragmatic knowledge is limited" (TIA: June15, 2006). Lesley said: "I can provide some cultural knowledge to my students which is easier for me, but as for metapragmatic information, such as how to use appropriate expressions to respond to compliments in different contexts, I do not know how to do it" (TIL: June 21, 2006). It seems that how to promote learners' pragmatic competence in the classroom is a big challenge for both teachers and researchers.

The teachers' questionnaire also provides evidence to demonstrate that teachers prefer to use direct instruction in teaching pragmatics. The possible answer can be found in the teachers' interview. Mary, one of the interviewed teachers, said: "I find that conducting pragmatically oriented tasks is far more difficult than direct instruction. It takes too much time to design and conduct a task in class"(TIM: May 11, 2006). Mary's words reflect the teachers' attitude towards the pedagogical approach. Their teaching is still teacher-centered. Learner-centered language teaching aims to bring learners to a point where they reach a degree of autonomy and are able to use the language themselves in real situations outside the classroom (Cunningsworth, 2002). Besides, this is also indicative of the information transmission teaching model. More detailed discussion can be found in 6.3.

The data from the teachers' questionnaire and interview show that teachers hold to the belief that it is both textbook writers' and teachers' responsibility to work together to help learners develop pragmatic competence. TIL (Teacher Interviewee Lesley) said: "On the one hand, textbooks should cover a necessary amount of pragmatic input, on the other hand, teachers need to pay much attention to pragmatic teaching in classroom." TIS even said: "In helping students develop their pragmatic competence, teachers play a much more important role than textbooks considering the large scope of textbook users and long duration of developing textbooks" (TIS: June 28, 2006).

Textbook writers cannot meet the needs of all the users. However, teachers can provide more supplementary materials and conduct more tasks to meet their students' individual needs.

6.1.4 Proficiency and perception of learning and teaching pragmatics

Students with different levels of English proficiency have similar understanding of pragmatics in College English teaching and learning and textbooks. There is no relation between learners' proficiency and perception of teaching and learning pragmatics. The means of the questions (questions 8 to 13) in students' questionnaires are very similar among the students who take different levels of courses such as College English II (intermediate level), College English III (intermediate plus level), and Advanced English (advanced level) (see Figure 6.1; Table 5.5). It suggests that it is necessary for teachers to teach students pragmatics regardless of proficiency level. This is consistent with the findings from the previous studies (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001; Kasper, 1997). It is found that grammatically advanced learners may use language inappropriately and fall short of target-language pragmatic norms (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001; Kasper, 1997). Further discussion can be seen in 6.2.

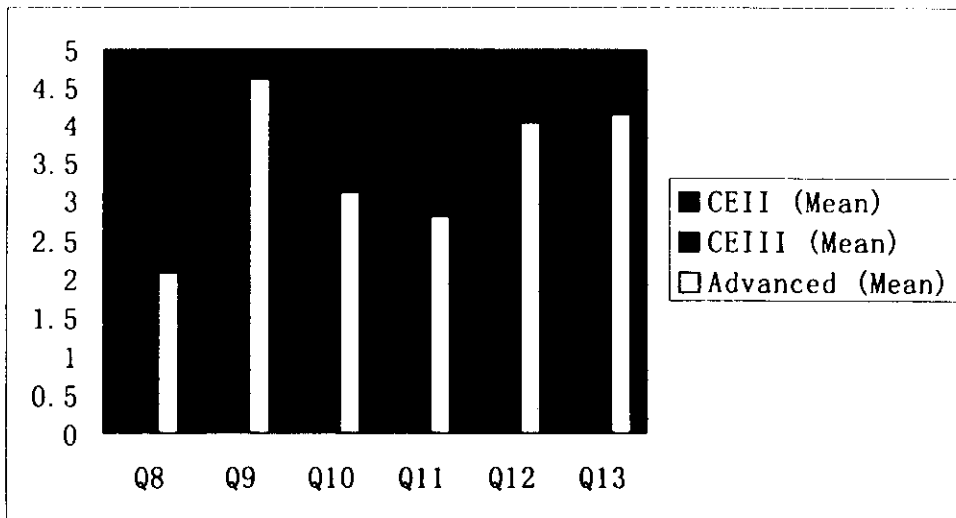


Figure 6.1 Means of Questions 8-13 in student questionnaire

Similarly there was no significant difference in the perception of pragmatics in teaching and textbooks among teachers with different teaching experience and different degrees. For example, in their response to the question “I think linguistic knowledge is as important as the knowledge of how to use the language”, the means are very similar: 3.76 (0-5yrs), 3.9 (6-10yrs), 4.1 (11-15yrs), 3.79 (16yrs+). It is found that teachers with teaching experience ranging from one year to more than 16 years have the similar response (see Table 6.1). In their response to the question “I often correct the mistake when my student use inappropriate words although they are grammatically correct.”, the means are also similar: 3.2 (Bachelor), 3.4 (Master), 3 (PhD) regardless of their different degrees (see Table 6.2). The data from the four interviewed teachers who have different teaching experience also support this point (see 5.4).

Table 6.1 Means of Question 9

Question	Mean (working experience)			
	0-5yrs	6-10yrs	11-15yrs	16yrs+
Q9: I think linguistic knowledge is as important as the knowledge of how to use the language.	3.76	3.9	4.1	3.79

Note: Mean: 3.50-5.0=strong 2.50-3.49=moderate ≤2.49=weak

Table 6.2 Means of Question 10

Question	Mean		
	Teachers with BA	Teachers with MA	Teachers with PhD
Q10: I often correct the mistake when my students use inappropriate words although they are grammatically correct.	3.2	3.4	3

Note: Mean: 3.50-5.0=strong 2.50-3.49=moderate ≤ 2.49 =weak

Overall, pragmatic input in College English textbooks and classroom teaching is a necessary and essential component that will contribute to the development of students' pragmatic competence.

6.2 RQ2: What is the nature of pragmatic materials and tasks included in College English textbooks?

Textbooks are one of the main resources for students to get pragmatic knowledge in the College English classroom. However, what pragmatic input have the textbooks provided? What role have College English textbooks played in developing learners' pragmatic competence?

6.2.1 Quantitative analysis of pragmatic materials and tasks in CE textbooks

Findings of the textbook analysis show that College English (New) Integrated coursebooks and Listening and Speaking coursebooks include a paucity of pragmatic information as the amount of pragmatic information across the eight textbooks is small: 15.3% in Integrated Course textbooks and 15.6% in Listening and Speaking Course textbooks (see Table 5.7, Table 5.13). This result confirms the findings from previous studies (Bardovi-Harlig et al., 1991; Boxer & Pickering, 1995; Burn, 1998; Park et al., 2000; Grant & Starks, 2001; Cane, 1998; Vellenga, 2004; Kaplan & Knutson, 1993; LoCastro, 1997) in which both ESL and EFL textbooks were examined (see 2.2.3). For example, in Vellenga's study, the average percentage of

pages which included pragmatic information in the eight examined textbooks is 12.7% (Vellenga, 2004).

It seems that a dearth of pragmatic information contained in ESL and EFL is a common phenomenon in English language learning and teaching. Although pragmatics has come into its own in the last two decades and its importance in the study of language has been recognized as it offers what cannot be found in traditional linguistics (Mey, 2001), textbook writers are less likely to apply the pragmatic theory to language learning and teaching. In fostering learners' language competence, they still lay much more emphasis on developing their organizational competence, with less attention to pragmatic competence (see 3.1.3). Tomlinson (2001) comments that an increasing prominence given to grammar is paralleled by a decreasing attention to skills, functions, communication and learning strategies (McDonough & Shaw, 2004, p. 57).

Apart from the paucity of pragmatic information in College English textbooks, the pragmatic information that is included in the textbooks is distributed at random and unevenly. Different textbooks contain different amounts of pragmatic information. Different units entail different amounts of pragmatic information. For example, Listening and Speaking Course Book 3 has only five pages of pragmatic information, whereas Book 1 contains 58 pages of pragmatic information. There are thirteen pages which contain pragmatic information in Unit 1 Book 2 (Integrated Coursebook), and six pages in Unit 3 Book 2 (Integrated Coursebook). The average percentage of Book 1 and Book 2 is 25.55%, whereas the average percentage of Book 3 and Book 4 is 6.1% (see 5.2).

Unlike vocabulary and grammar, pragmatic information has not been an indispensable part in College English textbooks published in China. As a result it is difficult for learners to form consistent ideas about pragmatic knowledge. The same is observed in the ESL, EFL, and foreign language textbooks examined in the previous studies (see 2.2.3). For example, in Vellenga's study, the minimum percentage of pragmatic

information in the textbook is 4% (Grammar Link 3), whereas the maximum percentage is 29.1% (Passages 1) (Vellenga, 2004).

Materials development reflects writers' perception of linguistic theories and the nature of language. Language learning materials have a theory of language, a theory of language learning, and an educational philosophy explicitly or implicitly embedded in the discourse of the printed, audio or video texts and, moreover, these three components are interrelated (LoCastro, 1997, p. 250). Any coursebook will be permeated with the writer's assumptions about syllabus design, whether they have been explicitly formulated and theoretically justified or not (Cunningsworth, 2002).

Therefore the results of the present study imply that ESL and EFL textbook writers have not given enough attention to the application of pragmatic theory in their textbooks (e.g. College English Integrated Course textbooks, 2002; Voyages 2, 1999.). It also implies that the old College English syllabus had a low requirement of developing learners' pragmatic competence because textbooks reveal the underlying principles and assumptions on which the writers have based their materials (McDonough & Shaw, 2004). In other words, unlike organizational competence, developing learners' pragmatic competence has not yet been viewed as an indispensable part of learners' communicative language ability in College English textbook writing (see 3.1.3.). However according to Bachman's communicative language ability model, language competence should include both organizational and pragmatic competence (Bachman & Palmer, 1996).

Types of pragmatic information contained in the College English textbooks are distributed at random. Among the four Listening and Speaking Course textbooks, speech acts account for 28.5% whereas metalanguage only accounts for 1.5% (see Table 5.15). The striking differences in amount of pragmatic information contained in each textbook and in types of pragmatic information again confirm the fact that textbook writers seem to have no guiding principles in writing their textbooks in terms of the pragmatic aspect of language. The possible reason is that unlike "learning

language”, pragmatic knowledge is related to “learning about language” which is less systematic and thus more difficult (Halliday, 1989).

Pragmatics has been widely applied to the study of second language acquisition (Kasper & Rose, 2002). An increasing body of research examines the development of L2 learners' pragmatic ability (cf. review by Kasper and Schmidt, 1996). The previous studies show that most pragmatic features such as speech acts, metapragmatic information and pragmatic routines and strategies are teachable (Olshtain & Cohen, 1990; Liddicoat & Crozet, 2001; Rose & Ng, 2001).

As more and more attention is given to the development of pragmatic competence in English learning and teaching, it is argued that textbook writers have the responsibility to incorporate more pragmatic information into textbooks because textbook writers play the role of teaching learners and training teachers (LoCastro, 2003, p. ix).

Besides unlike vocabulary and grammar, the pragmatic aspect of language is not repeated and recycled in the textbooks. This is further evidence to show that the textbooks are language-focused.

6.2.2 Qualitative analysis of pragmatic materials and tasks in CE textbooks

Types and distribution of pragmatic knowledge

The results indicate that the CE textbooks contain inadequate presentation of the variety of pragmatic information and as well present a highly fragmented picture of pragmatic knowledge. The types of pragmatic information contained in the eight textbooks according to average percentage are as follows: general pragmatic information (13.8%); metapragmatic information (25.9%); metalanguage (12.95%); speech act (14.25%); cultural information (13.7%); pragmatically oriented task (19.35%). No information about how to learn and teach pragmatic knowledge is provided in the textbooks. Textbook writers have laid different emphasis on different

types of pragmatic information as the amounts of types of pragmatic information contained in them are different (see Table 5.9, Table 5.15).

In accordance with the definition of pragmatic competence/knowledge used in the present study, pragmatic knowledge entails the knowledge of communicative action and how to carry it out, and the ability to use language appropriately according to context (see 3.2). To be more specific, pragmatic knowledge covers general pragmatic information, metapragmatic information, metalanguage, cultural information, speech acts, pragmatically oriented tasks, and learning how to learn pragmatic knowledge, as indicated in the frameworks of Vellenga (2004), Hatoss (2004), and Byram (1997) (see Chapter 3).

Among the pragmatic information included in the Integrated Course textbooks, metapragmatic information accounts for the largest percentage (30.3%), whereas in Listening and Speaking Course textbooks, speech act has the largest percentage (28.5%). Even in Listening and Speaking Course textbooks whose writing principle is to develop students' ability to speak English, the amount of tasks is only 23.8%. Textbook writers focus more on providing pragmatic information to learners than designing activities and tasks to help them practice and develop their pragmatic competence. Perhaps this is one of the reasons that only limited occasions for practice are offered in EFL classrooms (Rose & Kasper, 2001).

Shortage of variety of tasks leads to the omission of methodology of pragmatic teaching in College English textbooks. However textbooks are viewed as pedagogic tools in the hands of the teachers when they are involved in teaching (Sercu, 2005). The fact that College English textbook writers attach more importance to pragmatic information than designing pragmatically oriented tasks has definitely affected College English teachers teaching practices.

The evidence from the classroom observation illustrates that on most occasions College English teachers teach learners pragmatic knowledge using explicit

instruction rather than using tasks (see 5.3). TIA (Teacher Interviewee Alyson) said: “Explicit instruction of pragmatic knowledge is often used in my class. The reason why I conduct fewer pragmatically oriented tasks in class is that textbooks offer us too few tasks and it is time-and-energy consuming to design tasks on my own which I cannot afford.”

Tasks enable acquisition processes to operate. Studies show that pragmatically oriented tasks can enhance learners' pragmatic competence (House, 1996; Tateyama et al., 1997; Berry, 2000; Kim & Hall, 2000). For example, interactive reading sessions in English help native Korean-speaking children who are learning EFL develop their pragmatic knowledge in English (Kim & Hall, 2000). Role play and discourse completion tests (DCT) are also useful in developing learners' pragmatic competence (Tateyama, 2001; Tateyam et al., 1997). Materials and methods cannot be used in isolation, but are embedded within a broader professional context (McDonough & Shaw, 2004). Therefore textbooks should not only provide enough pragmatic knowledge but also develop their potential as pedagogic tools in the hands of the teachers when they are involved in teaching towards pragmatic competence.

In addition, the outcomes of the content analysis also indicate that the pragmatic information noted in the textbooks is largely information-based reflecting a language-focused and information-transmission model of teaching. The high percentage of metapragmatic, metalanguage and cultural information (74.4%) compared to that of tasks (14.9%) is very indicative of a transmission teaching model which is deeply embedded in an intellectual tradition of master-apprentice style learning and teacher-student relationship. In the traditional English teaching and learning model, the classroom is teacher-centered instead of student-centered. Teachers mainly impart knowledge to students and give students no opportunities for practice (Celce-Murcia, 2001). Perhaps it is fair to say that a lack of students' use of the target language through engagement and interaction might have contributed to the

sizable number of “mute” or “deaf” English learners in China. The findings coincide with those from the questionnaires (see 6.1).

The model that largely emphasizes knowledge transmission with a barely-observed acquisition process as seems to be intended by the textbooks, reduces teachers, to a large extent, to a less constructive role of spoon-feeding the learners in the classroom. Teachers are prevented from engaging the learners and themselves via a more engaging and interactive process typical of a task-based learning. Here tasks refer to pragmatically-oriented tasks which are different from vocabulary or structure tasks. Further discussion can be seen in 6.3.

Despite the small percentage of tasks included, it was apparent that textbook writers have an awareness of designing tasks to help learners practice and develop their pragmatic competence. Textbook writers have an awareness of incorporating a task-based teaching approach in material development.

As to the features of pragmatically oriented tasks, the results show that those contained in the eight textbooks are presented mainly in two forms: oral and written. In Integrated Course textbooks, written tasks largely outnumbered oral tasks (25 pages out of 35 pages) (see 5.2). Although writers claimed that the textbooks aimed at developing students' four skills, obviously less emphasis was laid on speaking. However, in Listening and Speaking Course textbooks, there were much more oral tasks.

This is perhaps, again indicative of the traditional syllabus in which speaking ability was ignored. However, the new *College English Requirements* (2004) points out that “the objective of College English is to develop students' ability to use English in an all-round way, especially in listening and speaking.”(Chinese College English Education and Supervisory Committee, 2004, p.24). There is every reason for textbook writers to design more tasks to develop students' speaking ability so that they can communicate with other people appropriately.

College English textbooks contain many more enabling tasks than communication tasks which are defined as the two main categories of tasks by Estaire and Zanon (1994, pp. 13-20). In enabling tasks, the main focus is on linguistic aspects, such as grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation, etc., whereas in communication tasks, the learner's attention is focused on meaning rather than form. And the variety of pragmatically oriented tasks is also limited. Most of the pair work tasks focus on reproduction. More discussion about tasks can be found in 6.3.

Metalinguage

Much attention has been put on metalanguage in the College English Integrated Course textbooks. Metalanguage is distributed in each unit in each textbook and has been a regular section in the textbooks. It mainly focuses on usage and collocation. For example, the following metalanguage information can be seen in the College English textbooks:

Usage: Plural form of nouns as attributes

When we want to give more specific information about someone or something, we sometimes use a noun in front of another noun, as in rice pudding. For some nouns their plural forms must be used when functioning as attributes, e.g. sales meeting, corporate affairs director. (College English Integrated Coursebook, Book 2, p. 46)

Collocation: Verb+noun+adverb of direction

In English, combinations of this kind, if used properly, could make your expression neat and concise. For instance, instead of saying "indicate to sb. that he/she can enter by waving one's hand", just say "wave sb. in" as in Text A: Maybe the security guard at the front desk knows your face and will wave you in most days. (College English Integrated Coursebook, Book 3, pp.85-86)

The textbook writers are observed to have incorporated metalanguage into textbooks. The reason for regular distribution of metalanguage information in the College English textbooks is that it is easy for textbook writers to obtain metalanguage information from usage dictionaries and grammar books as much research has been

done in the field of the language itself. However metalanguage input is more linguistically oriented. In the above examples, there is no information about how to use "Plural form of nouns as attributes" in different contexts. More examples can be seen in 5.2.1.

Consistent with the classroom observation in which the College English teachers laid more emphasis on teaching usage and collocation (see 5.3), the findings are again indicative of the traditional teaching approach with a focus on grammar, vocabulary, and structure reflecting a language-focused teaching model. However, in order to acquire pragmatic knowledge, one must attend to both the linguistic forms of utterances and the relevant social and contextual features with which they are associated (Schmidt, 2001 p. 30). If textbook writers can provide more metalanguage information beyond usage and collocation at the semantic level, say, how to use words in different contexts, that will do more good in promoting learners' pragmatic competence. Further discussion can be found in 6.3.

Cultural information

The percentage of cultural information in the eight textbooks is relatively small (13.7%) compared to the large amount of language information. According to the points of articulation between culture and language (see Table 3.2), College English textbooks are more likely to be on the language side of the continuum of culture and language. This result does not accord with the close relation between culture and language (see 3.2). Language use is fundamentally cultural. Every time we use language we perform a cultural act. An acknowledgement and understanding of the links between language and culture as well as an understanding of how communication works across cultures requires language teachers to teach culture in language. Therefore, to articulate culture and language, College English textbook writers need to go back to the culture end and add more cultural knowledge when developing textbooks.

As for the variety of cultural information, the data indicate that types of cultural information are limited and the cultural information is presented in a way which appears superficial and simplified in the textbooks. In other words, textbooks present a highly fragmented picture of the target culture. Only cultural information about literature, society, history, music, holidays, famous people, custom, provided and explained. Textbook writers provide superficial cultural information with no depth in a traditional way. Similar results have also been found in College English classroom teaching (see 6.3).

Restricting culture to the high and low culture of a particular society is not the full picture learners need to have (Crozet & Liddicoat, 2000). According to Hatoss (2004) and Byram (1997), cultural knowledge involves both knowledge itself and knowledge about how to teach cultural knowledge. The former includes cultural knowledge such as high culture, low culture, surface culture, and deep culture. The latter involves teaching strategies to teach students cultural knowledge (see 3.2).

The findings also indicate that intercultural knowledge is scarce and most of the cultural knowledge contained in the College English textbooks is about L2 culture. L1 culture is seldom mentioned. However globalization has brought extensive cross-cultural contact among diverse language and cultural groups (Jenkins, 2006; Canagarajah, 2006). To prepare Chinese students for the 21st century, College English teachers are faced with the challenge of promoting the acquisition of intercultural competence. The ILT approach values comparison of L1 culture (culture of native language) and L2 culture (culture of the target language) in learning and teaching English (Crozet & Liddicoat, 1999).

One of the reasons why the CE textbooks contain inadequate cultural information is that culture as expressed in spoken or written language is not readily accessible for scrutiny, unlike grammar studied in written texts or functions of language (Crozet et al., 1999).

In the context of foreign language learning, where the chances for noticing a difference between the target language's culturally based patterns of interaction and those of one's first language are limited, the possibilities of incorporating such differences are inevitably low (Liddicoat & Crozet, 2001, cited in Rose & Kasper, 2001). Textbook developers have as far been unable to have their attention focused through materials and tasks on elements of interaction which are salient and which vary between the target-language culture and the first language culture.

Another feature of cultural information contained in the College English textbooks is the narrow selection of cultural information as most of the cultural information is about American and British culture rather than on the wider English-speaking world. The findings coincide with Shi's study. Shi (1999/2000) examined forty texts taken from various College English textbooks and found that all were chosen from journals and books published in the West and that their content was all about the Western world. The ideology behind the native-speaker model is the assumption that native-speaker authors' English is the best for the learners. This ideology is emphasized in English teaching in China. Teachers suggest that students should forget their Chinese when learning English. In fact it is almost impossible as most of the students count on their Chinese for comprehension of English (Song & Fu, 2004).

There is no doubt that English has become an international language and is used widely by three types of English speakers in the world today according to Kachru's three concentric circles of English: Inner circle, Outer circle, and Expanding (Kachru, 1996). English is becoming a glocal language - global yet rooted in the local contexts of its users and will acquire a new status as a global language supporting local users of English in the Outer and Expanding Circles and their specific uses of the language (Pakir, 1999). English serves as a means of communication between speakers of different languages in a wide range of contexts: business and trade, academic and scientific, media and the arts, travel and tourism. The speakers may or may not be

native speakers of the language and the speech events may or may not take place inside English native speakers' country (Ellis, 1994).

The call for English to be taught as an international language rather than as a second or foreign language have grown much stronger (Mckay, 2002, 2003; Gilmore, 2007). The changed status of English requires changes in the practice of English language teaching. So it is necessary for textbook writers to include other cultures of English speakers in the three circles other than just American and British cultures.

Metapragmatic information

Metapragmatic information contained in the eight textbooks is sketchy and not illustrative enough with insufficient interpretation of language use. The College English textbooks only cover metapragmatic information such as formality, register, illocutionary force, discussion of discourse, function of speech acts insufficiently and poorly. However according to the categorization of pragmatic knowledge (see 3.2.6) used in the present study, metapragmatic information mainly includes general explanation for the functions of speech acts, discussion of politeness (including formality, appropriacy and illocutionary force), conversation norms and implicature, register, discourse, social variants, and context. Lacking any of these aspects of metapragmatic information will lead to poor pragmatic comprehension.

The findings indicate that in the College English textbooks, only a few words are marked as formal or informal in the list of new words and expressions. For example:

sellout (infml) (person who) betrays one's country, cause (Integrated Course BK3, p. 43)

ad (infml) (Integrated Course BK3, p. 76)

on account of (fml) because of (Integrated Course BK3, p. 110)

hit the sack (infml) go to bed (Integrated Course BK3, p.110)

dope (infml) a stupid person (Integrated Course BK3, p. 111)

Conveying information about formality of as politeness carries a heavy burden in cross-cultural communication regarding initiating and maintaining friendly relations between and among different individuals involved in the situations of contact (LoCastro, 1997, p. 241). If more information about politeness is provided, say, information about how to use these formal or informal words/expressions in different contexts, learners' language can really be situationally appropriate.

In addition to some information about formality, the College English textbooks also contain register information. For example, sample letters such as formal /informal invitation, formal/informal acceptance, formal/informal regrets in Unit 2, CE Integrated Book 2. Here is one of the sample letters:

Informal regrets:

Dear Barbara,

Thank you so much for inviting me to your dinner party on Saturday, June 14. Unfortunately, much to my sorrow, I won't be able to be there, as I have already promised to help supervise the Cancer Aid Benefit in Glenhaen that evening. Hopefully we'll find another opportunity to get together soon

Love,
Lucy

(College English Integrated Coursebook, BK2, p. 61).

As register varies from casual to formal with regard to the type of situation, the person or persons addressed, the location, the topic discussed (Richards et al., 2000), the knowledge of register can help learners determine when to use formal/informal language.

Variation in language style depends on the situation in which the language is used and also on the effect the writer or speaker wishes to create on the reader or hearer. Failure to notice these differences such as oral English and written English, formal language and informal language will result in inappropriacy of language use, pragmatic tension, failure or worse (Vellenga, 2004). For example, you hold a birthday party, and you want to invite both your friends and teachers to your party. For your close friends you

need to write an informal invitation note, whereas for your teachers, a formal invitation letter is needed. If it is vice versa, it will be inappropriate for both friends and teachers.

Contextual information is rarely found in the textbooks. For example, in Listening and Speaking Course textbooks, in the "Speaking Tasks" part, no contextual information is provided in directions which read as follows:

Pair work: Listen to the dialogues and repeat after the recording. Practise the dialogues with your partner, playing the role of A or B. Then work with your partner to create your own dialogues by replacing the underlined parts with your own words. (Listening and Speaking Course, BK1, p. 37)

In the above directions, contextual information such as setting, information about relationship between speakers, and status, is missing. Even if students can practice this dialogue very fluently, it is less likely for them to apply it to the real life as real-world language does not operate in a vacuum. The data from the students' questionnaire also explain this point.

As a matter of fact, contextual information contributes to successful communication. Contextual variables include cultural factors, power, status, age, sex, relationship between Speaker (S) and Hearer (H). Decisions about the relative status of the speaker (S) and hearer (H) influence the degree of directness in the S's expressing disagreement (LoCastro, 1997, p. 247). Awareness of these contextual factors will facilitate students to use different expressions of speech acts more appropriately.

The data from the content analysis indicate that contextual information is provided in the following dialogue taken from the textbooks regardless of the amount of information:

Dialogue 2

(At a fast food restaurant)

Counter hand: What can I do for you?

Customer: I'll have one order of chicken nuggets and a chicken sandwich.

Counter hand: Anything to drink?

Customer: A small Sprite. No ice, please.

Counter hand: Okay. For here or to go?

Customer: For here.

(Listening and Speaking Course 2, p. 40)

In this dialogue, contextual information such as setting, relation between speakers is provided. Learners can use this in the real life when they buy fast food.

The importance of contextual information in successful communication has been acknowledged and provided they are given more contextual information, learners will be more likely to use language in an appropriate way (Cunningsworth, 2002; Mey, 2001; Grant & Starks, 2001).

As for conversational implicature, the findings show that little conversational implicature information is included in the College English textbooks. Comprehension of conversational implicatures involves integration of information from a wide range of linguistic sources (i.e., phonetic, syntactic, and semantic) to understand a contextually appropriate utterance that reveals a speaker's intentions and attitude. In conversational implicatures, the speaker expresses attitudes and feelings using indirect utterance, and the hearer has to infer the speaker's attitudes, intentions, or feelings. For example, here is the exchange between two roommates:

A: Are the neighbors on vacation?

B: I haven't seen their car all week.

(Garcia, 2004, p. 3)

In this example, Speaker B does not give an answer to Speaker A directly. Instead speaker A has to infer that the neighbors are on vacation.

As misunderstanding and misinterpretations of conversational implicatures for L2 learners are always possible (Leech, 1983; Mey, 1993), information on conversational implicatures needs to be included in the textbooks.

Contrary to the other types of metapragmatic explanation, discourse knowledge, particularly writing strategies, is rich in the textbooks. In Integrated Course textbooks,

every unit contains discourse knowledge systematically. For example: using comparison and contrast in essay writing, and how to write invitations.

Two reasons can explain why so much discourse knowledge is included in the College English textbooks. For one thing, discourse knowledge is an important part of reading and writing proficiency (Kaplan & Knutson, 1993), and discourse analysis provides much of the theoretical and analytical basis for understanding this area, which focuses on language use and the conventions that structure how we use language for effective communication (Cunningsworth, 2002). For another, “when coursebooks set out to teach aspects of discourse, it is most commonly in the area of writing.”(Cunningsworth, 2002, p. 46)

Metapragmatic information plays an important role in successful communication. By metapragmatic instruction and discussion, students can make significant gains in pragmatic ability in FL classrooms. Metapragmatic input also helps learners raise their awareness of context and appropriacy in making conversations, hence facilitates students' pragmatic competence (House, 1996; Wildner-Bassett, 1984, 1986; Vellenga 2004).

If textbooks provide enough metapragmatic information, it is more likely that students will develop pragmatic competence. Making contextualized, pragmatically appropriate language input available to learners in an EFL context in which they do not have the chance to encounter this input outside the classroom is pedagogically necessary (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001).

Speech acts

The CE textbooks provide most of the common speech acts required in the *College English Curriculum Requirements* published in 2004, such as greetings and introduction, making apologies, agreement and disagreement. These speech acts not only show the communicative functions, but also the pragmatic aspect of language. One of the reasons is that textbook writers have to meet the demands of the

centralized authority when they compile textbooks. For example, the following excerpt is taken from Unit 8, Listening and Speaking, Book 1:

Expressing apologies

We make apologies for various reasons, such as being late, causing inconvenience, dialing the wrong number, rendering bad service, etc. This part focuses on expressing apologies.

Useful Expressions for Making and Accepting an Apology

Apologies

1. I'm (awfully) sorry (I'm late again).
2. I do apologize for (what I've done).
3. I must apologize.
4. Please forgive me for (not keeping my promise).
5. Sorry, it's my fault.
6. I really didn't mean (to hurt your feelings).

(Listening and Speaking Course, BK2, p. 72)

Here students are provided with lists of useful expressions (sentences) about speech acts. Introducing students to the semantic moves associated with a particular speech act in a certain context is pragmatically helpful (Vellenga, 2004). It is really necessary to provide students with multiple forms of expressions of a speech act.

However this kind of treatment of speech acts in the textbooks is pragmatically inadequate. According to the speech act theory, meaning is communicated by a speaker (or writer) and interpreted by a listener (or reader) in their joint actions that include both linguistic and nonlinguistic signals in the context of socioculturally organized activities (LoCastro 2003; Yule 1996). Meaning is negotiated by contextual conditions, language users (speaker/listener, writer/reader) and interaction (Thomas, 1995).

Apparently the College English textbook writers neglect to show when and for what purposes it is appropriate to make a speech act, and which expressions would be

appropriate in a particular situation. In other words, the textbooks present a simplified and context-free register of the target language with no explicit relationship between form and function in most cases.

In fact the expressions in the textbooks convey differences in terms of formality and illocutionary force. Expressions of disagreement such as “No way.” are informal and direct whereas “I wonder if there's a mistake.” is formal and indirect (see Chapter 5).

If a student expresses his/her disagreement to the Dean of the department using “No way”, it is likely to be viewed as impolite or even rude. But it would be appropriate if you use “No way” in a conversation with your intimate friend. Students can communicate successfully with people with information about politeness and levels of politeness.

It turns out that the above treatment of the speech act “apologizing” and “making disagreement” presents little metapragmatic information. Presenting simply a list of linguistic forms is highly unlikely to result in pragmatic development (Bardovi-Harlig, 1996; Crandall & Basturkmen, 2004). Textbook writers follow the functional approach rather than the pragmatic approach. It is obvious that textbooks are language-focused.

Take expressions for requests as another example. The following list of expressions for requests is provided in Listening and Speaking Course, Book 1.

1. Could you tell me...?
2. I wonder if you could tell me...
3. I hope you don't mind my asking, but I'd like to know

(Listening and Speaking, Book1, Unit 6, p. 52)

These expressions show a gradation of linguistic formulations for request based on politeness criteria (Trosborg, 1995). This gradation is illustrated as follows:

Degree of politeness		
Conventionally indirect	Indirect	
	(more polite)	
Could you tell me...?	I wonder if you could tell me...	I hope you don't mind my asking, but I'd like to know

Figure 6.2 Degree of politeness

Different linguistic formulations convey different degree of politeness and different strategies (cf. Trosborg's taxonomy of request-realization strategies, Trosborg, 1995, p. 205). This kind of information is of paramount importance to English learners for language use.

These findings concur with those of studies such as Boxer and Pickering (1995), Burns (1998), Grant and Starks (2001), and Crandall and Basturkmen (2004). As Boxer and Pickering put it: "...Many ELT texts that are currently popular for the teaching of functions continue to concentrate on the acquisition of linguistic competence, with insufficient attention to a fuller communicative competence." (Boxer& Pickering, 1995, p. 52)

Crandall and Basturkmen (2004) expressed a similar view that the language input in the textbooks tends to consist of lists of 'useful expressions' and pointed out that the textbooks seemed to wrongly assume that learners know when and how it is appropriate to make speech acts, and that all they need was to be given the phrases to do so.

The findings are consistent with the recent research examining classroom activities in the EFL context (Tarnopolsky, 1996; Crandall & Basturkmen, 2004), which have shown that classroom activities are often limited to the direct teaching of fixed conversational expressions, if pragmatic competence is dealt with at all.

It is also found that the cross-cultural variability of speech act performance has not been taken into consideration in the College English textbooks either. In spite of the fact that many pragmatic universals are recognized, such as basic speech act categories of requesting, greeting, areas of cross-cultural variation have also been found, for example, the degree of relevance of different contextual factors in different communities and the different weightings of specific contextual factors across cultures (Barron, 2005, p. 521). Blum-Kulka states:

...that the nature of interdependence among pragmatic, linguistic, and social factors that determine speech-act realization varies from one language to another, and that as a result, L2 learners often fail to realize their speech acts in the target language both in terms of effectiveness and in terms of social appropriateness (Blum-Kulka, 1983, p. 38).

Studies show that cultures vary in regard to what speech acts can be performed due to different perceptions of factors such as relationship, gender, age, rights, and obligations (Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford, 1993). Early cross-cultural research in the form of the Cross-Cultural Speech Act Realisation Project (CCSARP) did recognize that regional variation might influence language use conventions (Barron, 2005). For example, it is appropriate to ask about someone's salary in Chinese, but not in some English speaking countries. Learners need to recognize the social function of different speech acts.

Apart from providing sets of expressions of speech acts, the College English textbooks also include some printed dialogues as samples for students to imitate. They are appropriate for some students at certain stages of language learning (Scotton & Bernstein, 1988). The following dialogue is taken from Unit 9, Listening and Speaking Book 1:

Dialogue2:

A: Hi, Xiao Jin. How was your vacation?

B: Great! I went to Hainan Island.

A: Really? Who did you go with?

B: My cousin. He'd been longing to go there for months, and he persuaded me to go with him.

A: I heard the island is warm all year round.

B: That's true. It's so cold here this time of [the] year, while there the temperature stays in the mid-twenties. It's really a good place to escape the winter cold.

(Listening and Speaking, Book 1, p. 89)

The analysis of the conversations provided in the textbooks show that most of the dialogues in the textbooks are not very authentic. "Authentic" means that dialogues should follow conversational rules shared by a group of people which govern their spoken conversational behavior. They may regulate when to speak or not to speak in a conversation, what to say in a particular situation, and how to start and end a conversation. The result is consistent with other studies (McCarthy & Carter, 1994; Bardovi-Harlig et al., 1991; Boxer & Pickering, 1995), which indicate that there is gap between authentic language and textbook language. As Gilmore (2007) pointed out:

"despite appeals for greater authenticity in language learning going back at least 30 years..., movements in this direction have been slow." (ibid, p. 97)

Maintaining a conversation in English requires an underlying knowledge of responses that prompt a speaker to continue, show understanding, give support, indicate agreement, show strong emotional response, add or correct a speaker's information, or ask for more information (Bardovi-Harlig & Mahan-Taylor, 2003). Spoken language follows certain distinct patterns or "conversational routines" and rules that must be observed if a satisfactory outcome for each participant is to be achieved (McDonough & Shaw, 2004, p. 138). In the framework of the conversation, "opening and closing of conversation, turns, and use of pauses and fillers" are very important factors (Richards, et al., 2000).

To analyze the above dialogue, it is obvious that it is well formed with fewer fillers, hesitations, and pauses. It is more or less like written dialogue rather than one used in real life. However the use of pause and fillers which enables the speaker to hold the

floor by filling in the silence at that particular moment is very popular in native speakers' conversation.

The findings are consistent with Scotton and Bernsten's study (1988) in which coursebook dialogues were examined to see if they were representative of real-life language use in two common interaction situations (see Chapter 2). It is obvious that the data support the argument that real conversation is much less "well formed" in that it contains hesitations, fillers and incomplete sentences. All these features are typical of spoken language produced by native speakers.

Look at another sample conversation contained in the College English textbooks:

Dialogue 2

A: How long have you been studying English?

B: About four years.

A: Do you like it?

B: Very much.

A: Why's that?

B: Well, I find it's very useful.

(Listening and Speaking, Book 1, p. 7)

In this conversation there is no opening, or pre-closings or terminal exchange. Students are only exposed to it and asked to imitate it.

Conversation closings are a ritualistic form of behaviour used to maintain the positive face needs of the participants (Grant & Starks, 2001). According to Schegloff and Sacks (1973), closings of conversations can be divided into "pre-closings" and a "terminal exchange". "Pre-closings" are introduced by fillers such as "well, so, OK" and come in a variety of types. Terminal exchanges include "OK", "See you", "Goodbye", "You are welcome" and the like (Grant & Starks, 2001, p. 40). If students are taught to finish a conversation with no closings, they "run the risk of ending the conversation inappropriately and appearing abrupt and bad-mannered." (Grant & Starks, 2001, p. 42)

The results are supportive of the studies by Bardovi-Harlig, Hartofd, Mahan Taylor, Morgan, and Reynolds (1991). Having analyzed twenty textbooks they found a general absence of pre-closings and suggested that textbooks lack adequate material for teaching closings. The findings also coincide with Grant and Starks who pointed out that textbook conversational closings failed to replicate natural conversations (Grant & Starks, 2001).

“Turns” have to take place if the conversation is not to be completely one-sided. The speaker should have knowledge of how “long” or “short” the turn can be; interrupting the other speaker, anticipating and inferring what is about to happen next, changing the “topic”, providing appropriate pauses and “fillers” while processing the language (McDonough & Shaw, 2004, p. 138). Studies show that western-style conversation is different from “oriental” conversation style. A western-style conversation is like playing tennis, while a Japanese-style conversation is like playing bowling (Sakamoto, 1999)

However, this kind of knowledge and samples are found to be scarce in the College English textbooks. Although it is not always an easy task to have a good command of conversation rules, if sensitivity to how these conversation “frames” work can be encouraged from the early stages of language learning by exposing beginners to samples of natural speech to develop their awareness of conversational features and strategies, then learners will find themselves much more able to deal with situations when they want to take part in real conversations outside the classroom (McDonough & Shaw, 2004, p. 138-139).

The texts examined do not appear to take authenticity into account when presenting sample dialogues. Hence, they fall short of offering the learner the examples that reflect the way people actually speak. However authentic materials can benefit learners in the following way: provide cultural information about the target language; provide exposure to real language; relate more closely to learners’ needs; support a more creative approach to teaching (Richards, 2006).

The teaching of speech acts should first and foremost be based on spontaneous speech in order to capture the underlying social implications of the speech strategies of the speech behaviour being studied. Learners need to know several things: how to realize the speech act itself; what speakers' intentions are in their use of the speech act; how to respond appropriately; how to maintain cohesion and coherence in their part of the conversation, and, how to keep the conversation flowing when their linguistic resources fail them (Boxer & Pickering 1995, p. 52). Language learners interacting with speakers of a target language must be exposed to language samples which observe social, cultural, and discourse conventions - or in other words, which are pragmatically appropriate (Bardovi-Harlig et al. 1991, p. 4).

Proficiency and pragmatic learning and teaching

As shown in Table 5.7, the textbooks at lower levels contain more pragmatic information than the ones at higher levels (18.8% in Integrated Coursebook Book 1; 17.3% in Book 2; 13.8% in Book 3; 11.5% in Book 4). The lower the level of the book, the more pragmatic information it has. In other words, the high-level textbooks contain less pragmatic information.

Studies have demonstrated that grammatical development does not guarantee a corresponding level of pragmatic development. Second language learners often struggle to communicate appropriately, even when they have a high level of general language proficiency (Bardovi-Harlig & Dornyei, 1997; Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford, 1993). Grammatically advanced learners may use language inappropriately and show differences from target-language pragmatic norms (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001; Kasper, 1997).

The similar point is reported in the teachers' interview. TIS (Teacher Interviewee Sue) said: "I teach Advanced English course. My students have a good command of language, but their pragmatic competence is rather poor. They have gained the knowledge about the language but not about how to use it. I think what they need

most at this stage is to obtain sufficient pragmatic knowledge. It is much more difficult for them to make further greater progress in English without it.” (see 5.4)

The data from the interview also show that College English students regardless of proficiency make pragmatic errors in learning English. For example, TIM (Teacher Interviewee Mary) who taught College English II (intermediate level) cited a pragmatic error her student made: “I once asked my students to make dialogues. To end a dialogue, Student A said to Student B: ‘Drive slowly’. Actually he wanted to express the meaning “drive carefully”. But he did it in the Chinese way. In Chinese, people usually say ‘man man (=slowly) kai (=drive)’ which is equivalent to English expression ‘drive safely’.”

TIS who taught Advanced English course offered another example of the use of the word “vicious” in the interview (see 5.4). The inappropriate use of the word “vicious” is a typical pragmatic error which may hinder good communication between speakers or readers, may make the speaker appear abrupt or brusque in social interactions, or may make the speaker appear rude or uncaring (Bardovi-Harlig & Mahan-Taylor, 2003). When learners make errors of appropriacy, the consequences are potentially more serious than if they make grammatical errors. While native speakers are usually able to identify a grammatical error produced by a non-native speaker as a language problem, they are less likely to identify a pragmatic error as such. Instead, the non-native speaker may be seen as rude (Crandall & Basturkme, 2004, p. 38).

Bardovi-Harlig et al. (1991) expressed the same view: “Speakers who do not use pragmatically appropriate language run the risk of appearing uncooperative at the least, or more seriously, rude or insulting. This is particularly true of advanced learners whose high linguistic proficiency leads other speakers to expect concomitantly high pragmatic competence.” (ibid, p. 4)

Newmark (2000) also pointed out:

“...even an intelligent one, who knows perfectly the structures that the linguist teaches, cannot know that the way to get his cigarette lit by a stranger when he has no matches is to walk up to him and say one of the utterances. ‘Do you have light?’ or ‘Got a match?’ (Not one of the equally well-formed questions, ‘Do you have fire?’ or ‘Do you have illumination?’ or ‘Are you a match’s owner?’) (ibid, p. 161)

Furthermore, from a sociolinguistic point of view, it is important to learn routines at any learning stage because they embody the societal knowledge that members of a given speech community share. Cultures differ greatly in day-to-day situations for which formulaic expressions are available, and in which their use is appropriate. Routine formulae are thus essential in the verbal handling of everyday life (House 1996, pp. 226-227).

The descending tendency of pragmatic information contained in the College English textbooks (see Figure 6.3) may also show that textbook writers may have limited pragmatic knowledge. A close look at the pragmatic information contained in each unit in the four textbooks reveals the answer. Whether pragmatic information is provided largely depends on the texts and writers own awareness of pragmatic knowledge. If the chosen texts contain pragmatic information which textbook writers think important, they will provide the explicit explanation. If writers haven't found any pragmatic information in the texts even though the text does contain some pragmatic information, they will give no further information. No guiding principles were used in the process of designing and writing. Textbook writers failed to provide a set of texts that show progression.

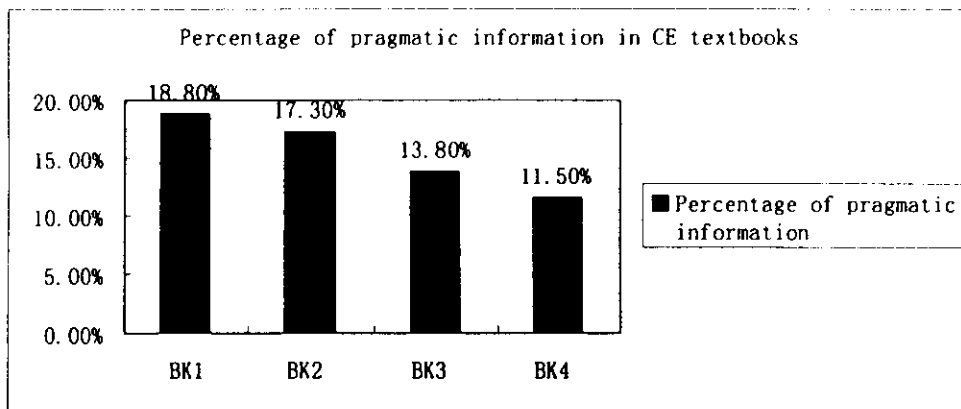


Figure 6.3 Percentage of pragmatic information in CE textbooks

As mentioned in Chapter 1, College English textbooks are compiled by Chinese English professors. Their education background, knowledge and textbook writing principles may affect the quantity and quality of pragmatic input in College English textbooks

Textbooks facilitate learning and support teachers. They also provide a methodology, or at least an approach to learning (Cunningsworth, 2002). Textbooks should have a clear role as a support for learning and teaching pragmatics in the classroom so as to promote students' pragmatic competence. However materials development will never be exhaustive (Bardovi-Harlig, 1996). Authentic language and representative cases in textbooks can be used as triggers for learners to acquire more.

6.3 RQ3: How do Chinese College English teachers incorporate materials and tasks into the classroom?

Classrooms are good sources of input. Classrooms essentially offer two kinds of opportunity for learning the pragmatics of a second or foreign language - students may learn as a result of planned pedagogical action directed toward the acquisition of pragmatics, or they may learn from exposure to input and production of output through classroom use of the target language even when pragmatics is not an intended learning target (Kasper & Rose, 2002, p. 237).

As environments for developing pragmatic ability in a target language, L2 classrooms have a bad reputation. A number of studies show that compared to interaction outside the classroom, L2 pragmatic input in instructional discourse is functionally and formally limited. For example, in classroom interaction, openings and closings are shorter and less complex, the range of discourse markers is smaller (Kasper, 1989). What is the nature of pragmatic materials and tasks included in the College English classroom and how do Chinese College English teachers incorporate pragmatic materials and tasks into the classroom to foster pragmatic competence?

6.3.1 Teaching pragmatics in the College English classroom, how likely

It is found in the classroom observation that there is availability of pragmatic input in the College English classroom. During ten weeks' observation, pragmatic teaching was observed in all three teachers' classroom teaching (see 5.3). It is obvious that College English teachers have paid attention to pragmatic aspects of language and have provided pragmatic materials and tasks in their classroom teaching. This is further supported by the data from the interviews and the questionnaires.

During the interviews, the teachers reported that they did teach students pragmatic knowledge such as cultural information and formality. The students confirmed that they did obtain some pragmatic knowledge in the classroom (see 5.4). In the questionnaire, 83.4% of the students think that their teachers teach a certain amount of pragmatic knowledge in the classroom. The findings indicate that College English teaching is no longer only confined to the acquisition of grammatical knowledge. To some extent the development of pragmatic competence has become a part of English teaching and learning.

The teaching of pragmatics aims to facilitate the learners' ability to find socially appropriate language for the situations they encounter. Bardovi-Harlig (2001) makes a strong case for the necessity of instruction, documenting that second language learners who do not receive instruction in pragmatics differ significantly from native

speakers in their pragmatic production and comprehension in the target language. Left to their own devices with respect to contact with the target language in and out of the classroom, the majority of learners apparently do not acquire the pragmatics of the target language on their own (Bouton, 1988, 1994, Bardovi-Harlig, 2001; Kasper, 2001b). Language classrooms are especially well suited to provide input.

However, compared with the time they spent on language teaching, it is easy to find that the College English teachers devoted far more time to language teaching than to pragmatic teaching. They still mainly define the objectives of foreign language education in linguistic terms and focus on developing learners' organizational competence, such as vocabulary, syntax (see 3.1.3). According to the data from the teachers' interview, three of the four interviewed teachers said that they knew that it was of importance to include pragmatic teaching in classroom theoretically, but they focused on language teaching in practice. Much more classroom time was primarily spent on the subjects of grammar, syntax, vocabulary and pronunciation. Just as TIM said: "My classroom teaching still focuses on teaching language itself. I know that developing pragmatic competence is of importance, but for those students with low English proficiency, I think the pressing task is to help them enlarge vocabulary, do more reading."(see 5.4)

This is again indicative of the language-focused teaching model in the College English classroom. Several reasons account for this phenomenon. One is that the present classroom teaching is examination-oriented to some extent and pragmatic competence is rarely tested in the examination. There is little description of pragmatic teaching, pedagogy and assessment in the *College English Requirement (New)* (2004). Teachers are not clear how to deal with pragmatics in College English teaching which is a big challenge for researchers and teachers. Rose (2005) pointed out that pragmatics as a learning target did not figure prominently in most surveys of second language acquisition. This is partly the result of a relative neglect of pragmatics in second language acquisition in general (Rose, 2005, p. 385).

The fact that teachers teach less pragmatic knowledge in class can also be due to their own level of pragmatic competence. Unlike native speaker teachers, College English teachers in China, do not have NS intuitions to draw on when they teach pragmatic competence. Furthermore, most College English teachers have received their English education in Chinese universities and colleges. According to the report of College English teaching reform conference (2003), 73.2% of College English teachers have received a bachelor's degree or quasi-bachelor degrees. Obviously with such an education background, College English teachers have been affected by the traditional English teaching model which is teacher-centered and knowledge-transmission centred, and emphasizes developing learners' linguistic competence.

Furthermore those graduates have been employed as College English teachers immediately after graduation with no teacher training and little knowledge of pedagogy as they mainly studied literature and language (Cheng, 2002). As the average ratio of teachers to students is 1:130 in Chinese universities and colleges (Report on College English teaching reform conference 2003), College English teachers bear a very heavy teaching load and have no opportunities to have professional development either at home or abroad.

All the above reasons lead to the fact that College English teachers may not have had many opportunities to develop their pragmatic knowledge and skills fully. As the questionnaire indicated 90.2% of the teachers have received a traditional English education in China. Only 9.8% got their degrees in English overseas (see 5.1). Thus their ability to provide pragmatic knowledge and ample learning opportunities for their learners may be rather limited. The findings from the teachers' interview illustrate this point. Teachers claimed that their own level of pragmatic competence affected their teaching of pragmatics in classroom to some extent (see 5.4).

The inadequate pragmatic input in the College English textbooks also contributes to the difficulty in dealing with pragmatics in classroom. The data from the interview show that College English teachers wished that textbook writers would provide more

pragmatic materials and tasks which can enhance their pragmatic teaching. TIA said: "Pragmatic materials and tasks contained in the textbooks are of great help to us teachers. I suggest a special section should be designed in the textbooks which not only provide pragmatic knowledge but also recommend the sources of pragmatic knowledge, such as websites, books, etc." (see 5.4)

Similarly, research conducted in the English as a Foreign Language context also indicates the difficulties involved in dealing with pragmatic competence. Rose (1999) pointed out that large classes, limited contact hours and little opportunity for intercultural communication were some of the features of the EFL context that hindered pragmatic learning.

It is true that teaching pragmatics is difficult as pragmatic rules for language use are often subconscious, and even native speakers are often unaware of pragmatic rules until they are broken (and feelings are hurt, offence is taken, or things just seem a bit odd) (Bardovi-Harlig & Mahan-Taylor, 2003). However it does not follow that teachers can omit it in their classroom teaching. A growing number of studies have yielded important information for teaching and teachers can provide concrete lessons and activities to students. Apparently teachers' professional development has been one of the essential factors in facilitating learners' communicative competence.

The above reasons only in part explain why language teaching is highlighted in College English classrooms. The real reason is deeply rooted in the pedagogical approach. In China it seems that the grammar-based approach has been replaced by a communicative approach in classroom teaching, the influence of which has permeated every aspect of ELT, from syllabus design to teaching material selection, from teaching methodology to learning assessment (Xu, 2000). The national *College English Requirement* states that developing learners' communicative competence is the main goal of College English teaching. College English teachers have been encouraged to help promote learners' communicative language ability. However inspection of textbooks, national syllabuses and classroom teaching suggests that

communicative skills are inadequately presented in English language teaching. "Communication' has become fully accepted as an essential and major component of the 'product' of language teaching, but it has not yet been given more than a token place, as an essential and major component of the 'process'." (Allwright, 2000, p. 167)

As analyzed in Chapter 3, communicative language ability entails not only linguistic competence which involves a knowledge of spelling, pronunciation, vocabulary, word formation, grammatical structure, sentence structure, and linguistic semantics (Hedge, 2002), but also pragmatic competence which includes illocutionary competence and sociolinguistic competence (Bachman, 1990). However, teachers have a misconception of communicative competence. They do design activities and provide opportunities for students to practise and interact with each other, such as pair work and group discussion, but this kind of communication is carried out regardless of context, hence is not authentic and meaningful (Richards et al., 2003).

Furthermore activities are designed with a focus on language skills or linguistic skills (speaking, listening, composing and comprehending). In other words, they are language focused. The vocabulary and structure exercises in the College English textbooks are a case in point. Teachers hold to the belief that once these language skills are acquired the communicative abilities will follow as a more or less automatic consequence. Widdowson (1999) argued that the acquisition of linguistic skills did not seem to guarantee the consequent acquisition of communicative abilities in a language. What kind of practice will lead to the development of communicative language ability has been a big challenge for teachers.

It is indicative that College English teachers still apply a conventional teaching approach to their classroom teaching. And traditional methods still prevail in College English teaching.

6.3.2 What to teach: pragmatic input in College English classrooms

From the classroom observation it was found that the pragmatic knowledge the College English teachers taught in class mainly included cultural information, metalanguage (usage and collocation), speech acts, and metapragmatic information (style, formality, discourse). No information about how to learn pragmatic knowledge was offered in class. The findings coincide with those of the teachers' interview and content analysis (see 5.2, 5.4). However CE teachers spend more time on teaching cultural information and metalanguage than on teaching the rest. The following discussion will focus on cultural information and metalanguage.

The findings of the classroom observation reflect that having been influenced by communicative language teaching (CLT), College English teachers have realized the importance of culture in language learning and teaching and incorporated culture into language teaching. The communicative approach considers target language based communicative competence to be essential for foreign language learners to participate fully in the target language culture (Alptekin, 2002, p. 58). Teachers have been encouraged to integrate language and culture in EFL classrooms by passing cultural knowledge and rules of speaking of the native speakers onto the learners, who are expected to use the target language as the native speakers do (Song & Fu, 2004).

The cultural knowledge College English teachers teach features a limited extent of content, single target culture, and information transmission, which is similar to the nature of cultural knowledge contained in the textbooks (see 6.2).

The extent of cultural knowledge taught in the College English classroom is limited. The teachers usually focused on "big culture", such as literature, history, geography, and holidays. For example, Lesley once introduced the civil rights movement to her students; Mary once explained what "the deep south" referred to. This result coincides with the content analysis (see 5.2, 6.2). Both teachers and textbook writers have similar preferences for the types of cultural information.

The College English teachers' views on cultural knowledge are very limited. Teaching culture involves teaching high and low culture, surface and deep culture (see 3.1.3), teaching students how to interpret and relate information, teaching students how to discover cultural information, teaching how to relativise oneself and value the attitudes and beliefs of the other (see Byram, 1997). College English teachers only touch a small part of culture and their understanding of teaching culture in classroom is not comprehensive. In other words, CLT approach has only been used partially in College English classrooms.

The College English teachers' view of teaching culture is traditional. Looking back to the history of culture in language teaching, it is easy to identify that the extent of culture in language teaching has been gradually broadened as the research into culture and the relationship between language and culture has progressed. Traditionally, teaching culture has been seen as a part of teaching literature. Novels, plays, and poems are integrated in language teaching. At the beginning of the twentieth century, popular and institutional culture — social institutions, current events, newspapers, television, etc.— have added to culture in language teaching. Later it has been recognized that as culture underlies every part of communication and cultural rules which are used in interactions between people it should be also included in teaching (Kramsch, 1993).

The reason why the College English teachers focus on teaching “big culture” may also lie in the fact that while the comprehension (Bouton, 1999) and production (Tateyama, 2001) of the more formulaic aspects of pragmatics can be successfully taught, other more idiosyncratic expressions are difficult to teach (Dufon, 2004).

Teachers in the interview corroborate this point. Lesley said: “It is easy to find conventional cultural information from the Internet and relevant books. As for the other kind of cultural information, we don't have easy access to it.” (TIL: June 26, 2006)

The cultural knowledge the College English teachers taught in the classroom is characterized by a simplistic view of the target culture as well. Little information about the comparison between the first culture and the target culture is provided which is similar to the content analysis (see 5.2). In other words, an intercultural language teaching approach (see 3.1.3) has seldom been used in classroom teaching.

Crozet and Liddicoat pointed out that both learners' first and target cultures should be scrutinized in language teaching to find out the differences which can potentially prevent the two cultures from relating successfully. C1 constitutes the most important part of the learners' identities (Crozet & Liddicoat, 2000). Cook (1999) argued that the ghost-like presence of L1 cannot escape the L2 learners and users at any time and place. The L1 and C1 influence is omnipresent in the learners' mindset. The principle of intercultural language teaching requires learners to learn about culture, compare first and target culture, and explore interculturally (Crozet & Liddicoat, 1999).

The College English Curriculum Requirements (2004) has already covered this point. It reads: "Colleges and universities should cover components of learning strategies and intercultural communication in their teaching so as to enhance students abilities of independent learning and of communication." (*College English Curriculum Requirements*, 2004, p.31) In a word, the above three approaches – traditional, contemporary, and intercultural approaches to teaching culture could be included in College English classroom teaching. Definitely College English teachers need to broaden the extent of culture in language teaching. The objective of language learning should no longer be only defined in terms of the acquisition of communicative competence in a foreign language. Teachers are now required to teach intercultural communicative competence which builds on communicative competence and enlarges it to incorporate intercultural competence (Sercu, 2005).

The findings from the classroom observation show that the cultural knowledge taught in classroom is information-based reflecting a knowledge-transmission teaching model. No information about how to compare and explore cultures is provided.

To learn about culture, you have to acquire world knowledge about a foreign culture, culture in spoken and written genres, pragmatic and interactional norms. To achieve this, learners need to experience their intercultural language learning through a process that involves “do”, “think”, “compare”, “notice”, “reflect” (Harbon, 2007).

Teachers have to learn to depict what we have called “the cultural factor” in all spoken and written forms of language before they can teach it. They have to be able to do so in their native linguaculture as well as the linguaculture they aim to teach since ILT implies the comparison of cultures (Crozet et al., 1999, p. 120).

As far as metalanguage is concerned, the data from the classroom observation demonstrate that metalanguage teaching centers upon usage and collocation, and new words and expressions at a lexical level. For example, Sue usually explained the new words and expressions listed in a new-word list before she began to explain the text. She made several sentences according to the definitions showing the context of use. Mary once explained the usage of the word “cover” like this: “Same words used in different contexts have different meanings. For example, “cover”, it can refer to an area, distance, pay for sth., be over with, etc.” (see 5.3) This was also found in the content analysis (see 5.2). Textbooks provide lists of new words, not always in relation to a real-world context and in the form of two columns, with Chinese equivalent and English definitions.

Teaching vocabulary in its narrowest sense is teaching the individual words of the language that we expect learners to acquire. However, lists of unrelated words are difficult to learn because the words appear in isolation and, lacking any context, do not appear to the learner to have any real meaning (Cunningsworth, 2002, p. 102). Vocabulary approached in this way is not always efficiently remembered and reused appropriately (McDonough & Shaw, 2004, p.47). This was reported by Sue who cited an example that her student misused the word “vicious” (see 5.4).

Words should be encountered in a context which makes the meaning clearer and allows students to work out the meanings of unfamiliar words using contextual and other clues, thus encouraging good communicative strategies (Cunningsworth, 2002, p. 102). An understanding and production of any sort of “text” normally involves more language than using a simple word in isolation. Appropriateness of style is another aspect of vocabulary work than can be stressed: when to use a formal or informal version of a word (McDonough & Shaw, 2004, p.113).

The fact that usage and collocation at lexical level are taught in the College English classroom again indicates that the metalanguage information noted in the classroom teaching is more linguistically based reflecting a language focused teaching model.

6.3.3 How to teach: pragmatic approach in College English classrooms

It is observed that the College English teachers teach their students pragmatic knowledge mainly by explicit instruction. Of course tasks are also conducted sometimes. A detailed discussion follows.

Explicit instruction

One of the features of teaching pragmatics in the College English classroom is explicit instruction. It is the method most frequently used in the College English classroom. The findings coincide with the studies on the instruction of pragmatic information in the L2 classroom in which explicit instruction is employed (Rose & Ng, 2001; Takahashi, 2001; Tateyama, 2001; Tateyama et al., 1997). These studies show that teaching pragmatics is necessary and beneficial to second and foreign language learners (Kasper 1997; Kasper & Rose, 1999). As there is virtually no chance for learners to observe or engage in English-based communicative practice outside of school, the English classroom becomes the central site for their development of pragmatic competence.

Explicit instruction is more effective than implicit and yields better results (Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford, 1993b; Rose et al., 2001; Zohreh et al., 2004; Tateyama, 2001; Takahashi, 2001; Norris & Ortega, 2000). According to Kasper's (2001a) overview of several empirical studies on teaching L2 pragmatics, explicit teaching and direct explanations of the L2 form-function connections represent a highly productive means of helping learners improve their L2 sociopragmatic skills.

The College English teachers have realized the importance of instruction in pragmatic teaching and applied it in classroom practice. Teachers are urged to teach pragmatic aspects of language by students which is conveyed in the students' questionnaire (see 5.2). It is found that College English teachers' explicit instruction of pragmatics in the classroom mainly focuses on description and direct explanation which are evidenced by the following list of pragmatic teaching activities taken from the classroom observation:

- (1) T explains how to develop argument.
- (2) T explains what is euphemism.
- (3) T explains why the author uses hedge words in the text.
- (4) T explains what is baby boom.
- (5) T tells students why Americans live in suspicion after Sept 11.
- (6) T tells the background information of E.B. White.
- (7) T explains mortgage payment and compares it with that in China.
- (8) T compares naming system in Chinese and English.
- (9) T introduces Langston Hughes and his poems.
- (10) T explains how Americans spend their Christmas day.

The list shows that College English teachers employ teacher-centered activities, and decide the pragmatic contents. Teachers appear to focus on the acquisition of knowledge which indicates that College English teaching concentrates on information processing and transmission. Here the teachers only transmitted pragmatic knowledge to the students.

However teaching pragmatics explicitly involves awareness-raising and production tasks. The former includes description, explanation and discussion of pragmatic features, whereas the latter engages learners in role-play and other simulation activities (Norris & Ortega, 2000). Relying solely on the direct teaching of the knowledge and skills needed for pragmatic competence, as Kramsch (1993) and others (House 1996; Kasper & Schmidt 1996) have pointed out, often does not lead to its development. Teaching does not only impart knowledge, but also facilitates the learning process. It should provide opportunities to learners to experience the learning process.

Just as second language acquisition theory (see 3.1.1) indicates, language acquisition is a process and learners should experience it. Although it is very hard for teachers to do it in a foreign language learning context, such as in China, it does not mean that it is unnecessary. Language acquisition needs both inputs, explicit teaching of pragmatics and experiencing the learning process. Learners should learn actively in class, for example, take part in role-play or problem solving activities. Hence, tasks, if not more important than direct instruction, are at least equal to direct instruction.

The frequent use of explicit instruction also indicates that College English teaching is still teacher-centered. The College English teachers still prefer a teacher-centered approach to a learner centered approach. This teacher-centered approach is deeply affected by the Chinese traditional pedagogy. Chinese learning style is characterized by the following points: the goal of learning is mastery of knowledge; the process of learning is transmission of knowledge from teachers to learners, just as Hu (2005) put it: "...education is conceived more as a process of using knowledge for immediate purposes, and the preferred model of teaching is a mimetic or epistemic one that emphasizes knowledge transmission." (ibid, p. 653) Teachers dominate the class and give knowledge to learners, whereas learners receive knowledge and take notes.

Although current foreign and second language methodologies have shifted from traditional teacher-centered instruction to a learner-centered classroom, where

learning, learner needs and purposes, and meaningful processes of communication are integrated (Nunan, 1988; Tudor, 1996), and the College English teachers have realized the importance of applying new teaching theories and methodologies to their classroom teaching, there are still difficulties in implementing them due to the factors such as change of perception of the role of the teacher and the learner, negative affect of curriculum, assessment system, textbooks, limited teaching, and so on (Feng, 2000).

The data from the students' questionnaire and interview show that students not only like teachers' explicit instruction of pragmatic knowledge but also want their teachers to conduct tasks through which they can develop their pragmatic competence or at least their awareness of learning pragmatics can be enhanced (see 5.1, 5.4).

Apart from explicit pragmatic instruction in class, the findings of classroom observation also indicate that teachers seldom point out and correct students' pragmatic mistakes or inappropriate language use. Instead they correct students' language mistakes on most occasions. For example, in Lesley's class, her students made conversations which had neither beginning nor closing, but she did not make any comment. This point is also reflected in the data from interviews and questionnaire (see Chapter 5). The possible reason is that College English teachers in a foreign language environment are less sensitive to pragmatic violations than the native speakers due to their own level of pragmatic competence. Alyson expressed this point in the interview. She said: "On some occasions I myself do not know whether my students used English appropriately or not as it is beyond my pragmatic competence."(TIA: June 15, 2006)

As for the sources of pragmatic information, the findings indicate that the pragmatic materials used in the classroom are contributed by textbooks, teachers, and students in the audio, visual, and reading form. Teachers use the pragmatic materials contained in the textbooks. This confirms the importance of textbooks in teaching pragmatics in

EFL context and also indicates that College English classroom teaching is textbook-based to some extent.

The following reasons may explain why the CE textbooks are so heavily utilized by the College English teachers. Firstly, developing their own classroom materials is an extremely difficult, arduous process for the teachers because of their limited education background (see 6.3.1.). Secondly teachers have limited time in which to develop new materials due to their heavy teaching load (The average teaching hours in the observed university is 10 hours per week). Thirdly, external pressures, such as earning more money, restrict many teachers. Using a textbook is one of the most efficient and readily available ways in which to relieve some of these pressures.

However, Cunningsworth asserts "course materials for English should be seen as the teacher's servant and not his master"(Cunningsworth, 1984, p. 15) which leads to the issue of how texts are or should be used in a classroom. It is necessary for teachers to create some supplementary materials to meet the need of the learners.

Apart from using textbooks to teach learners pragmatic knowledge, the College English teachers made their own original materials, drawing upon such authentic sources as English films and videos, VOA news report, and CNN TV news report, and employed pictures, and so on (see 5.3).

Teachers' supplementary materials are usually authentic and appreciated by the students. Traditionally speaking, the examples used in the textbooks are presented in short, easy, specially written or simplified texts or dialogues so as to help the learners by focusing their attention on the target feature. Examples can be found in College English Listening and Speaking textbooks (see 5.2). However, it is argued that these kinds of textbooks overprotect learners, deprive them of the opportunities for acquisition provided by rich texts and do not prepare them for the reality of language use, whereas authentic texts (i.e., texts not written especially for language teaching) can provide exposure to language as it is typically used (Tomlinson, 2003, pp. 5-6).

Authentic material brings greater realism and relevance and can increase learner motivation. With authentic or nearly authentic materials, we can be confident that the models of language being presented are genuine, particularly in terms of discourse structure, a feature which is sometimes difficult to replicate convincingly when writing specially for a coursebook. Materials should be representative of real-life language use (Cunningsworth, 2002, p. 66).

Students also share pragmatic knowledge with each other in class. It is obvious in their oral presentation (see 5.3). For example, in Sue's class, one student did an oral presentation on expressions with color in English. While introducing a long list of English expressions on color, she also gave the Chinese equivalents which showed cultural differences in color. For instance, "a very white man" means "a reliable person" in English, but in Chinese "white" is never used to describe a reliable person; The Chinese equivalent of "black tea" is "hong cha (red tea)" (see 5.3). This kind of presentation not only provides the pragmatic information to the class, but also raises learners' awareness of exploring and comparing different cultures.

In the past, teachers used to take primary responsibility for teaching pragmatic information in the classroom. With the development of science and technology, learners are increasingly able to access multimedia software that can help them obtain pragmatic knowledge in the target language. Multimedia packages assist learners to have access to a host of sociocultural and sociolinguistic contexts for given speech acts so that speakers will have greater assurance that they are using those speech acts in an appropriate context, employing acceptable semantic formulas, and exploiting language forms that are sociolinguistically appropriate (Cohen, 1996, p. 264).

Conducting tasks

As analyzed in 6.2.1, metalanguage and cultural information are the main pragmatic knowledge the teachers taught in class. Because of this, teachers used more explicit instruction to transmit information than conducting tasks. The classroom observation

demonstrated the limited opportunities that teacher-fronted instruction offers for the acquisition of target-language pragmatics.

College English teachers' explicit instruction of pragmatic knowledge in the classroom is necessary as input is decisive for language learning. Without exposure to linguistic material no learning can take place (Trosborg, 1995). However, relying only on direct knowledge input (textbook input or classroom input) often does not facilitate the development of pragmatic competence (Kramsch, 1993; House, 1996; Kasper & Schmidt, 1996), which does not accord with the theories of second language acquisition (see 3.1). As there are the bi-polar dimensions of learning and acquisition (Krashen, 1981, 1982, 1983, 1985), acquisition is also indispensable in English language learning as we are doing a bit of learning and a bit of acquisition in foreign language learning (Johnson, 2001).

The findings indicate that the College English teachers do design pragmatically oriented tasks in spite of small amount in classroom teaching. For example Sue asked her students to watch a clip of a film with attention on how to persuade and how to accept invitations. Lesley asked her students to do pair work discussing and comparing security in America and China (see 5.3). By doing this kind of activity, students not only obtain pragmatic knowledge, but also experience the process of learning, which can enhance their awareness of pragmatic knowledge and improve their ability to learn.

This result reveals that the College English teachers have accepted the view that both learning and acquisition are necessary in language learning (see 3.1.1). The application of a task-based teaching approach to classroom teaching is a good case in point. In fact, current SLA theory promotes using task-based instruction in pedagogy to enhance language acquisition in formal language environments (Ellis, 2001; Julkunen, 2001; Robinson, 2001; Skehan, 1996, 1998a; Littlewood, 2007) as tasks can engage the learners in communicative, collaborative, problem-solving activities that

are student-centered. While doing the tasks, learners are using language to exchange meanings for a real purpose. Willis and Willis (2002) argue:

“The games they play, the problems they solve, the experiences they share may or may not be things that they will do in real life, but their use of language, because it is purposeful and real, will replicate features of language use outside the classroom.”(ibid, p. 54)

Learning organized in such a way will place learners in a learning environment in which they are afforded with opportunities to enquire, explore and solve problems collaboratively.

The findings indicate that pragmatically oriented tasks conducted in the College English classroom involve watching videos and films, oral presentation, making conversations, and question and answer, among which, watching videos and films and oral presentation are most frequently used. They will be discussed in detail in the following section.

The following are part of the tasks related to watching videos and films used by the teachers in class taken from the classroom observation:

1. Sue asked Ss (students) to watch a clip of the film *Narnia* and pay attention to several speech acts such as requests and persuasion while watching.
2. Sue asked Ss to watch a clip of the film *Dead Poets Society*. Then ask them to make comparison in teaching style between the teacher in the movie and Chinese teachers.
3. Mary asked Ss to watch the video *New Orleans* paying attention to information about plantations in the South America and slaves in history.
4. Mary asked Ss to watch the video *London is bidding for Olympics*.
5. Mary asked Ss to watch a clip of a film about an American airport.
6. Lesley asked Ss to watch the first episode of *Desperate Housewife*.

The use of film is quite popular in the observed class. Teachers asked their students to watch clips of films or videos to get some pragmatic knowledge with or without explicit explanation in advance.

For example, the interviewed teacher Sue once asked her students to watch a clip of an English film. Before watching, Sue asked her students to pay special attention to the following aspects: how to greet each other when people see each other for the first time; how to request, and how to accept invitations. After watching, Sue asked her students to retell what they got in the movie (see the following dialogue taken from the film) and further explained more cultural knowledge in the film, such as afternoon tea. Students volunteered to repeat the dialogue in the film which seemed easy for them. While watching the clip, it was noticed that all the students concentrated on the screen with great interest.

(Dialogue in the film:

Girl: What are you if you don't mind my asking?

Man: Come to drink tea with me.

Girl: Oh, thank you very much, but I...

Man: My home is just around the corner. I have warm stove, toast, and tea.

G: I don't know.

M: Come, perhaps I have some satin.

G: er...

M: Come, not every day I have a friend.

G: If you have satin, I ...)

It is found that this task only engaged students in retelling the dialogue rather than in discussion of the strategies used in the dialogue. Sue's teaching remains at the linguistic level with no mention of strategies used by the man. Although she asked her students to notice speech acts such as greeting, requesting, she didn't explain the strategies used in the dialogue. For example, the man used direct request by saying "Come to drink tea with me." which was not very polite according to Trosborg's typology (Trosborg, 1995). Other strategies used in the dialogue are avoiding giving a direct answer by saying "Oh, thank you very much, but I...", using tea to interest the girl and then satin to capture her.

This engaging task attracted the students according to the findings from the interview. The data from the students' questionnaire (see 5.2) also show that students chose watching films and videos as the best way to obtain pragmatic knowledge.

The reason why the students like to gain pragmatic knowledge by watching films and videos lies in the fact that film language seems likely to reveal norms of socially appropriate language use and the canonical shape of speech acts. Furthermore, films provide adequate opportunities to address virtually all aspects of language use in a variety of contexts, and they also offer the possibility for repeated viewings which can be used to uncover multiple layers of pragmatic particulars from a single scene. In foreign language contexts, exposure to film is generally the closest that language learners will ever get to witnessing or participating in native speaker interaction. (Rose, 1997b, 282-283).

The use of authentic audio-visual input has attracted the College English teachers' and students' attention which corresponds to the research on pragmatic development. Research has found that although foreign language learners lack access to native speakers in live interactions, they can gain exposure to them through the use of videotaped material (Washburn, 2001; Dufon, 2004). Given that audiovisual input does have advantages, it should be included among the classroom media for pragmatic instruction (Dufon, 2001).

However the College English learners are only exposed to videos and films randomly. The teachers chose the films they thought appropriate for their students with no special purpose of teaching students certain aspects of pragmatic knowledge, or raising students' awareness of pragmatics, or discussing problems of understanding and producing pragmatic meaning. For example, Lesley once played a film entitled "Desperate housewife" in class which lasted an hour. Before and after watching she didn't give any explicit explanation. Nor did she design any task. She just exposed her students to the film and had students themselves learn pragmatic knowledge from the film. Obviously teachers conduct this kind of tasks accidentally rather than having

corpuses of films with special purposes of developing students' pragmatic competence.

The previous research has found that by means of direct, interventionist teaching such as exemplified above, awareness is developed and problems of understanding and producing pragmatic meaning are discussed (LoCastro, 2003). This is what College English teachers need to improve on in their teaching.

Oral presentation is another task the teachers conduct in the classroom. It is found that eighteen oral presentations were made during ten weeks' classroom observation (see 5.3). Preparing learners to give short oral presentations in class to the rest of the group is a useful way of achieving skills integration in the classroom (McDonough & Shaw, 2004, p.186).

The students' presentation in class indicates that the learner centered approach is also used in class teaching as students can decide what, how, when, to talk about and with whom. It is the only task reflecting the application of learner centered approach in the College English classroom. The 18 students' presentations (see Table 5.17) are all about cultural knowledge which can be divided into three categories: knowledge about knowledge on C2 (78%); comparison of C1 and C2 (11%), and 3); knowledge of Chinese culture (C1) (11%) which matches the three aspects of intercultural language teaching approach (learning about culture, comparing cultures, and intercultural exploration) (see 3.1.3) The following table (Table 6.1) shows the distribution and categorization of students presentations .

Table 6. 3: Distribution and categorization of students' presentations

Presentation	Knowledge on C2	Comparing C1 & C2	Knowledge on C1
1	Rosa Parks and her incident	Cultural differences	Comparing Suzhou with Shanghai
2	Civil rights movement	National and international security	Chinese festival
3	Martin Luther King and his		

	wife		
4	African-American campaign for freedom		
5	American slavery system		
6	Black discrimination		
7	John Brown		
8	"Fahrenheit 9.11"		
9	NBA 2006		
10	Talking about gun in America		
11	American airport security after 9.11		
12	American politics		
13	English expressions with color		
14	Australian aboriginals		

With regard to the cultural knowledge in students' presentations, it seems that it mainly belongs to the surface culture and high culture (see 3.2.4) which coincides with the cultural knowledge teachers teach in class (see 6.3.2). Apparently teachers' teaching practices have affected their students deeply. However comparing C1 and C2 and knowledge on C1 are also covered in the oral presentations in spite of a small amount. No matter whether the students do it on purpose or at random, it will promote the development of intercultural communicative competence.

Recent work has demonstrated the gains produced through a collaborative process called scaffolding, in which assistance is provided from person to person such that an interlocutor is able to do something she or he might not have been able to do alone. Research on scaffolding in language learning has shown how learners working together reach a higher level of performance by providing assistance to one another (Lantolf, 2000, p. 52).

The findings of the classroom observation indicate that most of the topics in oral presentations are related to cultural information which are theme-related to the content of the textbooks. This concurs with one of the features in classroom teaching where teachers share a lot of cultural information with learners.

Analyzing the tasks designed by the College English teachers such as watching videos and films and listening to news, oral presentation, making conversation, discussion, and question and answer, it is easy to find that these tasks are mainly designed to test whether learners can remember information or whether learners can explain ideas or concepts or whether learners can use the information in a new way. This can be seen in the verbal directions of tasks. For example: find, identify, read, name, recite, explain, give examples, retell, interpret, summarize, and discuss. Doing these tasks only requires learners' lower-level thinking skills. According to the Revised Bloom's taxonomy, thinking skills involve the lowest three levels (remembering, understanding, applying) and the highest three levels (analyzing, evaluating, creating) (see the following revised Bloom's Taxonomy). The taxonomy is hierarchical as each level is subsumed by the higher levels. In other words, a student functioning at the 'applying' level has also mastered the material at the 'remembering' and 'understanding' levels." (UW Teaching Academy, 2003)

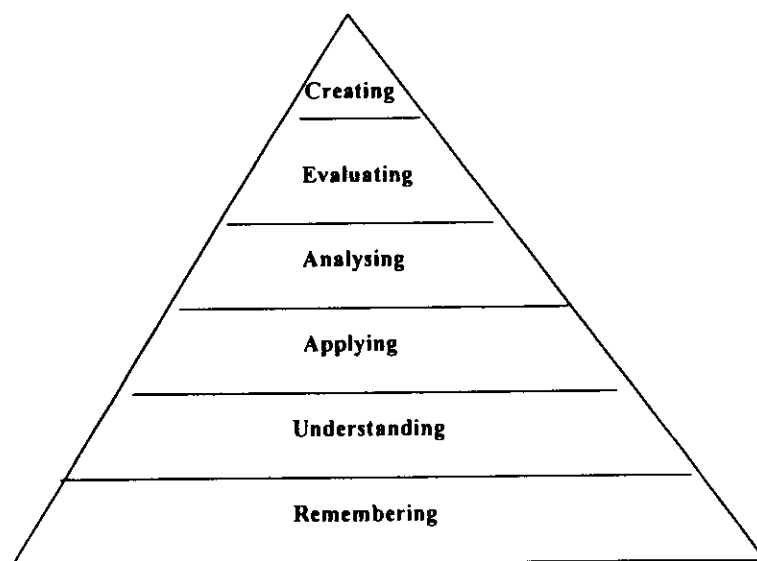


Figure 6.3 The revised Bloom's Taxonomy (Krathwohl, 2002)

Obviously the tasks the College English teachers designed are superficial and fall to the first three levels. Although the importance of thinking for language learning has been recognized for some time (Waters, 2006), the use of ELT activities which encourage active mental processing has still not become widespread in College

English class. One possible reason is that the College English teachers have a little awareness about how the level of thinking can be conceptualized in English teaching activities.

What's more, the content of these tasks focuses on information, either learning information or understanding information, such as cultural information and writing strategy information. According to the revised Bloom's Taxonomy, the knowledge dimension includes factual knowledge, conceptual knowledge, procedural knowledge, and meta-cognitive knowledge. Apparently these tasks only touch a part of the knowledge.

Research has shown that tasks involving high level thinking skills can be designed to develop learners' pragmatic competence. For example, Bardovi-Harlig and Griffin (2005) conducted a pragmatic awareness activity in an ESL classroom in their study. With attempts to probe what learners notice about pragmatically infelicitous utterances and how they repair them, they asked learners to work in pairs to find out pragmatic infelicities in videotaped scenarios and performed short role plays to repair the infelicities they had identified. This pragmatically oriented task belongs to analysis level which requires a higher level of thinking. The result shows that learners know what to change in terms of speech act, formula, content and form, but as for how to change, it seems more difficult, especially in the area of content and form. It concluded that classroom activities raising L2 pragmatic awareness provide learners with necessary information and choices to help them become competent users of the target language (Bardovi-Harlig & Griffin, 2005, p.412). Besides, as content may be moderated by learners' cultural and personal orientation to speech events, instruction would likely help learners.

Without doubt task-based instruction is used in College English class to promote learners' pragmatic competence. However, what types of tasks can be used, degrees of

task involvement, and how to design tasks is a big challenge for College English material developers and teachers.

6.4 Summary

This chapter deals with the three key research questions as well as related issues, such as the pragmatic principle in materials development and teaching pragmatics in the classroom. By a detailed data analysis and discussion, it is argued that both teachers and students hold to the belief that College English textbooks should provide more pragmatic input including both materials and tasks for learners and teachers to facilitate pragmatic learning and teaching. Textbook writers and classroom teachers need to make changes in approaches to L2 teaching, since the limitations imposed by the textbook and the classroom teaching on pragmatically appropriate input hinder the learner from becoming truly proficient in communicating in the target language. It is also argued for a need to consider ways of applying the principles to materials development and classroom instruction, given the fact that there is a dearth of pragmatic input and tasks in quantity and variety. In the chapter to follow, a tentative model for teaching pragmatics for College English classrooms will be presented by way of drawing conclusions and offering recommendations.

CHAPTER 7

CONCLUSIONS

Chapter 6 presents a detailed discussion of the data from different sources. The process of triangulation allows for the examination of issues surrounding the teaching and learning of pragmatics in College English. The three research questions on perception and practice of pragmatics in materials and tasks development in College English textbooks and classroom teaching are addressed by way of analysis and interpretation with reference to research and scholarship on SLA and pragmatics. This chapter draws conclusions from the study by bringing all the arguments together. After a call for a re-orientation of College English teaching in China, a tentative model of teaching pragmatics is presented, which maps out the various elements, linguistic or pragmatic, of English instruction at college level. Implications for teaching and suggestions for further research are considered along with the limitations of this study.

7.1 Re-orientation of College English teaching in China

Since Hymes (1972) formulated the concept of *communicative competence* in 1971, *communicative competence* has been one of the most influential theoretical developments in language education as it helped redefine the objectives of L2 instruction and the target language proficiency (Stern, 1983; Ellis, 1994; Firth & Wagner, 1997). Many proposals have formalized communicative competence into theoretical constructs that can offer common frames of references for establishing L2 instructional objectives and measuring the language proficiency of non-native learners (e.g. Canale & Swain, 1980; Celce-Murcia et al., 1995; Bachman, 1990). Researchers have agreed that one of the main L2 instructional objectives is to develop learners' communicative competence in which pragmatic competence has been recognized as a vital component (e.g. Bachman, 1990; Bachman & Palmer, 1996). Enhancing

learners' pragmatic competence has been an indispensable part of L2 instruction.

The teaching and acquisition of L2 pragmatics has received a great deal of attention in the field of second language acquisition. Studies have focused on the effects of explicit teaching of L2 pragmatics and the development of pragmatics in L2 learners (Rose & Kasper, 2001; Bardovi-Harlig, 1996).

Compared with the trend of enhancing learners' pragmatic competence in ESL/EFL context, College English teaching in China has mainly focused on teaching language itself, which inevitably over-emphasizes the linguistic aspect (the discrete elements of the language such as lexis and grammar). Pragmatic information, as one important aspect of language teaching, pragmatic teaching methodologies and assessment of pragmatic competence are missing in the College English curriculum which leads to insufficient practice of pragmatic teaching in College English class.

It seems that little attention has been given to the study of pragmatics in EFL context in China, which is an equal, if not more important, aspect of language learning (Kasper, 1997; Vellenga, 2004; Bardovi-Harlig, 2001; Kasper & Rose, 2002). Questions regarding development of pragmatic competence have been less frequently addressed.

Researches in second language acquisition and pragmatics have indicated that practice of pragmatic teaching should be involved in EFL teaching (LoCastro, 2003; Bardovi-Harlig, 2001; Kasper, 1997). This is also true in EFL teaching in China. It is high time for Chinese English teachers, researchers, and administration authorities to concentrate on pragmatic teaching in English class. That is to say, to put pragmatics back into the classroom. It is even more important in the 21st century in China on account of globalization, rapid development of China's economy and intercultural communication. China is in great need of young people who are capable of communicating with the people from the other countries appropriately in English.

7.2 Conclusions

Based on the data and findings of the current study presented in the previous chapters, conclusions can be made as follows:

1) Pragmatic competence/organizational competence

Bachman's communicative language ability model indicates the inclusion and importance of pragmatic competence in developing learners' communicative language ability (see 3.2). Pragmatic competence and organizational competence are made up of language competence. "Pragmatic competence is not subordinated to knowledge of grammar and text organization but is coordinated to formal linguistic and textual knowledge and interacts with organizational competence in complex ways" (Zohreh, 2005, p.200). However the data and findings from the present research show that College English teaching in China still focuses on the linguistic aspect of language (organizational competence). Neither College English textbooks nor College English classroom teaching provides adequate pragmatic knowledge to learners. Within the small amount of pragmatic knowledge contained in textbooks and classroom teaching, pragmatic knowledge is limited, sketchy, and not illustrative enough. Although they have realized the indispensability of pragmatic competence in language teaching and learning, the College English teachers and students do not have an adequate understanding of pragmatic knowledge and how to teach and learn pragmatic knowledge.

2) Learning and acquisition

In the past 15 years or so, second language teaching has been marked by expansions of knowledge and pivotal advancements in disciplinary theory and practice (Hinkel, 2006). The second language teaching and learning model has experienced pedagogical shifts. It is moving from a focus on learning and is shifting toward acquisition; it is moving from a focus only on product and shifting toward a focus on process (Larsen-Freeman, 2001; Ellis, 1999). Learning used to be viewed as a product and approached as the end product of some process that can be recognized or seen. However learning is also seen as a process – there is a concern with what happens when the learning takes place.

Task-based instruction enables acquisition processes to operate by allowing meaning to be negotiated (Long & Crookes, 1992). Therefore task-based instruction is widely adopted in second language acquisition (Richards & Schmidt, 2003). Besides, tasks conducted in the classroom have some sort of relationship to the real world. As Skehan put it:

“Classrooms are classrooms, but even so, a task which requires personal information to be exchanged, or a problem to be solved, or a collective judgment to be made bears a relationship to things that happen outside the classroom in a way that separates these activities from doing” (Skehan, 1996, p. 38).

Practices that are process-oriented, autonomous, and experiential are considered empowering. The shift from the previous product-oriented and teacher-fronted pedagogies certainly reduced the passivity of students and encouraged great involvement (Canagarajah, 2006, p. 15).

However College English teaching in China has not followed the latest trend in pedagogical shifts in second language teaching and learning. It still focuses on learning instead of acquisition, on product instead of process. Within this teaching model, students are seldom engaged in language learning and experiencing the process of learning. The teaching of pragmatics in the College English classroom is characterized by explicit instruction. Only a small quantity of pragmatically oriented tasks are conducted in the classroom which indicates that College English teaching concentrating on information processing and transmission is still teacher-centered with a master and apprentice style.

3) Tasks: cognitive-process dimension and knowledge dimension

Bloom's taxonomy is a scheme for classifying educational goals, objectives, and most recently, standards. It provides an organizational structure that gives a commonly understood meaning to objectives classified in one of its categories, thereby

enhancing communication (Krathwobl, 2002). According to Bloom's taxonomy, the cognitive-process dimension entails six-level thinking skills (remember, understand, apply, analyze, evaluate, and create); knowledge dimension includes four types of knowledge (factual knowledge, conceptual knowledge, procedural knowledge, and meta-cognitive knowledge) (see 3.1.2).

However the limited tasks conducted in the College English classroom reflect low thinking skills and simple knowledge dimension. Tasks are mainly designed to develop learners' ability to understand, remember, and apply, such as watching clips of films, and answering questions.

As for the knowledge dimension, most of the pragmatic knowledge provided in College English textbooks and classroom teaching is factual, conceptual, and procedural. Meta-cognitive knowledge is inadequate. Knowledge on how to learn pragmatic knowledge is missing in both College English textbooks and classroom teaching; the percentage of metapragmatic information is small (see 5.2, 5.3).

4) Language and culture

On account of the intrinsic relationship between language and culture, second language acquisition entails both learning language and learning culture. The greater appreciation of culture helps promote more successful language learning, as Johnson (2005) put it:

“Learning consists of more than the ability to understand new linguistic structures. Indeed the coding and decoding of communicative acts requires an understanding and appreciation of the cultural context in which they occur” (ibid, p. 1).

However College English teaching still concentrates far more on language teaching which is closer to the language side in the continuum of culture and language as indicated in points of articulation between culture and language noted by Crozet and

Liddicoat (1999) (see Table 3.2). Within the limited range of teaching culture in College English classrooms, culture is dealt with at the surface level. Most of the cultural knowledge in the College English textbooks and classroom teaching belongs to “big culture” (see 6.2, 6.3) and the target culture. Intercultural competence is seldom considered.

Considering the above conclusions, it is obvious that the quantity and quality of College English students’ exposure to the pragmatic input is not enough. College English students are not exposed to appropriate and sufficient pragmatic input. They are afforded with limited opportunities to experience natural, spontaneous communication in the classroom setting which leaves them unprepared to recognize the implicit meanings of contextualization cues in natural discourse (Dinapoli, 2000). LoCastro (2001) observed that inadequate materials and teachers untrained in the field of pragmatics may hamper learners’ pragmatic development. Hence textbook writers and EFL teachers have a responsibility to bring pragmatics back into the language classroom.

It can also be argued that in spite of lack of pragmatic materials and tasks and pragmatic teaching in EFL context, pragmatics can be taught and needs to be taught in the College English classroom as learners do not acquire pragmatic knowledge and skills by themselves. More developmental and engaging research needs to be carried out in teaching pragmatics and developing pragmatic materials and tasks.

Although the present results are typical of one institution, the data do provide insights into the pragmatic input in College English textbooks and College English classroom teaching. The current study has practical significance for the field of SLA by providing information to language teachers, textbook writers, curriculum designers, researchers and college students. The results of this study may help teachers to teach pragmatic aspects of language in EFL classrooms and textbook writers may gain useful insights into how the pragmatic principle could be applied to materials

development.

7.3 Teaching pragmatics: a model

Based on the findings of the present study and the previous discussions about teaching pragmatics, a model of teaching pragmatics is formulated. However this is not an inclusive model. Instead it is tentative. The model of teaching pragmatics consists of two parts: content and process. Content is made up of general pragmatic information, metapragmatic information, metalanguage information, speech acts, cultural information, pragmatically-oriented tasks, and knowledge on how to acquire pragmatic knowledge. Process includes a content-based approach, a task-based approach, a cognitive process, and an intercultural language teaching approach (see Figure 7.1).

Framework of teaching pragmatics

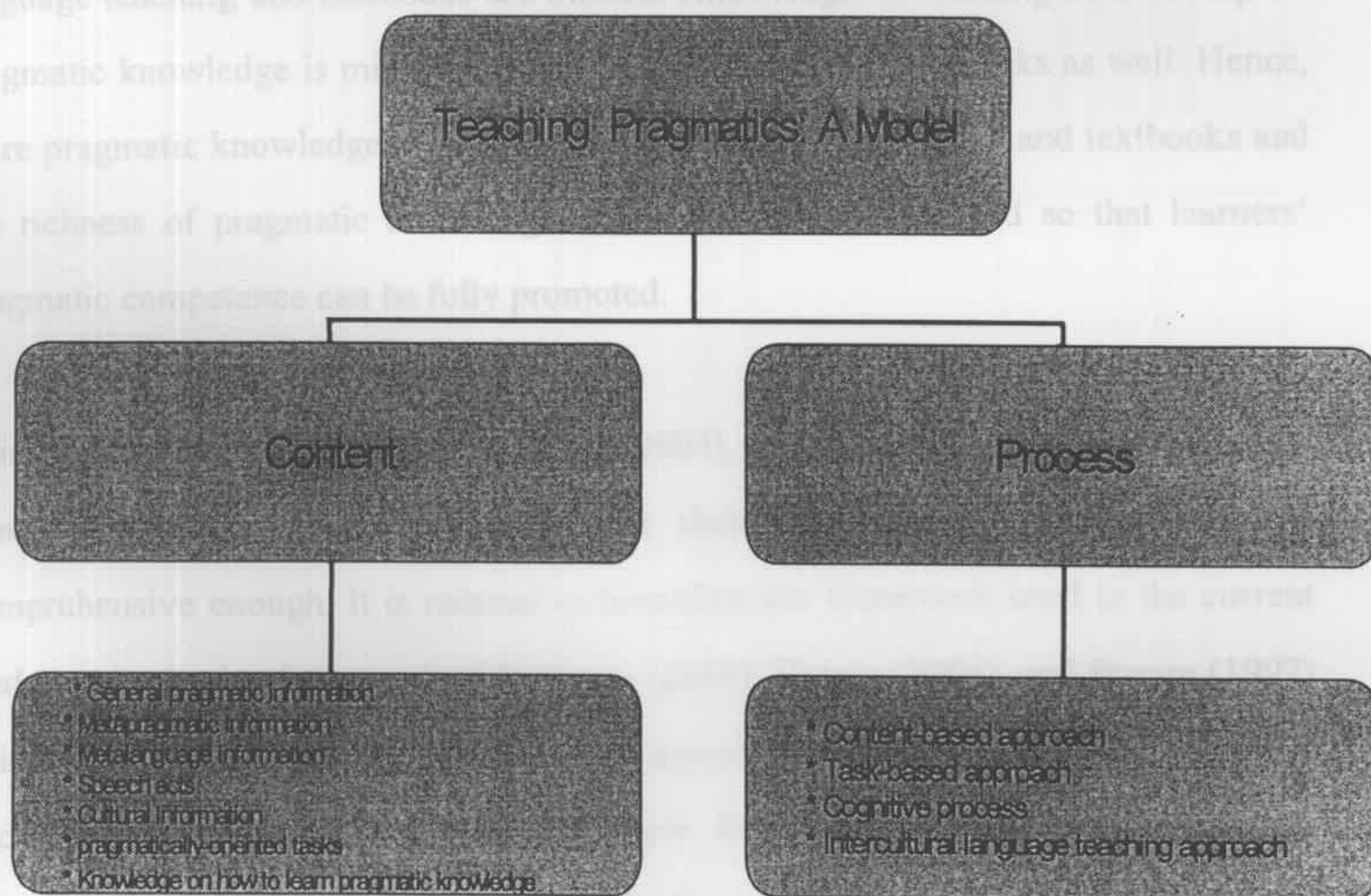


Figure 7.1 Teaching pragmatics: a model, adapted from the frameworks of Bachman & Palmer (1996), Ellis (1999), Krashen (1981, 1985), Larsen-Freeman (2001), Crozet & Liddicoat (1999), Skehan (2002), Krathwohl (2002), Vellenga (2004), Hatoss (2004), Byram (1997), and Anderson & Krathwohl (2001).

7.3.1 Teaching pragmatics: content

Principle 1

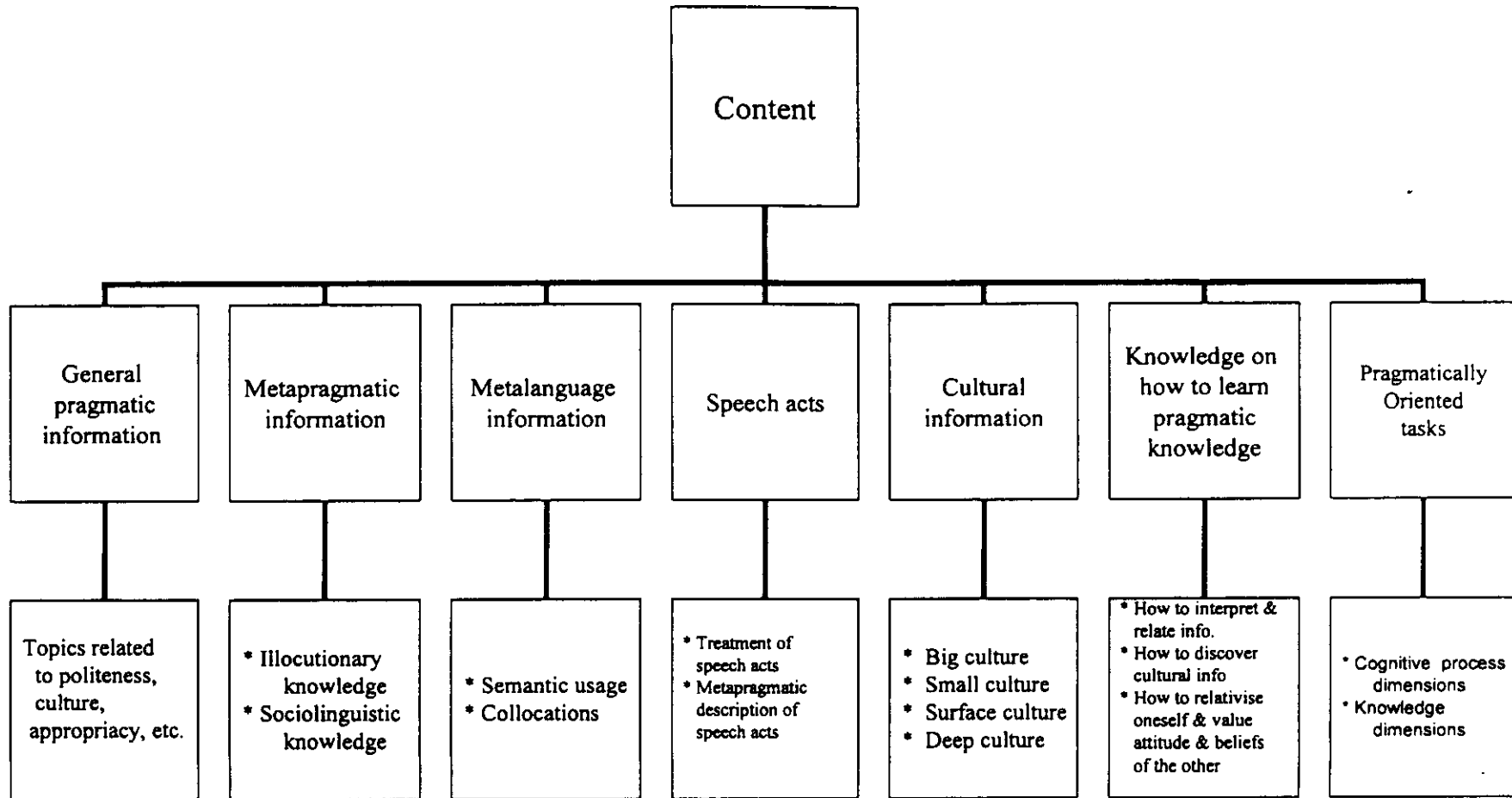
Guided by Bachman's communicative language ability model which indicates that learners' language competence should include organizational competence and pragmatic competence, the present model for pragmatic teaching attaches much more importance to promoting pragmatic competence. If pragmatic competence is not more important than organizational competence, at least it is safe to say that they are equally essential in language teaching and learning. College English classroom teaching should include teaching the pragmatic aspect of language.

Principle 2

The findings indicate both the quantity and quality of pragmatic information in language teaching and textbooks are limited. Knowledge on learning how to acquire pragmatic knowledge is missing in classroom teaching and textbooks as well. Hence, more pragmatic knowledge should be added to classroom teaching and textbooks and the richness of pragmatic knowledge should be further enhanced so that learners' pragmatic competence can be fully promoted.

It is found that Vellenga (2004), Hatoss (2004), and Byram (1997) have their own concern and focus when they construct their frameworks. None of them is comprehensive enough. It is rational to formulate the framework used in the current study on the basis of the work of Vellenga (2004), Hatoss (2004), and Byram (1997) guided also by theories of interlanguage pragmatics, intercultural pragmatics and sociopragmatics (see Chapter 3). The new framework indicates that pragmatic knowledge should include general pragmatic knowledge, metapragmatic information, metalanguage, cultural information, speech acts, and learning how to learn pragmatic knowledge. The content of teaching pragmatics can be clarified in Figure 7.2.

Figure 7.2 Teaching Pragmatics: content



7.3.2 Teaching pragmatics: process

Principle 3

Second language acquisition theory emphasizes both input and acquisition (see 3.1). In EFL context, a large amount of input is decisive for language learning. At the same time, the process of learning is indispensable. The present model for pragmatic teaching advocates that teachers should not only apply explicit instruction but also create opportunities for engaging learners in learning by conducting tasks in class. Allwright (2005) argued that language teaching should provide learning opportunities. In other words, both information-based instruction and task-based instruction are necessary. By accomplishing tasks, learners can develop their ability to learn how to learn.

Principle 4

The intercultural language teaching approach recognizes that when they use language learners perform a cultural act which involves two cultures: their own culture (C1) and that of the target language (C2) (Crozet & Liddicoat, 1999). In language teaching learners' first language (L1) and native culture (C1) are as important as the target language (L2) and target culture (C2). Teachers no longer exclusively teach about another linguaculture, but also teach learners about their native linguaculture by contrasting it to the target linguaculture (Crozet et al., 1999). In the present model, both C1 and C2 are included in College English teaching and textbooks. The role and importance of Chinese culture should be recognized in College English teaching as every culture is equal and no culture is superior to another.

Principle 5

To develop learners' communicative competence task-based instruction has been widely used in second language acquisition which should also be used in College English class to promote learners' pragmatic competence. However, what types of tasks can be used, degrees of task involvement, and how to design tasks is a big challenge for College English material developers and teachers.

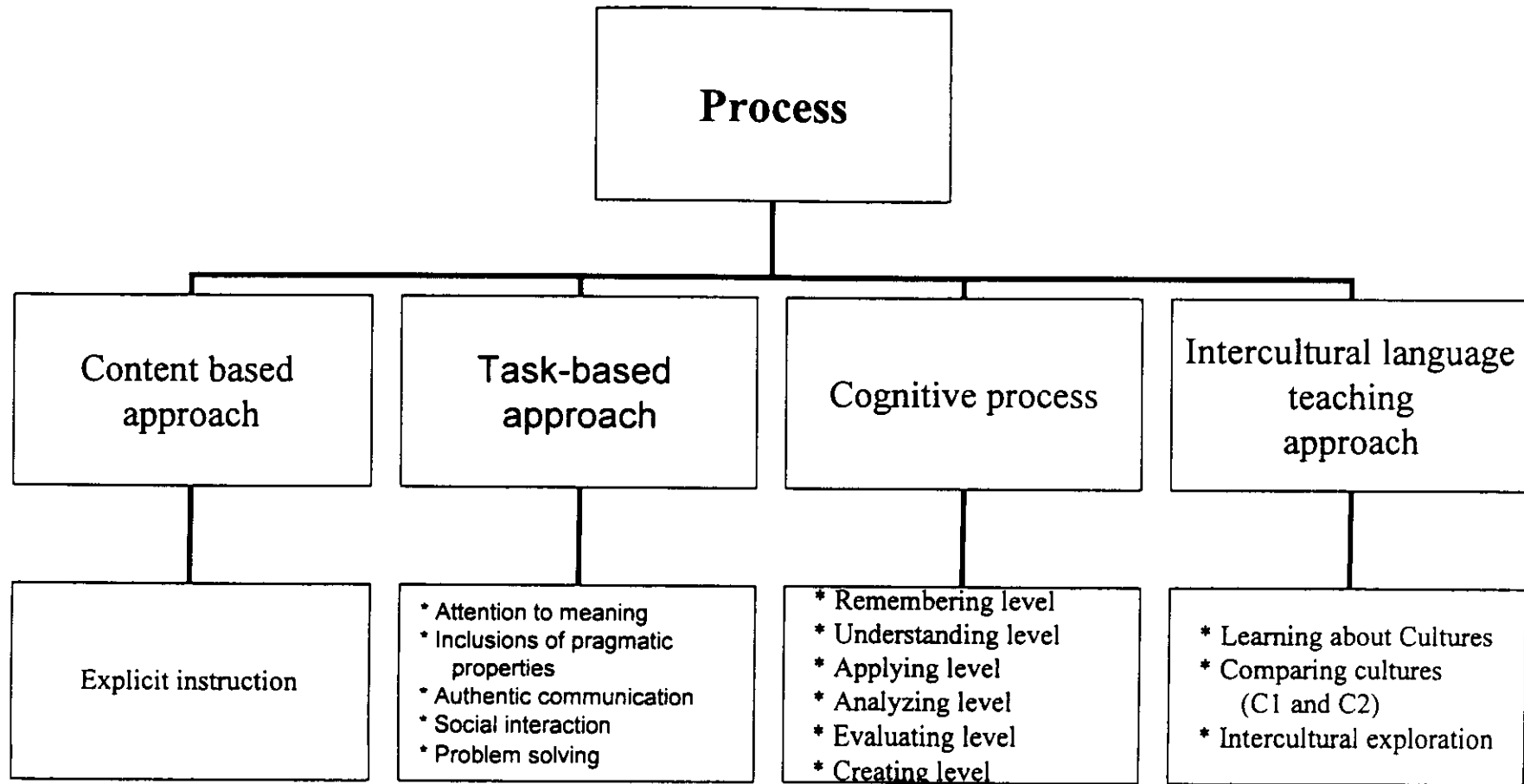
Guided by the Revised Bloom's Taxonomy (see 3.1.2), pragmatically oriented tasks in this model involve both knowledge dimension and cognitive-process dimension. Tasks are designed to cover different kind of knowledge and different level of thinking skills. In teaching pragmatic knowledge College English teachers should design the pragmatically oriented tasks relevant to both low level and high order thinking skills. As for the content of tasks, both pragmatic information and learning how to learn pragmatic knowledge are necessary.

Apart from the above principles, content-based approach was, is, and will continue to be used in teaching pragmatics in EFL context. Content refers to the information or subject matter that we learn or communicate through language rather than the language used to convey it. Content based approach uses content as the driving force of classroom activities and to link all the different dimensions of communicative competence, including grammatical competence, to content (Richards, 2006).

To update English teaching methods in EFL context like China, we need to combine the "new" with the "old" to align the communicative approach, task-based approach, intercultural language teaching with traditional teaching structures. "Only by reconciling communicative activities with non-communicative activities in English classrooms can students in non-English speaking countries benefit from CLT (Rao, 2002, p. 85). In fact eclecticism is widely practiced by College English teachers and is warmly welcomed by the students (Yan et al., 2007).

The process part of teaching pragmatics is illustrated in detail in the following Figure7.3.

Figure 7.3 Teaching Pragmatics: process



The above points constitute a spectrum of possibilities for teaching pragmatic knowledge that can be summarized in the following Figure 7.4. The findings have demonstrated that there is no single approach to the teaching of pragmatics. This is only a tentative model for pragmatic teaching which indicates that pragmatics can be integrated into the EFL classroom. The formal instructional context - the teaching, the materials, needs to do more to facilitate the learning of situationally appropriate language for learners. This challenges the present generation of College English textbooks and classroom teaching.

There might be other challenges in applying the model of teaching pragmatics in the current Chinese EFL context. For example, how would the proposed model deal with the problems such as examination-oriented environment in College English teaching? In-depth discussion on the challenges is apparently beyond the scope of the thesis as the model is yet to be trailed in classroom instruction. However, the challenges should be acknowledged and much attention should be paid to in future research.

7.4 Implications

The present study presents implications for teaching and learning, teaching pedagogy, materials development and teachers' professional development.

7.4.1 Implications for teaching and learning

The change in the College English students' and teachers' perception of language learning and teaching supports the second language acquisition theory. That is the development of pragmatic competence needs to be considered in its own right (Ellis, 1994). Language learning and pragmatic learning are both indispensable parts in ESL and EFL learning and linguistic competence and pragmatic competence can be developed side by side regardless of language proficiency.

It has been widely acknowledged that teaching and learning pragmatic knowledge in an EFL context is a must. However, as to what pragmatic knowledge should be taught

**Teaching Pragmatics:
A Model**

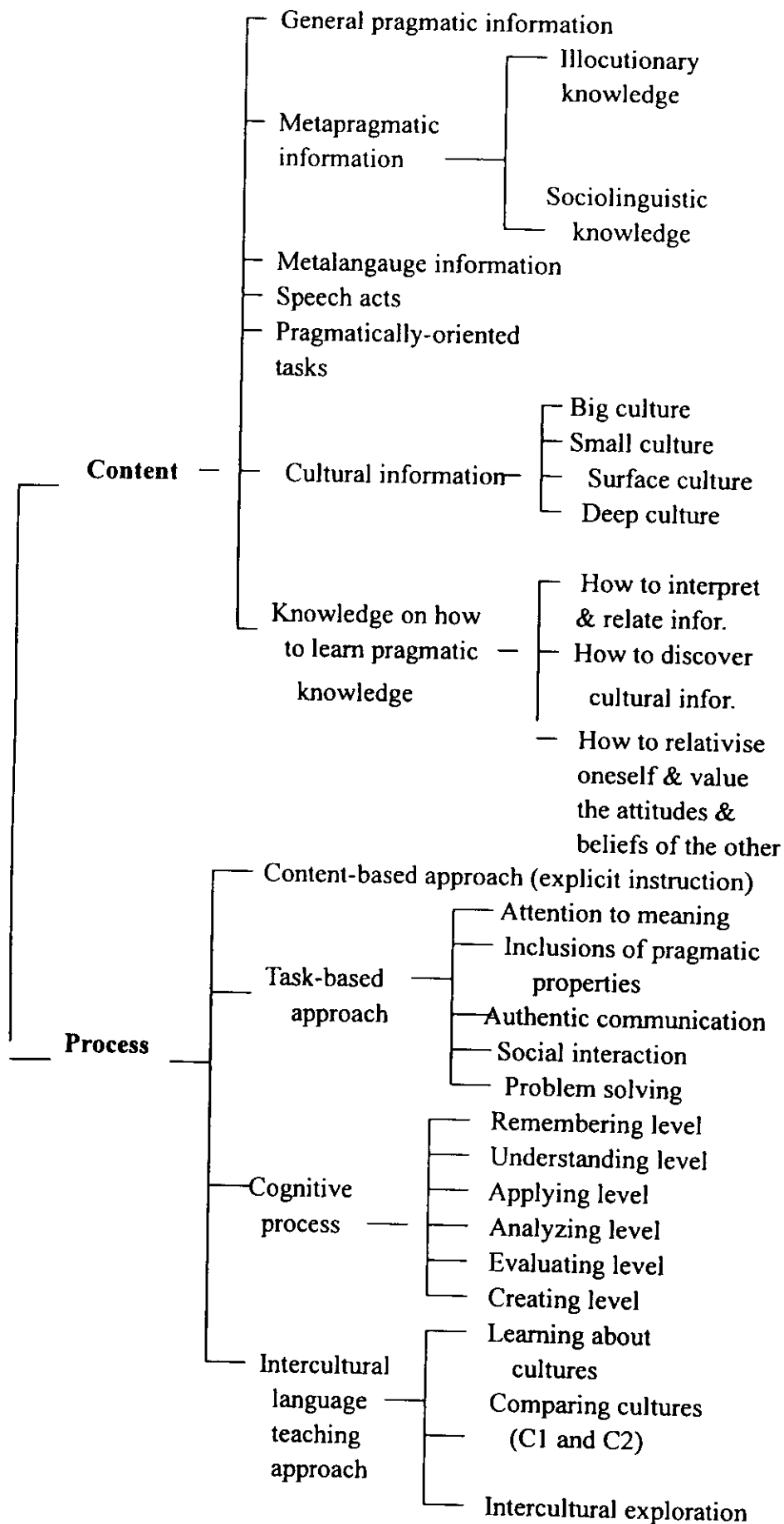


Figure 7.4: Teaching Pragmatics: a model, adapted from the frameworks of Bachman & Palmer (1996), Ellis (1999), Krashen (1981, 1985), Larsen-Freeman (2001), Crozet & Liddicoat (1999), Skehan (2002), Krathwohl (2002), Vellenga (2004), Hatoss (2004), Byram (1997), and Anderson & Krathwohl (2001).

in an EFL context, there is no consensus. According to the findings of the current research, a more comprehensive model is suggested. That is, in an EFL context like China, pragmatic knowledge should include: general pragmatic knowledge, metapragmatic information (both illocutionary knowledge and sociolinguistic knowledge), metalanguage, speech acts, cultural information, and knowledge on how to learn pragmatic knowledge.

That there is a lack of pragmatic-oriented tasks in College English classroom and a strong desire on the part of the students for pragmatic knowledge highlights the necessity for the inclusion of teaching pragmatics in the English classroom. Pedagogically both an information-transmission model and a task-based approach are helpful. While playing the role of a “knower/informer” as is implied in the traditional approach the teacher is also a “producer” or “referee” who could organize and facilitate learning as informed by innovative teaching that facilitates classroom interaction and priorities the use of the target language in situated contexts. Obviously at the level of instructional procedures, more research is needed for effective engagement of pragmatic materials and task development and design.

7.4.2 Implications for pedagogy

The findings of the current study and research literature on pragmatics show that language teachers should take up the challenge of developing instruction in pragmatics (Bardovi-Harlig & Griffin, 2005) in the ESL/EFL classroom. It is advocated to bring pragmatics and pedagogy together. Furthermore teachers' and students' perception of the importance of pragmatic competence requires the integration of pragmatics into College English teaching and learning. To introduce learners to the pragmatics of a foreign language is a must. In fact, the imbalance

between grammatical and pragmatic development may be ameliorated by early attention to pragmatics in instruction (Bardovi-Harlig & Mahan-Taylor, 2003).

Teaching pragmatics should be an indispensable part of College English classroom teaching. College English teachers should be encouraged to use pragmatic instruction and to provide more pragmatic knowledge in the classroom to students. Various dimensions of pragmatics-focused L2 pedagogy involving materials development, instructional approaches, learner assessment, etc. should be taken into consideration.

Pragmatics-focused L2 instruction would help learners to become familiar with pragmatic aspects of target language and would provide opportunities for them to practice. The responsibility for teaching the pragmatic aspects of language use falls on teachers. Language teachers face big challenges which include lack of adequate materials and training, which are the result of a lack of emphasis on pragmatic issues in ESL teaching methodology courses” (Zohreh, 2005, p.199) and how to teach pragmatic knowledge effectively. In light of the findings, some pedagogical implications may be considered.

Pragmatics is an area of language instruction in which teachers and students can learn together. Considering the insufficiency of pragmatic input in College English classroom teaching and EFL context, formal explicit instruction of pragmatics is still necessary in College English classroom as Widdowson (1990) put it: “the whole point of language pedagogy is that it is a way of short-circuiting the slow process of natural discovery and can make arrangements for learning to happen more easily and more efficiently than it does in ‘natural surroundings’” (ibid, p. 162). Adequate input of pragmatic knowledge will contribute to the development of learners’ pragmatic competence. Furthermore, formal instruction on pragmatic production and perception should be based on research that has investigated TL rules of speaking (Tada, 2004).

In explicit instruction, the use of authentic language samples is important which can

prepare learners to use English independently in the real world (Cunningsworth, 2002). The missing of pragmatic knowledge such as metapragmatic explanation of speech acts and context in textbooks suggests that it is up to College English teachers to provide enough pragmatic information in classroom instruction. Without appropriate input, development of students' pragmatic competence will be probably impossible. A systematic approach to selecting useful speech acts in English and creating practical guidelines and teaching materials that include examples of contexts and sociopragmatic and metapragmatic norms of native speakers of English is necessary in formal English education in China. Here are the ways suggested by the researchers on how to teach pragmatics.

A set of materials devised by Crandall and Basturkmen (2004) encouraged learners to analyze transcripts of authentic speech themselves to see how language was used to realize speech acts appropriate to specific settings, and to focus their attention on social considerations affecting speech act use. Their evaluation of the pragmatics-focused materials indicated that learners not only enjoyed this type of instruction, but were also able to learn from it. These results suggest that a case can be made for changing the way speech acts are presented in speaking instructional materials (Crandall & Basturkmen, 2004, p. 44). Besides it is also useful to provide instructional materials explaining the realisation and interpretation patterns, rules, strategies, and practice with how native speakers express themselves pragmatically, not just linguistically (Garcia, 2004).

The creation of interactive CD-ROM software for the teaching of pragmatics which incorporates film is another option for teachers in teaching pragmatics. Teachers can select and compare a large amount of conversations and speech acts in full conversational transcription, and in a form that reveals all sorts of contextual variables and other cues to understanding face-to-face interaction. The software allows learners to access various aspects of the analysis as needed (Rose, 1997, p.284).

The limited variety of cultural knowledge contained in the textbooks requires teachers

to have a good understanding of what culture is and how to teach culture. To develop learners' intercultural competence, language teachers need to have a close look at the three dimensions of the goal of intercultural language teaching (ILT): teaching of a linguaculture, comparison between learners' first language/culture and target language/culture; and intercultural exploration (Crozet et al., 1999).

As there is virtually no chance for learners to observe or engage in English-based communicative practice outside of school, the English classroom becomes the central site for their development of pragmatic competence. Within this context, the specific opportunities for learners' development are tied to the instructional activities that constitute their classroom experiences. Classrooms are supposed to be characterized by a variety of activities with an emphasis on those which engage students in meaningful interaction.

Considering the fact that classroom activities are often limited to the direct teaching of fixed conversational expressions (Tarnopolsky 1996), endeavors aimed at creating a more natural environment within the classroom context are pedagogically necessary, and tasks can help learners to experience more meaningful L2 input and output. Second/Foreign language teachers should be responsible for creating opportunities for their students to hear and read interesting and motivating samples of the target language and to engage them in a variety of meaningful classroom activities (Lightbown, 2000). It is emphasized that there is not a single best way to teach pragmatics. The teaching tasks or activities which are pragmatically oriented such as role-plays and interactive problem solving activities, case studies and drama are all particularly useful performance activities (Dinapoli, 2000) in which learners are given more opportunities to practise.

Ellis (1997) proposes that the empirical retrospective evaluation of tasks should involve collection of three types of information: response-based (what the students do), student-based (what the students think), and learning-based (what the students

learn) (Crandall & Basturkmen, 2004, p. 40). In Crandall and Basturkmen's study (2004), they used materials aiming to raise learners' awareness of native-speaker norms of requesting in an academic environment. After instruction, learners' understanding of the appropriateness of requests matched those of native speakers more closely than they did before instruction. The study of pragmatics-focused materials suggested that use of pragmatics-focused instructional materials led to positive outcomes. It appeared that the students 'could do it', that they 'liked it', and that they 'learnt something' (Crandall & Basturkmen, 2004).

Task involvement is also essential in designing tasks. It is a basic condition for all education that learners should be engaged. Teachers should aim at as high a level of task involvement as possible (Littlewood, 2004).

One of the difficulties of teaching pragmatic competence in classrooms is that researchers still do not know enough about the details of language use to give learners adequate treatment in up to date teaching materials. Language is so vast and varied that it is impossible for teachers to provide learners with a viable and comprehensive input of the language as a whole although foreign language learners are generally expected to become native speaker clones and adopt target language ways of using language. It is necessary and effective to provide them with activities which encourage them to think about samples of language and to draw their own conclusions about how the language works. These kinds of activities can be called consciousness-raising (C-R) (Willis & Willis, 2002, p. 63). As Rose (1994) put it:

“Pragmatic consciousness-raising has as its aim developing learners' pragmatic awareness through classroom application of available descriptive frameworks and research results. It does not attempt to teach specific means of, say, performing a given speech act, but rather attempts to sensitize learners to context-based variation in language use and the variables that help determine that variation” (ibid, pp. 56-57).

Another goal is for teachers to help learners raise their pragmatic awareness and give them choices about their interactions in the target language, ensuring exposure to such

notions as politeness being carried out differently depending on the culture. Then, as learners progress through the linguistic developmental sequences, they have a base from which to produce pragmatically appropriate utterances. Without this awareness, their attempts to learn the linguistic forms may be for naught. They need to know the reasons, first, for using the variety of forms of modality and those for expressing other pragmatic meanings (LoCastro, 2003, p.245). By increasing pragmatic awareness teachers can help learners listen to interactions, to watch for reaction, to consider what may result from one choice of words over another (Bardovi-Harlig, 1996). Zohreh et al. (2004) suggests the following tasks on how to raise the pragmatic awareness of language learners (see Zohreh et al., 2004): Teacher presentation and discussion; Student discovery; Motivation phase: translation activities; Discourse completion task; Potentially problematic interactions; Providing a focus, and Students collecting data.

Schmidt's (1990, 1993) noticing hypothesis claims that instruction which serves to draw learners' attention to the targeted features is more beneficial than simple exposure to the target language. For further second language development, learners have to notice the L2 features in the input. The research shows that learners with greater awareness have an increased ability to recognize and produce target forms than those with lesser awareness (Leow, 2000; Philp, 2003; Simard & Wong, 2001; Takahashi, 2005). By accomplishing consciousness-raising activities, learners can increase their awareness and sensitivity to language.

Consciousness-raising eventually enables learners to acquire pragmatic competence to such an extent that they are able to cope with various L2 communicative contexts (Takahashi, 2005). Pragmatic consciousness-raising is one of the options for incorporating pragmatics into EFL teaching.

In addition there is a need for teachers to take the learners beyond the textbooks, helping them to become observers of everyday talk in the L2, and develop their analytical skills so that they can use authentic materials like films, TV shows, as well as naturally occurring conversations, to observe the ways people use language

appropriately.

Therefore, the real responsibility of the classroom teacher is not only to instruct students specifically in the intricacies of complimenting, direction-giving, or closing a conversation: rather, it is to make students become observers and more aware that pragmatic functions exist in language, specifically in discourse, in order that they may be more aware of these functions as learners. If learners are encouraged to think for themselves about culturally appropriate ways to compliment a friend or say goodbye to a teacher, then they may awaken their own lay abilities for pragmatic analysis (Bardovi-Harlig, 1996 p. 31).

The above-mentioned pedagogy has been widely used in ESL contexts. Whether it will be workable and effective in a Chinese EFL context is still a challenge in that different teaching approaches have different effects in terms of different pragmatic knowledge and in different contexts (Liddicoat & Crozet, 2001). College English teachers in China need to employ the communicative and intercultural language teaching approach, task-based approach, and engage in the explicit instruction of pragmatic aspects of the target language in the classroom. At the same time they are encouraged to adopt, experiment with different approaches that suit their specific teaching context, and expand their competences as facilitators.

All in all, the tentative model of teaching pragmatics designed in the current paper is mainly for the use of College English teaching and learning. Yet the model is also relevant to other similar contexts in the broad Confucian Heritage Cultures. The idea of providing new forms of instruction for the development of pragmatic competence in the EFL context is not problematic (Kim & Hall, 2002 p. 333). Rather, with more findings of the research in second language acquisition and pragmatics and EFL teachers' efforts, a pragmatics-focused L2 instruction approach will be developed.

7.4.3 Implications for teachers' professional development

Language teaching is a complex process, requiring a professional approach which involves decision-making at a variety of levels. Teachers should have the creative responsibility of building links between externally imposed curriculum objectives and their own course plan, activity design, and materials development. They are involved in a process of continuing professional self-development (Hedge, 2002). This is also true for College English teachers in China.

However unlike native speaker English teachers, non-native speaker English teachers often find it hard to draw on NS intuitions when dealing with pragmatic questions. The findings that College English teachers have difficulties in incorporating pragmatics into classroom teaching stimulate College English teachers themselves to improve their own pragmatic competence and pedagogical approach in teaching the pragmatic aspect of language. There is a need for teachers to develop knowledge and understanding of the speech acts and their component parts in order to determine what naturalistic input is. It is essential for educational administration to organize special programs for teachers' professional development to keep up-to-date of new developments in research and best practices in language instruction in general and teaching pragmatics in particular.

The implementation of a new teaching approach requires teachers to change their belief systems as teachers' instructional approaches are closely results of personal belief and experiences (Kagan, 1990). Research in general education indicates that knowledge about teaching may be influenced by personal experience, experience with schooling and instruction, and experience with formal and pedagogic knowledge (Richardson, 1996; Connelly et al., 1997). Teachers' beliefs and attitudes may influence the development of certain segments of classroom teaching. However, teachers may need to meet challenges in the process of changing belief systems. There is a need for them to make their pre-existing beliefs explicit; to challenge their current beliefs to find out their inadequacy; to examine, elaborate, and integrate new information into existing belief system; and to apply new pedagogies through

communities of support (Ertmer, 2005). Besides, the new movements of globalization, digital communication, and English as lingua franca have posed fresh questions that are yet to be addressed.

7.4.4 Implications for materials development

Although considerable energy has been spent developing materials for teaching pragmatic competence, the results are not satisfactory and a number of problems still puzzle such efforts. As the content and quality of textbooks determine the extent to which teachers can make use of insights from research into learning and learners (Hedge, 2002), there are a number of ways for textbook developers to develop appropriate instructional materials for pragmatics-focused L2 instruction.

Firstly, it is of importance for textbook developers to take the pragmatic principle into consideration in designing textbooks. Developing learners' pragmatic competence should be one of the goals of the textbooks. To achieve this aim, both quantity and quality of pragmatic input should be ensured.

Secondly textbook writers should have a thorough understanding of what pragmatic competence and pragmatic knowledge entails. This implies that they should concern themselves not only with accuracy of form, but also with appropriacy in relation to the context. Such an understanding derives in part from Hymes' view of language as including "what a speaker needs to know in order to be communicatively competent in a speech community." (McDonough & Shaw, 2004, p.25) We now have the concepts of appropriacy as well as accuracy, communicative as well as grammatical competence, use as well as usage (Widdowson, 1989,1999).

Thirdly, being central to language use, and thus language learning, pragmatic issues must be addressed in language classrooms (Rose, 1994). A paucity of pragmatic information contained in College English (New) Integrated Course textbooks, to some extent, affects College English teachers' classroom instruction of pragmatic

knowledge as most of the College English classroom instruction is textbook-based. Constrained by the teaching materials, College English teachers, who are often prevented from teaching systematically pragmatic knowledge, are engaged in a case-by-case approach to providing a random doze of pragmatic input in the class (LoCastro, 2003). Obviously textbooks need to provide adequate pragmatic input with various types of pragmatic knowledge systematically which is arranged in linear sequence and recycled.

It is not realistic for textbooks to include a full range of pragmatic information, but there are needs for textbook writers to develop a sensitivity to include pragmatic information as one of the key elements.

Fourthly, consideration should be given to the procedures of teaching and learning and designing of real-life pragmatic tasks for different contexts. Dufon (2004) pointed out that to approach the authenticity and richness of context found in naturalistic interactions, some practical and theoretical considerations should be taken into account in making videotaped materials: 1) the selection of the events, locations and actors to be taped; 2) decisions on how to videotape in order to gain the naturalness and authenticity of the discourse; and 3) the effect of the camera on the naturalness of the videotaping (Dufon, 2004, p. 79).

Finally cross-cultural pragmatics research and interlanguage pragmatics research has resulted in a number of reasonable descriptions of potential target languages for specific acts and conversational exchanges (Bardovi-Harlig 1996, 2001). Bardovi-Harlig (1996) illustrated the procedures of dealing with a speech act (request) in materials development in his study. These entail the following steps:

1. The speech act request is clearly labeled;
2. A variety of models for realizing requests are given;
3. Practice is provided according to different kinds of scenarios;
4. With models provided, students are encouraged to try their own requests in the

- forms of role plays based on scenarios;
5. Scenarios are all situated in the settings in which students need to function;
 6. Sample responses to requests are provided and interpreted for learners.

(Bardovi-Harlig, 1996, p.25)

As research can help in the development of pragmatically appropriate materials, EFL textbook writers need to follow the latest findings in pragmatic research and make full use of them.

The aims of the coursebook should correspond as closely as possible to the aims of the teacher to cater for learners' needs to the highest degree. The aims can be achieved by incorporating authentic materials, creating realistic situations and encouraging learners to participate in activities which help develop pragmatic competence (Cunningsworth, 2002).

The realm of pragmatics is a territory barely explored by most coursebooks so far (Cunningsworth, 2002, p.57). The present study provides some empirical evidence for further study of pragmatics in teaching, learning, and textbook development in the Chinese context. In a word, to help College English learners develop pragmatic competence, efforts should be made to change the pedagogical model, revise the national curriculum, update textbooks, and strengthen teachers' professional development.

7.5 Limitations and recommendations for further research

Limitations

The study contributes to the body of literature on pragmatics in materials development and classroom teaching and provides an empirical base on which EFL College English materials and tasks can be developed in textbook writing and classroom instruction. This study, however, has limitations. The methodological problem of the current study is the small sample scale. The sample of the study was from an elite

university and may not be representative for the same cohort in other Chinese universities. Only three teachers' classroom teaching was observed and only six students and four teachers were interviewed, though the questionnaire involved 196 students and 44 teachers. The sample only included those who were willing to participate in this study. This caused the difficulty of being able to recruit participants randomly. In terms of data collection and analysis, it might be better to look at the other variables such as gender and proficiency.

Recommendations for further research

The inquiries of this study have been answered, suggesting a pragmatic model for College English teaching and materials development. However, there are still questions which emerged in the process of this research and which are worth addressing.

Firstly, the findings indicate that to some extent pragmatic instruction is used in College English classroom, and a tentative model proposed by this study. However this model is yet to be tested in classroom teaching in a separate study. Obviously this is beyond the scope of this research.

Secondly since the current study, together with other studies, demonstrates that pragmatics can be learned in classroom instruction, the question to ask is: "How can teaching be designed so that materials and tasks most effectively facilitate students' development of pragmatic competence? This area is much under-researched as research shows that information about the effectiveness of pragmatic-focused instruction has been lacking due partly to the fact that instructional effects research in second language acquisition has only recently come into its own and still has a long way to go (Norris & Ortega, 2000, pp. 417-528).

Lastly assessment of pragmatic competence is still rare in College English teaching. Neither the College English curriculum nor textbooks nor classroom teaching handles

the evaluation of learners' pragmatic competence.

College English learners in EFL learning environments face a particular challenge because their classroom exposure to the language leaves them without much opportunity to learn appropriate pragmatic and sociolinguistic features of the language (Bardovi-Harlig & Dornyei, 1998).

To conclude, it appears that pragmatics and pragmatic tasks have become an integral part of the English curriculum as is reflected in the research and theorization discussed in this thesis. The globalization process, in which English is continuously gaining momentum as an international language for communication, has set a new agenda for all stakeholders, policy makers, curriculum writers and classroom practitioners in China to take on board issues surrounding the teaching and learning of pragmatics, an aspect that has for long been overlooked by the existing curriculum. Central to this re-orientation, is a call for change in both perception and practice. This requires establishing an empirical base through research to inform an innovative language pedagogy. Such a pedagogy needs to be locally situated and susceptible to changes in keeping with developments in language research and best classroom practice for optimal learning outcomes.

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Appendix I

CE teachers and students perspectives on EFL teaching/learning and CE textbooks

Student Questionnaire

Instructions: As part of a research project on EFL College English materials and tasks, we would like you to help us by completing this questionnaire about your understanding of language use in your College English textbooks and in your teachers' classroom teaching. This is not a test and you don't even have to write your name on it. We are interested in your personal opinion. Please give your answers sincerely as only this will guarantee the success of the investigation. Thank you very much for your help.

Part I About Yourself (Please tick the following multiple choice questions.)

1. What is your gender?

- Male Female

2. What is your age?

- Under 20 Over 20 (include 20)

3. What is your major?

- Science Liberal Arts Other

4. How long have you been learning English?

- More than 10 years
 6-10 years
 Less than 6 years

5. Do you have any oversea English learning experience?

- Yes No

Please elaborate, if you ticked "yes". _____

6. Which College English course do you take in this semester?

- College English I
 College English II
 College English III

- Advanced English

7. Which textbook do you use in this semester?

- College English (New)
 21st Century English

Part II About your views on English teaching/ learning and textbooks

Section A: The Likert scale is used. Please tick your choice.

1= strongly disagree

2= disagree

3= neutral

4= agree

5= strongly agree.

8. I believe learning English means learning English grammar, pronunciation, and vocabulary.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
9. I want to develop knowledge other than grammar and vocabulary from my CE course.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
10. I think my College English textbooks contain much information on culture, rules of usage, style, and how to use English appropriately.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
11. My College English textbooks provide me with tasks to improve my ability to use English appropriately.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
12. My English teachers give us much knowledge on culture, rules of usage, style, and how to use English appropriately.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
13. I think teachers should teach us explicitly how to communicate with people, and how to use English appropriately.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>

Section B: Please tick the following multiple choice questions.

14. What tasks do your teachers use in classroom teaching? (If you tick more than one, please rank them. 1 means the most preferred one.)

- Role play.
 Group discussion.
 Pair work.
 Debate.

None of the above.

15. In which way do you want to get the information on language use? (If you tick more than one, please rank them. 1 means the most preferred one.)

- Teacher's explanation.
- Information sheets.
- Role play activities.
- Listening to dialogues and watch video.
- Classroom discussion.
- Self-study.

16. What kind of abilities do you want to improve in learning English? (If you tick more than one, please rank them.)

- Ability to communicate with people.
- Ability to do well in English examinations.
- Ability to translate.
- Ability to read materials relevant to my major.

17. Susan and Mei-ling are roommates and are getting ready to go to class together.

Mei-ling: Is it very cold out this morning?

Susan: It's August.

Question: What is Susan saying?

- It'll be nice and warm today. Don't worry.
- Yes, even though it's August, it's very cold out.
- It's so warm for this time of year that it seems like August.
- Yes, we're sure having crazy weather, aren't we?

18. Ken bought a new car and his friend, Charles, came to see it. Charles drove it near Ken's house.

Ken: What do you think of this new car?

Charles: Well, the color's fine, but...

Ken: Thanks.

Question: How can you interpret Ken's response?

- Ken appreciates Charles for driving Ken's car.

- Ken is happy to have this fantastic car.
- Ken feels happy, because Charles praises the color of the car.
- Ken does not want to hear any other criticism from Charles.

19. Lucy has gone to see the Dean during her office hour.

Dean: Hi.

Lucy: Hi. I'm just wanting to withdraw from one of my Art History papers.

Question: How appropriate do you think the underlined reply is?

- Very appropriate.
- Appropriate
- inappropriate
- not at all appropriate

20. Alison wants to change her tutorial time, so she has gone to see the course coordinator during his office hour.

CC: How's it going?

Alison: Good. Ah could you do me a favour?

Questions: How appropriate do you think the underlined sentence is?

- Very appropriate.
- Appropriate
- inappropriate
- not at all appropriate

21. Please rank (from 1-4) the following items about English learning in order of importance. (1 means the most important and 4 least important.)

- Grammar.
- Vocabulary
- Pronunciation
- Knowledge on how to use language

Section C: Please answer the following questions in Chinese.

22. What kind of tasks do you think need to be included in teaching of language use in classroom?

23. Do you believe that the current college English textbook and classroom teaching will enable you to improve your ability to communicate with people and to use English appropriately? Why and why not?

Appendix II

CE teachers perspectives on EFL teaching/learning and CE textbooks Teacher Questionnaire

Instructions: As part of a research project on EFL College English materials and tasks, we would like you to help us by completing this questionnaire about your understanding of language use in your College English textbooks and in your classroom teaching. This is not a test so there are no “right” or “wrong” answers and you don’t even have to write your name on it. We are interested in your personal opinion. Please give your answers sincerely as only this will guarantee the success of the investigation. Thank you very much for your help.

Part I About yourself (Please tick the following multiple choice questions.)

1. What is your gender?

- Male Female

2. What is your age?

- 20-30
 31-40
 41-50
 51-60

3. What is the highest degree you have got?

- Master PhD Other

Please elaborate, if you ticked “other”. _____

4. Where have you got your degree?

- In China Overseas

5. How long have you been teaching English?

- 0-5years
 6-10 years
 11-15 years
 More than 16 years

6. Which College English course do you teach in this semester?

- College English I

- College English II
- College English III
- Advanced English

7. Which textbook do you use in this semester?

- College English (New)
- 21st Century English

Part II About your views on English teaching/ learning and textbooks

Section A: The Likert scale is used. Please tick your choice.

1= strongly disagree

2= disagree

3= neutral

4= agree

5= strongly agree.

8. I believe learning English means learning English grammar, pronunciation, and vocabulary.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
9. I think linguistic knowledge(e.g.vocabulary and grammar) is as important as the knowledge of how to use the language.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
10. I often correct the mistake when my students use inappropriate words although they are grammatically correct.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
11. I find College English textbooks contain much information on culture, conversation rules, usage, style and how to use English appropriately.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
12. I think College English textbooks I use can assist me to teach students how to use English appropriately.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
13. I don't know how to teach cultural knowledge and appropriateness of language use in my teaching.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
14. I think raising students' awareness of acquiring information on culture and appropriateness of language use is more useful than to teach specific knowledge.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>
15. I think it is the textbook writer's responsibility to provide information on language use.	1 <input type="checkbox"/>	2 <input type="checkbox"/>	3 <input type="checkbox"/>	4 <input type="checkbox"/>	5 <input type="checkbox"/>

Section B: Please tick the following multiple choice questions. If you tick more than one, please rank them. 1= most often taught/used

16. What kind of knowledge do you teach your students in class? (If you tick more than

one, please rank them. 1= most often taught)

- Cultural knowledge.
- Semantic usage and collocation.
- Appropriateness of language use.
- Communicative skills.
- Vocabulary and grammar.

17. How do you teach knowledge on culture, appropriateness of language use in class?

(If you tick more than one, please rank them.)

- Using textbooks.
- Using supplementary materials.
- Conducting tasks and activities.
- Making explicit comments.
- Other.

Please elaborate, if you ticked "other". _____.

18. What kind of tasks do you conduct in classroom teaching? (If you tick more than one, please rank them.)

- Role-play.
- Group discussion.
- Pair work.
- Debate.
- Other.

Please elaborate, if you ticked "other". _____.

19. Which way(s) do you prefer to use in teaching knowledge of language use? (If you tick more than one, please rank them.)

- Teacher's explanation
- Information sheets
- Role play activities
- Listening to dialogues and watching videos
- Classroom discussion
- Raise students' awareness and let them acquire the information

20. Please rank (from 1-4) the following items about English learning in order of importance. (1 means the most important and 4 least important.)

- Grammar.
- Vocabulary
- Pronunciation
- Knowledge on how to use English

Section C: Please answer the following questions in Chinese.

21. What kind of tasks do you think need to be included in teaching language use in class?

22. Do you believe that the current College English textbooks will enable you to improve your teaching of language use in class? Why and why not?

Appendix III

Textbook analysis framework

Textbook analysis framework	
Questions	Theories/concepts
1. Does the textbook contain general pragmatic information, such as a variety of topics related to politeness, appropriacy, formality, register and culture?	Pragmatic competence; Interlanguage pragmatics; Intercultural pragmatics Sociopragmatics
2. Does the textbook contain metapragmatic information, such as discussion of politeness, register, illocutionary force, context, social variants, and appropriacy?	Sociopragmatics;
3. Does the textbook contain metalanguage, such as semantic usage, and collocation?	Interlanguage pragmatics;
4. Does the textbook contain explicit treatment of speech acts, such as explicit mention and metapragmatic description of speech acts?	Speech act theory; Sociopragmatics; Interlanguage pragmatics
5. Does the textbook contain pragmatically-oriented tasks, such as tasks to develop learners' thinking skills?	Task-based language teaching; pragmatic competence; communicative language teaching
6. Does the textbook teach high culture (culture with a capital 'C') such as literature, the arts? 7. Does the textbook teach low culture (culture with a small 'c') such as everyday lifestyle? 8. Does the material teach surface culture only (e.g. food, dressing, and other visible elements of culture)? 9. Does the material teach deep culture (orientations, values, non-visible and non-tangible elements of culture)?	Intercultural pragmatics; Intercultural language teaching
10. Does the textbook teach students how to interpret and relate information? (e.g. discussion, comparison) 11. Does the textbook show students how to discover cultural information? (e.g. project, viewing and responding, comparison) 12. Does the textbook allow students to relativise oneself and value the attitudes and beliefs of the other? (e.g. reflection, role play, discussion)	Intercultural language teaching

Textbook analysis framework adapted from Vellenga, 2004; Hatoss, 2004; and Byram, 1997.

Appendix V

Interview Questions for teachers

(Interviews will be conducted in English. However, interviewees can answer the questions in Chinese considering that they can express themselves much more freely in their first language.)

1. How important is it to develop students' pragmatic (ability to use English appropriately) competence?
2. Which error is more serious, grammar error or pragmatic error? If your students make a pragmatic error, would you point it out and correct it? Why and why not? How?
3. What do you think of the quantity of the pragmatic information contained in the textbook?
4. What do you think of the variety of the pragmatic information and tasks contained in the textbook?
5. Do you believe that the current College English textbook and classroom teaching will enable you and your students to develop pragmatic competence? Why and why not?
6. How do you incorporate pragmatic materials and tasks in your classroom instruction?
7. What kind of pragmatic information and tasks need to be included in classroom teaching?
8. What difficulties do you have in teaching pragmatic knowledge?

Appendix VI

Interview questions for students

(Interviews will be conducted in English. However, interviewees can answer the questions in Chinese considering that they can express themselves much more freely in their first language.)

1. How important do you think it is to develop students' pragmatic competence?
2. What kind of knowledge do you need most at the present stage of English learning, linguistic knowledge (such as vocabulary, grammar,), pragmatic knowledge (such as appropriate use of English), or both?
3. What do you think of the quantity of the pragmatic information and tasks contained in the textbooks?
4. In what way do you like to obtain pragmatic information?
5. What do you think of your English teachers' classroom teaching in terms of developing your pragmatic competence?
6. What kind of pragmatic tasks do you think useful in developing your pragmatic competence?
7. Do you believe that the current College English textbook and classroom teaching will enable you to develop pragmatic competence? Why and why not?
8. What difficulties do you have in learning pragmatic knowledge?

Appendix VII Published paper

How Likely Can We Learn Pragmatic Knowledge from College English Textbooks

Peiying Ji

Abstract: This study examines four College English Listening and Speaking (New) textbooks to find out the nature of pragmatic materials and tasks included in the textbooks. The findings indicate that there is a dearth of pragmatic information contained in the textbooks and the variety of pragmatic information is limited. Most of the metapragmatic explanations are simple. It may conclude that College English textbooks at the college level, while starting to incorporate a dimension of the pragmatic competence, are still confined to the explicit instruction of lexical, syntactical and grammatical structures. Implications for design and selection of materials and tasks for teaching and learning will be considered.

Key words: College English textbook pragmatic knowledge content analysis

Introduction

College English is a compulsory subject for almost all the non-English major students at university level. The large number of takers of this program has huge implications for quality assurance of the curriculum, which involves syllabus, teaching methodology, textbooks, and teachers and students. However, there is some criticism about the current College English teaching for producing English learners with poor pragmatic competence. It is believed that pragmatic information, as one important aspect of language teaching, is missing in the College English textbooks in China, which inevitably overemphasizes the linguistic aspect. College English teachers are confronted with a big challenge of helping students develop communicative competence in classroom teaching.

Textbook and classroom input play an important role in English language teaching and learning, particularly in the English as a foreign language classroom (Kim & Hall,

2002; Bardovi-Harlig, 2001). China is no exception where English is taught as a foreign language and students learn the target language with prescribed textbooks through a formal explicit instruction. As one of the main input for Chinese EFL learners, textbooks are supposed to provide enough pragmatic materials and tasks.

Pragmatic competence is one of the two important components in communicative language competence (Bachman, 1990). It is considered important to successful engagement in face-to-face interactions in the target language (Davies, 1989). Pragmatic knowledge enables us to know "how utterances or sentences and texts are related to the communicative goals of the language user and to the features of the language use setting" (Bachman & Palmer, 1996:68). In order to learn how to use English appropriately and communicate successfully in a target language, pragmatic competence in L2 must be reasonably well developed (Kasper, 1997).

In the present study we argue that existing College English textbooks may, among other variables, play a role that may have contributed to the current status quo of College English education in China. An insufficient supply of knowledge of pedagogy and materials in College English textbooks may have led to difficulties in teaching and learning pragmatic knowledge effectively in College English classroom. The study draws upon data from a content analysis of College English Listening and Speaking (New) textbooks (CE L&S) in a detailed examination of the various essential elements evident or missing in the textbooks. The discussion of the data is carried out with reference to research on Second Language Acquisition (SLA) and Pragmatics. The findings from this study will provide an empirical base upon which EFL College English pragmatic materials and tasks can be developed in textbook writing and classroom instruction.

Literature review

An overview of the literature shows that research on pragmatics in teaching and

materials development, compared with phonology, morphology, and syntax, second language pragmatics, was a relatively neglected area of second language acquisition and applied linguistics until about 15 years ago, but there has seen a veritable explosion of work of late (Rose & Kasper, 2001). There is a growing interest in research on pragmatics in English education in a second and foreign language context. The development of communicative competence has been a primary goal of the teaching of English as a second language or English as a foreign language for close to 20 years, shaping the field's research interests and instructional approaches in significant ways (Kim & Hall, 2002:332).

Some of the previous studies on second language pragmatics have focused on the teaching of pragmatic knowledge in classroom and developing materials and tasks focusing on teaching and learning pragmatics in ESL/EFL context. In general, studies on instruction in pragmatics in ESL/EFL context have been carried out which seek to answer the following questions:

Is the targeted pragmatic feature teachable at all?

Is instruction in the targeted feature more effective than no instruction?

Are different teaching approaches differentially effective?

What opportunities for developing L2 pragmatic ability are offered in language classroom?

(Kasper & Rose, 2002:249)

It is difficult to draw any conclusions from these studies, nevertheless, some arguments can be summarized as follows. First of all, it is important to note that most pragmatic features such as speech acts, conversational implicature, pragmatic routines and strategies, and metapragmatic information are teachable (Olshtain & Cohen, 1990; Liddicoat and Crozet, 2001; Rose et al., 2001).

Second, explicit instruction is necessary and yields better results than implicit teaching (Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford, 1993; Zohreh et al., 2004; Tateyama et al.,

1997; Tateyama, 2001), though not all pragmatic features can be taught explicitly (LoCastro, 1997).

Third, the instruction of pragmatic routines, strategies, and metapragmatic instruction such as metalanguage as well as pragmatically oriented tasks can improve learners' pragmatic competence (Zohreh et al., 2004; Tateyama, 2001; Berry, 2000; Kim & Hall, 2000).

Fourth, pragmatically oriented tasks (e.g. role-play), and consciousness-raising can enhance learners' pragmatic competence (Tateyama et al., 1997).

Fifth, different teaching approaches have different effects in terms of different pragmatic knowledge (Liddicoat & Crozet, 2001; Rose et al., 2001).

Finally, it is also necessary to teach learners of high grammatical proficiency pragmatic knowledge because even grammatically advanced learners may use language inappropriately and show differences from target-language pragmatic norms (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001; Kasper, 1997).

Studies on pragmatics in ESL/EFL materials and tasks are concerned with authenticity in textbooks, speech acts in textbooks, pragmatic knowledge in textbooks, and effect of pragmatic input on learners' development of pragmatic competence. The results indicate that textbooks contain limited pragmatic information, and the aspects such as metapragmatic explanation, explicit treatment of speech acts, and cultural information are particularly scarce (Cane, 1998; Park et al., 2000; Grant & Starks, 2001; Vellenga, 2004; and LoCastro, 1997). Furthermore, presentation of speech acts in textbooks is simple and lacks variety in terms of the types and vocabulary (Park et al., 2000; Boxer & Pickering, 1995).

These empirical studies reviewed in this section cast some light on the studies on

pragmatics in material development and learning and teaching in the classroom. They also point to a need for more research on pragmatics in language materials and tasks for the EFL context. The questions remain: Do College English textbooks contain much pragmatic information that assists learners with their pragmatic competence? What's missing in College English textbooks for effective teaching? What kind of pragmatic information do textbooks entail? It is with this consideration in mind that we have conducted the present research.

Methods

A content analysis is conducted in order to explore the nature of pragmatic materials and tasks in the College English textbooks. It focuses on an analysis of the textbooks entitled College English Listening and Speaking (New) (Books 1-4) written by a group of Chinese English professors, published by Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press from 2001 to 2003. This series of textbooks is designed for juniors at university level and supposed to be used in four semesters

The textbooks are examined for pragmatic information in the content quantitatively and qualitatively. Quantitative data focuses on percentage and amount of pragmatic information contained in the textbooks and amount of the variety of pragmatic information. Qualitative data concentrates on nature of the pragmatic information and the level of richness of pragmatic information. Pragmatic information is differentiated according to the categories on the basis of the frameworks adapted from the work of Vellenga (2004), Hatoss (2004) and Byram (1997). They are: general pragmatic information (GP), metapragmatic information (MP), metalanguage (ML), speech acts (SA), cultural information (C) and pragmatically oriented tasks (T). The data is processed by using SPSS software and tabulated.

General pragmatic information encompasses a variety of topics related to politeness, appropriacy, formality, register and culture. Metapragmatic information includes discussion of politeness, register, illocutionary force, context, discourse, and

appropriacy. Metalanguage focuses on semantic usage, and collocation. Speech acts center on the explicit mention and metapragmatic description of speech acts. Cultural knowledge includes high culture, low culture, surface culture, and deep culture, etc.

Data Reporting

As the textbooks are determined to be approximately equivalent in terms of length, page-by-page analysis of the textbooks is performed to investigate the amount and nature of pragmatic information contained in the textbooks.

Any information relevant to general pragmatic information, metapragmatic information, metalanguage, speech act, cultural information and pragmatically oriented tasks is coded as pragmatic information. The page including any of the above information, whether one phrase or one line, is counted as one page. Hence the percentages displayed below are highly inflated (Vellenga 2004). Table 1 shows the distribution of pragmatic information tabulated by number of pages.

Table 1 Pragmatic information in CE L&S textbooks (Books 1-4)

textbook	Pages which include pragmatic information	Total number of pages	Percentage of pages which include pragmatic information
CE L&S Book 1	58	197	29.4%
CE L&S Book 2	46	212	21.7%
CE L&S Book 3	5	208	2.4%
CE L&S Book 4	21	215	9.8%
Total	130	832	15.6%

As shown in Table 1, the average percentage of pragmatic information contained in the four CE L&S textbooks is 15.6%. The distribution of pragmatic information in each textbook is not even. The percentages of pragmatic information contained in Book 1(29.4%) and Book 2 (21.7%) are much higher than those in Book 3 (2.4%) and Book 4 (9.8%). Table 2 and Table 3 display more detailed descriptive statistics.

Table 2 Descriptive Statistics on Amount of Pragmatic Information in CE L&S textbooks (Books 1-4)

	Mean	Range	Min	Max	Standard deviation
Pragmatic pages	32.5	53	5	58	20.74
Total pages	208	18	197	215	13.64
Pragmatic information	15.83%	27%	2.4%	29.4%	19.04%

As shown in Table 2, the mean of the pragmatic pages in the four books is 32.5 (SD=20.74). The highest score is 58 and the lowest score is 5. As for the pragmatic information in the four books, the mean score is 15.83% (SD=19.04%). The highest percentage is 29.4% and the lowest percentage is 2.4%.

Table 3 displays the descriptive statistics on percentage of different types of pragmatic information contained in the four CE L&S textbooks.

Table 3: number of pages which include pragmatic information in terms of types of pragmatic information

	GP	MP	ML	SA	C	T	Total
BK1	6	15	2	13	4	18	58
BK2	7	9		24		6	46
BK3	5						5
BK4	4	4			6	7	21
total	22	28	2	37	10	31	130
percentage	16.9%	21.5%	1.5%	28.5%	7.7%	23.8%	100%

As far as types of pragmatic information are concerned, the percentages of three types of pragmatic information are above 20%. They are: Speech acts (28.5%), Task (23.8%), and Metapragmatic information (21.5%). Metalanguage and Cultural information only account for 1.5% and 7.7% among all the pragmatic information contained in the four textbooks.

Data Analysis and Interpretation

Findings of the textbook analysis show that CE L&S textbooks include a paucity of pragmatic information as the average amount of pragmatic information across the four textbooks is small (15.6%) or 130 pages out of 832 pages (see Table 1). This result confirms the findings of the studies such as Bardovi-Harlig et al. (1991), Boxer and

Pickering (1995), Grant and Starks (2001), Vellenga (2004). For example, Bardovi-Harlig et al (1991) found that most of the dialogues in the examined textbooks aim at introducing a new grammatical structure rather than providing a source for realistic, natural, or even pragmatically appropriate conversational input to learners. Vellenga (2004) argued that there was a dearth of metalinguistic and metapragmatic information related to ways of speaking in the examined textbooks. It is obvious that College English L&S textbook writers haven't paid enough attention to developing learners' pragmatic competence although textbooks have an important influence on learning and teaching (Altbach, 1991) and are particularly important in the Chinese EFL context as textbooks are one of the main resources for students to get pragmatic knowledge in College English classroom.

Language learning materials have a theory of language, a theory of language learning, and an educational philosophy explicitly or implicitly embedded in the discourse of the printed, audio or video texts and, moreover, these three components are interrelated. (LoCastro, 1997:250). The results of the present study and the other studies mentioned indicate that the EFL and ESL textbook writers haven't given enough attention to the application of pragmatic theory in their textbooks as pragmatic information contained in the four Listening and Speaking textbooks is not distributed evenly. The average percentage of Book 1 and Book 2 is 25.55%, whereas the average percentage of Book 3 and Book 4 is 6.1%. It's also true with regard to types of pragmatic information. Speech acts account for 28.5% whereas Metalanguage only accounts for 1.5%. The striking differences in amount of pragmatic information contained in each textbook and in types of pragmatic information imply that textbook writers seem to have no guiding principle in writing their textbooks in terms of pragmatic information.

In fact pragmatics has been widely applied to the study of second language acquisition (Kasper & Rose, 2002). An increasing body of research examines the development of L2 learners' pragmatic ability (cf. review by Kasper and Schmidt,

1996). As more and more attention is given to the development of pragmatic competence in English learning and teaching, it is argued that textbook writers have the responsibility to incorporate more pragmatic information into textbooks because textbook writers play the role of teaching learners and training teachers (LoCastro, 2003).

The findings also indicate that textbook writers have their own preferences to different types of pragmatic information as the amounts of types of pragmatic information are different (see Table 3). Speech acts (28.5%) and tasks (23.8%) are highlighted in Listening and Speaking textbooks compared to the other types of pragmatic information. This result is in line with its writing principles. CE L&S textbooks aim to develop students' ability to speak English. Textbook writers not only provide pragmatic information but also design tasks to help learners practice and develop their pragmatic competence. It seems that CE L&S textbook writers have incorporated task-based teaching approach in material development.

In addition to the quantitative analysis, we also carried out a qualitative analysis of the nature and level of richness of the pragmatic information included in the textbooks. Speech acts was selected for analysis.

Only Book 1 and Book 2 entail the information about speech acts which consists of explicit mention of speech acts and metapragmatic explanations about speech acts. Book 1 includes the explicit treatment of about 11 speech acts, such as Greetings, Making introductions, Making apologies, Making suggestions, Expressing agreement and disagreement, etc. Book 2 involves the explicit treatment of about 10 speech acts, such as Giving compliments, Asking for permission, Expressing certainty and uncertainty, etc.

Although the textbooks provide most of the common speech acts required in College English Curriculum Requirements published in 2004, generally speaking, the

treatment of speech acts in the textbooks is pragmatically inadequate. Students are only provided with a set of relevant expressions (sentences) about speech acts and some printed dialogues or examples with very little explicit metapragmatic discussion.

The metapragmatic information entailed in the four textbooks includes the general explanation for the functions of speech acts, discussion of politeness (e.g. illocutionary force), conversation norms, and context. Politeness is defined as situationally appropriate language (Thomas, 1995). Politeness carries a heavy burden in cross-cultural communication in initiating and maintaining friendly relations between and among different individuals involved in the situations of contact (LoCastro, 1997:241). As each speech act can be performed in different social context, using different linguistic forms which may differ greatly in terms of illocutionary force, the lack of metapragmatic information puts learners, particularly EFL learners with little target language exposure, at a disadvantage in terms of acquiring pragmatic competence (Vellenga, 2004).

Before a speech act is introduced, there is an introduction explaining the function of speech act. For example: before introducing how to get information, you can read: "*In everyday life we have to deal with many kinds of situations that require us to obtain information from others. Different ways can be used to ask for information from different people*" (Unit 6, Book 1, p. 51). Introducing students to the semantic moves associated with a particular speech act in a certain context is pragmatically helpful (Vellenga, 2004). However, the introduction is very general and no further details explaining the different situations, different ways used by different people are provided. One of the possible reasons is that the non-native speaker writers may have little knowledge of what is appropriate in certain situations (Vellenga, 2004).

Samples of language for speech acts are often provided with little further explanations. For example, samples of language for expressing disagreement are given without any

mention to the significant differences in utterances in terms of politeness in Unit 15, Book 1.

<p>Expressing disagreement I wouldn't say so. I couldn't agree with you less. No way. It's out of the question. I'm not sure I can agree. I couldn't disagree more. Are you absolutely sure? I wonder if there's a mistake.</p>

Figure 1 (Unit 15, Book 1)

It's really necessary to provide students with multiple forms of expressions of a speech act. However that's not enough. Despite that all these utterances indicate disagreement, they convey some differences in terms of formality and illocutionary force. Expressions such as "No way." is informal and direct whereas "I wonder if there's a mistake." is formal and indirect. If a student expresses his/her disagreement to the Dean of the department using "No way", it is likely to be viewed as impolite or even rude. But it would be appropriate if you use "No way" in a conversation with your intimate friend. Information about politeness and levels of politeness should be provided to students so that they can communicate successfully with people. Failure to notice these differences will result in inappropriacy of language use, pragmatic tension, failure or worse (Vellenga, 2004).

Discussion of illocutionary force focuses on inferences and listening strategies such as listening between lines, identifying speakers' attitude, detecting implied meanings, etc. In Unit 3 Book 2, there is a paragraph about how to listen between lines: "*People do not always say directly what they mean. Very often, we have to listen "between the lines". The English language offers many ways for people to imply, rather than directly state, their meaning. To find out what a speaker really means, we can rely on our understanding of the context, the language (the meaning of an idiom, for example), and the intonation used to help us*". This kind of metapragmatic

information can help students develop their pragmatic competence.

Register discussions distinguish usage in written and spoken language. Written language is formal whereas spoken language is informal. In written form of English, formal language is preferred whereas informal colloquial language is preferred in spoken form of English. Again take the above example, the expression "No way" is informal and colloquial. The use of this expression is considered inappropriate if it is used in a formal written text. It is also true vice versa.

Contextual information contributes to successful communication. Contextual variables include cultural factors, power, status, age, sex, relationship between Speaker (S) and Hearer (H), etc. Decisions about the relative status of the speaker (S) and hearer (H) influence the degree of directness in the S's expressing disagreement (LoCastro, 1997:247). Awareness of these contextual factors will facilitate students to use different expressions of speech acts more appropriately. In Unit 4, Book 2, a paragraph is written about the importance of identifying the relationship between the speakers in a conversation. It reads: "*Identifying the relationship between the speakers in a conversation is an important skill in listening comprehension. ...we can rely on contextual clues to find it out. Such clues include the degree of intimacy (e.g. how intimately the speakers address each other, what endearments are used), the degree of politeness (strangers tend to be more polite towards each other than friends or family members), and the particular situation (at a doctor's consulting room, at a shop, etc.)*" (Unit 4, Book 2, p. 32). This metapragmatic explanation will help students raise their awareness of contextual factors so that they can communicate with others successfully.

Apart from providing sets of expressions of speech acts, textbooks also include some printed dialogues as samples for students to imitate. However the findings of analyzing the conversations provided in the textbooks indicate that most of the dialogues in the textbooks are not very authentic. Although they are appropriate for

some students at certain stages of language learning, they should be a more accurate reflection of native speaker dialogues (Scotton & Bernstein, 1988).

Take closings of conversations as example. Conversation closings are a ritualistic form of behaviour used to maintain the positive face wants of the participants (Grant & Starks, 2001). According to Schegloff & Sacks (1973), closings of conversations can be divided into "pre-closings" and a "terminal exchange". "Pre-closings" are introduced by fillers such as "well, so, OK" and come in a variety of types. There are four types of pre-closings: those that make reference to the interests of the other speaker (e.g. Well, I'll let you go.); those that involve explanations (e.g. I've got to go.); those that make reference to the particulars of the conversation (e.g. I'll let you go back to your programme); and silence. Terminal exchanges include "OK", "See you", "Goodbye", "You are welcome" and the like (Grant & Starks, 2001:40).

In CE L&S textbooks, the writers mentioned the term "closings of conversation"(Unit 2, Book 1, p.11), but didn't further explain the structures and features of conversation closings. Most of the conversations in the textbooks don't contain pre-closings. Some even don't have terminal exchanges. For example:

A: Good morning, Frank Qian's office.

B: Good morning. Can I talk to Frank, please?

A: Who's calling, please?

...

B: I'll try his mobile. Could you give me the number, please?

A: 9093652781

B: Just let me check that. 9093652781.

A: That's it.

B: Thank you

(Unit 5, Book1, p. 46)

This conversation ends with "Thank you" with no closings. It is not a pragmatically appropriate sample for students to learn. If students are taught to close a conversation with no closings, they "run the risk of ending the conversation inappropriately and appearing abrupt and bad-mannered" (Grant & Starks, 2001:42).

Those which really have closings only provide simple terminal exchanges. For example:

A: Yeah, maybe. Who knows?

B: Well, I have to run now. I have an appointment with the dean. See you.

A: See you.

(Unit 2, Book 1, p. 17)

A: Thank you. Bye.

B: Good-bye.

(Unit 5, Book 1, p. 47)

In fact, there are more types of closings in the natural conversations, such as “Catch you later”, “Spot you”, “See you whenever”, “See you around”. If writers provide them with good examples of appropriate pragmatic ways to end conversations, students can choose appropriate ways according to different contexts.

Conclusions

The content analysis of four CE L&S textbooks indicate that there is a paucity of pragmatic information contained in the textbooks. The textbook writers haven't given enough attention to the application of pragmatic theory in their textbooks as pragmatic information contained in the four CE L&S textbooks is not distributed evenly. The variety of pragmatic information is limited. Most of the metapragmatic explanations are simple. Besides, the textbook at lower level contains more pragmatic information than the one at higher level. It may conclude that College English textbooks at the college level in China, while starting to incorporate a dimension of the pragmatic competence, are still confined to the explicit instruction of lexical, syntactical and grammatical structures.

There is no doubt that effective teaching in Chinese EFL classroom can help develop students' pragmatic knowledge. It is necessary for textbook writers to write user-friendly textbooks in terms of providing pragmatic information to students and teachers. The future EFL textbooks would include “presentation of a variety of linguistic forms along with explicit metapragmatic explanations and contextually rich opportunities for students to practice those forms” (Vellenga, 2004:23). Textbook

developers should also take into consideration of procedures of teaching, selection of authentic materials and designing of tasks. More importantly, there is a high expectation for aspiring College English textbook writers and teachers to better their own knowledge of pragmatics and pedagogy for optimal students' learning outcomes. As the current research is based on a content analysis of four textbooks, the findings are not conclusive enough to make a broad generalization. Further research is needed to investigate how College English teachers develop students' pragmatic competence in the process of classroom instruction by using different approaches.

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