

## **Development of Pragmatic Awareness of Nonnative Korean Speakers**

**Kim, Juhi**

Department of English  
Miami University  
356 Bachelor Hall, 301 S. Patterson Ave.  
Oxford, OH 45056, USA

### **Abstract**

*Pragmatic knowledge is closely intertwined with socio-contextual knowledge in the society and is also related to socio-cultural knowledge as well as grammatical knowledge. Along with the increasing interests on the relation between the development of pragmatic knowledge and grammatical knowledge in L2 acquisition, this study compares and contrasts the pragmatic knowledge and usage of a nonnative Korean speaker (NNKS) with that of a native Korean speaker (NKS). A Discourse Completion Task (DCT) was designed to elicit request strategies in various contexts ranging from formal to informal situations. The informants in this task are an American who speaks Korean as a foreign language and a Korean native speaker. A comparative analysis of the data was conducted as a case study in terms of the strategies of requests in their discourse performance for the task. This study examines the developmental difference of intercultural/cross-cultural discourse.*

**Key Words:** pragmatic awareness, grammatical awareness, interlanguage, Korean.

### **1. Introduction**

Pragmatic knowledge is closely intertwined with socio-cultural knowledge. There has been research into the development of pragmatic competence that is focused on acquisition (Blum-Kulka & Casper, 1989; Kasper, 1992; Kasper & Blum-Kulka, 1993; Kasper and Schmidt, 1996; Kasper & Rose, 2002); however, very few studies have been done about the developmental process of pragmatic awareness of L2 learners and the relation between grammatical knowledge and pragmatic knowledge in L2 acquisition. Considering the role of pragmatic knowledge in second language acquisition, it is important to investigate the developmental process of pragmatic competence: how L2 learners develop their pragmatic awareness and pragmatic knowledge in the process of language learning.

In this regard, this paper will provide the prior literature of pragmatic competence with a discussion of communicative competence and inter-language pragmatics. Along with the discussion, I will review the studies on the development of pragmatic awareness of L2 learners related to grammatical knowledge and discuss the significant elements of pragmatic knowledge development in second language learning. Data collected through a discourse completion task (DCT) about nonnative Korean speakers' development of pragmatic awareness with a comparison to a native Korean speaker will be provided with analysis.

### **Literature Review**

#### *Pragmatic Competence in Communicative Competence*

Since Chomsky's definition of language competence, "speaker-hearer's knowledge of his language," has been criticized by the lack of communicative function in social situations, many researchers attempted to redefine language competence. Hymes (1972) conceptualizes communicative competence as the knowledge of the rules of grammar and conventions of language use in a communicative situation. He conferred that language competence does not refer to the individual's knowledge of the forms and structures of language, but extends to how the individual uses language in actual social situations.

Canale & Swain (1980) categorized communicative competence with four sub-competences: grammatical competence, which refers to the knowledge of linguistic features; sociolinguistic competence, which refers to the knowledge of contextually appropriate language use; discourse competence that refers to the knowledge of how to achieve coherence and cohesion in spoken or written communication; and strategic competence, which refers to the knowledge of how to use communication strategies to handle breakdowns in communication. The definition of language competence by Hymes (1972) and Canale & Swain (1980) provides not only individual knowledge of rules and grammar but also provides sociolinguistic appropriateness in communication. In their definition, competence is not simply a record of performance but rather an inference from performance to an individual's knowledge.

Furthermore, Bachman and Palmer (1996) defined communicative language ability, as a concept comprised of knowledge or competence and capacity for appropriate use of knowledge in a contextual communicative language use. They divided language competence into two categories: organizational competence (grammatical and textual/rhetorical competence) and pragmatic competence (functional and sociolinguistic competence).

### *Interlanguage Pragmatics*

Pragmatics has been defined by several scholars and in various ways. Mey (1993) defines pragmatics as “the societally necessary and consciously interactive dimension of the study of language” (p.315). Crystal (1997) 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 other participants in the act of communication” (p. 301). Mey (1993) and Crystal (1997) emphasized pragmatics as a “social interaction,” which underscore pragmatics not only as the action of producing (speaking, writing) but also with the effects that such actions have on their recipients. The effect, which is how recipients understand a particular action, is an important issue that extends the notion of pragmatics as an “act of communication” (Crystal, 1997), how language learners develop the ability to understand and perform action in a target language.

Leech (1983) provides the definition of pragmatics in two different terms: socio pragmatics and pragma linguistics. Socio pragmatics emphasizes socially appropriate language use. For instance, a socio pragmatically proficient language user knows the social rules for 'what you do, when and to whom' (Fraser *et al.*, 1981) in various social contexts, which relates with the taboos, mutual rights, obligations and conventional courses of actions in a given community (Thomas, 1983). Pragma linguistics, however, is concerned with the knowledge of linguistic strategies (convention of means) in order for implementing speech acts and the linguistic items (convention of form), which are necessary to express speakers' intentions (Clark, 1979).

As noted, pragmatics focuses on social interaction in which at least two participants are engaged in a joint activity as an act of communication, either within the same temporal or same spatial frame, following Thomas's (1983) description of pragmatics, as “meaning in interaction.” In the field of second language studies, pragmatics in L2 acquisition is referred to as *interlanguage* pragmatics, which investigates how L2 learners develop knowledge and the ability for the use of the pragmatic rules, conventions and practices of the target language (Kasper, 1998).

### *Pragmatic vs. Grammatical Awareness in L2 Acquisition*

Since Kasper and Schmidt (1996) conducted several studies about the development of pragmatic competence, numerous studies that focused on language acquisition have been published. However, a very limited number of studies have been done on the development of pragmatic awareness of L2 learners. Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnyei (1998) conducted research about L2 learners' perception of pragmatic and grammatical error at Indiana University in Bloomington. They created videotapes which contain twenty scenes: eight containing pragmatic errors in the final utterance, eight containing grammatical errors, and four containing correct final utterances. An ESL group in Indiana University and an EFL group in Hungary also participated in this study and were asked to find the pragmatically infelicitous items using severity-rating scales. The data were analyzed using mean and SD to compare the two groups. They found that ESL learners in the United States were more sensitive to pragmatic violations than a comparable the EFL learner group in Hungary. However, the EFL learners in Hungary perceived the grammatical errors to be more salient.

This difference can be explained as environment playing an important role in L2 development. In an EFL context, the learners tend to focus more on grammar rather than pragmatics due to the requirements of their respective examinations. On the other hand, ESL learners in the U.S. focus more on the knowledge of pragmatics because of the necessity to communicate as they manage their daily lives.

In addition, the authors, in their continuing studies on ESL and EFL learner's perception of pragmatic and grammatical knowledge, found that the ESL learners who had arrived only recently in the U.S. scored lower severity scores to the pragmatic errors than those who had spent a longer time here.

Later, the Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnyei (1998) study was replicated by Niezgodá and Röever (2001) with a group of EFL learners in the Czech Republic and ESL learners in Hawaii. They employed the same video clips and test materials as with the original study. But this study revealed an opposite result from Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnyei (1998). The EFL learners in the Czech Republic scored higher severity ratings to both the pragmatic and grammatical errors than the ESL participants in the U.S. Like the ESL students in the original study, the EFL learners in the Czech Republic were more aware of pragmatic infelicities than the ESL participants in the new study were and also perceived the errors to be more serious than did the learners in the United States.

One possible explanation for this discrepancy of the two studies could lie in the level of proficiency of the participants. The participants of Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnyei's (1998) study were relatively average level learners and the participants in Niezgodá and Röever's (2001) study were high-proficiency level learners who passed a number of difficult language examinations. Niezgodá and Röever (2001) intentionally selected a highly advanced group of Czech students that had already passed very rigorous language examinations and who were enrolled in an intensive English program. Then they compared these students to other ESL students from various backgrounds in Hawaii ranging from beginning to the advanced level learner. This study demonstrates that without the help of environmental factors in the target county, L2 learners can develop their pragmatic knowledge by expanding the chance of being exposed to target language in their own community.

In this way, both studies suggest that pragmatic and grammatical awareness are largely independent and that high levels of grammatical competence do not guarantee the equivalent level of pragmatic competence. The two studies represent the important roles of environment and proficiency in the development of L2-related awareness. Even in an EFL situation, which is relatively limited in terms of the amount and variety of authentic input, L2 learners can develop their pragmatic awareness like the Czech students. Also, the learners in an ESL situation can develop their pragmatic awareness relatively faster than those in an EFL situation with the help of communicative interaction with the environment.

#### *Elements of Development of Pragmatic Competence: Time of Stay and Proficiency*

As discussed, studies have shown that L2 learners' pragmatic competence does not have a positive or negative correlation with grammatical competence: it varies depending on the *time of stay* of L2 learners in the target language environment and their *proficiency* level (Olshtain and Blum-Kulka, 1985; Bouton, 1988, 1994; Cook and Liddicoat, 2002; Matsumura, 2003). Olshtain and Blum-Kulka (1985) conducted a study that examines whether a length of stay for L2 learners of Hebrew in the target environment affects the pragmatic judgment, compared to native speakers. They divided the L2 learners into three groups according to their length of stay in Israel: members of groups who stayed less than 2 years, for 2 to 10 years, and more than 10 years. They used eight scenarios which contain six possible apologies or requests. The participants were asked to assess the appropriateness of the six utterance options in variously given contexts. Those who had lived in Israel for more than 10 years did not show much difference in their answers with native speakers, whereas the participants who had lived in Israel less than 2 years showed significant difference from the answers of native speakers. Olshtain and Blum-Kulka (1985) argued that "changes over time of nonnatives' response patterns reflect a process of approximation of target norms" (1985, p.321).

Bouton (1988, 1994) also found that the time of stay may be significant to the development of pragmatic awareness of L2 learners in his study. He conducted a 25-item, multiple-choice exam that measured L2 learners' knowledge of conversation implicature. The test was administered to 375 non-native speakers as an ESL placement test along with a comparison group of 77 native speakers (NS) of American English. He found a significant difference between the L2 learners and the native speakers in their responses (Bouton, 1988). Seventeen months later, Bouton (1994) re-administered the test for a follow-up study to the same ESL group that had participated in the previous study and to those who had been on campus for 4 1/2 years. Also, he conducted the test with a group of native speakers for a comparison with the two groups of L2 learners.

In the result of this study, Bouton (1994) found that the responses of both groups, those who had been on campus for 4 1/2 years and those for 17 months, were different from the native speakers.

The learners who had spent 17 months in the target community showed significant improvement in the second test in their ability to identify correctly the conversation implicature, compared to the first test that was done as an ESL placement test. On the contrary, the learners in the group who had spent for 4 1/2 years in the target community did not show much difference from the native speakers in the questions of conversation implicature. Bouton (1994) claimed that the amount of time spent in the target environment positively correlates with language learners' pragmatic awareness regarding conversational implicature.

On the other hand, Cook and Liddicoat (2002) suggested that proficiency levels of L2 learners might result in the pragmatic awareness of requests of Australian English native speakers. As such, they employed questionnaire-contained descriptions of the request scenarios that contain four possible interpretations of the scenarios. The questionnaire focused on direct, conventionally indirect, and non-conventionally indirect requests. Cook and Liddicoat (2002) found that there were significant differences between the native speakers and the L2 learners in the interpretation of conventionally indirect and non-conventionally indirect requests. The native speakers identified correctly the meaning of indirect request with a higher frequency than the learners did. Besides, the low-proficiency learners interpreted a significantly lower number of direct requests correctly than the native speakers, while there was no significant difference between the native speakers and the high-proficiency learners. The group of high proficiency learners identified correctly the conventional and non-conventional indirect requests with a higher frequency than the low proficiency L2 learners. Cook and Liddicoat (2002) claimed that high language proficiency might bring about a pragmatic awareness of request utterances more than the group of low proficiency learners and it seems that direct requests may be the first request strategies with which L2 learners are familiar.

Similarly, Matsumura (2003) examined the relation between proficiency levels of L2 learners and their acquisition of pragmatic awareness as well. He investigated Japanese ESL students' perception in advice situations with the participants of 137 university-level Japanese learners of English. The data were collected in three intervals: from the time that they left Japan, one month after their arrival in Canada, and after four months of stay in Canada. In his analysis of the data, Matsumura found that the amount of exposure to the target language is a single factor in the development of pragmatic awareness of L2 learners, which means, those who had a greater exposure to English in Japan revealed superior command skills in their pragmatic awareness in their time in Canada. Regarding the learners' different proficiency, which was brought from their TOEFL scores, this study showed that the proficiency by itself does not have a significant effect on their pragmatic awareness development. Instead, those who have a high proficiency of English showed more opportunities to have been exposed to the target language community when they were in Japan. And those tendencies ultimately bring the consequences for them to have a greater amount of exposure to the target language community and to become more pragmatically competent as a result of a greater exposure to the target language. This study also suggested that exposure to the target language community and the levels of proficiency have a great potential for pragmatic development.

As it is shown in the studies above, Olshtain and Blum-Kulka (1985), Bouton (1988, 1994), Cook and Liddicoat (2002) and Matsumura (2003) have shown that there are two important factors in the acquisition of pragmatic awareness: the *time* spent in the L2 context, which is the amount of exposure, and the overall level of *proficiency* in the target language. Although L2 proficiency, time, and exposure do not automatically guarantee pragmatic knowledge awareness, they affect L2 learners' pragmatic knowledge development significantly.

Pragmatic competence is an area of communicative competence which contains discourse knowledge as well as sociolinguistic knowledge. The relation between pragmatic competence and grammatical competence has not been positively correlated with each other. The significant elements which affect the development of interlanguage pragmatic awareness are environment, language proficiency, length of stay, and exposure to the meaningful interaction in the target community. L2 learners who have high-proficiency in L2 made the opportunities of being exposed to the target community relatively easier than those who have low-proficiency in their L2 acquisition. Depending on the time of stay and the degree of exposure to the target community, their pragmatic competence varied.

### **Research Questions**

Based upon what has been found in previous research, I have formulated specific research questions to investigate the request strategies of nonnative Korean speakers and native Korean speakers.

1. Does the NNKS display a range of strategies in various contexts: for example, formal and informal strategies, which require them to make a request?
2. How different are an NNKS's utterances in terms of form and function as compared with a native Korean speaker?

For the next part, I will introduce a study, comparing and contrasting the pragmatic knowledge and the usage of a nonnative Korean speaker (NNKS) with that of a native Korean speaker (NKS). A Discourse Completion Task (DCT) was designed to elicit request strategies in various contexts ranging from formal to informal situations and the comparative analysis of the data was conducted in terms of the strategies of requests in their discourse performance for the task.

## Method

### Participants

The non-native Korean speaker (NNKS) informant was a twenty eight-year-old native English speaker. He has studied Korean for almost seven years and has visited Korea several times including two years of graduate study at a Korean university. His Korean language proficiency is highly advanced, and he has an abundant understanding of Korean culture and history. The other informant is a thirty five-year-old male, native Korean speaker (NKS) who was born and grew up in Korea. The two informants were given the Discourse Completion Task (DCT) via email with the seven situations of the DCT written in Korean and English to help the nonnative Korean learner understand the situation correctly. Both of them sent their answers back via email.

### Test Materials

Seven questions were designed for the DCT with each question designed to measure various formal or informal situations. Based on the two important social constraints about the participants' role relationship discussed by Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper (1989), the situations of the questions were developed by social distance (familiarity), whether they know each other [-SD] or are strangers [+SD], and the "dimensions of social dominance (social power)" based on the participant's social status, whether or not there is an imbalance of power [-power, =power, +power] between speaker and hearer (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989). When the speaker is of a lower status than the hearer is, it is [-power]; when at an equal status with the hearer, it is [=power]; and when at a higher status than the hearer, it is [+power]. For example, there exists a power imbalance between a student and a professor, whereas there is no difference between friends. The categorization of these discourse completion tasks is shown below (Table 1).

No.	Hearer	Situations	Social Distance	Social Power
1	Stranger	Informal	+SD	-
2	Friend	Informal	-SD	=
3	Professor	Formal	+SD	+
4	Professor	Formal	-SD	+
5	Friend's younger brother	Informal	-SD	-
6	Stranger	Informal	+SD	=
7	Stranger	Formal	+SD	+

**Table 1: Discourse Completion Task (DCT)**

### Data Analysis

The informants' responses were analyzed by their utterances to the request strategies: (1) opener, (2) supportive moves, and (3) request head acts opener following Blum-Kulka, et al (1989). Directness of their responses was analyzed for both formal and informal situations additionally.

1. Openers (titles, occupational title, address terms, and attention-getters)
2. Request Supportive Moves (peripheral elements that support the head act, such as grounder, preparatory, cost minimiser, gratitude, apology, compliment, and reward)
3. Request Head Acts (core of the request sequence, such as mood-derivable, want-statement, hedge performative, and statement of facts)

The detailed elements in each category of directiveness were classified by the strategies of the utterances they made (Table 2). The number of strategies they employed in each situation were counted and calculated by percentage (%). The treated data were presented in a tabular form and as a graph for interpretation.

Speech Acts	Strategies	Examples
Direct	Mood Derivable	Imperatives E.g. Clean up the kitchen.
		Want Statement E.g. I want you to clean up the kitchen.
	Hedged Performative E.g. I would like to ask you to clean up.	
Conventionally Indirect	Query-preparatory E.g. Can you clean up the kitchen for me?	Preparatory condition for the feasibility of the request
Non-conventionally Indirect	Statement of Facts	Strong hint E.g. What a mess!

**Table 2: Request Strategies of Varying Directiveness Level (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989)**

### Findings

The utterances of the two informants, NNKS and NKS, in each situation of DCT in Table 1 exhibited interesting results. The syntactic features, i.e., sentence structure, vocabulary selection, and grammar rules of the NNKS were in a highly advanced level. Since this task was provided in a written form, it was not possible to examine his phonological features; however, the syntactic and morphological features he produced for each situation were near-native. Hardly were there any grammatical mistakes. In order to examine and compare the pragmatic features of the NNKS with the NKS in terms of request strategies they employed, a count of was made of the number of their different strategies and utterances (Table 3).

Speech Acts	Example	Directiveness of request	Percentage (%)	
			NNKS	NKS
Opener	Title		85.7	57.1
	Other forms of Attention-getter		28.6	57.1
Supportive Moves	Grounder		57.1	71.4
	Preparator		28.6	0.0
	Cost Minimizer		14.3	28.6
	Gratitude		57.1	0.0
	Apology		14.3	28.6
	Compliment		14.3	14.3
Request Head Acts	Reward		14.3	0.0
	Mood Derivable		Direct	14.3
	Want Statement	Direct	14.3	28.6
	Hedge Performative	Direct	0.0	14.3
	Query-preparatory	Conventionally Indirect	71.4	57.1
	Statement of Facts	Indirect	14.3	0.0

**Table 3: Request Strategies of NKS/NNKS**

As shown in Table 3, both the NNKS and the NKS used an opener before they made specific requests. In most cases, the NNKS leaned on calling the name or occupational *title* of the illocutioner, whereas the NKS used other forms for attention-getter, such as '*Jeo...* (Well)', or '*Sille-ham-ni-da* (Excuse me)' in a similar ratio to initiate the request acts.

Before they expressed their requests, both participants used supportive elements to justify their requests or provide detailed information for their requests, such as *grounder* (reason for their request), *preparatory* (announcement of a request, asking about the availability), *apology*, *gratitude*, *compliment* and *cost minimiser* (an attempt to reduce imposition upon the hearer by the request).

The strategies that the NNKS employed for supporting his requests were various as it is shown in Figure 1. He used 57.1% of both *grounder* and *gratitude* for all situations, 28.6% of *preparatory*, and 14.3% each of *cost minimiser*, *apology*, *compliment*, and *reward*. It is worthy of note that the ratio of *gratitude* is exceedingly high, compared to the NKS; also, it seems that the NNKS was more polite, careful and indirect when he produced his utterances because he has experienced Korean culture. It seems that he assumed Korean culture to be relatively more hierarchical, indirect, and formalistic than American culture. Based on his belief and respect of Korean culture, he acted more politely by being indirect in his request, rather than making a direct request.

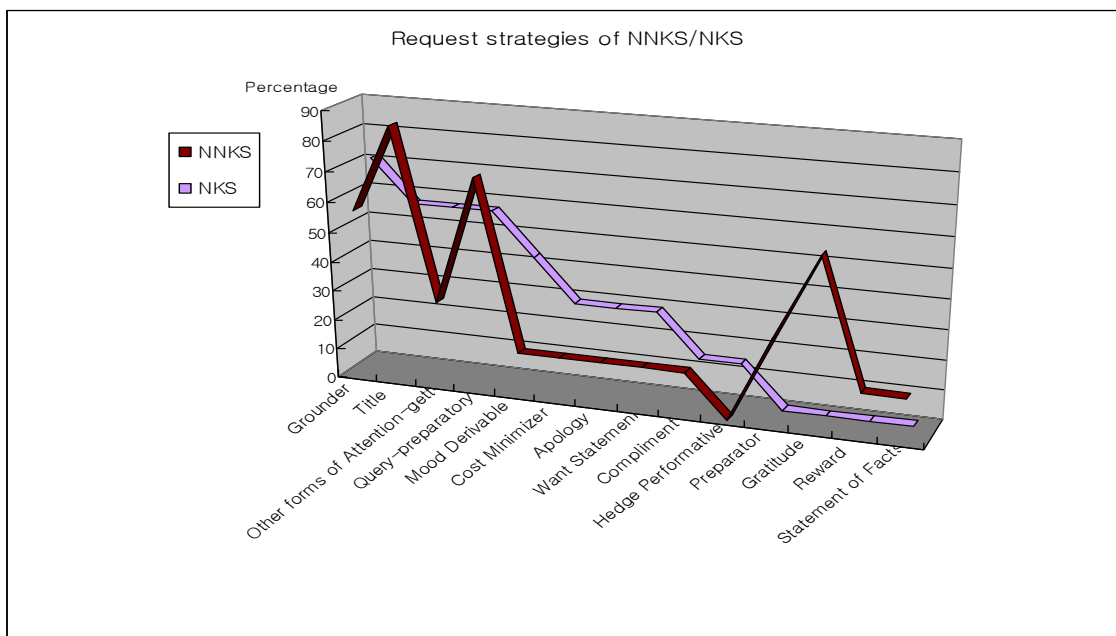


Figure 1: Request Strategies (Supportive moves) of NNKS/NKS

In contrast, the responses of the NKS showed a relatively high percentage of *grounder* at 71.4% in his supportive moves, which shows a different pattern from NNKS’s utterances. *Cost minimisers* and *apologies* were shown at 28.6 %, which is somewhat higher than those of the NNKS. Both participants employed *grounder* as the most frequent strategies for supportive moves. However, unlike the NKS, the NNKS employed *gratitude* with the same percentage as *grounder*, 57.1%. Whereas the NKS employed *grounder* (71.4%), *cost minimiser* (28.6 %), and *apologies* (28.6%), the NNKS employed *grounder* (57.1 %) and *gratitude* (57.1%). It seems that the NNKS employed *gratitude* more than the NKS employed to be polite and respectful. Additionally, the NNKS employed 28.6% of preparatory while the NKS did not employ this at all. Also, the NNKS employed more variety of supportive moves for request acts than the NKS.

The ratio of request head acts that the NKS produced is different from the NNKS. More precisely, the NKS produced ratio of direct strategy to conventionally indirect strategy to non-conventionally indirect strategy of the NKS is 6:4:0 whereas the NNKS produced ratio is 2:5:1 (Table 4).

Request Strategy	NNKS	NKS
Direct Strategy	2	6
Conventionally Indirect Strategy	5	4
Non-conventionally Indirect Strategy	1	0

Table 4: The Ratio of Request Strategies of the NKS and the NNKS

As was shown in Table 3, both the NNKS and the NKS showed a high percentage of the use of Query-preparatory in their request strategies. But interestingly, the percentage of direct requests of the NNKS was much lower than the NKS. It seems that the NNKS, who is familiar with Korean culture, made more polite requests by using indirect strategies in his requests, rather than using direct strategies as did the NKS. Both the NNKS and the NKS showed a high percentage of using Query-preparatory strategy among the strategies (NNKS : NKS = 71.4 % : 57.1 %).

The percentage of direct strategies of the NKS was exceedingly higher than those of the NNKS. And NNKS showed a strong preference of indirect request strategies to direct request strategies where as the NKS did not.

As has been noted, the advanced level of the NNKS showed the tendency of making more polite and indirect request strategies with more of a variety of supportive moves due to his understanding of Korean culture and his Korean language proficiency. It seems that his understanding of Korean culture and language is as collective and more hierarchical than the U.S., and his foreignness is represented by the greater extent of using polite expressions and indirect request strategies. On the contrary, the NKS made his requests more concise and succinct to convey his intention, and his percentage of using *gratitude* or calling the *title* for opening his utterances was relatively lower than those of the NNKS.

### ***Difference between Formal and Informal Situations***

In order to examine the difference of the request strategies between NNKS and NKS, the situations of DCT were divided into two categories: Formal (Situations 3, 4, 7) and Informal (Situations 1, 2, 5, 6) according to 'social distance' and 'power'. (Table 5)

Speech Acts	Example	Informal		Formal	
		NNKS (%)	NKS (%)	NNKS (%)	NKS (%)
Opener	Title	75	50	100	66.7
	Other forms of Attention-getter	50	75	0	33.3
Supportive Moves	Grounder	75	75	33.3	66.7
	Preparator	50	0	0	0
	Cost Minimiser	25	25	0	33.3
	Gratitude	75	0	33.3	0
	Apology	0	50	33.3	0
	Compliment	0	0	33.3	33.3
	Reward	25	0	0	0
Request Head Acts	Mood Derivable	25	75	0	0
	Want Statement	0	0	33.3	66.7
	Hedge Performative	0	0	0	33.3
	Query-preparatory	75	25	66.7	100
	Statement of Facts	0	0	33.3	0

**Table 5: Number of Use and Percentage of Request Strategies in Formal/Informal Situations**

In formal situations, while the NKS used *grounder* (66.7%) and *cost minimiser* (33.3%) more than those of NNKS for his supportive moves, the NNKS used *gratitude* (33.3%) and *apology* (33.3%) with a similar percentage of other strategies for his supportive moves. In the request head act strategy, whereas the NKS used both direct ('want statement' and 'hedge performative') and indirect strategies ('query-preparatory') in a similar rate, the NNKS's use of strategies was focused more on indirect strategies ('query-preparatory' and 'statement of facts') than the direct strategies (Figure 2).



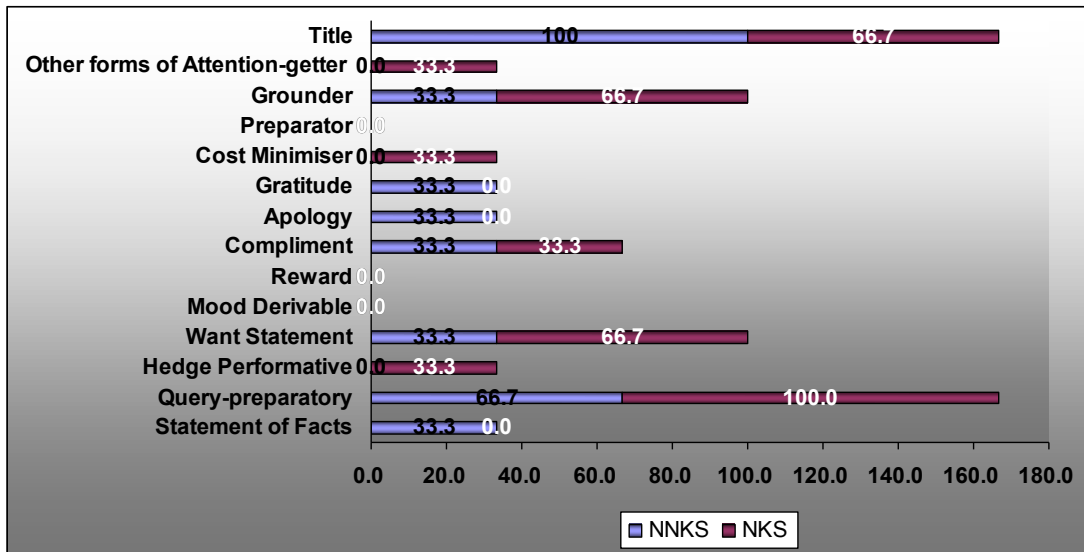


Figure 2: Speech Acts (Request) in Formal Situation

In informal situations, the NNKS exhibited a wider range of strategies for his supportive moves than the NKS. As it is shown in Table 5 and Figure 3, whereas the NKS made direct requests without using *preparators*, such as, *Jeo, Jilmun-it-seo-yo* (Well, I have a question), the NNKS, even in informal situations, frequently used indirect and circumlocution requests, rather than direct request strategies. In particular, the use of *gratitude* (75%) by the NNKS in his supportive moves and ‘Query-preparatory’ (indirect strategy) (75%) in his request head acts took the highest percentage of his request strategies. Regardless of the formality of the situations, the NNKS employed abundant supportive moves before making requests; his request head acts were mostly indirect. In contrast, the NKS’s request strategies were more succinct and differed from formal and informal situations. His request head acts were more direct than those of the NNKS and when it was an informal situation; his request strategies were briefer than for formal situations.

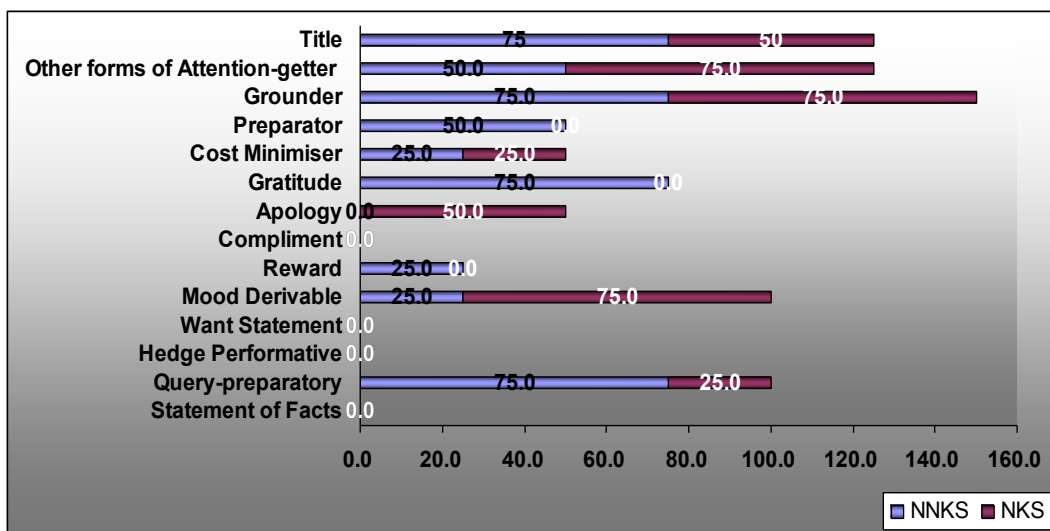


Figure 3: Speech Acts (Request) in Informal Situation

As has been discussed so far, the NNKS and the NKS exhibited different uses of strategies for making requests. It is interesting to see the differences between an L2 learner and a native speaker in their employment of different strategies in various socio-cultural situations based on their pragmatic knowledge. With respect to the written

form, the utterances of NNKS were almost perfect and near-native. But the strategies he employed showed several differences from the NKS. For the NNKS, regardless of formal or informal situations, he used a variety of supportive moves such as *grounders*, *apology*, *gratitude*, etc. before making a request, and he employed indirect request strategies for most of his request head acts. On the other hand, the NKS made brief and succinct requests in both formal and informal situations. In fact, the NKS made more succinct and more direct requests in informal situations than formal situations. But the NNKS used almost the same request strategies that are abundant supportive moves and indirect requests in both formal and informal situations. These findings can be interpreted that L2 learners are more conscious of their utterances in terms of being polite, whether it is a formal or an informal situation, even for the nonnative speaker of highly advanced proficiency level. It seems that his perception of Korean language and culture is oriented to his own culture. Thus, the use of his request strategies was represented differently from those of the native Korean speaker.

### **Discussion**

During the last decades, along with the popularity of research about second language acquisition, the interest of inter language research has increased. Due to the influence of standardized, cognitive approaches to language studies, research about pragmalinguistics and interlanguage pragmatics was done less than for other fields of language acquisition. However, considering language as a social interaction and as an act of communication, inter language pragmatics, pragmatic awareness, and pragmatic transferability should not be neglected from the attention of linguists and/or language educators.

Pragmatic competence is an area of communicative competence, which contains discourse knowledge as well as sociolinguistic knowledge (Dendrinos, 2006). The relation between pragmatic competence and grammatical competence has not been correlated with each other. The significant elements that affect the development of interlanguage pragmatic awareness are environment, language proficiency, length of stay, and exposure to the meaningful interaction in the target community. L2 learners who have high-proficiency made the opportunities of being exposed to the target community relatively easier than those who have low-proficiency in their L2 acquisition.

Pragmatic competence should be understood as “interactional competence,” which means, being created by all participants in social interaction (Kramsch, 1986). Kramsch (1986) argued that successful interaction presupposed not only a shared knowledge of the world, the reference to a common external context of communication, but also the construction of a shared internal context or “sphere of *intersubjectivity* that is built through the collaborative efforts of the interactional partners” (p.367). Interactional competence is how participants employ linguistic and interactional resources (turn-taking, repair, topic change) mutually and reciprocally in a particular discursive practice. It comprises a descriptive framework of the socio-cultural characteristics of discursive practices and the interactional processes by which discursive practices are co-constructed by participants (Young, 2000). In this regard, language competence should be understood in its moment-by moment talk-in-interactions within the same temporal and spatial frame. Exploring the multidimensional stages of L2 development, which reveal the various discourse strategies and the cultural identities of the interactants will be the essential step to understand the nature of L2 learners and their developmental processes.

### **References**

- Bachman, L.F., & Palmer, A. (1996). *Language testing in practice*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Bardovi-Harlig, K., & Dorneyi, Z. (1998). Do language learners recognize pragmatic violations? Pragmatic vs. grammatical awareness in instructed L2 learning. *TESOL Quarterly*, 32, 233-259.
- Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper (1989). *Cross-Cultural Pragmatics: Requests and Apologies*. New Jersey: Ablex Publishing Corporation.
- Bouton, L.F. (1988). A cross-cultural study of ability to interpret implicatures in English. *World Englishes*, 17, 183-196.
- Bouton, L.F. (1994). Conversational implicature in a second language learned slowly when not deliberately taught. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 22, 157-167.
- Byon, A. S. (2006). Developing KFL Students' Pragmatic Awareness of Korean Speech Acts: The Use of Discourse Completion Tasks. *Language Awareness*, 15 (4), 244-263.

- Canale, M. (1983). From communicative competence to communicative language pedagogy. In J. Richards, & R. Schmidt (Eds.), *Language and Communication* (pp.2-27). London: Longman.
- Canale, M., & Swain, M. (1980). Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing. *Applied Linguistics*, 1, 1-47.
- Clark, H.H. (1979). Responding to indirect speech acts. *Cognitive Psychology* 11, 430-477.
- Cook, M., & Liddicoat, A.J. (2002). The development of comprehension in interlanguage pragmatics: The case of request strategies in English. *Australian Review of Applied Linguistics*, 25(1), 19-39.
- Crystal, D. (1997). *A dictionary of linguistics and phonetics*. Oxford: Basil Blackwell.
- Dendrinos, B. (2006). Mediation in Communication, Language Teaching and Testing, *Journal of Applied Linguistics*, 22, 9-35.
- Farch, K. & Kasper, G. (1989). Internal and external modification in interlanguage request realization. In S. Blum-Kulka, J. House & G. Kasper (Eds.), *Cross-cultural pragmatics: Requests and apologies*. (pp. 221-247). Norwood, NJ: Ablex.
- Huth, T. (2006). Negotiating structure and culture; L2 learners' realization of L2 `compliment-response sequences in talk-in-interaction. *Journal of Pragmatics* (38): 2025-2050.
- Hymes, D. (1972). On communicative competence. In J. Pride, & J. Holmes (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics: Selected readings* (pp.269-293). Harmondsworth: Penguin.
- Kasper, G. (1992). Pragmatic transfer. *Second Language Research*, 8, 203-231.
- Kasper, G. (1998). Interlanguage pragmatics. In H. Byrnes (Ed.), *Learning foreign and second languages* (pp.183-208). New York: The Modern Language Association of America.
- Kasper, G. & Blum-Kulka, S. (eds.) (1993). *Interlanguage Pragmatics*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Kasper, G. & Schmidt, R. (1996). Developmental issues interlanguage pragmatics. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 18, 149-169.
- Kasper, G. & Rose, K.R. (2002). *Pragmatic development in a second language*. Malden, MA: Blackwell.
- Kasper, G. (1998). Interlanguage pragmatics. In H. Byrnes (Ed.), *Learning foreign and second languages* (pp.183-208). New York: The Modern Language Association of America.
- Koike, D.A. (1996). Transfer of pragmatic competence and suggestions in Spanish foreign language learning. In S.M. Gass & J. Neu (Eds.), *Speech acts across cultures* (Vol. 11, pp. 257-281). Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.
- Kramsch (1986). From language proficiency to interactional competence. *The Modern Language Journal*, 70, 366-372.
- Leech, G. (1983). *Principles of Pragmatics*. London: Longman.
- Matsumura, S. (2003). Modelling the relationship among inter language pragmatic development, L2 proficiency, and exposure to L2. *Applied Linguistics*. 24(4), 465-491.
- Mey, J.L. (1993). *Pragmatics*. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Niezgoda, K., & Röever, C. (2001). Pragmatic and grammatical awareness: A function of the learning environment? In Rose, K.R., & Kasper, G. (Eds.), *Pragmatics in Language Teaching*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Olshtain, E., & Blum-Kulka, S. (1985). Degree of approximation: Nonnative reactions to native speech act behavior. In S.M. Gass & C.G. Madden (Eds.), *Input in second language acquisition* (pp.303-325). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Olshtain, E., & Blum-Kulka, S. (1985). Cross cultural pragmatics and the testing of communicative competence. *Language Testing*, 2(1). 16-30.
- Thomas, J. (1983). Cross-cultural pragmatic failure. *Applied Linguistics*, 4, 91-112.
- Young, R. (2000). *Interactional competence: Challenges for validity*. Paper presented at the American Association for Applied Linguistics, Valcouver, B.C.

**Appendix 1: Discourse Completion Task (DCT)<sup>1</sup>**

아래의 상황을 잘 읽고, 어떻게 대답할 것인지 한국어로 적어주시기 바랍니다. 분량은 제한 없으며 원하는 만큼 충분히 답해주시기 바랍니다. Please read each situation and write what you would say in a normal conversation in Korean.

**상황 1**

당신은 대학 클럽에서 회장을 맡고 있습니다. 당신은 클럽의 다른 멤버인 정훈의 전화번호가 필요합니다. 당신은 당신 옆에 앉아있는, 신입생으로 보이는 처음 보는 새 멤버가 혹시 정훈의 전화번호를 알지 않을까 하고, 그에게 정훈의 전화번호를 물어보고자 합니다. 어떻게 물어보시겠습니까?

**Situation 1 (-SP +SD)**

You are the president of a campus club and you need to get the phone number of Jung Hoon, another member of the club. You think that a new member (who seems to be a newcomer in your club and whom you do not know personally) sitting next to you may know Jung Hoon's number. So, you decide to ask the new member Jung Hoon's phone number. How would you ask?

**상황 2**

당신은 당신과 가장 친한 친구는 대학내 수영클럽의 멤버입니다. 버스를 타고 해변에 도착했습니다. 당신의 친구가 당신 옆에 앉아서 선크림을 바르는 것을 보고, 당신도 바르고자 하나, 선크림을 잊고 가져오지 않은 것이 생각났습니다. 친구에게 빌려달라고 하고 싶습니다. 어떻게 이야기하시겠습니까?

**Situation 2 (=SP -SD)**

You and your best friend are members of the college swimming club. You are riding the bus and have just arrived at the beach. You see that your best friend, seated next to you, is applying sunscreen lotion. You want to use that lotion because you have forgotten to bring your own. You turn to your best friend. How would you ask?

**상황 3**

당신이 졸업하려면 꼭 들어야만 하는 수업이 이미 꽉 찹니다. 당신은 잘 모르는 교수님을 찾아가서 수업을 듣도록 허락해달라고 부탁하려고 합니다. 교수님에게 가서 어떻게 부탁하시겠습니까?

**Situation 3 (+SP +SD)**

You really have to take this course in order to graduate, but you found out that the course is already closed. So, you decide to ask the professor, whom you do not know personally, to allow you to take this course. What would you say to get this professor to grant you permission to participate in this course?

**상황 4**

당신은 김교수님의 수업을 청강하고 싶습니다. 당신은 박교수님의 수업을 이미 두 번이나 들었고, 그 분과 개인적으로 잘 아는 사이입니다. 그래서 수업청강에 대한 교수님의 허락을 받으려고 합니다. 어떻게 말씀하시겠습니까?

**Situation 4 (+SP -SD)**

You are very much interested in auditing a class taught by Professor Kim. You already have taken two classes from Professor Park, and you know him personally very well. So you decide to ask this professor's permission to audit. What would you say to get this professor to allow you to audit this class?

---

<sup>1</sup> Some of the situations for the questions in this DCT were quoted from Byon (2006).

상황 5:

당신의 룸메이트는 당신과 가장 친한 친구의 동생입니다. 페이지 마감이 내일인데, 당신의 컴퓨터가 바이러스로 인해 고장이 났습니다. 당신은 룸메이트에게 오늘 밤 컴퓨터를 빌려줄 수 있는지 물어보려고 합니다. 어떻게 물어보시겠습니까?

**Situation 5 (-SP -SD)**

Your roommate is your best friend's younger sibling, who is your high school junior. Your computer is out of order because of a virus, but you have a paper due tomorrow. You decide to ask your roommate whether you can borrow his computer tonight. What would you say to get your roommate to do this favour for you?

상황 6

당신은 학교 기숙사에 살고 있는 친구를 방문하려고 합니다. 지금 당신은 학교 캠퍼스 안에 있습니다. 그러나 기숙사가 어디 있는 지 잘 모르겠습니다. 지나는 학생에게 도서관의 위치를 물어보려고 합니다. 어떻게 물어보시겠습니까?

**Situation 6 (=SP +SD)**

You are going to visit your friend, who lives in the college dormitory. You are on campus, but don't know where the dorm is. You are going to ask a student, who is passing by, for the location of the dorm. How will you ask the student?

상황 7

당신은 지금 거리에서 친구를 기다리고 있습니다. 당신은 약속장소를 착각하여 현재 다른 장소에 와 있음이 생각났습니다. 친구에게 얼른 가겠다고 전화하려고 하는데, 휴대폰을 가져오지 않았고, 주변에 공중전화도 없습니다. 당신은 길에서 전화하고 있는 한 신사를 보고 전화를 빌려달라고 부탁하려고 합니다. 어떻게 물어보시겠습니까?

**Situation 7 (+SP +SD)**

You are waiting for your friend on the street. You suddenly realized that you misunderstood the place you were supposed to meet your friend. You decide to make a phone call to your friend to let him know that you will be there in a short time. But you have no cellular phone and there is no public booth around the area. You decide to ask a man talking on his cellular phone on the street to use his phone. What will you ask the man?