ABSTRACT: Sole linguistic competence does not by itself ensure a smooth communication since appropriacy is not derived from pure linguistic knowledge. Since linguistic competence does not guarantee pragmatic competence the pedagogical applications and their effectiveness in improving L2 learners’ pragmatic competence have become significant subjects of study in the field of foreign language teaching. However, there is still a gap between what pragmatics and interlanguage pragmatics offer and how L2 pragmatics is taught to raise L2 learners’ awareness in L2 pragmatic features. This article is intended to present a brief theoretical background on what pragmatic competence is and what instruction types to raise awareness in L2 pragmatics are standing out more in instructional pragmatics, and how this theoretical perspective can be implemented in instructional pragmatics to raise L2 pragmatics awareness via sample activities to teach requests in English.

Key Words: pragmatic competence, focus-on-form instruction, explicit instruction, pragmatic-awareness-raising activities


Anahtar Sözcükler: edimsel yeti, yapı-anlam-odaklı öğretim, açık-yönergeli öğretim, edimsel farkındalığı artırıcı aktiviteler

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Introduction

Instructional L2 pragmatics has become an important topic as a consequence of a functionalist perspective in linguistics resulting in a change in the goals of language pedagogy as *appropriacy* rather than *accuracy only*. L2 learners’ appropriate language use has been defined as an indispensible part of his communicative competence which needs to be developed for a successful communication. This brings out two questions in foreign language pedagogy: whether L2 pragmatic knowledge needs to be taught and teachability of L2 pragmatic knowledge in language classes.

With respect to the first question, although some of the pragmatic knowledge can be positively transferred from L1 or universals of pragmatic knowledge exist in speakers’ mind, learners may still fail to transfer and use the knowledge they have. If learners fail to use their existing pragmatic knowledge that can be applied to their L2, then they need to be made aware of their own knowledge which requires particular attention to those aspects. In respect to the second question, there have been studies showing teachability of L2 pragmatic knowledge in formal instruction which have resulted in a new research area investigating the effectiveness of different types of instructions to teach L2 pragmatic knowledge. The difference between the instructions that are compared in the research is mainly based on a degree of explicitness which also corresponds to a degree of awareness discussed further in this paper.

This paper starts with the theoretical underpinnings of teaching L2 pragmatics with a focus on pragmatic competence and L2 instructions to raise awareness, particularly focus-on-form and explicit instruction which are discussed in respect to their positive relation to awareness of L2 pragmatic knowledge. Lastly, sample L2 pragmatic-awareness-raising activities are presented.

Theoretical Underpinnings of Teaching L2 Pragmatics

Pragmatic Competence

Defining and assessing learners’ language competence from a restricted linguistic perspective is not seen as a realistic or correct way since linguistic communication requires more
than abstract formal systems (structures) and abstract meanings attached to those structures (semantics). Understanding and taking effective part in linguistic communication require the knowledge and ability to cope with sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic aspects of languages. For this reason, the literature regarding the competence of a foreign language speaker has demonstrated a significant focus on L2 learners’ pragmatic competence. The field of pragmatics manifested itself in the emergence of the term pragmatic competence by Canale and Swain (1980) and pragmatic competence has been defined by scholars throughout the literature (e.g. Canale and Swain, 1980; Canale, 1983; Bachman, 1990; Trosborg, 1994; Celce-Murcia M., 2008). Bachman (1990) assigning a stronger emphasis on pragmatic competence distinguishes pragmatic competence into illocutionary and sociolinguistic competences. He (1990:90) defines the former as “knowledge of the pragmatic conventions for performing acceptable language functions,” and the latter as “knowledge of the sociolinguistic conventions for performing language functions appropriately in a given context.”

In Bachman’s model a speaker needs to use pragmatic conventions with acceptable language functions to achieve his goal. Thus in his model illocutionary competence embraces both the knowledge of speech acts and language functions. Speakers produce statements that function in line with his purpose, which is sensitive to language and context. Thus, becoming pragmatically competent requires “the knowledge of speech acts and language functions .... and ......the knowledge of the contextual appropriateness of the linguistic forms realizing illocutions,” (Barron, 2003, p.9). Like Bachman (1990), Kasper & Roever (2005) and Kasper & Rose (2002) define pragmatic competence on two dimensions which they name by using Leech’s terms through which Leech (1983) defines what pragmatics is; sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic. Bachman’s (1990) illocutionary competence and sociolinguistic competence is what Kasper & Roever (2005), and Kasper & Rose (2002) define as pragmalinguistic competence and sociopragmatic competence. Kasper and Roever (2005) define sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic competences as follows:
“Sociopragmatic competence: the knowledge of the relationships between communicative actions and power, social distance and the imposition associated with a past and future event, knowledge of mutual rights and obligations, taboos and conventional practices.

Pragmalinguistic competence: knowledge and ability for use of conventions of means (such as realizing speech acts) and conventions of form (such as the linguistic forms implementing speech act strategies).” Kasper and Roever (2005, p. 318).

The more concrete definition of pragmatic competence is put forth by Ishihara (2010, p.295) through potential evaluative criteria to evaluate L2 learners’ sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic competences. Her evaluative criteria focus on linguistic and social aspects of pragmatics that take place in an actual communication. In her evaluative criteria she takes “vocabulary/phrases, grammatical structures, strategies for speech acts, choice and use of pragmatic tone, choice and use of organization of the written and spoken discourse, choice and use of discourse markers and fillers, and choice of epistemic stance markers” as subcategories of pragmalinguistic competence, and “the level of directness, formality and/or politeness in the interaction, the choice and use of speech acts, the handling of cultural norms in the target language, and the handling of the cultural reasoning or ideologies behind the L2 pragmatic norms” as sociopragmatic competence (Ishihara, 2010, p.292-295).

Depending on theoretical definitions of pragmatic competence discussed briefly, foreign language pedagogy has searched for more effective instructions to make learners aware of L2 pragmatic knowledge and to help them construct a more socially appropriate self through their L2 communication.

L2 Instructions to Raise Awareness in L2 Pragmatics

Research studies investigating what ways of teaching are more effective in improving L2 learners’ pragmatic competence have widely focused on cognitive mechanisms that support processing of L2 input, thus L2 processing. The most frequent instructional types investigated in the research are focus on form, focus on meaning, implicit instruction, and explicit instruction. Doughty and Williams (1998) define three types of form-focused instruction as follows:
“... a focus on form entails a focus on form elements of language, whereas focus on forms is limited to such a focus, and focus on meaning excludes it. Most important, it should be kept in mind that the fundamental assumption of focus-on-form instruction is that meaning use must already be evident to the learner at the time that attention is drawn to the linguistic apparatus needed to get the meaning across.” (Doughty and Williams, 1998, p.4).

Focus-on-forms instruction is based on the assumption that the grammatical forms and rules are learned if they are studied and practiced enough. However, according to Doughty (2004, p.191) explicit focus-on-forms as decontextualized teaching of grammar “promotes a mode of learning that’s arguably unrelated to SLA” because “the outcome is merely the accumulation of metalinguistic knowledge about language.” Focus-on-meaning, on the other hand, excludes grammar in the teaching process and focuses only on meaning through which learners are expected to grab the target features by themselves. Focus-on-meaning has attracted criticism because when the attention of the learner is fully focused on meaning, in order to comprehend the message the learner cannot become aware of how form encodes meaning (Doughty, 1998). Based on these criticisms, focus-on-form aims to designate learners’ attentional resources to particular target features of language through meaning.

Focus-on-form is based upon a form-meaning connectionist perspective. According to Doughty and Williams (1998, p.245), language acquisition is realized through connections of “forms, meanings and functions (or use)”. Form-meaning connectionist perspective is associated with Ellis N.’s (2004, p.50) SLA definition which is “.....the learning of constructions relating form and meaning.” In focus-on-form learners develop their knowledge of language forms through meaning. Han (2008, p.49) determine, quoting Doughty and Williams (1998), the pedagogical target as form, and meaning “provides the cognitive processing support to it”. Thus, focus-on form aims to facilitate noticing through manipulating attention of the learner to forms through the use of meaning. Different from focus-on-meaning, in focus-on-form meaning is processed with the form, and different from focus-on-forms meaning is focused and used as a support to learn the forms (Ozdemir, 2010, p.69). Doughty and Williams (1998, p.197) clarify the goal of focus-on-form studies as “to determine how learner approximation to the target can be
improved through instruction that draws attention to form but is not isolated from communication”.

*Focus-on-form* is closely related to *noticing hypothesis* (Schmidt, 1990, 1994) which claims that attention is a requirement for any kind of learning (consciousness as attention), and it is “subjectively experienced as noticing” by the learner (Schmidt, 1990, p.19). According to Schmidt (1990, Ibid.), noticing is the first required step for input to become intake and be element of further processing and finally be part of interlanguage system. Doughty and Williams (1998, p.11), in line with what *noticing hypothesis* claims, state that “… leaving learners to discover form-function relationships and the intricacies of a new linguistic system wholly on their own makes little sense,” thus, learners’ attention should be directed to notice some target features. As Leow (2006, p.127) states, Schmidt “views attention as being isomorphic with awareness and rejects the notion of learning without awareness.” This perspective of enabling learners to notice some target features of the language is associated with *weak-interface-hypothesis* in SLA in which the role of explicit knowledge is defined as *acquisition facilitator* by Seliger (1979) (Ellis R., 1994, p.97-98). As opposed to weak interface hypothesis, *non-interface hypothesis* claims that learned knowledge (explicit knowledge) cannot be converted into acquired knowledge (implicit knowledge) as in Krashen’s SLA hypotheses. *Strong interface hypothesis*, on the other hand, maintains that learned knowledge can gradually be part of implicit competence (acquisition). In contrast to non-interface and strong interface hypotheses, *weak-interface hypothesis* claims that

- explicit knowledge may help the learner notice features in the input that would otherwise be ignored.
- explicit knowledge may facilitate the process of noticing-the-gap.
The second claim of noticing hypothesis put forth by Schmidt (1994) that closely associates with focus-on-form is that in learning a language, learners cannot allocate attention to every feature of the input at the same time. If there is no learning without awareness, then conscious attention must be paid to particular features of the input to notice them. Thus, "... in order to acquire phonology one must attend to phonology, in order to acquire pragmatics, one must notice both linguistic forms and relevant contextual features, etc.," (Schmidt, 1994, p.176). This approach associates with a form-meaning connectionist perspective in which constructions relating to form and meaning specify not only “the defining properties of morphological, syntactic and lexical form” but also “semantic, pragmatic, and discourse functions that come associated with it,” (Ellis N., 2004, p.50). Thus, to learn pragmatic aspects of the target language learners’ attention must be directed to linguistic forms, their functional meaning, and contextual features.

The relationship between awareness and learning has been researched and there are studies providing empirical support for the facilitative effects of awareness in L2 development. In his article, Leow (2006) summarizes the results of the research studies on the effect of awareness on L2 development as follows:
a. Awareness at the level of noticing and understanding contributed substantially to a significant increase in learners’ ability to take in the targeted form or structure (Leow, 1997, 2000, 2001; Rosa and Leow, 2004a; Rosa and O’Neill, 1999) and produce writing the targeted form or structure (Leow, 1997, 2001; Rosa and Leow, 2004a; Rosa and O’Neill, 1999), including novel examplers (Rosa and Leow, 2004a).

b. Awareness at the level of understanding led to significant more intake when compared to awareness at the level of noticing (Leow, 1997, 2001; Rosa and Leow, 2004a; Rosa and O’Neill, 1999).

c. There is a correlation between awareness at the level of understanding and usage of hypothesis testing / rule formation (Leow, 1997, 2000, 2001; Rosa and Leow, 2004a; Rosa and O’Neill, 1999).

d. There is a correlation between level of awareness and formal instruction and directions to search for a rule (Rosa and O’Neill, 1999).

e. There is a correlation between awareness at the level of understanding and learning conditions providing an explicit pretask (with grammatical explanation) as well as implicit or explicit concurrent feedback (Rosa and Leow, 2004b). (Leow (2006, p.132-3).

Other research studies based upon noticing hypothesis are the interventional studies comparing explicit and implicit instruction such as House (1996), Takahashi (2001), Tateyama (2001), Takahashi (2005), Koike & Pearson (2005). The distinction between the two instructions is based upon the difference between how knowledge is defined in cognitive psychology, how different levels of awareness affect learning of L2 pragmatics, and the difference between implicit and explicit language learning (Doughty and Williams, 1998, p.230).

Learner language has two mental representations in mind: explicit knowledge and implicit knowledge. Explicit knowledge is defined as analyzed knowledge occurring as a result of “conscious awareness of how a structural feature works” (Ellis R., 2005, p.36), and implicit knowledge is “in the form of unconscious abstract representations” according to Reber (Schmidt, 1990, p.8). In respect to how these two different types of knowledge are represented in mind of L2 speakers, the main distinctive feature between explicit and implicit instruction is based on how attention is activated in the class which results in different levels of awareness on part of learners. Doughty and Williams (Ibid.) make a distinction between attracted attention and directed attention in the L2 learning process which is assumed to result in different levels of
awareness. With respect to this distinction, De Keyser (1995) defines the distinction between explicit and implicit instruction as follows:

“An L2 instructional treatment (is) considered to be explicit if rule explanation (comprises) part of the instruction .... or if learners (are) directly asked to attend to particular forms and try to arrive at metalinguistic generalizations of their own. ... Conversely, when either rule presentation nor directions to attend to particular forms (are) part of a treatment, that treatment (is) considered implicit.” (De Keyser, 1995; quoted in Kasper and Rose, 2002, p.251)

Ellis R. (2005), like De Keyser, distinguishes explicit instruction into two: explicit presentation of rule either by the teacher before practice (deductive) and by the teacher or learners after practice and production (inductive). Implicit instruction, on the contrary, does not include any teacher-fronted metalinguistic or metapragmatic explanation in the class. A language class with implicit instruction offers either non-enhanced input or enhanced input. Instruction with non-enhanced input offers no specific effort to direct learners’ attention to targeted forms (Ellis R., 2005, p.12). Enhanced input, on the other hand, is used to activate learners’ attention about specific L2 features implicitly (input enhancement). Enhanced input is implemented in various ways such as “corrective feedback, visual enhancement (textual manipulation) with the use of bold and italic face, and task manipulation directing learners to notice and attend target structures” (Rose & Kasper, 2001, p.172).

Pragmatics Awareness Raising Activities

If language acquisition occurs as form-meaning connections, and focus-on-form aims at focusing on forms through meaning, and if learners have tendency to skip form-meaning connections, and focus either only on meaning (excluding forms) or forms (excluding meaning), and skip how form encodes meaning, and particularly skip pragmatic features of the language they learn, then learner attention should be directed to target forms through language activities. As mentioned earlier, Schmidt (1990) argues that some kind of attention to language forms is needed for the acquisition of accuracy, and further studies of Schmidt (1994), and Doughty and
Williams (1998) claim that some kind of attention is also needed for pragmatic appropriacy. For this reason, it is suggested in the literature to direct learners’ attention to forms through meaning and contextual features to improve both accuracy and appropriacy. The aim of pragmatic-awareness-raising activities is to make students *consciously aware* of form, meaning, and contextual factors, and use this knowledge (explicit knowledge) as *facilitator* for the acquisition of implicit knowledge.

As mentioned earlier, the role of attention in *focus-on-form* is defined as a vital element of learning, and the techniques used in *focus-on-form* aim to create noticing in learners’ mind and increase awareness in the learning process. Doughty & Williams (1998, p.258) in their taxonomy of focus-on-form tasks and techniques categorize the obtrusiveness of tasks on a continuum. Although they mention that the tasks mentioned on the continuum “cannot guarantee that learners will focus on the intended form but they can only encourage learners to do this” (Doughty & Williams, Ibid.) the degree of obtrusiveness of focus-on-form positively correlates with a degree of explicitness. In this continuum, one extreme is the most obtrusive task (garden path) which is the most explicit, and the least obtrusive task (input flood) which is the least explicit task.

Based upon the studies mentioned by Takahashi (2005, p.438), which provided evidence that “learners with greater awareness have an increased ability to recognize and produce target forms than those with lesser awareness”, tasks and procedures implemented in the explicit end of the continuum aim to instill greater awareness whereas more implicit tasks aim to instill relatively less awareness. In this sense, the degree of explicitness in instruction is positively correlated to the degree of awareness. The degree of awareness increases when the degree of explicitness increases. The positive correlation between awareness and explicitness was supported with the summary of the results of the studies by Leow (2006, p.132-3) which were mentioned earlier in this article.

Ishihara (2010, p.56), on the other hand, shows the positive correlation between awareness and six levels of mental skills in cognitive domain of Bloom’s taxonomy (1956) with respect to tasks for L2 pragmatics. According to Ishihara (2010), tasks prepared to activate higher order
skills help learners be more aware of the target pragmatic features of L2. The positive correlation between awareness and higher order skills, thus more awareness required by higher order skills, is also compatible with Schmidt’s (1990, p.7) concept of awareness since he defines the levels of awareness one at the level of noticing, and the other at level of understanding. Noticing occurs at a surface level whereas understanding at a deeper level (Kasper and Rose, 2002, p.21). With respect to pragmatics, Schmidt (1995) distinguishes noticing and understanding as follows:

“In pragmatics, awareness that on a particular occasion someone says their interlocutor something like, ‘I’m terribly sorry to bother you, but if you have time could you look at this problem?’ is a matter of noticing. Relating the various forms used to their strategic deployment in the service of politeness and recognizing their co-occurrence with elements of context such as social distance, power, level of imposition and so on, are all matters of understanding.” (Schmidt, 1995; quoted in Kasper and Rose, 2002, p.27-28).

Leow (2006, p.127), in line with Bloom’s taxonomy (1956) and a revised version of the taxonomy by Anderson and Krathwohl (2001) also states that awareness at the level of understanding requires the ability to analyze, compare, and test hypotheses which correspond to higher order cognitive skills in Bloom’s taxonomy.

Table 1: The Positive Relationship among Higher Order Skills, Level of Awareness, and Noticing

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Cognitive Levels</th>
<th>Higher Order Skills</th>
<th>Higher Level of Awareness (Metaawareness)</th>
<th>Understanding</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Bloom’s Taxonomy (1956)</td>
<td>Evaluation</td>
<td>Lower Order Skills</td>
<td>Notice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Synthesis</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Analysis</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Application</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Comprehension</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Knowledge</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
In instructional pragmatics learners’ awareness in speech acts, structure of conversations, conversational implicatures, discourse organization can be developed through awareness-raising-activities which require higher order skills. In this study, activities for teaching some English request strategies in a focus-on-form class are presented particularly to display samples for raising learners’ awareness in pragmatic features of the targeted forms.

Requests: What to Focus on in Teaching Requests

Requests are the speech acts in which the speaker either asks for something or asks the hearer to do something for her/him. Requests are based upon the presumptions of the speaker that the hearer can perform the act for the speaker. Requests are directive speech acts in the Searlean taxonomy of utterance types which are also categorized as face threatening acts. Since the nature of requesting requires the speaker to want something from the hearer the act of requesting burdens responsibility to the hearer and it affects hearer’s ‘freedom of action’ (e.g. Blum-Kulka S., House J., Kasper G., 1989, p.12). Moreover, requests can inform about power relations of the hearer and the speaker. The speaker adjusts his/her request in respect to content of the request and social variables. For instance, in line with the content of the request and social variables the speaker can adjust his/her pragmalinguistic choices either to increase or decrease the force or impingement effect to the hearer’s face either to cause or not to cause hearer’s loss of face.

There are several taxonomies of requests in English in the pragmatics literature (Blum-Kulka and Olshtain’s, 1984; Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper, 1989; Trosborg, 1994) one of which is Blum-Kulka and Olshtain’s (1984) pragmalinguistic classification of requests in English. They categorize head-act request strategies into nine types, and in Cross-Cultural Speech Act Realization Project (CCSARP) (Blum-Kulka, House and Kasper 1989) nine request strategies are also presented in relation to Brown and Levinson’s directness levels; direct, conventionally indirect, and non-conventionally indirect request strategies as follows (Blum-Kulka S., House J., Kasper G. 1989; Billymer & Varghese 2000);
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Directness Level</th>
<th>Head-act Request Strategies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>A. Direct</td>
<td>1. Mood Derivable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>2. Explicit Performative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3. Hedged Performative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>B. Conventionally indirect</td>
<td>4. Locution derivable (obligation statements)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>5. Want statement (scope stating)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>6. Suggestory Formula</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>7. Preparatory Condition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C. Non-conventionally indirect</td>
<td>8. Hint</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>9. Mild Hints</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Besides, head-act request strategies, requests can include some other parts such as supportive moves, alerters, downgraders, and upgraders. Hudson, Detmer and Brown (1995, p.83) categorize alerters as attention getter (Hello/Excuse me/Listen), surname/family name, first name, undetermined name, and title/role.

Supportive moves, on the other hand, are used for several reasons such as removing a potential rejection from the speaker, justification for speakers’ request or reducing the imposition of the request. Hudson, Detmer, and Brown (1995, p.79-80) distinguish supportive moves into seven categories as grounder (reasons, justifications), disarmer (remove potential reflections), imposition minimizer, (reduce imposition), preparatory (announcement of request, asking about the availability of something, permission of hearer), getting a precommitment, apology, gratitude.

As mentioned earlier, speakers’ choice of parts of request strategies, thus his/her preference to use particular head-act strategies, supportive moves, and alerters are in close relation to Brown and Levinson’s (1987) three social variables. Brown and Levinson’s (1987) crosscultural pragmatics study displays that the three variables subsume all other social variables and have significant roles in speech act realization (Hudson, Detmer, and Brown, 1995).

Relative Power (P): The power of the speaker with respect to the hearer.
Social Distance (D): The distance between the speaker and the hearer.
Imposition (R): The imposition in the culture, in terms of the expenditure of goods and/or services by the hearer, or the obligation of the speaker to perform the act. (Hudson, Detmer, and Brown, 1995, p.4).

In this sense, parts of requests, main request strategies with corresponding contextual factors and social variables should be focused in foreign language classes. Thus, in teaching requests, focus can be placed on what a request is, why people make requests, and how they make it appropriate with particular emphasis on pragmalinguistic aspects and sociopragmatic aspects of requests in English. Ishihara (2010, p.292) proposes three aspects to assess learners’ pragmatic ability which should be the focal points in the instructional process since learners are assessed in accordance with what they learn in the class. She (Ibid.) proposes “linguistic aspects (pragmalinguistic ability), cultural aspects (sociopragmatic ability), and analytic aspects (ability to analyze and evaluate pragmatic use-referred to as metapragmatic ability)”. According to Ishihara (Ibid.) preparing activities that would enable learners to focus on analytic aspects such as analyzing and evaluating learners’ own output and other outputs will help learners develop awareness in L2 pragmatics. In this respect, the reasons for making requests, the types and parts of request strategies, and the social factors that affect our choice of particular request strategies should be focused through awareness-raising-activities used for teaching English requests to help learners find socially appropriate language for the situations that they encounter.

With respect to pragmalinguistic features, the intension of the speaker, how this intention can be interpreted by the speaker, and how effective is the language that the speaker uses to carry his/her message can be studied in general, and in particular what head-act strategies, alerters, supportive moves, politeness markers, vocabulary, discourse markers can be studied explicitly in the class. With respect to sociopragmatic aspects, analysis and evaluation of how the intention of the speaker can be interpreted by the hearer in relation to the level of directness, formality of the request, and whether the linguistic choices are appropriate in the context where the conversation takes place can be studied to raise L2 pragmatics awareness. It is crucial to mention that aim of L2 pragmatic-awareness-raising activities is not to present and defend a norm but to provide a variety of pragmatic options among which learners can make their own choices. In the following
section, some sample activities that can be used in the class to enhance awareness in pragmatics of requests are presented.

Sample Activities

**Pragmalinguistic-Focused Activities**

These activities help learners notice the gap in their own productions according to given categories through which they can compare pragmalinguistic aspects of the language they use with the target pragmalinguistic productions. Students also have the chance of diagnosing the problematic parts in their own productions through the given categories. Students can be encouraged to evaluate their own responses and/or their peers’ responses and provide remedy for the gaps or problematic parts, and create alternative language productions. The following two sample pragmalinguistic-focused activities give learners a chance to apply what they know, analyze what they and other people produce, evaluate their own productions, and create new alternatives depending on their evaluations. These activities also provide the opportunity to talk about the lack or presence of alerters, supportive moves, and politeness markers.

**Procedure:**

1. Learners are given a small scenario card containing a situation from a movie scenario. Learners are then given a multi-turn conversation that takes place between the people in the scenario card. In the multi-turn conversation the request is left blank. Learners are asked to write a request to realize the requestive act.

2. Learners watch the scene and fill in the blanks accordingly. Learners compare their own responses with the ones used in the movie by using the following chart. Learners analyze and compare their own responses with the ones in the movie according to the parts of requests.
3. Learners are asked to revise their responses and write alternative responses.

(Ishihara, 2010)

Procedure:

1. Learners are given imaginary scenarios in which a speaker requests something from a hearer. Learners are asked to put the scenarios in an order from very difficult to very easy with respect to the imposition of the requests.
2. Learners are asked to write a response to each scenario.
3. Learners exchange answers. Learners are also asked to underline the request strategies used by their friends. The aim is to direct learners’ attention to pragmalinguistic features.
4. Learners are given some original responses taken from natural data and they find request strategies used in the natural data and compare them with the ones they have used.

5. Learners evaluate their own requests or a peer’s requests according to the following chart, and discuss about their ratings with their peers.
Pragmalinguistic - Sociopragmatic Connection Activities

The aim of these activities is to develop awareness in how pragmalinguistic features of a language are closely related to social dynamics of communication. These activities help learners pay more attention to social variables when producing target output. It is also aimed to help learners notice the pragmalinguistic gaps in their own productions that are related to the social variables. Activities focusing on both pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic features of targeted forms help learners to see how pragmatic differences are interpreted on social dimension rather than linguistic only dimension such as grammatical errors. In the following pragmalinguistic-sociopragmatic connection activities learners apply what they know, analyze and evaluate their and other people’s productions, and create new alternative responses in line with their evaluations.

Procedure:

1. Learners are given scenario cards and a dialogue in which they are asked to write a request in each gap.
2. Learners are asked to find particular words or phrases that demonstrate directness, politeness, and formality.
3. Learners are asked to evaluate their own answers or peers’ responses according to the rating chart given below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>What strategies did you/your peer use?</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rating</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4-3-2-1</td>
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<table>
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<tr>
<th>What strategies did you/your peer use?</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Rating</td>
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<tr>
<td>4-3-2-1</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
Procedure:

1. Learners are given multiturn dialogues which are problematic due to false mapping of pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic features. Learners are asked to diagnose and underline the problematic parts in each dialogue. Questions referring to the reasons why students make such diagnoses bring a discussion of social variables such as power, distance and imposition in requests.

2. Learners are asked to offer remedies for the problematic parts.

**Procedure:**

1. Learners are given an imaginary scenario in which the speaker requests something from the hearer. Learners are asked to write a request for the imaginary situation.

2. Learners are asked to change the social status of the hearer in the scenario, and then write new request sentences for the speaker. Learners have to make changes to adjust the language according to the roles of the hearer and speaker each time.

*You are working at an office. Two weeks ago you gave one of your books to the head of your department. You know that he/she finished the book. You need to take the book back from him/her because you need the book. What would you say to the head of the department?*
Speaker                      Hearer
You                          The head
You                          Colleague (acquaintance)
You                          Colleague (close friend)
You (the head)               Employee

Adapted from Ishihara N., 2010, p. 18

Procedure:
1. Learners are given an imaginary scenario in which the speaker requests something from the hearer. Learners are asked to write a request for the imaginary situation.
2. Learners are asked to change the thing that they request from the hearer, and write new request sentences for the speaker. Learners have to make changes to adjust the language according to the degree of imposition and difficulty of their requests.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Speaker</th>
<th>Hearer</th>
<th>Request</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>Friend</td>
<td>borrow a pen</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You</td>
<td>Friend</td>
<td>borrow his/her suit/dress for a party</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>You (the head)</td>
<td>Friend</td>
<td>borrow his/her car for the weekend</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Procedure:
1. Learners are given scenario cards and watch a short video clip of each scenario with sound off.
2. Learners are given at least four request options for each scenario. Learners rate the requests from 1-star as the most appropriate to 4-star as the least appropriate.
3. Learners watch the same video clips with sound, and discuss their ratings with respect to the pragmalinguistic features of the given sentences and social variables they observe in video clips. To draw learners’ attention to sociopragmatic variables following questions can be asked:

You are at a conference. You want to ask the director if you can tape record some of the sessions. This is your first time that you meet the director.

- Can I tape record this conference, please?
- Hi Mr. Thomson, Do you have a minute? I am a student at Kent State College. I am interested in this conference. Would you mind if I tape recorded this conference?
- Hi Mr. Thomson. I am a student at Kent State College. Do you mind if I tape record this conference?
- Hi Mr. Thomson. I want to tape record the conference.

Procedure:

a. Social Appropriacy

1. Learners are given the following table and are asked to decide whether the given request is easy/difficult and appropriate/inappropriate for the speaker to request from the hearer. The aim is to direct learners’ attention on the imposition of the request, social familiarity, and social power.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>close friend</th>
<th>friend</th>
<th>boss</th>
<th>sister/brother</th>
<th>colleague</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>borrow a couple of dollars for an espresso</td>
<td>Easy (E) / Difficult (D) Appropriate (A) Inappropriate (I)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>take a book back to the library</td>
<td>Easy (E) / Difficult (D) Appropriate (A) Inappropriate (I)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>borrow his/her black jacket for a party</td>
<td>Easy (E) / Difficult (D) Appropriate (A) Inappropriate (I)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>borrow his/her CD</td>
<td>Easy (E) / Difficult (D) Appropriate (A) Inappropriate (I)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>borrow his/her newspaper</td>
<td>Easy (E) / Difficult (D) Appropriate (A) Inappropriate (I)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
b. Pragmalinguistic Appropriacy:

1. Following a discussion on social aspects in step (a) social appropriacy, learners are given a scenario card for each request.

2. Learners are asked to decide whether it is appropriate/inappropriate and easy/difficult to use the given request main strategies. Learners make their decisions about the difficulty and appropriacy of the given request depending on the social aspects of the situation given in the scenario card. Learners’ attention is explicitly directed to the pragmalinguistic features of the given sentences.

3. Learners are asked to add supportive moves, alerters, upgarders and downgraders to make their requests more appropriate.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>close friend</th>
<th>friend</th>
<th>boss</th>
<th>sister/brother</th>
<th>colleague</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Do you mind lending me a couple of dollars for an espresso?</td>
<td>Easy (E) / Difficult (D)</td>
<td>Appropriate (A)</td>
<td>Inappropriate (I)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Would you mind taking this book back to the library for me</td>
<td>Easy (E) / Difficult (D)</td>
<td>Appropriate (A)</td>
<td>Inappropriate (I)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Do you mind lending me your black jacket for a party?</td>
<td>Easy (E) / Difficult (D)</td>
<td>Appropriate (A)</td>
<td>Inappropriate (I)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>I’d like to borrow your Elton John CD.</td>
<td>Easy (E) / Difficult (D)</td>
<td>Appropriate (A)</td>
<td>Inappropriate (I)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Would you mind if I looked at that newspaper when you have finished reading it?</td>
<td>Easy (E) / Difficult (D)</td>
<td>Appropriate (A)</td>
<td>Inappropriate (I)</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4. Learners are asked to rewrite any inappropriate request head-act strategy or offer new alternative responses. Learners are also asked to add alerters, supportive moves and some politeness markers.

Conclusion

Instructional pragmatics has become more important over the last few decades as a result of a perspective shift from accuracy to appropriacy in language use with an emphasis on the pragmatic competence of speakers. The literature on pragmatic competence defines it in two dimensions; sociopragmatic competence and pragmalinguistic competence. Instructional pragmatics addresses how learning and awareness on both levels can be improved through an instructional process. Instructional pragmatics intervention studies have been conducted to find out what type of instructions are more effective. There have also been studies supporting the facilitative effects of awareness in L2 development (Leow, 2006, p.132). In line with these studies, the positive correlation between awareness and the levels of mental skills in the cognitive domain of Bloom’s taxonomy (1956) has also been presented (Ishihara, 2010, p. 56).

Based upon a review of a body of select literature, the activities presented in this paper are intended for a focus-on-form class with the goal of raising awareness about English requests in both pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic dimensions. The presented activities I suggest here are dependent upon the following principles.

First, it is important to emphasize that the fundamental principle of a focus-on-form instructional pragmatics class is to help learners direct their attention to forms through the use of meaning. As stated earlier, meaning is thought to provide cognitive processing support in learning of a form (Doughty & Williams, 1998, p. 197). Second, it is important to use the activities in a class offering a contextualized presentation of requests via films, television series, authentic conversations, etc. through which learners are exposed to and observe target pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic aspects in context. Thus, both types of activities presented in this paper used together with a contextualized presentation give learners opportunities to first process meaning, and then make connections among meaning, forms, and contextual factors.
Third, activities suggested in this paper aim to help learners use higher order skills identified in Bloom’s taxonomy (1956) such as analysis, synthesis, and evaluation for their positive correlation with higher levels of awareness.

Teaching L2 pragmatics with key elements such as forms, functions, social relationships, situational contexts, and cultural contexts is a difficult task for language teachers. Compounding this difficulty is the fact that most published L2 textbooks do not offer opportunities for learners to raise L2 pragmatic awareness. For this reason, there is still a need for more materials, activities and tasks enabling learners to use higher cognitive skills for raising awareness in L2 pragmatics.

References


International Association of Applied Linguistics, Thessaloniki, Greece. (U.S. Department of Education, Educational Resources Information Centre (ERIC)).


GENİŞLETİLMİŞ ÖZET

Edimbilim çalışmalarının yabancı dil öğretimi alanına katkıları kabaca iki şekilde karşımıza çıkmaktadır. Birincisi edimbilimin yabancı dil eğitimi sürecinde öğrenenin yabancı dil konuşucusu olarak iletişimsel yetinin tanımları üzerindeki etkisi, ikincisi ise yabancı dil sınıflarında dilin edimsel özelliklerinin öğretilmesi gerekliğini ortaya çıkmasıdır.


Bu çalışmaların kuramsal ardalanını oluşturan diğer önemli nokta ise açık bilgi ve örtük bilginin dil öğrenimindeki rolüdür. Ellis R. (1994a) kişinin dile ilişkin sahip olduğu bilginin çoğunlukla örtük olması karşısında karşın açık bilginin örtük bilgi üzerinde dolaylı olarak olumlu ve dil öğrenme sürecinde de kolaylaştırıcı bir etkisi olduğunu söyler. Buradan harekete açık yönergeli
ve örtük yönergeli öğretim tiplerinin karşılaştırıldığı araştırmalarda iki öğretim tipi arasındaki en ayırt edici özellik sınıf içerisinde öğrenen dikkatinin yönlendirilip yönlendirilmediği ya da ne şekilde ve nasıl yönlendirildiği ile ilişkilidir ve bu öğrenende değişik seviyelerde farklılık olarak ortaya çıkar.


farkındağını artturabilmek için daha üst-düzeney düşünme becerilerin kullanımını sağlayan aktiviteler kullanımaergy ortaya çıkar.

Bu çalışma yabancı dal edimsel farkındağı artırma aktivitelerinin dayandığı kuramsal aralamanın yanı sıra dil sınıflarında edimsel farkındağı artırma yönelik aktivite örnekleri sunabilmek için edimdilbilim ve aradil edimdilbilimi çalışmalarında çokça inceleme alanı bulmuş İngilizcede istekte bulunma stratejilerini öğretmeyi hedefyen örnek aktiviteler sunmaktadır.


Bu çalışma örnek aktivitelerini edimdil odaklı aktiviteler, edimdil ve toplumedim bağ aktiviteleri olarak sınıflandırılmıştır. Edimdil odaklı aktiviteler hem hedef dilin edimdilssel özelliklerini hem de öğrenenin kendi dilsel üretimindeki edimdilssel özelliklere ilişkin eksikleri farketmesini sağlar. Bu aktiviteler aracılığıyla öğrenen kendi dilsel üretimini hedef dil ile