

2008-04-01

The Effects of Correction Feedback Techniques on EFL Learners's Pragmatic Production and Confidence

Pajaree Nipaspong

Sumalee Chinokul

Follow this and additional works at: <https://digital.car.chula.ac.th/pasaa>



Part of the [Reading and Language Commons](#)

Recommended Citation

Nipaspong, Pajaree and Chinokul, Sumalee (2008) "The Effects of Correction Feedback Techniques on EFL Learners's Pragmatic Production and Confidence," *PASAA*: Vol. 42: Iss. 1, Article 3.

DOI: 10.58837/CHULA.PASAA.42.1.3

Available at: <https://digital.car.chula.ac.th/pasaa/vol42/iss1/3>

This Original Article is brought to you for free and open access by the Chulalongkorn Journal Online (CUJO) at Chula Digital Collections. It has been accepted for inclusion in PASAA by an authorized editor of Chula Digital Collections. For more information, please contact ChulaDC@car.chula.ac.th.

The Effects of Corrective Feedback Techniques on EFL Learners' Pragmatic Production and Confidence

Pajaree Nipaspong
Sumalee Chinokul

Chulalongkorn University, Thailand
Email: pajaree.np@gmail.com

Abstract

This paper reports on the effectiveness of explicit feedback and prompts in developing EFL learners' pragmatically appropriate refusal production and level of confidence. The study included 39 participants with two experimental groups and one control group. After the ten-week treatment, results from the oral refusal production tests and the rating scales revealed the effectiveness of prompts over explicit feedback in helping learners improve their refusal production and confidence. However, the control group receiving delayed feedback recorded the greatest confidence improvement, but the least refusal production gain. The key factors leading to the advantages of prompts may result from its provision of more opportunities for uptake and its unobtrusive rejection of learners' error.

Keywords corrective feedback, prompts, explicit feedback, pragmatic production, refusals, confidence

I am grateful to Roy Lyster for his insightful suggestions and valuable feedback on the dissertation research on which this study is based. This research was supported by a grant from The 90th Anniversary of Chulalongkorn University Fund.

Introduction

Over the past fifty years, the notion of the role of corrective feedback in language learning has substantially changed. In the era of audio-lingual teaching method in 1950s to 1960s, learner errors were regarded as a deficiency that should be avoided. Until the late 1970's with the introduction of communicative language learning (CLT) and Krashen's (1985) comprehensible input hypothesis, the role of form-focused instruction and corrective feedback became inferior. The focus of language learning was on meaning and fluency, while learner errors were perceived as part of the natural learning process and would diminish over time. Despite the CLT's great influence on L2 teaching world-wide, studies on its effectiveness steadily reported students' shortcomings of accuracy in their productive skills. This signified the insufficiency of the teaching method without any attention to forms. Swain (1985) argued that learner production of modified output is necessary for second language mastery, and may result from ample opportunities for output and the provision of useful and consistent feedback from teachers and peers. Gass (1988, cited in Lyster 1998a) further supported Swain suggesting that without direct or frequent negative evidence in the input, fossilization might occur.

Not until Schmidt (1990) proposed the *Noticing Hypothesis* did the concept of corrective feedback became widely interested. The Noticing Hypothesis emphasizes the importance to draw learners' attention to forms, and in order to do so, learners have to notice the linguistic elements presented on the surface structures. Following Schmidt (1990, 2001), learning requires awareness at the level of noticing, and what the learners notice at the input is what becomes the intake for said learning. In this sense, Schmidt (1993, cited in Martinez-Flor, 2004: 94) explains that input features have to be noticed in order for them to be acquired. The Noticing Hypothesis influences the concept of corrective feedback in that the effective feedback type should make the learner notice the mismatches between the target and non target form, and attract the learner's attention to the reformulation.

The Role of Corrective Feedback in L2 Pragmatic Development

Inspired by the Noticing Hypothesis, repeated studies have been performed to examine the effects of corrective feedback on L2 grammatical development (e.g. DeKeyser, 1993; Doughty & Varela, 1998; Long, Inagaki, & Ortega, 1998; Muranoi, 2000; Lyster, 2004; Ammar & Spada, 2006; Ellis, Loewen, & Edam, 2006) while the studies on the role of corrective feedback in interlanguage pragmatic acquisition seem to be neglected. Several studies on teaching pragmatics investigated the effects of explicit and implicit teaching by including corrective feedback as a part of the instructional methods (e.g. House, 1996; Rose & Ng, 2001; Takahashi, 2001; Tateyama, 2001) whereas only a few have explored learners' acquisition of pragmatic competence in relation to the corrective feedback alone. Among the very few studies of this trait, Fukuya and Zhang (2002) examined the effects of *recasts* (teacher's provision of positive evidence (the target form) immediately after learner's erroneous utterance) on EFL learners' requests production and confidence when making English requests. Fourteen role plays were carried out during seven 50-minute sessions on seven consecutive days. Results from the discourse completion post-test showed that the treatment group outperformed the control group in their use of target request forms. However, both groups' responses to the rating scale demonstrated that recasts did not influence learners' confidence in making requests. Instead, the learners' confidence might have been improved due to the interaction effect of the role plays they performed. The repeated chances in performing role plays helped them build up their confidence when interacting with teachers and peers. However, the instructional intervention design, that comprised merely students role-play and the researchers' recasts, may yield the interruption of the communication flow. This is because the recasts employed in this study vary considerably in length depending on learners' types of error (inaccurate or inappropriate). Some recasts regarding learners' inappropriate request forms were the replacement of the whole original utterance.

The effects of recasts in pragmatic development were re-examined in Koike and Pearson's (2005) study. However, the operational definition of recasts in this study was different from

that of Fukuya and Zhang. Koike and Pearson examined the effectiveness of explicit or implicit pre-instruction, as well as explicit or implicit feedback on teaching Spanish speech act of suggestions. In this study, explicit feedback was operationalized as "question recasts" while implicit feedback was simply the statement showing that the teacher did not understand (e.g. What was that?). The study compared the effects of four instructional conditions and one control group. The four instructional conditions involved: 1) explicit pre-instruction and explicit feedback, 2) explicit pre-instruction and implicit feedback, 3) implicit pre-instruction and explicit feedback, and 4) implicit pre-instruction and implicit feedback. All four experiment groups saw three sample dialogues and listened to the instructor reading them before completing the tasks. The tests comprised a multiple choice test and an open-ended writing task. Results from the post-test and the delayed-post test indicated that the group of explicit pre-instruction and explicit feedback performed significantly better than other groups in multiple choice items, while the group with implicit pre-instruction and implicit feedback significantly outperformed the others in the open-ended dialogue tasks. The researchers explained the findings as; explicit and implicit instruction and feedback may perform different roles in helping learners develop pragmatic competence. Explicit instruction and feedback, especially in the form of question recasts, effectively helped learners read, interpret and understand the use of the target speech act while implicit instruction and feedback may help them produce appropriate pragmatic utterances.

However, as cautioned by the researchers, the findings should be interpreted together with some design limitations regarding the short period of the treatment (60 minutes), the insufficient practice for the learners and the lack of reliability measurement between the post-test and the pre- and delayed post test which impedes the valid claims of the research results. Furthermore, one may argue the operationalization of explicit feedback in this study, as defined as *question recasts*, that teachers provided the correct answers after the learners' non-target utterances, and also made some comment on why such answers were the most appropriate. This definition of question recasts was likely to be the combination of two feedback techniques, namely

recasts and *metalinguistic information*, and thus cannot represent the precise effects of recasts.

Among the small number of studies in the role of feedback in teaching pragmatics, the findings agree in the lack of teacher's attention in giving appropriate feedback to facilitate learners' pragmatic development (Martinez-Flor, 2004). According to Washburn (2001), explicit feedback on pragmatics in conversational interaction is usually inexistent or, if given, rarely direct, especially among adults. This finding makes L2 pragmatics learning especially difficult for learners since they are not made aware of their pragmalinguistic or sociopragmatic failures. Alcon and Codina (2002, cited in Martinez, 2004) also pointed out a lack of appropriate feedback on the part of the teacher, and suggested the need for studying *the effect* of direct and indirect feedback on learners' pragmatic development. Additionally, the existing studies on corrective feedback in teaching pragmatics focused only on recasts while other interactive feedback techniques have not been explored. This research gap motivated the researcher to examine *the effects* of different corrective feedback techniques on learners' pragmatic production focusing on the speech act of refusals. The study reported in this paper is a part of the main study on *The EYfects of Types of Corrective Feedback on Students, Oral Pragmatic Competence on the Use of Refusals*. The research questions regarding this session are:

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

The present study

Context of study

The context of the present study is in an EFL course for undergraduate students in Thailand. The present study was

conducted as a complementary part of English Preparation 1, the required English grammar course for all first year English majors from Silpakorn University's Faculty of Archaeology in Bangkok. Students who enrolled in the study were informed of the present research project and signed the consent form to participate in the study. However, at the beginning of the class, they were not informed of the kind of corrective feedback they would receive in the upcoming 10 weeks in order to avoid any prepared mind-set effects. The 90-minute sessions met once a week for 10 weeks, totaling 18 hours.

Population and samples

The population in this research was first-year English-major students of the faculty. The subjects were 39 English-major students who volunteered to participate in the study. All subjects have been studying English as part of their compulsory education for at least ten years. Their English proficiency levels span from lower-intermediate to higher-intermediate.

Research Design

This study comprised two experimental groups and one control group. The first experimental group received prompts as treatment, whereas the second was treated by explicit feedback after learners' mistakes. Regarding the control group, it would constrain the ethical issue when the study was done in actual classrooms without any kinds of corrective feedback. For this reason, the control group in this study was designed to receive delayed feedback which the instructor collected from the learners' frequent mistakes and provided explicit correction at the end of each class. The delayed feedback can be considered a controlled behavior due to its features shown in Table 1.

Table 1: Features of the experimental and the control group

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

As can be seen from Table 1, the two distinctive features governing the character of each feedback technique are the matter of time (the immediate response to the error) and the learners' opportunity to do self-generated repair. While prompts comprise both of these features explicit feedback includes only the immediate time, but no opportunity for self-repair, as it provides positive evidence (the correct answer) right away. The delay feedback, on the other hand, provides delayed feedback by means of explicit correction. Then, because it lacks these two elements it can thereby be considered a controlled manipulation.

The subjects were divided into two experimental groups and one control group. Each group comprised 13 subjects which pair-matched their scores on the refusal production pre-test. One week before the course started the subjects were required to do the refusal production pre-test. The immediate post-test comprising the oral refusal test and two five-point rating scales to assess the learners' level of confidence was conducted one week after the 10-week teaching period. The design that the confidence rating scales were conducted only after the treatment was due to the results from the pilot study. As shown in the pilot use of the instruments, the learners rated their level of confidence in their refusal production in a five-point rating scale as high (level 4). Then, they participated in the 30-minute tutoring session before rating their level of confidence again. Seven from a group of ten learners rated at the same level as in the first rating. However, they admitted that their confidence did

improve, but it was still in the high level (level 4). Instead, they would like to change their level of confidence rated before the tutoring session because at that time they did not know much about refusal expressions, so they thought that how they performed at the beginning was good enough. Results from the pilot study revealed the fact that level of confidence is totally subjective and greatly varies depending on individual characteristics such as personality and experience in L2. Since it is not feasible to control individual difference in self-esteem, a possible way to control the differences may be the provision of knowledge before the implementation of the self-rating assessment so that the subjects would rate their confidence level based on the same background knowledge. As a result, the subjects in the actual study were required to listen to the tape record of their refusal production, which were made on the pre-test and the post-test, one at a time. Then, they had to rate their level of confidence in the quality of each refusal production by responding to the five-point rating scales.

Instructional Intervention

A set of conventional refusal expressions (Appendix A) was selected as the target expressions. The teaching materials specially developed for this study consisted of 10 lessons covering 6 speech acts (refusal, invitation, request, offer, suggestion, and advice). The lessons were prepared in this order so that the teacher, employing various activities, can trigger the learners' refusals to various initiating acts without making them feel overburdened with it. During the 10-week course the three groups were exposed to the same instructor, lesson plans and teaching materials, but different types of corrective feedback. As the study aimed to examine the effects of corrective feedback on learners' pragmatic production, it was necessary for the teacher to give corrective feedback to learners' errors regarding both the correctness and the appropriateness of the selected form. For this reason, the definition of explicit feedback employed in this study includes explicit correction plus 'metalinguistic' or 'sociopragmatic information' which means the provision of either grammatical or sociopragmatic metalanguage referring to the nature of the errors (e.g. You should say 'I had booked it'. It's past perfect tense.). Prompts, on the other hand,

were operationalized as a set of three corrective feedback moves; *elicitation*, *repetition* and *metalinguistic cues*. These techniques can be used either separately or in combination to help learners discover the answers by themselves. The conceptual framework for giving feedback employed in this study was adapted from the recast framework developed by Fukuya and Zhang (2002). Accordingly, students' utterances can be classified into four types; Type I: appropriate usage/ correct form; Type II: appropriate usage/ incorrect form; Type III: inappropriate usage/ correct form; and Type IV: inappropriate usage/incorrect form as presented in Table 2.

Table 2: The Conceptual Framework for Giving Feedback

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

The target form in Type I utterance will be ignored from giving corrective feedback. The remaining three types will be treated either by explicit correction or by prompts.

Examples of Explicit Correction

Error type II: Refusing a colleagues invitation.

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

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

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

Error type III: Refusing a boss's request.

S1: I'm looking for someone to arrange the meeting room this evening. Could you do that?

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

T: You may make it more polite by saying "*It! love to, but I've a dentists appointment...*"

Examples of Prompts

Error type II: Refusing a colleagues invitation.

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

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

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

Error type III: Refusing a boss's request.

S1: I'm looking for someone to arrange the meeting room this evening. Could you do that?

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

T: Can you make "*I can't help you today*" softer? (*metalinguistic clues+elicitation*)

Data Collection and Analyses

The subjects' refusal production was measured using the oral production tests, which were the timed speaking tests conducted in a language laboratory. The subjects were required to make oral refusals to various situations given, and their responses were automatically tape-recorded. The tests were developed in two paralleled versions; one for the pre- and the other for the post-test. Each version included twelve oral production tasks comprising eight different refusal situations and four distracters. The refusal situations were constructed according to two factors: 1) the four initiating acts of refusal; *invitation*, *request*, *suggestions* and *offer*, and 2) the social status of the first speaker to which learners had to refuse (equal or higher status) (Appendix B). The subject's refusal production was graded by the researcher using a holistic scoring scheme which scored each refusal on four aspects: 1) correct speech act, 2) formulaic expression, 3) grammatical accuracy, and 4) amount of information. Then, 10% of the students' responses were randomly rescored by a native speaker to establish the inter-rater reliability ($r = .99$). Results from the test were then analyzed using one factor analysis of variance (ANOVA) with Post hoc Tukey analyses.

The subjects' level of confidence in their refusal production was measured by the confidence rating scales. The rating for each refusal item comprised two rating scales; one was for the level of confidence on grammatical accuracy and the other for its contextual appropriateness (Appendix C).

Results

Refusal Production

Results from the pre-test indicated that the three participating groups showed comparable performance in making oral English refusals. As a result, no statistically significant differences of the mean scores were found between them. Findings from the pre-test can be used to deduce that the ability in making oral refusal of the three participating groups, also the high and low proficiency subgroups, is not statistically different at the onset of

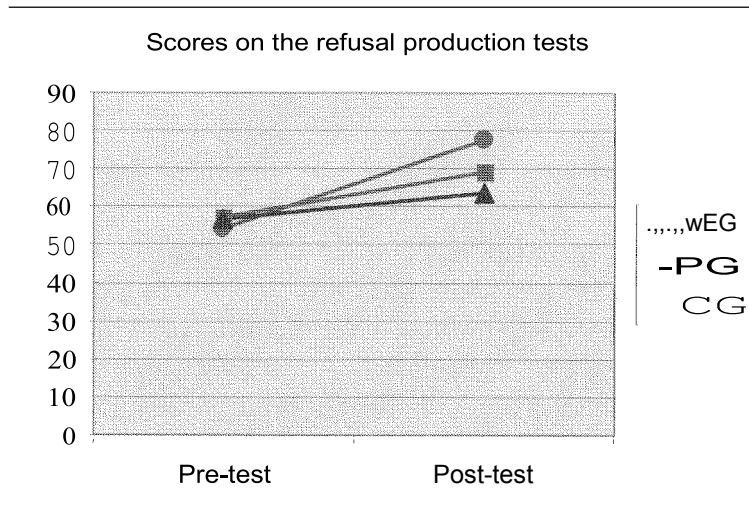
the experimental intervention. Table 3 presents the descriptive statistics on the pre-test and the two post-tests of all three groups.

Table 3: Mean scores for all three groups on the post-tests

Test	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Pre-test	EG	13	57.31	17.91
	PG	13	54.31	16.27
	CG	13	56.77	12.55
	Total	39	56.13	15.37
Post-test	EG	13	69.23	12.97
	PG	13	77.77	11.54
	CG	13	63.77	8.81
	Total	39	70.26	12.40

From Table 1, it is evident that, overall, the subjects' performance in making refusals on the post-test improved, and the prompts group was found to have the highest scored. Further, all groups showed less with-in group variation as their standard deviation on the pre-test decreased at the immediate post-test. Analyses by ANOVA revealed a significant difference between groups [$F(2, 36) = 5.122$; $p = .011$]. Post hoc Tukey analyses indicated that the prompts group (PG) and the explicit feedback group (EG) performed better than the control group (CG), but only the PG significantly outperformed the CG ($p = .008$). Although the PG's score on the post-test was higher than that of the EG, the difference between the two experimental groups was not statistically different ($p = .14$). Figure 1 displays the improvement of scores of the three groups.

Figure 1: Scores on the refusal production tests



Confidence

Results from the rating scale for the pre-test production showed that EG was more confident in their pre-test production than PG and CG. However, the difference between the three groups was not statistically significant according to ANOVA analyses [$F(2, 36) = .428$; $p = .655$]. This means that after all the subjects had gained knowledge of appropriate refusal from the course and looked back to their production before the treatment, their levels of confidence in their refusal production are comparable. Results from the post-test rating scale revealed a different order between the three groups as showed in Table 4.

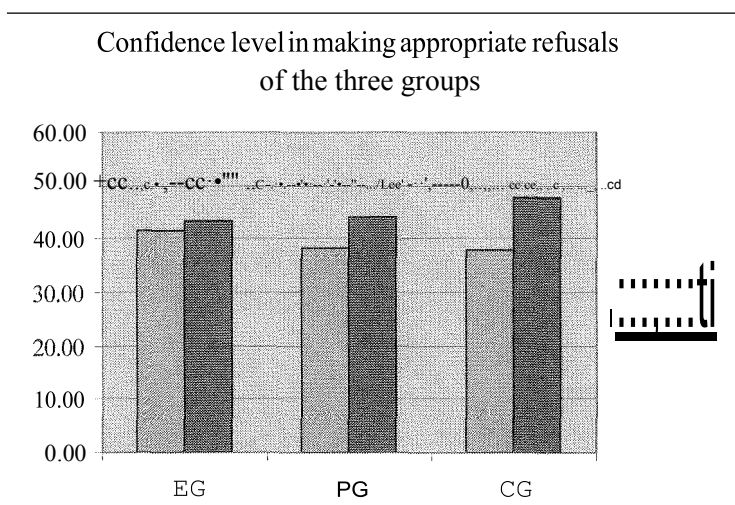
Table 4: Level of confidence in refusal production from the pre- and post-test

Test	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Pre-test	EG	13	41.46	10.967
	PG	13	38.38	10.658
	CG	13	37.92	10.177
	Total	39	39.26	10.445

Test	Group	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Post-test	EG	13	43.46	12.211
	PG	13	44.23	9.329
	CG	13	47.69	11.650
	Total	39	45.13	10.996

When the subjects rated their confidence in their post-test production, CG, which was the least confident in the pre-test production, recorded the highest level of confidence, following by PG and EG, respectively. Nevertheless, analyses by ANOVA again reported that the difference between groups was not statistically significant [$F(2, 36) = .533$; $p = .592$]. Figure 2 shows the three groups' levels of confidence in their pre- and post-test production.

Figure 2: Confidence level in making appropriate refusals of the three groups



Discussion

The research findings showed the obvious benefits of prompts over immediate and delayed explicit feedback in developing learners' refusal production. In terms of confidence, although the control group improved their level of confidence the most, prompts

were found to promote learners' level of confidence more than explicit feedback. By looking at the scores on the post-test alone, one may argue that PG performed only slightly better than EG. However, when considering the rate of improvement from the pre-test rating, it is evident that PG has gained more confidence in their refusal production (from 38.38 to 44.23) than EG (41.46 to 43.46). The effectiveness of prompts over explicit feedback in promoting learner pragmatically appropriate refusal and level of confidence could be explained by two main factors; 1) the provision of multiple opportunities for uptake, and 2) the unobtrusive rejection of mistakes.

1) the provision of multiple opportunities for uptake

Learner uptake has been defined as "a student's utterance that immediately follows the teacher's feedback and that constitutes a reaction in some way to the teacher's intention to draw attention to some aspect of the student's initial utterance" (Lyster & Ranta, 1997: 49). A number of studies have investigated the effectiveness of corrective feedback using learners' uptake and repair as a measurement (e.g. Ellis, Basturkmen & Loewen, 2001; Campillo, 2004; Loewen, 2004; Lyster, 1998b; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Panova & Lyster, 2002). Although some researchers cautioned that uptake is not necessarily indicative of learning, and learning may take place without uptake (Mackey & Philp, 1998), learners' uptake does indicate their noticing of teacher's corrective purpose, whilst learners' immediate repair demonstrates learning.

All studies on uptake agreed that learners' uptake is highly associated with the type of teacher's corrective feedback. Ellis, Basturkmen and Loewen (2001) observed the adult ESL communicative classroom and reported a higher level of learners' uptake following teacher's recasts. In contrast, a number of studies revealed that the combination of techniques in prompts leads to more frequent uptake and learners' self-repair (e.g. Campillo, 2004; Lyster & Ranta, 1997; Panova & Lyster, 2002) while explicit feedback led to rare and occasional uptake, none of which involved repair (Lyster & Panova, 2002). Thus, it is likely to claim that the role of prompts in eliciting extensive uptake and self-generated repair benefits learners' pragmatic acquisition more than the type of

feedback that requires no effort on the part of the learners. This process may be explained by the nature of prompts that do not provide the target form, but other cues or questions to push learners to do self-repair. Teacher's prompts then activate learners' mental process in rethinking, retrieving and reformulating their utterances (production). According to Schmidt (1993, 2001), language acquisition requires awareness at the level of noticing, and what learners notice in the input will become intake for learning. To do self-repair, first, learners need to notice their mistakes (to be aware of what is wrong) from the teacher's input (prompts). In other words, teacher's prompts would activate their awareness at the level of noticing. Then, learners will need to consult their awareness at the level of understanding to retrieve the target form or expression from the language rules, patterns or socio-cultural concerns stored in their mind. Therefore, learners who are prompted to retrieve more target-like forms are more likely to consult their already installed knowledge as well as the pragmatic awareness, and thereby improve their pragmatic production in the subsequent situations more than learners merely hearing explicit correction.

2) the unobtrusive rejection of mistakes

This factor is relevant to the psychological effects of corrective feedback on learners' perception, attitude and confidence. Although explicitness and clarity of corrective purpose play an essential role in making the input get noticed, the overt pinpointing and rejecting learner's error may affect their attitude towards making mistakes and receiving feedback. Following Clement (1980), the two central factors influencing one's level of self-confidence are '*the lack of anxiety*' and '*the learner's perceived competence*'. As explicit feedback overtly rejects learners' erroneous utterances, it may lower their level of perceived competence, and at the same time increase their anxiety when speaking English and when receiving corrective feedback. In contrast, prompts provide an immediate reaction to learner's utterances to signal mistakes, then provide metalinguistic cues to help learners discover the correct answer by themselves. Prompts then play an unobtrusive and supportive role

in providing corrective feedback and, at the same time, enhancing learners' communicative confidence.

The delayed feedback which was found to enhance learners' confidence the most may result from the fact that their mistakes were not immediately pointed out or even signaled. Then, learners could experience their ability in getting the message across and thereby build-up their confidence in speaking. However, despite their highest level of confidence in their refusal production, the control group recorded the lowest scores on the refusal production post-test. Therefore, the crucial issue raised by this point is that being correct and being confident are different, but coincidental in terms of language teaching objectives. Thus, the corrective feedback technique which leads to both learners' pragmatic acquisition and confidence improvement, such as prompts, may be employed by teachers teaching pragmatics. The findings from the present study may be used as a guideline for teachers about the advantages and limitations of each corrective feedback technique. However, these findings do not yield conclusive claims on language learning, as there is no method best suiting all teaching and learning contexts. Teachers then need to balance the corrective feedback techniques by considering the course objectives (whether to promote accuracy or fluency), the nature of learners' errors (e.g. grammatical, pragmatic, or pronunciation error) and learners' characteristics such as their background and preference.

Conclusion

This paper reported the effects corrective feedback types have on learners' refusal production and confidence in making appropriate refusals. Findings from the experiment revealed the effectiveness of prompts over explicit feedback in improving learners' appropriate oral refusals. It also revealed their level of confidence in the quality of their refusal production. Delayed feedback was found to help learners develop their confidence the most. However, it was the least effective feedback technique to promote pragmatically appropriate refusals. To shed more light on the role of feedback in teaching pragmatics, future research should be done on the effects of different corrective feedback techniques in relation to learners' level of proficiency. Further analysis should

also be under-taken on the long term effects of the corrective feedback techniques on learners' pragmatic production, awareness and confidence.

References

- Alcon, E. & Codina, V. (2002). Practice opportunities and pragmatic change in a second language context: The case of requests. *E'LLA: Estudios de Linguística Aplicada*, 3, 123-138.
- Ammar, A. & Spada, N. (2006). One size fits all? Recasts, prompts, and L2 learning. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 28, 543-574.
- Ayoun, D. (2001). The role of negative and positive feedback in the second language acquisition of the *passé composé* and *imparfait*. *The Modern Language Journal*, 85, 226-243.
- Campillo, P.S. (2004). An analysis of uptake following teacher's feedback in the EFL classroom. *RESLA*, 17, 209-222.
- Clement, R. (1980). Ethnicity, contact and communicative competence in a second language. In H. Giles, W.P. Robinson, & P.M. Smith (Eds.), *Language: Social psychological perspectives* (pp. 147-154). Oxford, England: Pergamon.
- DeKeyser, R. (1993). The effect of error correction on L2 grammar knowledge and oral proficiency. *Modern Language Journal*, 77, 501-514.
- Doughty, C., & Varela, E. (1998). Communicative focus on form. In C. Doughty and J. William (eds.) *Focus on form in classroom second language acquisition* (pp. 114-138). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Ellis, R., Basturkmen, H. & Loewen, S. (2001). Learner uptake in communicative ESL lessons. *Language Learning*, 51, 281-318.
- Ellis, R., Loewen, S., & Erlam, R. (2006). Implicit and explicit corrective feedback and the acquisition of L2 grammar. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 28, 339-368.
- Fukuya, Y. and Zhang, Y. (2002). Effects of recasts on EFL learners' acquisition of pragmalinguistic conventions of requests. *Second Language Studies*, 21, 1-47.
- Gass, S. (1988). Integrating research areas: A framework for second language studies. *Applied Linguistics*, 9, 198-217.

- House, J. (1996). Developing pragmatic fluency in English as a foreign language: Routines and metapragmatic awareness. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 18, pp. 225-252.
- Koike, D.A., & Pearson, L. (2005). The effect of instruction and feedback in the development of pragmatic competence. *System*, 33, 481-501.
- Krashen, S. (1985). *The Input Hypothesis: Issues and implications*. London: Longman.
- Loewen, S. (2004). Uptake in incidental focus on form in meaning-focused ESL lessons. *Language Learning*, 54, 153-188.
- Loewen, S., & Philp, J. (2006). Recasts in the adult English L2 classroom: Characteristics, explicitness, and effectiveness. *Modern Language Journal*, 90, 536-556.
- Long, M., Inagaki, S., & Ortega, L. (1998). The role of implicit negative feedback in SLA: Models and recasts in Japanese and Spanish. *Modern Language Journal*, 82, 357-371.
- Lyster, R., & Ranta, L. (1997). Corrective feedback and learner uptake: Negotiation of form in communicative classrooms. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 19, 37-66.
- Lyster, R. (1998a). Negotiation of form, recasts, and explicit correction in relation to error types and learner repair in immersion classrooms. *Language Learning*, 48, 183-218.
- Lyster, R. (1998b). Recasts, repetition, and ambiguity in L2 classroom discourse. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 20, 55-85.
- Lyster, R. (2004). Differential Effects of Prompts and Recasts in Form-Focused Instruction. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 26, 399-432.
- Mackey, A. & Philp, J. (1998). Conventional interaction and second language development: recasts, responses, and red herrings? *The Modern Language Journal*, 82: 338-356.
- Martinez-Flor, A. (2004). *The Effect of Instruction on the Development of Pragmatic Competence in the English as a Foreign Language Context: A Study Based on Suggestions*. Doctoral Dissertation. Castello: Universitat Jaume I.
- Muranoi, H. (2000). Focus on form through interaction enhancement: Integrating formal instruction into a communicative task in EFL classroom. *Language Learning*, 50, 617-673.
- Panova, I. & Lyster, R. (2002). Patterns of corrective feedback and uptake in an adult ESL classroom. *TESOL Quarterly*, 36, 573-595.

- Rose, K. R. & Ng Kwai-fun, C. (2001). Inductive and deductive teaching of compliments and compliment responses. In K. R. Rose and G. Kasper (Eds.) *Pragmatics in language teaching* (pp. 145-170). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Schauer, G. A. (2006). Pragmatic awareness in ESL and EFL contexts: contrast and development. *Language Learning*, 56, 269-318.
- Schmidt, R. (1990). The role of consciousness in second language learning. *Applied Linguistics*, 11, 17-46.
- Schmidt, R. (1993). Consciousness, learning and interlanguage pragmatics. In G. Kasper & S. Blum-Kulka (Eds.), *Interlanguage pragmatics* (pp. 21-42). Oxford: Oxford University Press.
- Schmidt, R. (2001). Attention. In P. Robinson (ed.) *Cognition and second language instruction* (pp. 3-32). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Swain, M. (1985). Communicative competence: some roles of comprehensible input and comprehensible output in its development. In Gass & C. Madden (Eds.), *Input in second language acquisition* (pp. 235-253). Rowley, MA: Newbury House.
- Takahashi, S. (2001). The role of input enhancement in developing pragmatic competence. In K. R. Rose and G. Kasper (Eds.) *Pragmatics in language teaching* (pp. 171-199). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Takahashi, S. (2005). Pragmalinguistic awareness: is it related to motivation and proficiency? *Applied Linguistics*, 26, 90-120.
- Tateyama, Y. (2001). Explicit and implicit teaching of pragmatic routines. In K. R. Rose and G. Kasper (eds.) *Pragmatics in language teaching* (pp. 200-222). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.
- Washburn, G. N. (2001). Using situation comedies for pragmatic language teaching and learning. *TESOL Journal*, 10, 21-26.

Appendix A

Target refusal forms

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

Appendix B

Example of the Oral Production Tests

Oral production test

SETA

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

Situation 1

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

Now listen to your classmate.

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

Situation 2

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

Now listen to your supervisor.

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

Appendix C

Example of the Confidence Rating Scales

Listen to your responses on the two speaking tests. Circle the number that indicates your level of confidence in your response to each situation.

Sit*	How much confident are you in the appropriateness of your responses?	How much confident are you in the grammatical accuracy of your responses?
1 = not confident at all, 2 = not confident, 3 = little confident, 4 = fairly confident, 5 = very confident		
1	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
2	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
3	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5
4	1 2 3 4 5	1 2 3 4 5

* Sit = Situation