

Pragmatic competence of Finnish learners of English:
Meaning in interaction in secondary and upper secondary schools

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Tutkin pro gradu -tutkielmassani englannin kielen oppijoiden pragmaattista kompetenssia. Tarkoitukseni oli selvittää, miten suomalaiset yläkoululaiset ja lukiolaiset osaavat käyttää englannin kieltä erilaisissa kommunikaatiotilanteissa. Tutkielmani voidaan sijoittaa välikielen pragmatiikan tutkimukseen. Halusin selvittää, millä tasolla suomalaisten oppijoiden pragmaattinen kompetenssi on ja kehittykö se yläkoulun ja lukion välillä. Lisäksi tutkin, vaikuttavatko oppimisympäristö ja oppimismahdollisuudet oppijoiden kykyyn käyttää englannin kieltä. Toisin sanoen vertasin englantipainotteisilla luokilla olevia oppilaita formaalin opetuksen oppijoihin sekä tutkin, vaikuttavatko englanninkieliset vapaa-ajan aktiviteetit ja oppijoiden mahdolliset oleskelut englanninkielisissä maissa heidän pragmaattiseen kompetenssiinsa.

Tutkimukseni kohderyhmä koostui yläkoulun kahdeksaluokkalaisista ja lukion toisen vuosikurssin opiskelijoista. Testasin neljä eri ryhmää, joissa oli sekä formaalissa opetuksessa olevia oppijoita (yksi ryhmä kahdeksaluokkalaisia ja yksi ryhmä toisen vuosikurssin opiskelijoita) että kielipainotteisten luokkien oppijoita (yksi ryhmä kahdeksaluokkalaisia ja yksi ryhmä toisen vuosikurssin opiskelijoita). Arvioin kohderyhmäni pragmaattista kompetenssia monivalintatestillä, jossa testattiin oppijoiden kykyä käyttää ja ymmärtää implikaatioita, tilannekohtaisia rutiineja sekä puheakteja. Taustakysymysten avulla selvitin, kuinka usein oppijat käyttivät englantia vapaa-aikanaan ja olivatko he vierailleet englanninkielisissä maissa.

Tutkimustulokseni osoittavat, että suomalaisten yläkoululaisten ja lukiolaisten pragmaattinen kompetenssi oli korkea. Pragmaattinen kompetenssi kehittyi kahdeksaluokkalaisten ja lukion toisen vuosikurssin välillä. Kehitys oli suurempaa formaalissa opetuksessa kuin kielipainotteisilla luokilla. Englantipainotteisilla luokilla olevat oppilaat suoriutuivat testistä paremmin kuin formaalin opetuksen oppilaat. Tosin erot olivat tilastollisesti merkitseviä vain yläkoulussa. Tutkimuksessani siis päättelin, että vieraskielinen opetus vaikutti enemmän nuorempiin oppijoihin. Eri oppimismahdollisuudet osoittautuivat haastaviksi analysoida. Tulokset osoittivat, että vain englanninkielisessä maassa oleskelulla oli vaikutusta oppijoiden pragmaattiseen kompetenssiin. Kysyttäessä vapaa-ajan aktiviteettien merkitystä oppijat kuitenkin kertoivat, että ne auttoivat heitä testiin vastaamisessa enemmän kuin englanninopetuksessa käydyt asiat. Kouluissa tulisikin jatkossa painottaa yhä enemmän vuorovaikutteista kielenopetusta.

Asiasanat: pragmaattinen kompetenssi, välikielen pragmatiikka, vieraan kielen oppiminen, englannin kieli

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ABBREVIATIONS

CLIL	Content and Language Integrated Learning
CLIL2	Content and Language Integrated Learning: second year students of upper secondary school
CLIL8	Content and Language Integrated Learning: eighth graders of secondary school
DCT	Discourse Completion Task
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
EFL2	English as a Foreign Language: second year students of upper secondary school
EFL8	English as a Foreign Language: eighth graders of secondary school
ESL	English as a Second Language
FL	Foreign Language
ILP	Interlanguage Pragmatics
L1	First Language
L2	Second Language
NNS	Non-Native Speaker
NS	Native Speaker
SLA	Second Language Acquisition

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1 INTRODUCTION

Foreign language education generally includes the learning of target language grammar and vocabulary. Learners are taught how the language works in terms of its different forms and functions and they try to learn and memorise the words of the language. Although the knowledge of linguistic forms and functions is essential in language learning, it is also important to know how to use these forms appropriately in target language interaction; it is not enough to know the forms and words of the foreign language by heart because in order to communicate successfully in the target language, language learners must also possess *pragmatic competence*. Pragmatic competence is the ability to use and understand foreign language conventions. In fact, *pragmatics*, the study of “meaning in interaction” (Thomas 1995: 22) has become more and more important in second language learning. For example, the Finnish national curricula for language education state that Finnish learners are expected to develop their “intercultural communication skills” with the purpose of functioning appropriately in foreign language situations (Finnish National Board of Education 2003: 100; 2004: 138). Since acquiring pragmatic competence is recognised as a central part of foreign language learning, in the present study, the pragmatic competence of Finnish learners of English was examined.

Pragmatic competence in a second language (L2) is studied within the field of interlanguage pragmatics (ILP). Research within ILP has mostly concentrated on comparing non-native speakers to native speakers and describing learners’ use of pragmatic aspects while studies on the development of pragmatic competence are scarce (Kasper & Rose 2002: 1-2). Furthermore, as interlanguage pragmatics is a new field of inquiry the testing of pragmatic competence varies and no common frameworks are used. However, the pragmatic competence of L2 learners has produced a number of studies which have examined learners’ use, awareness and acquisition of pragmatic aspects. In addition, ILP research has investigated various factors that can influence learners’ pragmatic competence and described how pragmatics is taken into account in the language classroom.

Among ILP researchers, Finnish learners' pragmatic competence has not gained much interest. This is unfortunate since the ability to use foreign language is recognised as an important goal of language learning in Finnish curricula. In order to find out whether learners' pragmatic competence corresponds to the aims stated in the curricula, I consider it important to examine the level as well as the development of Finnish learners' pragmatic competence. Therefore, in the present study, the level of pragmatic competence of secondary school and upper secondary school pupils was examined and possible differences in the learners' use of English in different situations were studied. Secondly, the aim of the present study was to establish whether any pragmatic development between Finnish eighth graders of secondary school and second year students of upper secondary school could be found.

Pragmatic competence in L2 does not develop on its own. In effect, it is widely acknowledged that especially exposure to the target language is central in acquiring pragmatic competence. In this study, the importance of exposure was taken into account by examining the influence of different learning contexts and learning opportunities on the Finnish learners' pragmatic competence. More precisely, the pragmatic competence of learners from two different learning environments, namely, *English as a Foreign Language* (EFL) and *Content and Language Integrated Learning* (CLIL) classrooms was compared. Moreover, the possible effects of such activities as watching television programmes and listening to music in English as well as spending time in English-speaking countries were examined.

In brief, the level and development of Finnish learners' pragmatic competence in English as well as the influence of learning contexts and learning opportunities were examined within this study. In accordance with these research aims, I will start my study by presenting the linguistic field of *pragmatics* and the notion of *pragmatic competence*. I will also describe *interlanguage pragmatics* and examine the development of L2 pragmatic competence as well as different factors influencing pragmatic knowledge. I will give a brief overview of the research methods used in interlanguage pragmatics before describing the data collection and data analysis methods of the present study. Finally, I will present and discuss the results of the study.

2 PRAGMATICS

Pragmatics is the field of linguistics that examines how language is used in interaction. Since language can be used in various situations in various different ways, the definitions of pragmatics vary. In order to gain a comprehensive view of the field, in this chapter, I will discuss definitions that are commonly cited and can be seen as the most influential presentations of the field. Secondly, I will present different aspects, such as speech acts, implicature and situational routines, which have been defined and studied within the field of pragmatics.

2.1 Definitions of pragmatics

Pragmatics is a new area of linguistics when compared to phonetics, morphology, syntax or semantics. In the 1960's, pragmatics was not an established field and it covered issues that could not be placed into other areas of linguistics (Leech 1983: 1). However, language use and context gained more interest in the 1970's and consequently, pragmatics as a field of linguistics was recognised. Although today the importance of pragmatics in linguistics is acknowledged, pragmatics is not a coherent field of study since it overlaps with many other linguistic areas and consists of various different aspects of language use (Crystal 2010: 124). Thus, linguists tend to define the field according to their own interests and research aims. In the next paragraphs, I will present three widely cited definitions of pragmatics which, together, represent pragmatics as a field of linguistics.

The first chosen definition is that of Crystal (1987) who emphasises the importance of the speaker in interaction. Crystal writes that pragmatics is

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.

(Crystal 1987: 301)

Thomas (1995: 2) criticises Crystal's definition by stating that Crystal's main focus is on the producer of the message while interaction contains other important aspects as well. According to Thomas, Crystal takes a social view by defining pragmatics as

speaker meaning and overlooking hearer's interpretation or *utterance interpretation* (*ibid.*). Both of these aspects are taken into account by Yule who defines pragmatics as "the study of meaning as communicated by a speaker (or writer) and interpreted by a listener (or reader)" (1996: 3). This second definition of pragmatics contains precise descriptions of the field of study. Firstly, Yule writes that pragmatics is "*the study of speaker meaning*", the study of what the speaker means and intends by his utterance. Secondly, pragmatics is "*the study of contextual meaning*", how context influences what is said and how speech is structured in accordance with who is listening. Thirdly, the field can be defined as "*the study of how more gets communicated than is said*". In other words, pragmatics studies what inferences can be made from the speaker's utterances. Finally, Yule states that pragmatics is "*the study of the expression of relative distance*", how the speaker and hearer's experienced closeness or distance affects what is said or not said (*ibid.*, emphasis as in the original).

As Yule, also Thomas (1995) considers that both speaker meaning and utterance interpretation are important in the definition of pragmatics. In effect, Thomas' definition of pragmatics as the study of "meaning in interaction" (1995: 22) is the third chosen definition of this study. According to Thomas, pragmatics is meaning in interaction since language use is a dynamic process: the speaker and the listener are both making meanings in communication and the physical, social and linguistic context influence those meanings (*ibid.*). Pragmatics differs from such linguistic areas as syntax and semantics in that it analyses human actions. This has its advantages and disadvantages: on the one hand, it is interesting to study the way people make sense of each other but on the other hand, it is challenging to study individuals and their minds (Yule 1996: 4). Moreover, Crystal states that in theory, anything can be said but in reality, speech is always governed by different social rules (2010: 124). Different aspects of pragmatics influence the use of language; language use is governed by various conventions, by politeness and by conversation structure. Furthermore, these conventions can be seen to vary between languages and cultures.

As mentioned in the Introduction, the knowledge of pragmatic aspects of language is acknowledged as an important goal in language learning: different curricula have

noticed that language learners have to be able to use the conventions of the target language successfully in order to participate in a conversation. This implies that learners need to develop their L2 pragmatic competence which consists of the knowledge of pragmatic aspects such as speech acts, politeness conventions and conversation structure. These different aspects will be discussed in the next sub-chapters and also, the field of cross-cultural pragmatics will be defined.

2.2 Aspects of pragmatics

Yule's definition of pragmatics as "*the study of speaker meaning [...] the study of contextual meaning [...] the study of how more gets communicated than is said [...] the study of the expression of relative distance*" (1996: 3) refers to different aspects of pragmatics. As these definitions indicate, pragmatics covers various features of interaction. The main aspects of pragmatics are commonly studied within the field of interlanguage pragmatics, the field of second language acquisition (SLA) that examines the pragmatic competence of language learners. In the present study, Finnish learners' knowledge of three features, that is, *speech acts*, *implicature* and *situational routines* were tested. Thus, in the next sub-chapters I will give a brief overview of speech acts, implicature and situational routines as well as present politeness and conversation structure which are closely connected with the three main aspects of pragmatics examined in this study.

2.2.1 Speech acts – *the study of speaker meaning*

Speech acts were introduced in the 1960's and 1970's by Austin and Searle who believed that language is not only used to say things but also, to perform actions (Austin 1975: 95-102). Speech acts are these actions performed via utterances since they consist of "[u]ttering words", "[r]eferring and predicating" as well as "[s]tating, questioning, commanding, promising, etc." (Searle 1969: 24). In accordance with this definition of speech acts, Austin (1975) makes a distinction between *locutionary act* and *illocutionary act*. For example, when saying "It is cold outside" the speaker is uttering certain words (*locutionary act*) and also intending certain meaning (*illocutionary act*), for instance, the speaker might be complaining about the weather. In addition, Austin presents a third dimension of a speech act, *the perlocutionary act*

or the intended effect of the utterance (Austin 1975: 101); the utterance “It is cold outside” might make the hearer put on more clothes. Hence, the perlocutionary act puts forward the importance of context because contextual matters make sure that the speaker’s meaning is understood.

Different theories and researchers present various categories of speech acts, Searle’s distinction (1979: 12-20) to *assertives*, *directives*, *commissives*, *expressives* and *declarations* being the most influential. According to Searle (*ibid.*), *assertives* are statements that are either true or false and that express the speaker’s feelings, beliefs and illustrations. A *directive* is a command or a request that elicits an action on the hearer while a *commissive* is a promise, a refusal or a vow that commits the speaker to a future action. *Expressives* are frequently used speech acts, such as apologies, compliments and congratulations which state the psychological attitude of the speaker. *Declarations* change something in reality, in other words, after a declarative is uttered, something has changed. For instance, finding someone guilty of a crime or pronouncing a couple husband and wife are utterances defined as declaratives (*ibid.*). Within the field of interlanguage pragmatics, the sub-categories of Searle’s five speech acts are studied: learners’ knowledge of such speech acts as requests, suggestions, refusals and greetings are commonly examined in the field (Kasper & Rose 2002: 134).

All languages have similar sets of speech acts but the realisations and contexts of these acts differ between cultures. For example, some speech acts are more common than others, some are used in particular situations and similarly, some may be only used by a certain speech group. On the one hand, speakers have the choice to use whatever forms they want but on the other hand, these choices are based on social conventions (Kasper & Rose 2002: 2-3). In order to use different aspects of pragmatics such as speech acts appropriately in the target language, L2 learners need to possess knowledge of these different social conventions. Learners’ knowledge and ability to use speech acts have gained interest among various researchers. In fact, there is more L2 pragmatics research on speech acts than on any other aspect of pragmatics (Kasper & Rose 2002: 134). Research suggests, for instance, that L2 learners have a tendency to use more direct speech acts than native-speakers but with time their knowledge of pragmatic aspects expands and they start to use more

productive speech acts (Kasper & Rose 2002: 135). Moreover, other aspects of communication, such as the use of *implicature* presented below, may further complicate the use and interpretation of speech acts.

2.2.2 Implicature — *the study of how more gets communicated than is said*

Pragmatics studies meaning in interaction and accordingly, it is not only concerned about “what is said” but also “what is meant”. In fact, studying meaning in interaction is challenging because people often say things that they do not mean and similarly, people usually mean more than they say. Thus, it can be difficult to interpret the real meanings that speakers are conveying. Grice was the first to distinguish between “what is said” and “what is meant” in the 1950’s. Grice’s theory presents the notion of *implicature*, the conveyed meaning of the speaker (Grice 1975: 43). The conveyed or implied meaning makes reference to the process by which hearers have to make inferences of what is not said and try to understand the difference between what is expressed and what is implied. Much of the interpretation process is about assumptions and shared knowledge since contextual factors, shared background knowledge of the interlocutors as well as features of the speaker’s utterance influence the interpretation process.

Grice presents two different types of implicature that both convey an additional meaning beyond the uttered words but differ in context-dependence. The first type, namely *conversational implicature*, always depends on context and on the shared background knowledge of the speakers (Grice 1975: 50). The second type, *conventional implicature*, remains the same regardless of context (*ibid.*). More specifically, conversational implicatures are locally interpreted: for instance, in the question-answer pair “Did you invite Bella & Cathy? – I invited Bella”, the speaker who answers the question can be seen to convey more than he is saying in his answer (Yule 1996: 40, 42). Conventional implicature is evoked by specific words, such as *but* and *even*, which add the implied meanings to the utterances (*He wanted to invite Bella and Cathy but I invited Bella*) (Yule 1996: 45). Contrary to Grice’s and Yule’s definitions, McNamara and Roever (2006) claim that social factors and context are not as important in the interpretation of implicatures as, for example, in the use of

speech acts. Although they acknowledge that background knowledge and private experiences should be considered, McNamara and Roever (2006: 59) also state that implicature is primarily based on Grice's *maxims of conversation* since the interpretation process happens in the hearer's mind. In particular, the locally interpreted conversational implicature typically follows the guidelines outlined by Grice which are discussed below.

According to Grice, conversation does not normally consist of "disconnected remarks", on the contrary, it is usually based on *cooperative efforts*: a conversation has a purpose that the participants recognise and accept (Grice 1975: 45). Because of this mutually recognised direction, certain remarks are considered inappropriate during a conversation. In fact, participants usually implicitly agree on the direction and goals of the conversation and have the same assumptions of how the conversation may or may not be carried out (*ibid.*). To describe this agreement Grice created the *cooperative principle*: "Make your conversational contribution such as is required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange in which you are engaged" (*ibid.*). Grice's principle is the basis of successful interaction with his four maxims of *quantity*, *quality*, *relation* and *manner*. According to these maxims, participants of a conversation should be as informative as possible (*maxim of quantity*), speak truthfully (*maxim of quality*), be relevant (*maxim of relation*) and speak briefly and orderly without obscurity (*maxim of manner*) (Grice 1975: 45-46). These maxims are the basic assumptions or guidelines that speakers follow in a conversation in order to make it as cooperative as possible.

Although conversation assumes cooperation, Grice himself states that speakers may not always observe the maxims. On many occasions, speakers can either fail to observe or deliberately violate a maxim, for example, to imply more than is said by using an implicature (Grice 1975: 49). Thus, speakers are not always willing to cooperate and in effect, maxims are not rules but guidelines. Often maxims are deliberately violated in acceptable ways with the purpose of being more polite. *Politeness*, the degree of imposition and the perceived closeness or distance between the speakers has an influence on communication and also on the use of Grice's maxims. Therefore, politeness is an essential part of pragmatics. The reasons for this will be examined in the next sub-chapter.

2.2.3 Politeness — *the study of the expression of relative distance*

Speakers strive for cooperation in conversation, but they also strive for harmony. To gain this harmony, languages have rules and conventions which ensure polite interaction. These rules are associated with politeness which “deal[s] with perceptions, expectations, and conventional realizations of communicative strategies which enhance social harmony” (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain 2000: 25). Brown and Levinson introduced politeness as a pragmatic phenomenon in 1978¹. They saw politeness as a strategy in conversation because politeness is defined as a way to respect another speaker’s face or public image. According to Brown and Levinson, speakers have both *a positive* and *a negative face*; they have a need to be accepted by others (*positive face*) as well as a need to be unimpeded by others (*negative face*) (1987: 13). In fact, Brown and Levinson distinguish between *positive* and *negative politeness*, the expectation of imposition and the avoidance of imposition (Brown & Levinson 1987: 101, 129). Furthermore, Brown and Levinson introduce *face threatening acts* (FTAs), acts that intrinsically threaten face (1987: 60). For example, requests are FTAs that threaten the interlocutor’s negative face, his want to be left in peace, whereas critiques are FTAs that threaten the positive face of an interlocutor, his want to be accepted and valued by others.

Since politeness is the awareness of different faces, it varies according to the speakers’ perceived closeness or distance with each other (Yule 1996: 60). Brown and Levinson write about three crucial sociological factors that determine the level of politeness in a conversation, namely, they present *relative power*, *social distance* and the ranking of the *imposition* between a speaker and a hearer (1987: 15). They acknowledge that socially distant and socially close speakers with varying power relations use different politeness strategies when speaking to each other. In addition, different cultures have different norms and rules of politeness which means that L2 learners have to learn these new conventions which in turn, can be challenging. Some languages use more direct ways of expressing speech acts whereas others prefer more indirect speech acts (Celce-Murcia & Olshtain 2000: 27). Indirectness is a way

¹ Brown and Levinson’s book *Politeness. Some Universals in Language Usage* (1987) was published for the first time in 1978 as a section of Goody’s 1978 book *Questions and Politeness: Strategies in Social Interaction*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

to avoid imposition whereas directness is more face-threatening. For example, in China and Japan indirectness is preferred since avoiding imposition and preserving the other's face is valued. In fact, research on Chinese and Japanese learners of English is common (e.g. Matsumura 2003, 2007, Takahashi 2005, Chang 2010) since Chinese and Japanese politeness conventions as well as speech act realisations can be seen to differ from those of English. Awareness of different politeness conventions of the target language is essential because using an inappropriate speech act or being more direct than is expected can lead to cross-cultural misunderstanding. For this reason, both the knowledge of the target language conventions and the ability to use this knowledge are important.

2.2.4 Conversation structure and situational routines

Pragmatics is “*the study of contextual meaning*” (Yule 1996: 3) since context affects interaction: it affects the use of speech acts, implicature, maxims of conversation as well as the use of more or less polite expressions. In addition, there are different types of interaction. For instance, speakers construct their utterances differently when speaking to a friend than to a teacher or a doctor. Nonetheless, the structure of a conversation is more or less the same regardless of context because conversation follows a basic pattern of turn-taking. According to Yule (1996: 71-72), this basic pattern of conversation is acquired implicitly during childhood: a child gradually realises that a conversation consists of different turns, takings and leavings of the floor as well as pauses and overlaps. Little by little, the child understands that a conversation is a ritual with a specific form, a beginning and an end and a particular topic (Crystal 2010: 122). In sum, the participants of a conversation have a goal that they want to convey and also, their conversation has a structure; conversation consists of *speaker meaning*, *utterance interpretation* as presented in Chapter 2.1, and it consists of *conversation structure*. For the conversation to be successful, participants have to be aware of these features.

Conversation structure is a crucial aspect of pragmatics, since to be able to participate in a conversation speakers must understand how it is constructed. Conversation management includes not only mechanical aspects such as turn-taking but also linguistic aspects such as coherence and the ability to use and understand

adjacency pairs (Bialystok 1993: 46). Adjacency pairs or *exchanges* are pairs of utterances that normally follow each other. In essence, exchanges are the minimal units of a conversation; they consist of an initiating utterance and a response utterance (Crystal 2010: 122). *Situational routines* are, more precisely, conventional utterances that are used in specific situations (Roever 2006: 231). For instance, greetings, leave-takings and certain question-answer pairings are typical routines. Routines are part of normal interaction and thus, knowledge of routine formulae is vital to second language learners. Routines assure natural interaction and, according to Yamashita (2008: 212), routine expressions such as “Please speak slowly” or “What does it mean?” are helpful when learners face communication problems. Furthermore, simple exchanges, such as “How are you? — Fine, thank you” are generally learned very early in the second language classroom, whereas often more difficult exchanges are learned gradually or during time spent in the target language country (Roever 2012: 14, 16).

The aspects of pragmatics, namely speech acts, implicature, Grice’s cooperative maxim, politeness, conversation structure and situational routines, discussed in the preceding chapters, present what pragmatics entails as a field of linguistics. The knowledge of these features is essential in interaction since the ability to take part in a conversation involves the ability to use and understand these different aspects of pragmatics which are intertwined. Thus, *pragmatic competence* includes the knowledge of all of these aspects. For second language learners, the learning of pragmatic features of a new language is often challenging since conventions can be seen to differ greatly between cultures. These differences are studied within the field of *cross-cultural pragmatics*. In the next sub-chapter, I will briefly describe this field of study before the presentation of pragmatic competence in L2.

2.3 Cross-cultural pragmatics

Researchers within *cross-cultural pragmatics* believe that the culture we live in influences our everyday life and world knowledge. Moreover, they claim that culture has an effect on the way we speak and use speech acts, implicatures or politeness conventions. In fact, according to Yule (1996: 87), from the basic experiences and life knowledge we have, we create a *cultural schema* which helps us make sense of

the world. Every culture creates different cultural frameworks and this leads to cross-cultural variation. Varying cultural schemata can indeed cause difficulties and misunderstandings when visiting foreign countries; since cultural schemata vary from culture to culture, it is common that foreign people seem to behave and speak differently from what the visitor is used to in the home country. Cross-cultural pragmatics is “the study of differences in expectations based on cultural schemata” (Yule 1996: 87). Cross-cultural pragmatics examines how speakers from different cultures construct meaning. It studies “different cultural ways of speaking” or *pragmatic accents* (Yule 1996: 88). Research within this field suggests that in cross-cultural communication it is important to understand and pay attention to the pragmatic accents of others.

Although comparing different cultural ways of speaking has gained interest among a number of researchers, cross-cultural pragmatics has also received criticism mostly because of the use and meaning of the notion *culture*. For example, Eelen points out that *culture* is dependent on individuals since they perform the actions “through which societies and cultures arise” (2001: 216). For instance politeness structures seem to vary between cultures, as presented in Chapter 2.2.3, but according to Eelen’s definition of culture, this argument is not valid. In effect, Brown and Levinson’s politeness theory has been criticised; Brown and Levinson define the different notions of politeness, such as face and negative and positive politeness as universal (Brown & Levinson 1987: 2, 13, 242) which has received criticism from such researchers as Eelen (2001), Bousfield (2008) and Ogiermann (2009). Even though Brown and Levinson affirm that the strategies of politeness and the evaluation of face can vary across societies and cultures, Eelen affirms that cultures do not exist on their own (2001: 216). In spite of the criticism, Bousfield (2008: 67) and Ogiermann (2009: 20) both point out that Brown and Levinson’s politeness theory is influential and forms a base for more recent theories. However, the researchers also claim (Bousfield 2008: 36-37, Ogiermann 2009: 42-43) that Brown and Levinson’s theory is only valid in the western countries and that it emphasises Anglo-Saxon forms and norms.

Anglocentrism in Brown and Levinson’s theory as well as in the field of cross-cultural pragmatics itself has received criticism. For example Wierzbicka (2008: 3)

writes that cross-cultural pragmatics bases its theories on Anglocentric assumptions. In addition to the politeness theory, the Gricean maxims have been criticised as presenting Anglocentric norms of “reasonable” and “relevance” (*ibid.*) Wierzbicka states that English has become “the universal code” while the world should be viewed in “culture-independent ways” (2008: 6). In effect, in the previous sub-chapters, speech acts, implicature, Grice’s maxims, politeness and conversation structure were presented within an Anglo-American framework. Nonetheless, culture-independence is a difficult goal to achieve since cross-cultural pragmatics and also interlanguage pragmatics use the notion of *culture* in order to compare language usage by different individuals from different countries. It is, however, important to acknowledge that the use of the term *culture* is debatable and thus, it should be used with caution.

Comparing different cultures is controversial but as stated in the previous paragraph, especially in the fields of cross-cultural pragmatics and interlanguage pragmatics *culture* is an essential notion. In interlanguage pragmatics, the pragmatic competence of learners of different languages is examined, and often, learners from different cultures are compared. It is commonly acknowledged that if L2 learners are not aware of the varying culture specific pragmatic features, there is a risk of intercultural *pragmatic failure*. It seems that in different languages and cultures, for instance the number and categories of speech acts may vary, presuppositions and implications can differ, politeness can be perceived in different ways and such aspects as silence or pauses may be considered more or less important in conversation structure. For second language learners, the knowledge of these varying features is crucial when trying to make meaning in the target language. While cross-cultural pragmatics examines different cultural ways of speaking, the field of *interlanguage pragmatics* focuses on the communication of non-native speakers in the target language. More precisely, it examines learners’ *pragmatic competence*. Subsequently, pragmatic competence will be discussed in the next chapter before the presentation of interlanguage pragmatics.

3 PRAGMATIC COMPETENCE

Pragmatics is a relatively new field of linguistics as was discussed in the previous chapter. The term *pragmatic competence* is also quite recent since it was first explicitly mentioned by Bachman in 1990. However, even before Bachman researchers have understood the importance of language use in context although they have not used the term pragmatic competence; when defining *communicative competence* many researchers have recognised components that are similar to what is now known as pragmatic competence. Because pragmatic competence is an important part of communicative competence, in the present chapter, I will first define *communicative competence* before examining *pragmatic competence* and its main components.

3.1 Communicative competence

The term *communicative competence* was introduced in the 1970's by Hymes who noticed that at the time, language use in context was not taken into account in linguistics (Hymes 1972: 271). The term was created in response to Noam Chomsky's distinction between the notions *competence* and *performance*. According to Chomsky, competence is the "speaker-hearer's" knowledge of a language while performance means the actual use of the language in authentic situations (1965: 4). In other words, Chomsky's *competence* refers to grammar and *performance* to the appropriateness and acceptability of sentences in speech (Canale & Swain 1980: 3). Chomsky's division has been influential but it has been criticised and redefined. Most importantly, Chomsky's emphasis on grammar and syntax and the disregard of the importance of communication in his theory have been questioned. Consequently, the distinction between competence and performance has been reformulated into one notion: *communicative competence*.

As mentioned, Dell Hymes presented the term communicative competence in 1972 in order to take into account the sociocultural features of language which Chomsky had overlooked. According to Hymes (1972: 282), competence refers to the knowledge about language and to the ability to use it. More precisely, he states that

communicative competence entails that the speaker knows whether the forms used are formally *possible* or grammatical, whether they are *feasible* or available for use and whether the forms are *appropriate* in the context of the conversation (1972: 284-285). Hymes' model has been revised most importantly by Canale and Swain (1980) and Canale (1983) and also by Bachman (1990). Bachman's *communicative language ability* includes *language competence*, *strategic competence* and *psychophysiological mechanisms*:

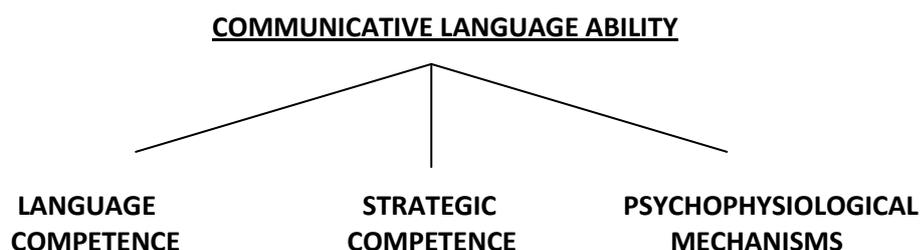


Figure 1. Bachman's communicative language ability (adapted from Bachman 1990: 84)

According to Bachman, *strategic competence* refers to the mental capacity to apply the components of language competence in communication while *psychophysiological mechanisms* are the neurological and psychological processes used in the execution of language (1990: 84). As regards this study, the most important component of Bachman's division is *language competence* which consists of *organizational* and *pragmatic competence*:

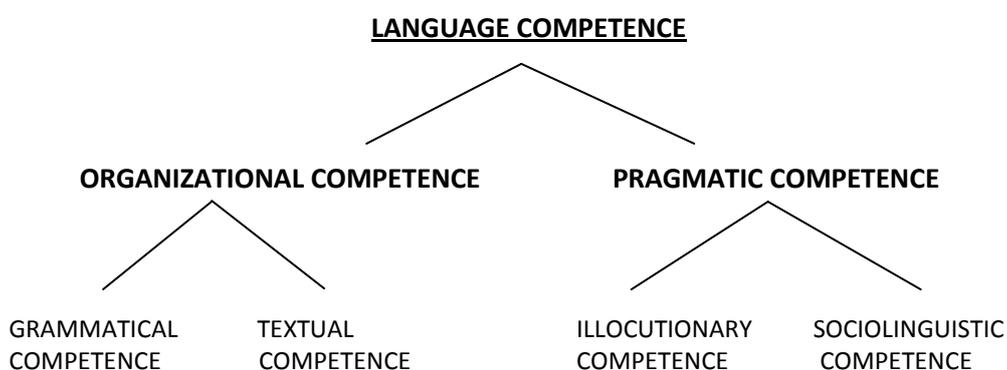


Figure 2. Components of Bachman's language competence (adapted from Bachman 1990: 87)

Bachman's *organizational competence* includes both *grammatical competence*, the understanding of the structures of language, and *textual competence*, the ability to produce texts while *pragmatic competence* deals with the relationships between signs, referents and language users (*illocutionary competence*) and with the context of communication (*sociolinguistic competence*) (Bachman 1990: 87-89). Both organizational and pragmatic competences are needed to successfully communicate and interpret, for instance, a speech act. In fact, it is now widely acknowledged that communicative competence can only be achieved by improving learners' grammatical and pragmatic competence (Alcón Soler & Martínez-Flor 2008: 5). I will next examine the main notion of this study, namely, *pragmatic competence*, by presenting some of its definitions and its two main components.

3.2 Definitions of pragmatic competence

Pragmatic competence is the knowledge of appropriate production and comprehension of language in communication. As presented in Figure 2, Bachman's (1990) pragmatic competence consists of illocutionary and sociolinguistic competence: the knowledge of speech acts and language functions and the knowledge of specific language conventions in specific contexts. Similarly to Bachman, Celce-Murcia and Olshtain describe pragmatic competence as "a set of internalized rules of how to use language in socioculturally appropriate ways, taking into account the participants in a communicative interaction and features of the context within which the interaction takes place" (2000: 20). Though pragmatic competence includes the knowledge of rules, it also involves the ability to use these rules appropriately which becomes evident in Bialystok's definition of the notion:

Pragmatic competence entails a variety of abilities concerned with the use and interpretation of language in contexts. It includes speakers' ability to use language for different purposes — to request, to instruct, to effect change. It includes listeners' ability to get past the language and understand the speaker's real intentions, especially when these intentions are not directly conveyed in the forms — indirect requests, irony and sarcasm are some examples. It includes commands of the rules by which utterances are strung together to create discourse.

(Bialystok 1993: 43)

Bialystok's definition takes into account the different aspects of pragmatics: broadly speaking, it contains the knowledge of different speech acts (*ability to use language for different purposes*), the knowledge of implicature (*ability to understand speaker's*

real intentions) and the knowledge of conversation structure (*commands of the rules by which utterances are strung together to create discourse*). Pragmatic competence entails that speakers have various options in order to function in interaction and they are able to select the appropriate act in a particular context. Therefore, as Bialystok's definition indicates, pragmatic competence is the knowledge of a pragmatic system as well as the ability to use this system appropriately. In effect, pragmatic competence is traditionally divided into *sociopragmatic* (the knowledge of the system) and *pragmalinguistic* (the ability to use the system) competence:

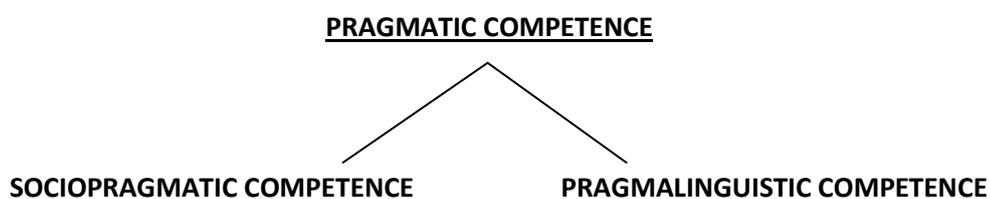


Figure 3. Components of pragmatic competence (based on Leech 1983)

Sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic competences are central notions in the field of interlanguage pragmatics. In addition, the inability to use these competences may lead to *pragmatic failure*. Because of the importance of these terms within the field of ILP, sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic competences as well as pragmatic failure are discussed below.

3.3 Sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic competence

The notions of *sociopragmatics* and *pragmalinguistics* were presented by Leech (1983) as areas of pragmatics. According to Leech (1983: 10-11), sociopragmatics includes the appropriate knowledge of language use in different social conditions whereas pragmalinguistics is defined as a more linguistic aspect of pragmatics containing the resources language users possess to express appropriate utterances. Namely, *sociopragmatic competence* consists of the knowledge of speech acts, politeness conventions, conversation structure, maxims of conversation and in general, it contains the knowledge of how to use language in different situations. In contrast, *pragmalinguistic competence* consists of the ability to use sociopragmatic competence in interaction. For example, Roever (2006: 231) affirms that both

sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic competences are essential for language users and thus, they are closely connected. If speakers do not have a good command of sociopragmatic conventions, they may unintentionally be offensive, too outspoken or incomprehensible (McNamara & Roever 2006: 55). Furthermore, speakers lacking in pragmalinguistic competence can be excluded from a conversation (*ibid.*). Development of these competences can differ in that learners can have better sociopragmatic than pragmalinguistic abilities and vice versa (Roever 2006: 231). Moreover, when facing a *pragmatic failure* it can be difficult to determine whether the failure is due to sociopragmatic or pragmalinguistic competence.

Pragmatic failure is the inability to distinguish between ‘what is meant’ and ‘what is said’ (Thomas 1983: 91). Generally pragmatic failure is restricted to interactions between native (NS) and non-native speakers (NNS) since non-native speakers do not necessarily have the required knowledge to function appropriately in the target language. Also, NNSs misunderstand and are misunderstood more often than NSs (*ibid.*). Subsequently, the development of pragmatic competence is essential in L2 learning. As mentioned, it can be difficult to define the origins of pragmatic failure because it is often impossible to determine whether the speaker does not know the appropriate rules (*sociopragmatic failure*) or whether the speaker is missing the appropriate knowledge of how and when to use these rules (*pragmalinguistic failure*) (McNamara & Roever 2006: 55). Since sociopragmatics refers to social aspects, such as different variables of politeness, namely imposition or social distance, *sociopragmatic failures* result from different assessments of these factors (Thomas 1983: 104). Consequently, sociopragmatic decisions are more delicate than pragmalinguistic choices because sociopragmatics deals with human relationships while pragmalinguistics involves linguistic aspects (*ibid.*).

Research on the two components of pragmatic competence has shown that in L2 classrooms, *pragmalinguistic failures* are often due to either transfer from learners’ first language (L1) or teacher-induced errors (Thomas 1983: 101). For instance, it is possible that the L1 strategies influence L2 speech act production which may cause inappropriate usage of speech acts. In addition, classroom discourse and teaching materials can contain misleading pragmatic information. Although the benefits of instruction in developing pragmatic competence is now acknowledged, teaching can

over-emphasise L1 strategies, certain aspects of pragmatics and an overall lack of pragmatic focus can be found in language classrooms (Bardovi-Harlig 2001: 26). Researchers have also found that language textbooks are not always reliable sources of pragmatic input. For example, Taanila-Hall (2006) found that Finnish high school textbooks have not enough pragmatic references and the existing presentations are often unsystematic and inappropriate.

To conclude, the challenges of sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic development in L2 have been discussed by various researchers. According to Kasper and Rose, learners tend to struggle more with sociopragmatic than with pragmalinguistic aspects of language (2002: 255). Similarly, Thomas states that pragmalinguistic failures are easy to overcome since pragmalinguistic competence involves the knowledge of conventions which is quite straightforward to teach and learn (1983: 91). Sociopragmatic failures, in contrast, are more serious because they deal with “student’s system of beliefs as much as his/her knowledge of the language” (*ibid.*). In fact, learners can choose not to use the conventions of the target language and by making that choice, assert their own identity (McNamara & Roever 2006: 55). Thus, it is often the teacher’s responsibility to raise learners’ awareness of sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic aspects of language although ultimately, learners’ subjective choices define how these aspects are used in communication. The effects of instruction and other aspects influencing L2 pragmatic competence along with learners’ use and development of pragmatic competence are studied within the field of *interlanguage pragmatics*. This field of study will be presented in the next chapter.

4 INTERLANGUAGE PRAGMATICS

In the present study, my aim was to examine the pragmatic competence of Finnish learners of English and investigate whether any development can be found between learners of secondary and upper secondary schools. The field of study that examines the development and use of learners' pragmatic competence is called *interlanguage pragmatics* (ILP). Gabriele Kasper, one of the pioneers of pragmatics in language learning, introduced the term *interlanguage pragmatics* in 1981 (Roever 2006: 232) and Kasper and Blum-Kulka define the field as “[the] study of non-native speakers’ use and acquisition of linguistic action patterns in a second language” (1993: 3). In second and foreign language contexts, ILP research has explained learners’ use, awareness and acquisition of pragmatic aspects and examined various factors that can influence pragmatic competence as well as described how pragmatic aspects are taken into account in the language classroom. In this study, I chose to study both the level and development of Finnish learners’ pragmatic competence in English. In addition, the influence of learning context, namely, the EFL and CLIL contexts, and the influence of different learning opportunities, more precisely, English free time activities and the length of stay were examined.

Interlanguage pragmatics can be defined as a branch of second language acquisition (SLA) research as well as a subset of pragmatics. As a branch of SLA research, ILP is categorised to belong to interlanguage studies with interlanguage phonology, semantics and syntax. As a subset of pragmatics, ILP is seen as a sociolinguistic, psycholinguistic and linguistic field of study which examines learners’ understanding and production of language use in context (Kasper and Blum-Kulka 1993: 3). For example, misunderstandings, the ability to participate in a conversation as a listener, understanding of implicature, use of speech acts and nonverbal actions have been studied within the field (Yamashita 2008: 204-209). Most studies in ILP have focused on comparing non-native speakers’ sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic competences to those of native-speakers. For example, Bardovi-Harlig (2001) found that NNSs produce and judge speech acts differently from NSs and moreover, their speech acts differ in form and content. In fact, researchers have pointed out that ILP research has mainly concentrated on learners’ use of pragmatic knowledge while

little research on the development of pragmatic competence has been carried out (e.g. Schmidt 1993: 21; Kasper & Rose 2002: 1; Chang 2011: 786).

As mentioned, ILP research appears to focus on learners' use of pragmatic aspects. In effect, ILP examines more often the pragmalinguistic component than the sociopragmatic component of pragmatic competence. In most cases, sociopragmatic competence, the knowledge of the pragmatic system, is not considered while the ability to use pragmatic aspects such as routines and requests is emphasised. For example, Alcón Soler and Martínez-Flor state that most studies have examined routines, request realisations, refusals, compliments and apologies and similarly, research on pragmatic instruction is based on these same aspects (2008: 3-4). Routines and particular speech acts are seen as separate from contextual factors which are not taken into account in tests (*ibid.*). As presented in Chapter 3.3 *Sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic competence*, pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic competences are closely connected. Therefore, they should be equally considered in ILP research.

In the present study, both sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic competence of Finnish learners of English were examined. Thus, the study can be placed in the field of interlanguage pragmatics. In the next sub-chapters, I will discuss two areas of ILP research: the development of L2 pragmatic competence and the factors that can influence learners' pragmatic competence. In the final chapter of my theoretical background, I will present research methods in interlanguage pragmatics concentrating mainly on the methods applied in this study.

4.1 Development of L2 pragmatic competence

Although interlanguage pragmatics research has primarily focused on the use of pragmatic features, research on pragmatic development is important since it promotes the understanding of how pragmatic competence can be used in the target language, it enhances the instruction of L2 pragmatics and helps to establish L2 pragmatic development as a domain of SLA research (Kasper & Rose 2002: 1-2). Lately more research on pragmatic development has been carried out and ILP studies have recognised some developmental patterns of pragmatic features. However, often

researchers are more interested in the factors that influence pragmatic learning than in the developmental process itself. Regardless of this unbalance in research, both *longitudinal* and *cross-sectional studies* have shown some tendencies of pragmatic development. Longitudinal studies examine learners' pragmatic competence during a longer period of time while cross-sectional studies compare the pragmatic performance of learners of different proficiency levels (Kasper & Rose 2002: 75, 78). My own study can be defined as cross-sectional since I examined the development of pragmatic competence by comparing Finnish eighth graders from secondary school and second year students from upper secondary school.

In accordance with my research aims, in the next sub-chapters, I will discuss the development of L2 pragmatic competence in detail. As Kasper and Rose state, ILP research does not contain an explicit theoretical framework for the development of pragmatic competence (2002: 15). Hence, I will present both longitudinal and cross-sectional studies that have described the development of pragmatic competence and the characteristics of learners' knowledge of pragmatic aspects. I will begin with the presentation of two theoretical approaches within a cognitive perspective of language learning, that is, Bialystok's (1993) *two-dimensional information processing model* and Schmidt's (1993) *noticing hypothesis*. These approaches can be seen as initial frameworks of pragmatic development. After the presentation of the two theories, I will discuss the developmental patterns that are found for L2 pragmatic competence.

4.1.1 Theoretical approaches

ILP research has been carried out within two views of pragmatic learning, within *a cognitive perspective* and *a socioculturalist perspective*. The cognitive perspective considers pragmatic learning as a mental process while the socioculturalist approach emphasises the role of social interaction. Contrary to the cognitive approach which views pragmatic learning as an individualistic process, sociocultural and socialisation theories place importance on the social and cultural context of learning and examine the language learning process as a mediation process as well as compare the language use of experts and novices (Alcón Soler 2008: 177, Alcón Soler & Martínez-Flor 2008: 7). Socioculturalist research has shown that opportunities to participate and communicate as well as assisted performance in the classrooms help

the development of pragmatic competence (Alcón Soler 2008: 177). Although the cognitive perspective of pragmatic learning seems to overlook the influence of context in the learning process, the approach has provided influential frameworks on the development of pragmatic learning. Most importantly, Bialystok's *two-dimensional model of L2 proficiency development* (1993) and Schmidt's *noticing hypothesis* (1993) have been operationalized in the cognitive perspective. As mentioned, these theories can be seen as initial frameworks of pragmatic development. In my study, I am interested in the development of pragmatic competence and therefore, I find that Bialystok's and Schmidt's frameworks are more central to my study purposes than the models developed within the socioculturalist approach.

Bialystok's (1993) *two-dimensional information processing model* is one of the most influential theories on pragmatic learning. Bialystok claims that L2 learners have two different tasks to complete in the development of pragmatic competence: learners have to form representations of pragmatic knowledge and gain control over the processing of pragmatic information. Bialystok discusses mainly adult learners and states that although adult L2 learners have the pragmatic knowledge of their L1 when they start learning the L2, they do not have the same "childlike naïveté about the social uses of language" that they had in early childhood (Bialystok 1993: 47). Adult L2 learners have already obtained formal representations in their L1 but their challenge is to make new connections between the formal and symbolic representations and link the appropriate forms with appropriate contexts (Bialystok 1993: 52). Furthermore, some reorganisation of the formal representations may be necessary since languages seem to have culture specific forms and rules for pragmatic features as noted in Chapter 2.3 *Cross-cultural pragmatics*. According to Bialystok (1993: 54), adult L2 learners' primary task in the development of pragmatic competence is to gain control over the interpretation and selection of forms. Thus, Bialystok's model indicates that the reason for learners' inappropriate utterances is not the lack of pragmatic knowledge but the inability to control it.

Bialystok's two-dimensional model has gained support from ILP research. For example, Kasper and Schmidt (1996), Kasper and Rose (1999) and Hassall (2003) state that L2 learners rely heavily on their L1 knowledge when processing pragmatic

information. Moreover, House (1996) claims in her study on the development of pragmatic fluency that cognitive processing of pragmatic information is important. House found that learners were not able to process input and select forms from their knowledge quickly enough to respond appropriately to spontaneous talk (1996: 248). Therefore House affirms that the learners did not possess the acquired pragmatic control for the task. House's study contained university level learners and as mentioned, Bialystok refers to adult learners in her theory. Even though Bialystok and other researchers do not discuss the development of younger learners, it is most probable that also young learners have to first gain pragmatic knowledge and then attain control over it. Furthermore, according to Alcón Soler and Martínez-Flor (2008: 10), Bialystok's claim of pragmatic learning as achieving control over existing knowledge has produced studies that have examined whether pragmatic ability progresses with language proficiency and whether length of stay in the target country improves learners' level of pragmatic competence.

Another influential theoretical approach of the cognitive perspective is Schmidt's (1993) *noticing hypothesis*. According to Schmidt's theory, pragmatic competence is acquired by consciously paying attention to linguistic forms. Learners must first *notice* or register an occurrence of an event and secondly, *understand* or recognise the general principle or rule of the occurrence (Schmidt 1993: 26). In addition, Schmidt claims that linguistic forms as well as the context of the utterance are important in learning pragmatics: "[i]n order to acquire pragmatics, one must attend to both the linguistic forms of utterances and the relevant social and contextual features with which they are associated" (Schmidt 2001: 30). Though Schmidt emphasises noticing, he also points out that pragmatic learning can be *incidental* (1993: 27). In other words, learning can occur without the intention of learning. For example, watching target language programmes on television, listening to target language music or talking with speakers of the target language may force the learners to notice something in the input although learning is not intended. Schmidt claims that it does not matter whether learners intend to pay attention to the form or not (*ibid.*), that is to say, incidental learning can often promote pragmatic learning. Nevertheless, Schmidt continues that while incidental learning is possible, noticing and paying conscious attention to the form facilitates the learning process (1993: 35).

Schmidt's noticing hypothesis has brought about studies that have examined the teachability of pragmatics since noticing is enabled in classrooms. Research has shown that pragmatics is teachable and that foreign language contexts often help the learning process (Alcón Soler 2002, 2005, Alcón Soler & Guzmán Pitarch 2010). Furthermore, there is evidence of the advantage of explicit over implicit instruction (House 1996, Rose & Ng Kwai-Fun 2001, Takahashi 2001, Tateyama 2001, Alcón Soler 2005) although studies have also shown that both types of instruction benefit the learning of pragmatic competence (Koike & Pearson 2005, Martínez-Flor & Alcón Soler 2007). Researchers has acknowledged that instruction facilitates pragmatic competence but as mentioned in Chapter 3.3 *Sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic competence*, teacher-induced errors, misleading classroom discourse and teaching materials can lead to pragmatic failures. As a result, the quality of input is crucial in the development of pragmatic competence.

According to Kasper and Rose (2002: 21), Bialystok's and Schmidt's cognitive approaches indicate different stages of the learning process: Schmidt's noticing hypothesis implies the initial stage of input processing which requires noticing, while Bialystok's model presents how pragmatic competence develops by analysing representations and controlling the process. Moreover, Bialystok's theory and further research supporting her claims have pointed out the influence of proficiency and length of stay on the development of L2 pragmatic competence. Also, Schmidt's hypothesis presents the idea that incidental learning and instruction can benefit learners' pragmatic competence. The influence of incidental learning or learning opportunities and different learning environments, namely EFL and CLIL classes, were examined in the present study and will be presented in Chapter 4.2. Finally, Kasper and Rose argue that Bialystok and Schmidt's models explain individual and contextual conditions of pragmatic development but they do not put forward any developmental stages (2002: 58-59). Although these stages are challenging to find, other researchers have been able to distinguish more specific developmental patterns for L2 pragmatic competence. These will be discussed in the chapter below.

4.1.2 Developmental patterns

Kasper and Schmidt (1996: 159) acknowledge the challenge of finding developmental stages for pragmatic competence in stating that unlike for morphology or syntax, no order is found for the acquisition of pragmatic features of language. However, ILP studies have been able to find some developmental patterns in L2 pragmatic competence, and these studies are discussed by Kasper and Rose (2002), the two pioneers of pragmatics in language learning. Kasper and Rose review ILP research on pragmatic development and attempt to describe possible developmental patterns for *pragmatic comprehension* and *production*. As my own study examined the development of the pragmatic competence of Finnish learners of English, in the next sub-chapters, I will present Kasper and Rose's findings as well as some additional studies contributing to Kasper and Rose's discussion in order to describe how pragmatic competence seems to develop in L2.

I will begin the discussion of the developmental patterns by presenting the development of pragmatic comprehension, and I will focus on studies that have examined the comprehension of *implicature*. In the following sub-chapter, I will present pragmatic production and refer to research on *situational routines* and *speech acts*. It is important to notice that the studies presented have principally examined university level students while the subjects of the present study were secondary and upper secondary school pupils. Thus, even though younger learners were examined in the present study, I find it essential to present studies on adult learners since they represent the most cited and influential studies of ILP.

4.1.2.1 Development of pragmatic comprehension

Pragmatic comprehension includes the understanding of speaker meaning and utterance meaning (see 2.1 *Definitions of pragmatics*); it entails the comprehension of words and sentences and the speaker's assigned meaning to them (Taguchi 2007: 314). Although pragmatic comprehension is an important ability to L2 learners, its development has received the least attention within L2 pragmatic studies (Kasper & Rose 2002: 118). The few studies on pragmatic comprehension do not give any precise description of the developmental process since they discuss only

some possible stages for the development of pragmatic comprehension. Moreover, all of the studies are cross-sectional studying learners of different proficiency levels at certain points in time (*ibid.*). According to Kasper and Rose, the most influential findings on the development of pragmatic comprehension come from Bouton's (1988, 1994) series of studies. I will present Bouton's main results and also, review a more recent study by Taguchi (2007) who examined the development of speed and accuracy in the development of pragmatic comprehension of implicatures.

Bouton (1988, 1994) carried out a series of studies in which he examined international students at an American university and their comprehension of implicatures in English. Bouton assessed the students' comprehension of two types of implicature, namely, *idiosyncratic implicature* and *formulaic implicature*. Idiosyncratic implicature is a conversational implicature violating Grice's maxims and forcing the hearer to draw inferences based on shared background knowledge (see 2.2.2 *Implicature*) (Bouton 1994: 157). For instance, the conversation in example 1 presents idiosyncratic implicature in which B's utterance is not a straight response to A's question which would acquire a yes/no response. However, B's statement is interpreted as a negative response based on the shared knowledge of the mail delivery:

- (1) A: "Has the mail come yet?"
 B: "It's only eleven."

(Roever 2004: 286)

Formulaic implicature is more patterned or routinized than idiosyncratic implicature since such aspects as the Pope Question ("Do you have a lot of relatives? – Are there flies in the summertime [or is the Pope Catholic?]") and indirect criticism ("What did you think of it [student's paper]? – Well, I thought it was well typed") are placed in the category of formulaic implicature (Bouton 1994: 162). Hearers who know the patterns of this particular type of implicature can infer the meaning more easily than those who are not familiar with the same patterns (Roever 2004: 86).

In his first study, Bouton (1988) administered a multiple choice questionnaire requiring the use of implicature to non-native speakers and native speakers of

English. He found that NNSs interpreted implicatures incorrectly 21 % of the time while arriving at the same interpretation as the NSs approximately 79 % of the time (Bouton 1994: 159). From these results, Bouton concluded that cross-cultural interaction is challenging to language learners since they are not always able to use implicatures appropriately (*ibid.*). However, this initial questionnaire does not present how pragmatic comprehension develops. Thus, Bouton continued his investigations with two follow-up studies in which he attempted to find out whether time spent in the target language country would develop the learners' interpretations of implicature.

Bouton's first four and a half year follow-up study showed that learners of English were able to develop the comprehension of implicature during their stay in the United States. However, some items continued to be problematic for the L2 learners. In effect, Bouton affirms that these difficulties were due to culture-specific knowledge that the learners had not yet acquired (1988: 62). Nevertheless, differences between NS and NNS had greatly diminished. In the second follow-up study administered after 17 months in the target language country, Bouton wanted to examine how fast pragmatic competence can develop; his aim was to investigate whether 17 months would be enough to reach native-like competence (1994: 164). Learners did show progress in the interpretation of implicatures but similarly to the participants of the first follow-up study, they did not reach native-like competence since they had difficulties in the understanding of indirect criticism, the Pope Question and irony (Bouton 1994: 166). More precisely, Bouton found that the students' knowledge of idiosyncratic implicature developed over time while the development of formulaic implicature was more challenging (*ibid.*). In conclusion, Bouton argues that the two follow-up studies show that the development pragmatic comprehension takes time: 17 months is not enough to become competent in pragmatic comprehension while after four and a half years learners' pragmatic comprehension resembles that of native-speakers even though some items of pragmatic knowledge remain challenging to learners.

In a more recent study on pragmatic comprehension, Taguchi (2007) investigated the development of *speed* and *accuracy* in pragmatic comprehension. Taguchi's informants were Japanese university level learners who had enrolled in an intensive

English programme. Contrary to Bouton's studies, Taguchi examined students in a foreign language environment and not in the target language country. Taguchi investigated L2 learners' ability to comprehend implicature through a pragmatic listening task and a word recognition task which measured participants' speed in classifying individual words (Taguchi 2007: 321-323). The participants of the study were tested for their ability to comprehend two types of implied meaning, namely, indirect refusals and indirect opinions. In general, speakers can express different meanings via three directness levels: direct ("Pass me the salt"), conventional indirect ("Can you pass me the salt?") and nonconventional indirect ("Are you putting the salt on my meat?") (Taguchi 2007: 315). Learners tend to use more direct than indirect expressions especially at the beginning of the development process, whereas learners' ability to use nonconventional indirect expressions develops with time. In effect, in order to comprehend indirect expressions correctly, both accuracy, the knowledge of pragmatic aspects, and speed, the processing of pragmatic aspects, are important.

Taguchi's results show that after seven weeks, L2 learners developed significantly in the accuracy and speed of pragmatic comprehension; however, the development of accuracy was greater than the development of speed. Performance speed assumes automatization of the comprehension process and this seems to lag behind performance accuracy (Taguchi 2007: 329). To achieve speedy performance, the linguistic, cognitive and sociocultural aspect of pragmatic processing has to be automatized, and this automatization process takes time (Taguchi 2007: 330). In other words, as Bialystok's theory (see 4.1.1) presents, learners have to gain control over their existing pragmatic knowledge before they can function in the target language as appropriately as possible. Moreover, Taguchi found that learners' comprehension of refusals was considerably more accurate and faster than that of indirect opinions which according to Taguchi is due to different degrees of conventionality in refusals and opinions (2007: 329). To conclude, Taguchi's results suggest that both performance accuracy and conventional expressions develop more quickly than performance speed and the comprehension of less conventional expressions such as indirect opinions.

Bouton's (1988, 1994) and Taguchi's (2007) studies can be seen as the only pre-test/post-test design investigations on the development of pragmatic comprehension to date. These studies observed learners at two different points of time. Thus, as mentioned previously, they do not give any indication of the developmental process of pragmatic comprehension but they describe some possible stages of development. Bouton's results showed that 17 months in a foreign country is not enough to achieve native-like competence in pragmatic comprehension but after a four and a half year sojourn, native-like conduct can be found though development is not perfect. Taguchi found that pragmatic comprehension can develop significantly in a foreign language environment and most importantly, he found that performance accuracy develops more quickly than performance speed in pragmatic comprehension. Contrary to pragmatic comprehension discussed in this chapter, the development of *pragmatic production* has been examined by various researchers and, as Kasper and Rose point out (2002: 124), it has provided more insights into the development of L2 pragmatic competence. I will present the developmental patterns of pragmatic production in the next sub-chapter.

4.1.2.2 Development of pragmatic production

Kasper and Rose (2002) divide the development of pragmatic production into the development of pragmatic and discourse ability and the development of speech acts. Studies of pragmatic and discourse ability have examined, for example, the acquisition, production and recognition of alignment expressions or hearer responses, the acquisition of politeness as well as the production of situational routines or conventional expressions, such as "no, thanks", "I'd love to" or "you're welcome". Studies on speech acts have examined the development of requests, refusals, compliments and apologies. Since Finnish learners' ability to use both situational routines and speech acts was investigated in the present study, the development of these two aspects will be discussed in this chapter.

Researchers have found that the learning of situational routines is dependent on exposure to the target language input. According to Roever, exposure to the target language is especially beneficial when acquiring routine formulae since situational routines are highly frequent and specific in certain settings and social situations

(2012: 11). For example Kanagy (1999) found that repetition and scaffolding help the learning process of situational routines: she concluded that the more the learners use the language, the more productive language users they become (1999: 1489). However, Bardovi-Harlig (2009: 782) states that the production of conventional expressions or situational routines is more complex than what Kanagy's results showed. Bardovi-Harlig affirms that such aspects as lack of familiarity and the overuse of some expressions as well as the level of development and the level of sociopragmatic competence influence the production of situational routines (*ibid.*). Conventional expressions or situational routines are frequent in interaction and thus, quite simple to learn but in order to function appropriately in the L2, learners need the knowledge of how these expressions are used in target language communication.

Although the knowledge of situational routines such as “you're welcome” or “how are you?” depend on the learners' sociopragmatic competence, Roever found that the level of proficiency is not necessarily an important factor in the development of routine formulae. In fact, he affirms that even low-proficiency learners learn easily situational routines since these expressions are short and frequent in interaction (2012: 17). To conclude, Roever's as well as Kanagy's and Bardovi-Harlig's findings suggest that the production of situational routines develops quite easily but it is still dependent on different factors, such as learners' level of sociopragmatic knowledge. As for pragmatic comprehension discussed in Chapter 4.1.2.1, no precise developmental stages have been found for the production of situational routines. Nonetheless, Kasper and Rose state that the overall pragmatic competence of language learners seems to follow a specific pattern: according to Kasper and Rose (2002: 134), in the earliest stages of development, learners rely on unanalysed formulae and repetition. Gradually, learners start to expand their pragmatic knowledge by using more analysed and productive language. This same result is noted by Kasper and Schmidt (1996: 159) who explain that in naturalistic L2 development, “pragmatic competence seems to evolve through initial reliance on a few unanalysed routines that are later decomposed and available for productive use in more complex utterances”.

Though there are some studies on the development of pragmatic and discourse ability, the development of speech acts is best represented in ILP literature (Kasper

& Rose 2002: 134). In particular, English requests have been studied extensively. Kasper and Rose state that the development of requests follows the same pattern mentioned in the previous paragraph: first, learners rely on unanalysed routines while with time, their requests become more analysed and productive. However, studies on request development have also been able to point out clear stages of development. In fact, Kasper and Rose propose a five stage developmental process of request development based on two longitudinal studies examining L2 English learners in naturalistic environments: Ellis' (1992) study of two beginning learners of English, J and R, and Achiba's (2003) study of her own daughter Yao learning English during a stay in Australia. These five stages of request development are presented in Table 1:

Stages	Characteristics	Examples
1. Pre-basic	Highly context-dependent, no syntax, no relational goals	<i>Me no blue Sir</i>
2. Formulaic	Reliance on unanalysed formulas and imperatives	<i>Let's play the game Don't look</i>
3. Unpacking	Formulas incorporated into productive language use, shift to conventional directness	<i>Can you pass the pencil please? Can you do another one for me?</i>
4. Pragmatic expansion	Addition of new forms to pragmalinguistic repertoire, increased use of mitigation, more complex syntax	<i>Could I have another chocolate because my children — I have five children. Can I see it so I can copy it?</i>
5. Fine-tuning	Fine-tuning of requestive force to participants, goals, and contexts	<i>You could put some blu tack down there Is there any more white?</i>

Table 1. Five stages of L2 request development (adapted from Kasper & Rose 2002: 140)

As Table 1 presents, the development of requests progresses from pre-basic, context-dependent use (stage 1) and unanalysed formulas (stage 2) to pragmatic expansion

showing more productiveness (stage 3) and addition of new forms (stage 4). As learners reach the level of fine-tuning (stage 5), they are increasingly more aware of the other participants, the goals and the contexts of the conversation. Subsequently, learners are able to use various strategies and, for example, more polite forms in interaction.

Ellis' (1992) and Achiba's (2003) longitudinal studies provide a basis of developmental stages for pragmatic production of speech acts but their results are based only on three individuals in naturalistic environments. As Kasper and Rose point out, cross-sectional studies can provide further evidence for the development of request production since they include larger numbers of participants and, thus, their results are more generalizable than the results of longitudinal research (2002: 141). For instance, Rose's (2000, 2009) and Félix-Brasdefer's (2007) cross-sectional studies on request development in the foreign language (FL) environment have found developmental stages that seem to parallel with the stages presented by Kasper and Rose. Rose studied Cantonese primary school learners of English at the ages of 7, 9 and 11 (2000: 35, 2009: 2345) while Félix-Brasdefer studied English undergraduate students of Spanish at three different proficiency levels (beginning, intermediate, advanced) (2007: 260). Both researchers found that the beginning learners or younger learners preferred direct requests while with increasing proficiency, direct strategies decreased and the use of indirect formulations increased. Nonetheless, though Rose and Félix-Brasdefer recognised similar developmental stages as Kasper and Rose, the studied learners in these cross-sectional studies did not approach native-speaker levels and even in the later stages of request development, learners could resort to regressive patterns.

The speech act of request has produced various studies within the field of ILP but other speech acts, such as apologies, directives and advice have been examined as well. Pearson (2006), for example, describes the development of Spanish L2 directives by American university students and concludes that it follows the same stages as the development of requests (see Table 1). Similar results were found by Chang (2010) who studied the development of English apologies by four groups of Chinese learners (9, 12, 16, 19 years old). Chang states that apology strategies develop with increasing proficiency: initially, learners' use simple, formulaic

apologies such as “sorry” or “I’m sorry”, but with time learners’ repertoire of expressions expands and they are able to give explanations for their apologies (2010: 418-419). However, Pearson noticed that in the later stages of directive development, some forms seemed to decline while other earlier learned expressions reappeared (2006: 488). This lends support to Félix-Brasdefer’s (2007) and Rose’s (2000, 2009) findings on learners who did not reach native-like request production and who used regressive patterns even in the later stages of development.

In addition to developmental stages, the cross-sectional studies on request production have put forward the difference in the development of pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic competence (see 3.3). Both Félix-Brasdefer (2007: 274) and Rose (2000: 55, 2009: 2358) state that pragmalinguistic competence seems to precede sociopragmatic competence since situational variation and the awareness of context appear in the later stages of pragmatic development. For example, Félix-Brasdefer found that the beginning learners of his study used mainly direct strategies when forming requests which according to the researcher, suggests that the learners had limited knowledge of situational variation in the early stages of pragmatic development. Only in the later stages do learners become aware of the social conditions of language use (*sociopragmatic competence*) while different resources of language usage (*pragmalinguistic competence*), such as, unanalysed formulas and imperatives, seem to be available to learners from the beginning of request development. Consequently, research suggests the development of sociopragmatic competence takes more time than that of pragmalinguistic competence as the ability to understand language use is reportedly very challenging to L2 learners. Moreover, this development seems to be valid for adult learners as well as younger learners since Félix-Brasdefer studied university level students while Rose’s focus was on primary school pupils.

Further evidence for the relationship of sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic competence and their development is provided by Chang (2011) and Matsumura (2007). Chang found that the relation of pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic competence is more dynamic from what Félix-Brasdefer and Rose concluded. Chang examined the development of apologies and found that pragmalinguistic competence does not necessarily precede sociopragmatic

competence. Chang states that the ability to use pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic competences seems to vary during different development stages and even beginning learners are aware of contextual factors while they are not always able to use pragmalinguistic resources (2011: 796). On the other hand, Matsumura's (2007) study on the development of English advice supports Félix-Brasdefer's and Rose's results in claiming that with time learners become more aware of contextual factors and for example, their interlocutor's social status when choosing advice strategies (Matsumura 2007: 184). However, Matsumura studied university students in a study abroad context while Chang examined learners of different proficiency levels starting from beginning-level learners in a foreign language context. Consequently, the different study subjects and learning environments can explain the divergent results.

In the previous sub-chapters on the developmental patterns for L2 pragmatic competence, I discussed the development of pragmatic comprehension and production. The development of pragmatic and discourse ability and the development of speech acts seem to progress along the same guidelines, from unanalysed routines to productive use and fine-tuning. Moreover, similar developmental patterns have been found for pragmatic comprehension, although its development has received less attention: Bouton (1988, 1994) and Taguchi (2007) found that formulaic implicature is more difficult to learn than idiosyncratic implicature and that conventional expressions are learned earlier than nonconventional expressions. In addition, developmental research has shown that both the development of pragmatic production and the development of pragmatic comprehension and especially the development of sociopragmatic competence take time at least in the foreign language environment.

The discussion of the development of pragmatic competence puts forwards my own research questions. My aim in this thesis was to examine the pragmatic competence of Finnish learners of English and study whether any development can be found between secondary and upper secondary school pupils. Furthermore, via the multiple choice questionnaire applied in the study, the comprehension of implicatures and production of situational routines and speech acts were investigated. Therefore, the theoretical approaches and developmental patterns discussed in the previous chapters

are central to my research questions. I also attempted to find out whether different learning environments and learning opportunities affect Finnish learners' pragmatic competence. In the next sub-chapter, I will present and discuss studies that have examined how the chosen aspects influence L2 pragmatic competence.

4.2 Factors that influence L2 pragmatic competence

Interlanguage pragmatics research examines language use, language learning as well as the factors that can influence learners' pragmatic competence. These factors become evident in Roever's definition of *interlanguage* within the term *interlanguage pragmatics*:

The 'interlanguage' aspect of ILP denotes the systematic but transient nature of learners' pragmatic knowledge about the target language, and implies the influence of factors that have been identified in SLA research to affect interlanguage systems: transfer, overgeneralization, simplification, transfer-of-training, amount and quality of input, attention and awareness, aptitude, motivation, and other individual differences.

(Roever 2006: 230²)

As Roever states, factors such as transfer, amount of input, motivation and aptitude commonly influence the language learning process, and ILP research has studied how these aspects affect learners' pragmatic competence. Within ILP, exposure to input, L2 proficiency, length of stay, transfer and instruction have motivated a number of researchers who have found that these factors influence the use and development of pragmatic competence (Alcón Soler 2008: 174).

In addition to overall pragmatic competence of Finnish learners, this study examined the influence of two different *learning contexts*. More precisely, the difference between learners in *English as a foreign language* (EFL) classes and learners in *content and language integrated learning* (CLIL) classes was studied. Furthermore, the influence of different *learning opportunities*, namely, the influence of English free time activities and the influence of *length of stay* or time spent in an English-speaking country were chosen as variables for the present study. In accordance with these research aims, in the next sub-chapters, I will first discuss the pragmatic input

² Roever's definition of *interlanguage* is based on Selinker (1972), Kasper (1995), Kasper and Schmidt (1996), Schmidt (2001) and Robinson (2002) (Roever 2006: 230).

in the two learning contexts and secondly, I will present research on the different learning opportunities.

4.2.1 Influence of learning context

Among the factors that influence L2 pragmatic competence, exposure to *input*, to the communicative data from the environment which turns into noticed *intake* (Schmidt 1993, 2001), is an essential condition of learning. According to Kasper and Rose, “[l]anguage acquisition requires that learners have access to the target language” (2002: 191). In other words, Kasper and Rose claim that access to the target language is the fundamental condition of language learning, and especially for the development of pragmatic competence, target language input is central. The role of this input in different learning contexts, for instance in foreign language (FL), second language (SL) or in CLIL contexts, and its properties with the greatest acquisitional benefits have been studied within the field of SLA (*ibid.*). In the next sub-chapters, I will present the learning contexts, FL and CLIL classrooms, examined in this study. I will first briefly discuss the general characteristics of these two learning environments before presenting research on their influence on learners’ pragmatic competence.

4.2.1.1 FL classrooms

Foreign language (FL) classrooms refer to contexts in which the taught language is not one of the official languages of the country (Rose 1999: 167). For example in Finland, learners commonly study English, French, German and Russian as their foreign languages at school. Since the languages are not used officially or daily in the country, researchers have questioned whether FL classrooms can provide authentic input that would benefit the development of pragmatic competence (Kasper & Rose 2002: 208). However, the usefulness of FL classrooms depends on various factors, for instance, on the classroom arrangements and activities as well as on the teachers’ and learners’ varying roles during these activities (Kasper & Rose 2002: 217). In fact, as mentioned in Chapter 4.1.1 *Theoretical approaches* of L2 pragmatic development, research has shown that pragmatics is teachable and that foreign language contexts often help the learning process (e.g. Alcón Soler 2002, 2005,

Alcón Soler & Guzmán Pitarch 2010). Explicit instruction benefits learners' awareness-raising process since it makes learners notice pragmatic information from input.

Awareness-raising is one of the basic notions of Schmidt's (1993) noticing hypothesis, and as he states, learners have to notice pragmatic information before they can understand different aspects of it (see 4.1.1 *Theoretical approaches*). The importance of Schmidt's hypothesis has been emphasised by Alcón Soler (2002, 2005) who argues that awareness-raising is crucial and also possible in FL classrooms. Alcón Soler (2002) studied teacher-student and student-student interaction and found that especially peer-interaction favours noticing and hypothesis testing. However, the researcher also found that useful output is produced in both teacher-student and student-student interaction (Alcón Soler 2002: 371). In another study, Alcón Soler (2005) examined the development of request strategies in explicit and implicit instruction and concluded that learners' awareness of requests benefits from both types of instruction. Alcón Soler states that input turns into intake in both explicit and implicit instruction. However, learners in explicit instruction were able to provide metapragmatic explanations of their request use which was not found in the implicit group (Alcón Soler 2005: 425).

Alcón Soler's results have gained support from studies by Martínez-Flor and Alcón Soler (2007), and Alcón Soler and Guzmán Pitarch (2010). These studies report on the benefits of instruction on learners' attention and awareness of suggestions and refusals. Both studies suggest that planned pedagogical actions promote learners' awareness-raising which implies that FL classrooms can facilitate pragmatic development. Similarly, Takahashi (2001) and Tateyama (2001) state that explicit and planned teaching conditions advance learners' pragmatic competence. Takahashi and Tateyama found that learners in explicit teaching groups outperformed those who received implicit instruction. Though these studies emphasise the usefulness of FL instruction, according to Kasper and Rose (2002: 208), FL classes can also have "a bad reputation" as learning contexts because they offer functionally and formally limited input.

Some researchers believe that FL classrooms have difficulties in providing authentic pragmatic input mainly because of the non-official status of the target language in the instruction context. Kasper and Rose present studies that have found that during FL lessons, the range of speech acts is narrow, politeness strategies differ from the normal usage and openings and closings of conversations are shorter as well as less complex than in everyday discourse (Kasper 1989, Lörcher 1989, Lörcher & Schulze 1988 in Kasper & Rose 2002: 208). Furthermore, according to Rose (1999: 168-169) large classes, limited hours and limited intercultural communication impede learners' pragmatic development in FL classes. Thus, it seems that FL classrooms are not always ideal environments for pragmatic development. Nevertheless, as pointed out earlier, Kasper and Rose claim that the usefulness of FL classrooms as benefiting learners' pragmatic competence depends on various factors, for example, on the classroom arrangements and activities (2002: 217). In accordance with this claim, Koike and Pearson (2005) examined the effect of instruction and feedback on the development of pragmatic competence and found that explicit instruction and feedback help learners to *understand* aspects of pragmatics whereas implicit instruction helps learners to *produce* these aspects appropriately (2005: 495). As Kasper and Rose, also Koike and Pearson argue that different types of instruction have varying effects on different areas of learners' competence.

Research on FL classrooms and pragmatic competence shows varying results. On the one hand explicit instruction facilitates pragmatic development, but on the other hand FL classrooms are seen as lacking in pragmatic input. Moreover, Alcón Soler argues that learners in instructional settings are often more concerned about the grammar and vocabulary than about the pragmatic aspects of language (2002: 371). This puts the pressure on the teachers to plan lessons and draw learners' attention to pragmatic elements since learners cannot be expected to develop their pragmatic competence on their own (Alcón Soler 2002: 371-372). In FL classrooms, raising learners' awareness about pragmatic aspects is important while in CLIL classrooms this awareness is said to develop more easily since the target language is used as a medium of instruction. In the next sub-chapter, I will discuss CLIL teaching and its influence on language learners' pragmatic competence.

4.2.1.2 CLIL classrooms

The development of *content and language integrated learning* (CLIL) began in Canada in the 1970's and 1980's when English-speaking parents enlisted their children into French-speaking education (Eurydice 2006: 7). From the 1980's onwards, immersion type education programmes spread and different types of immersion such as *language based content instruction*, *content-based language instruction* and *language sensitive content instruction* were developed (Lehti, Järvinen & Suomela-Salmi 2006: 295). The acronym CLIL was taken into use in the 1990's to refer to education programmes in which the aim was to develop learners' proficiency in the content subjects as well as in the target language (Eurydice 2006: 7). In essence, CLIL does not refer to any specific teaching model, rather, it is an umbrella term that describes the various ways that schools choose to use a language other than the learners' native language as the medium of instruction (Nikula 2002: 449). The content, methods and the amount of the target language in CLIL classrooms vary but the aim of CLIL classes is to use the target language in instruction.

In Finland, official CLIL teaching began in 1991 (Lehti, Järvinen & Suomela-Salmi 2006: 294). The most common foreign language in Finnish CLIL classes is English and the methods of CLIL teaching in basic education and in upper secondary school education are varied (Lehti, Järvinen & Suomela-Salmi 2006: 311-312). As mentioned, the amount of language as well as the subject matters taught in the foreign language can differ but the curriculum of CLIL education follows the national core curricula of Finland. Lehti, Järvinen and Suomela-Salmi (2006: 301) report that especially in basic education, learners start CLIL education because of their parents' wishes whereas in upper secondary schools, CLIL classes are common since they improve the schools' image. Although CLIL education is voluntary in Finland, most schools have entrance examinations for applying to these classes. Lehti, Järvinen and Suomela-Salmi (2006: 296-297) state that studies that have examined learning outcomes in CLIL environments have found mainly positive results, though factors such as the starting age of CLIL learners, the amount of target language, and the use of entrance examinations influence the researchers' aims.

Nikula (2002, 2005, 2008) has examined Finnish learners of English in CLIL classrooms and compared the CLIL environment to the EFL environment. She has studied how pragmatic aspects, such as classroom interaction, the use of English, teacher talk and learners' language use, are taken into account in CLIL classrooms. When comparing CLIL and EFL environments, Nikula (2008: 38) affirms that in EFL classes English is mainly used in association with learning materials, for example when the teachers and learners go through the content of English textbooks. By contrast, Finnish is used for grammar instruction, classroom management and discipline, for instance when the teacher has to point out something or call the learners' attention (*ibid.*). Contrary to EFL contexts, Nikula's studies show that in CLIL classrooms, English is used in almost all classroom activities. Nikula claims that during CLIL lessons, English is used in more varied and meaningful ways because the CLIL pupils are more active than EFL learners and the interaction is dialogic (2005: 39, 2008: 106). In brief, Nikula states that CLIL environments provide learners with opportunities to use the L2 in different social situations which, according to Nikula, is the strength of these classrooms (2008: 110). Moreover, these opportunities can be seen as benefiting the development of pragmatic competence.

Nikula's results indicate that CLIL and EFL environments differ in the amount as well as in the quality of the target language. In fact, Nikula finds that EFL and CLIL classrooms socialise pupils into different users of English (2005: 54). These classrooms are different institutional contexts because, as Nikula claims, CLIL learners are regarded as more experienced users of English whereas EFL learners are often treated as novices (*ibid.*). However, Dalton-Puffer (2005) and Dalton-Puffer and Nikula (2006) state that CLIL and EFL lessons are similar in that they are both educational events and therefore, teachers' and learners' roles, interactional rights and obligations follow the same asymmetrical guidelines. According to the researchers, similarly to EFL classrooms, CLIL classes contain situation-specific language use which does not resemble the language used in real-life settings (Dalton-Puffer & Nikula 2006: 263). Thus, although CLIL classrooms enable the use of pragmatically meaningful language, they are still classrooms with specific institutional and educational constraints.

A number of studies have examined the differences between CLIL and EFL classrooms but only a few studies have examined CLIL pupils' learning outcomes in terms of pragmatic competence. Rehner, Mougeon and Nadasdi (2003, 2005³) have conducted two studies on these learning outcomes and they conclude that although CLIL learners master the formal aspects of language, their language use is not necessarily contextually appropriate. Hence, their language use does not correspond to that of native-speakers. As regards the comparison of learners in CLIL and EFL classes, to my knowledge, only one study has examined differences in learning outcomes: Rosin (2008) compared the pragmatic competence of Finnish upper secondary school students of English in EFL and CLIL classes and found that CLIL students performed better than EFL students in her test of pragmatic competence. However, the differences between the two groups were not large and due to the small scale of the study, it is difficult to generalise the results. Moreover, Rosin admits that it was not possible to distinguish whether it was the CLIL teaching itself or the CLIL learners' active participation in English free time activities which explained their better performance in her test (2008: 130). CLIL learners are often very motivated to learn and use the target language and also, their parents or friends can speak the target language as their L1 which accounts for CLIL pupils' active participation in different target language activities. As a result, leisure time activities further benefit the development of pragmatic competence.

As presented in the previous chapters on FL and CLIL classrooms, learning context seems to have a varying effect on learners' development of pragmatic competence. FL and CLIL classrooms offer learners different possibilities to develop their pragmatic competence. Studies have shown that FL classrooms do not necessarily provide authentic input while CLIL classrooms' advantage is the continuous usage of the foreign language. Those in favour of CLIL learning argue that when language is used as the medium of learning, acquisition is naturalistic and the ability to communicate appropriately in the foreign language develops more easily than in formal teaching (Nikula 2002: 449). Nevertheless, explicit teaching benefits learners' pragmatic competence which, however, demands teachers to provide explicit information on pragmatic aspects of language. In my study, my aim was to provide

³ Rehner, Mougeon & Nadasdi (2003) and Nadasdi, Mougeon & Rehner (2005).

more information about the possible differences between CLIL and EFL learners and further investigate Nikula's and Rosin's findings. In addition to the examination of these two learning environments, I also studied the influence of different learning opportunities or exposure to English, namely, the effect of free time activities and the length of stay which I will present in the next sub-chapter.

4.2.2 Influence of learning opportunities

One of the most influential models of pragmatic learning is Schmidt's *noticing hypothesis*, as was presented in Chapter 4.1.1 *Theoretical approaches*. According to Schmidt (1993: 26), learners have to first notice and secondly, understand an occurrence of the foreign language in order to gain pragmatic competence. However, Schmidt also claims that pragmatic learning can be *incidental* (1993: 27), in other words, learning can occur without the intention of learning. For example, foreign language learners can become aware of different linguistic forms by watching target language programmes on television, listening to target language music or talking with speakers of the target language. Moreover, spending time in the foreign country can enable incidental learning. These different leisure time activities provide learners with exposure to the target language and may force them to notice something in the input although learning is not intended.

In the next sub-chapter, I will discuss studies that have examined exposure to the target language. As with the developmental studies presented in Chapter 4.1.2, most of these studies have examined university students, while this study concentrated on secondary school and upper secondary school pupils. In particular, research on the influence of length of stay has discussed mainly university students during *study abroad* in target language countries. As the body of research focuses on university students, I find it inevitable to present the main findings of these studies.

4.2.2.1 Free time activities and the length of stay

Influence of learning opportunities within this study contain both different free time activities conducted in the target language and the length of stay in a target language country. Generally, the influence of different leisure time activities has not gained interest among researchers of ILP. Some researchers have studied exposure to the target language but, to my knowledge, these studies have examined exposure within study abroad or a sojourn in the target country. For example, Matsumura (2003) examined Japanese university students' exposure to English during study abroad in Canada. Matsumura used a self-report questionnaire to obtain information on the students' usage of English outside the classroom and he concludes that the amount of exposure has a great effect on the pragmatic development of learners: learners who had more exposure to English became more competent in using the language when compared to learners who had less exposure to the L2 (Matsumura 2003: 484). Contrary to Matsumura, Rosin (2008) found that leisure time activities, such as reading books and magazines, listening to music and watching TV-programmes in the target language did not affect the pragmatic competence of learners. Rosin examined the role of English free time activities in Finnish upper secondary school students' home country which has not been previously studied, but her results show that leisure time activities did not influence the pragmatic competence of Finnish learners of English.

Even though little research has been done on the influence of different free time activities, various researchers have been interested in the effects of the length of stay in the target language country. Commonly, studies have found that spending time in the target language country is beneficial to the development of pragmatic competence. For example, Kinginger (2009: 5) writes that a residence abroad is essential in the development of communicative competence and often, learners believe that the only way to comprehensively learn a language is through spending time abroad. However, *a sojourn abroad* or *length of stay* is a complex variable to study since sojourns can vary greatly between individuals: sojourns can have different objectives, they may contain varying activities and most importantly, spending time in the target country does not necessarily assure better opportunities to use the target language (*ibid.*). Nevertheless, a number of researchers have found

length of stay an interesting variable to study. In fact, studies of study abroad learners have found development in a variety of pragmatic aspects during stays of one year or less.

Félix-Brasdefer, Taguchi and Roever belong to the researchers that have found the length of stay an interesting variable to examine. All three researchers find that the length of stay is an influencing factor on the pragmatic competence of language learners. For example, Félix-Brasdefer (2004) concludes that English learners of Spanish who had stayed in the host environment nine months or more were able to produce more turns of refusal negotiation and their refusals showed greater indirectness which made the refusals more polite (2004: 632-633). Similarly, Taguchi's (2008) results show that after four months in the target language country, Japanese learners of English were able to improve their accuracy and rate of comprehension of indirect refusals and indirect opinions although learners still had some difficulties for example in less conventional indirect opinions (Taguchi 2008: 52-53). Roever (2012) studied how different lengths of stays influence the recognition of situational routines and found that EFL learners with residence scored significantly higher in his test than learners without residence.

Roever (2012) examined the overall influence of length of stay but he also wanted to find out whether stays in the target language community are more beneficial for the development of pragmatic competence than learning in foreign language classrooms. Roever found that since routine formulae are frequently used in conversation, learners in the foreign language environment are more exposed to routine expressions, and thus learn them easily. Nonetheless, Roever (2012: 14) acknowledges that some routines can be learnt as easily in EFL settings because situational routines or routine formulae are short expressions and also very frequent in communication. However, according to Roever (2012: 16), the ability to use routine formulae develops more quickly during residence abroad than in FL classrooms since residence abroad ensures contact with target language speakers and learners have more opportunities to use situational routines in different situations.

Félix-Brasdefer's, Taguchi's and Roever's results show that although residence abroad ensures the development of pragmatic competence, learners who have spent

time in a target language country do not necessarily gain so-called native-like competence. As reported in Chapter 4.1.2.1 *Development of pragmatic comprehension*, Bouton (1988, 1994) examined how length of residence influences non-native speakers' understanding of implicature in American English. Bouton concluded that with increasing length of residence in the United States, learners became gradually more competent in their ability to understand different implicature types. Nevertheless, the progress was slow and even though learners became more proficient, their competence did not resemble that of natives (Bouton 1994: 164). As Bouton, also Barron (2003) concludes that a sojourn in the target language country does not guarantee native-like competence although it facilitates pragmatic learning. Barron examined Irish university learners of German after a year spent in Germany and found that the learners started to use native-like strategies when forming different speech acts while the use of L1 strategies decreased (2003: 241). Though Barron's results show positive effects on the pragmatic competence of learners, she emphasises the importance of input during the stay abroad.

According to Barron (2003: 246), learners do not necessarily have access to target language input that would benefit the development of pragmatic competence during their stay abroad. Barron (*ibid.*) and Roever (2012: 17) acknowledge that learners have more opportunities to use the foreign language abroad than for example in FL classrooms but these opportunities do not ensure the development of pragmatic competence. Roever points out that although even short stays in the target language country seem to influence the production of situational routines, the type of exposure and the type of residence have an effect on the overall pragmatic development (*ibid.*) As presented previously, sojourns abroad can vary greatly between individuals, and they do not guarantee the use of meaningful language in different communication situations which would benefit the development of pragmatic competence. For example, learners can spend time in the foreign country without ever communicating with target language speakers.

In addition to the varying objectives and types of residence abroad, Bardovi-Harlig and Bastos (2011) affirm that studies on length of stay have difficulties in distinguishing between proficiency, length of stay and exposure to input. For instance, Roever (2006) criticises Bouton's (1988, 1994) findings on length of stay

benefiting pragmatic knowledge: Roever states that Bouton confuses exposure with proficiency and concludes that, contrary to Bouton's findings, proficiency leads to greater knowledge of implicatures (2006: 245-246). According to Roever (2006: 249), Bouton was not able to distinguish between proficiency and length of stay because he examined learners in a second language environment while Roever compared learners in second language and foreign language contexts. Generally, advanced learners have stayed in the L2 country and have received more input than less advanced learners. Hence, distinguishing the influence of proficiency, length of stay and exposure is challenging (Bardovi-Harlig & Bastos 2011: 374) and researchers should take this into account when examining the influence of the length of stay. Moreover, researchers have not sufficiently studied the so-called after-effects of the sojourns. To my knowledge, only Matsumura (2007) has examined whether learners can maintain the achieved pragmatic competence after a stay abroad. Matsumura (2007: 184) concludes that after their return to the home country, learners' pragmatic competence gradually diverges from the native-speaker norm but direct exposure to the L2 in the home country helps learners to maintain the gained competence.

In this chapter, I discussed the influence of different learning opportunities, namely, the effects of incidental learning on the pragmatic competence of language learners. Studies have found varying results on the effects of exposure: length of stay and free time activities seem to have an impact on the development of pragmatic competence but it is difficult to distinguish these two variables from each other or from overall proficiency of learners. Consequently, the two variables are complex to study, although especially the length of stay has motivated a number of researchers. In my study, I chose to examine Finnish learners' free time activities since in Finland, learners are exposed to English in their free time. For instance, English and American television programmes are not dubbed in English and moreover, these TV-programmes are very common in Finland. I chose to study the length of stay in order to better distinguish between leisure time activities and the length of residence. Before presenting my research questions and the present study in detail, in the next sub-chapter, I will briefly present research methods within ILP.

4.3 Research methods in interlanguage pragmatics

Assessment of second language pragmatic competence is both a growing and a complex area of L2 assessment (Roever 2004: 283). Since interlanguage pragmatics is a new field of inquiry it draws its data collection methods from better established social sciences, such as anthropology, sociology, psychology and linguistics (Kasper 2000: 316). In addition, research methods have to be carefully constructed because pragmatics is highly contextualised. In fact, according to McNamara and Roever (2006: 54), the assessment of pragmatics contains a tension between the construction of authentic assessment tasks and practicality; tests must establish the social context of conversation and learner responses should be productive, but real-world situations are difficult to simulate and scoring by several human raters is often not possible. Because of the novelty and the nature of the field, only a few established tests are available within interlanguage pragmatics. However, there are multiple research methods that can be used for testing L2 pragmatic competence.

In the next sub-chapters, I will present some characteristics of the most common research methods in interlanguage pragmatics by referring to Kasper's (2000), Kasper and Rose's (2002) and McNamara and Roever's (2006) texts and books on pragmatic testing. I will first present a commonly used research method, *discourse completion task*, which I used for testing Finnish learners' pragmatic competence. Secondly, I will present two established tests which I adapted for my own research purposes. Consequently, in this chapter, I will mainly present the characteristics of the methods and tests used in this study whereas in Chapter 5 *The Present Study*, I will discuss why I chose the methods in question and how I adapted them for my own study purposes.

4.3.1 Discourse Completion Tasks

The data collection methods of pragmatics research are traditionally divided into *spoken interaction* and *questionnaires*. According to Kasper (2000: 317), spoken interaction includes *authentic discourse*, *elicited conversation* and *role-plays* which produce oral data and allow the examination of various discourse features. Questionnaires, by contrast, include *production* and *multiple choice questionnaires*

as well as *scaled response instruments* (*ibid.*). These three types of questionnaires are known as *Discourse Completion Tasks* (DCT) which are frequently used in interlanguage pragmatics research. In my own study, I used a multiple choice DCT to study Finnish learners' pragmatic competence. I will next define and discuss the characteristics as well as the advantages and limitations of using DCTs with special reference to the multiple choice format.

Discourse Completion Task is a type of questionnaire that elicits learner responses to a given situation. A classic DCT contains a situational description and a brief dialogue with one turn as an open slot. The context of the situation is designed so that a specific communicative act should be provided (Kasper 2000: 326). In the classic discourse completion format, the exchange begins with an interlocutor's initiation and it ends with a provided answer. The respondent's task is to write the missing turn:

- (2) *At the College teacher's office*
A student has borrowed a book from her teacher, which she promised to return today. When meeting her teacher, however, she realizes that she forgot to bring it along.
Teacher: I hope you brought the book I lent you.
Miriam: _____
Teacher: OK, but please remember it next week.

(Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper 1989: 14)

The format of example 2 is a *production questionnaire* in which the respondent has to provide an appropriate speech act. This basic format has been modified in various different ways; for instance, the respondent may be expected to provide all of the turns in the dialogue or the dialogue may only include the first or the last rejoinder item (Kasper 2000: 327). Furthermore, different types of questionnaires have been formed, namely, *rating-scale questionnaires* and *multiple choice questionnaires*. A rating-scale questionnaire is a self-report method which elicits the respondent's metapragmatic assessment of a given situation (Kasper 2000: 331). Multiple choice questionnaires resemble production questionnaires but instead of open slots, they have several response alternatives from which the respondent has to choose the most appropriate answer:

- (3) You are having dinner with your friend's family. The food that your friend's mother has prepared is delicious, and you want some more. What would you say or do?
- A. I would wait until the mother saw my empty plate and offered more food.
 - B. 'Please give me more food.'
 - C. 'This food sure is delicious.'
 - D. 'Could I have some more please?'

(Rose 1994: 14)

Multiple choice DCTs are less demanding than production questionnaires since they require "[the] participants [to] evaluate a small number of presented alternatives against their memory structures of compatible events" (Kasper & Rose 2002: 97). Hence, instead of thinking about and formulating an appropriate answer, in multiple choice DCTs respondents are expected to choose from three to four alternatives. However, the multiple choice format is a useful and versatile questionnaire type because it can be used to elicit information on *pragmatic production* as in example 3 above and on *pragmatic comprehension* as in the following example:

- (4) *Susan and Mei-ling are roommates and are getting ready to go to class together.*
Mei-ling: Is it very cold out this morning?
Susan: It's August.

What is Susan saying?

- a. It'll be nice and warm today. Don't worry.
- b. Yes, even though it's August, it's very cold out.
- c. It's so warm for this time of year that it seems like August.
- d. Yes, we're sure having crazy weather, aren't we?

(Bouton 1988: 194)

In brief, multiple choice questionnaires can contain questions which require the respondent to choose the most appropriate turn in the dialogue (*pragmatic production*) and questions which require the respondent to comprehend the last turn of the dialogue and choose the most appropriate meaning (*pragmatic comprehension*). In addition to pragmatic production and comprehension, multiple choice DCTs can be used to examine learners from various stages of development in both longitudinal and cross-sectional research (Kasper & Rose 2002: 96).

Although discourse completion tasks can be applied to examine various aspects of pragmatics, they exclude the investigation of pragmatic features that are specific to oral interaction: such aspects as turn taking, sequencing of action and speaker-listener coordination that relate to the dynamics of a conversation cannot be examined by means of discourse completion tasks (Kasper & Rose 2002: 89). As McNamara and Roever state, conversation is always co-constructed by the interlocutors and consequently, DCTs are inauthentic in terms of actual conversation (2006: 63). Therefore, DCTs can only elicit the knowledge dimension of pragmatic competence since they cannot simulate authentic interaction. Moreover, the results of a multiple choice questionnaire cannot represent the whole pragmatic knowledge of an individual (McNamara & Roever 2006: 64). In other words, if a researcher uses a DCT which for instance, elicits only the knowledge of one speech act, the results of the test cannot be generalised to represent the respondents' whole pragmatic competence. Nevertheless, it is not often practical to test face-to-face interaction and *pragmatic competence* as a whole. As a result, using a specific test format, such as a discourse completion task, is both a more practical and a more valid choice.

Discourse completion tasks can be seen as “a quick fix” to data collection though researchers should always choose an instrument which best suits their research questions (Kasper & Rose 2002: 89). DCTs are easy to administer and score and they allow the examination of large-scale groups since they are in paper-and-pencil format (Brown 2001: 320). However, it is questionable whether the respondents would use exactly the same forms elicited in the questionnaires in actual discourse. The multiple choice format, in particular, allows guesswork. Moreover, in this format, opting out of answering is not truly possible because it would be difficult to distinguish opting out from not knowing the correct answer (McNamara & Roever 2006: 69). In spite of the limitations of DCTs, when carefully designed, they provide useful information about the respondents' pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic knowledge (Kasper & Rose 2002: 96). Thus, especially when using multiple choice DCTs, researchers should rely on existing tests which have made principled selections of response alternatives. In the next chapter, I will present two existing tests which I used for testing Finnish learners' pragmatic competence: I will discuss two major projects in the assessment of L2 pragmatics, namely, Hudson, Detmer and

Brown's (1995) test of sociopragmatics and Roever's (2005⁴, 2006) test of pragmalinguistics.

4.3.2 Testing sociopragmatics and pragmalinguistics

The assessment of L2 pragmatic competence is challenging because of the contextualised nature of pragmatics. Therefore, interlanguage pragmatics researchers are in need of well-established tests. The most influential test batteries within ILP include Bouton's test (1988, 1994) of implicature (see 4.1.2.1), Hudson, Detmer and Brown's (1995) test of sociopragmatics and Roever's (2005, 2006) test of pragmalinguistics. These tests are the largest ones within interlanguage pragmatics when considering their development and spin-offs (McNamara and Roever 2006: 56). In my thesis, I used Hudson, Detmer and Brown's and Roever's tests which I found most suited for my research purposes. Thus, in the next sub-chapters I will present these two test batteries and in Chapter 5 *The Present Study*, I will discuss how I adapted them for testing Finnish learners of English.

Hudson, Detmer and Brown (1995) developed a test battery for assessing Japanese ESL (*English as a second language*) learners' sociopragmatic competence. The test was created to measure learners' ability to recognise requests, apologies and refusals. Hudson, Detmer and Brown's aim was to design an instrument using multiple methods for the assessment of cross-cultural pragmatics. In fact, their test includes a written DCT, an oral DCT, a multiple choice DCT, a role play and self-assessment measures. Hudson, Detmer and Brown conducted various pilot tests and revisions of their test items and they used native speakers' and non-native speakers' responses which they coded according to a coding manual created for the examination of requests and apologies (*The Cross-Cultural Speech Act Realization Project* by Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper 1989). For the multiple-choice DCT, Hudson, Detmer and Brown used high frequency NS responses as correct answers and conflicting NNS responses as distractors. For instance, in the following example, the response alternative (c) is the high frequency NS response while (a) is considered to be too

⁴ Röver Carsten 2005. *Testing ESL Pragmatics: Development and Validation of a Web-Based Assessment Battery*. Frankfurt am Main: Peter Lang. (Röver and Roever used interchangeably).

direct and (b) too indirect response to the given situation (Hudson, Detmer & Brown 1995: 55):

(5) You work in a small department of a large office. You are in a department meeting now. You need to borrow a pen in order to take some notes. The head of the department is sitting next to you and might have an extra pen.

a: Excuse me, can I use an extra pen?

b: Oh, I'd like to take some notes, but it seems that I have no pen with me.

c: Excuse me, but do you have an extra pen I could borrow?

(Hudson, Detmer & Brown 1995: 109)

In selecting the distractor responses, Hudson, Detmer and Brown considered NS and NNS differences in strategy use, degree of directness, politeness and formality as well as differences in the amount of information provided (1995: 54). Furthermore, they varied the relative power, degree of imposition and social distance of the subject factors in every question of their multiple choice DCT. An adapted version of this multiple choice DCT was used in my own study.

Hudson, Detmer and Brown do not report any statistical results for the validation of their test battery but Hudson (2001) and Brown (2001) discuss some of their findings as well as describe the results of Yoshitake's (1997 in Brown 2001) replication and Yamashita's (1996) adaptation of Hudson, Detmer and Brown's test. Yamashita (1996) translated and adapted the original test to assess English learners of Japanese. The results of Yamashita's research show that higher proficiency learners produced better scores than lower proficiency learners. In comparison to Yamashita's results, in a review of the original project, Hudson (2001) found little variation across the participants but he reports that low-imposition items were easier than high-imposition items. Moreover, Yamashita, Brown and Yoshitake found that all instruments used in the original test battery except the multiple choice DCT were reliable. Hudson, Detmer and Brown admit that it was difficult to create response alternatives that were clearly wrong (1995: 54) which was noticed by Yamashita (1996) as well. McNamara and Roever state that sociopragmatically oriented tests have great difficulties in creating inappropriate judgments since what is and what is not appropriate differ among NSs who have different social backgrounds (2006: 57).

Appropriateness is often based on personal evaluation, not on rule-based intuitions. Therefore, creating clearly wrong response alternatives for DCTs is a challenging task.

Hudson, Detmer and Brown's test battery measures learners' sociopragmatic competence since it assesses the knowledge of three speech acts. Furthermore, the researchers were able to include the aspects of degree of imposition, power and social distance in their question items by varying for example, the age, sex and positions of the persons in the DCT situations. Roever (2005, 2006) created an instrument to assess pragmalinguistic competence, in other words, learners' ability to use pragmatic components such as speech acts. Roever found that no assessment battery for pragmalinguistic competence was available and that none of the previous tests developed within ILP had examined pragmatic competence holistically (2006: 236). Therefore, Roever designed a web-based test battery for testing beginner as well as more advanced learners' pragmalinguistic knowledge of English comprehensively. Roever set out to develop a test that would examine learners' knowledge of speech acts, implicature and situational routines. The speech act section is a production questionnaire while the implicature and the routine sections are in multiple choice format. In my study I used the two latter multiple choice DCTs which I will briefly present below.

The implicature section of Roever's test contains eight idiosyncratic implicatures and four formulaic implicatures. This section tests respondents' *comprehension* of implicatures; thus, the respondent's task is to understand the last turn of the dialogue and choose the most appropriate meaning:

- (6) Jack is talking to his housemate Sarah about another housemate, Frank.
Jack: "Do you know where Frank is, Sarah?"
Sarah: "Well, I heard music from his room earlier."

What does Sarah probably mean?

1. Frank forgot to turn the music off.
2. Frank's loud music bothers Sarah.
3. Frank is probably in his room.
4. Sarah doesn't know where Frank is.

(Roever 2006: 238)

Example 6 presents an idiosyncratic implicature while Roever's formulaic implicature items contain indirect criticism ("How do you like your food? — Let's just say it's colourful") and the Pope question ("Are rents high in New York? — Is the Pope Catholic") (Roever 2006: 238). In fact, Roever used and adapted some questions from Bouton's (1988, 1994) test of idiosyncratic and formulaic implicature (see 4.1.2.1 *Development of pragmatic comprehension*).

In Roever's routine section, the respondents have to indicate which of four response alternatives would be used in the given situations:

- (7) Jack was just introduced to Jamal by a friend. They're shaking hands.

What would Jack probably say?

1. "Nice to meet you."
2. "Good to run into you."
3. "Happy to find you."
4. "Glad to see you."

(Roever 2006: 239)

The routines in Roever's test include both situationally bound expressions used, for example, during a meal or a telephone conversation, and more functional routines, such as greetings and introductions (*ibid.*).

Roever's aim was to develop a practical and reliable test battery for pragmalinguistic knowledge. He found that the degree of imposition was a source of difficulty for the respondents and that formulaic implicature was more difficult than idiosyncratic implicature, which was also found by Bouton (1988, 1994) (see 4.1.2.1). However, contrary to Bouton's findings on exposure benefiting pragmatic knowledge, Roever concludes that proficiency leads to greater knowledge of ESL implicatures as well as speech acts while exposure accounts almost completely for the knowledge of routines (2006: 245, 246). Routines are highly frequent in everyday conversations and this makes them easier to learn. Roever states that speech acts may cause difficulties to lower proficiency learners because of processing difficulties whereas implicatures are challenging to learners who cannot interpret them appropriately

(Roever 2006: 248, 249). In brief, acquiring the knowledge of speech acts and implicature seems to be more demanding than acquiring situational routines.

Hudson, Detmer and Brown's and Roever's test batteries allow the assessment of pragmatic knowledge but they do not reveal anything about learners' performance in interaction. This poses a problem since knowing something does not necessarily entail the ability to use this knowledge in a given situation. As Roever states, contextualisation should be taken into account in testing ability but this may be impossible as well as too ambitious without adequate resources (2006: 252). Since the assessment of pragmatic competence is a growing and complex area of L2 research, using established tests is a valid choice. For this reason, I chose to use Roever's and Hudson, Detmer and Brown's existing tests in the present study. In the next chapter, I will present the study subjects as well as the data collection and data analysis methods of my own study and in the last chapters, I will discuss my results and based on these results, attempt to answer my research questions.

5 THE PRESENT STUDY

Pragmatics, the study of meaning in interaction, and pragmatic competence, the ability to use language in different situations, have become more and more important in second language learning since communicative competence is recognised as one of the main goals of language learning. Even though the Finnish national core curriculum for basic education and the core curriculum for upper secondary school education do not use the term *pragmatic competence* explicitly, both curricula state that secondary and upper secondary school learners should learn to use their chosen foreign languages in communication. More precisely, according to the curriculum for basic education “[f]oreign language education must give pupils capabilities for functioning in foreign language situations” (Finnish National Board of Education 2004: 138) while the curriculum for upper secondary schools states that “[i]nstruction in foreign languages will develop students’ intercultural communication skills: it will provide them with skills and knowledge related to language and its use” (Finnish National Board of Education 2003: 100). As these citations present, pragmatic aspects of language should be taken into consideration in Finnish foreign language education.

Since the national curricula indicate the importance of pragmatic competence and since English is the first foreign language of most Finnish learners, I consider it important to examine how the pragmatic competence of Finnish learners of English develops during the school years. However, little research has been carried out on Finnish L2 learners. In addition, interlanguage pragmatics research has mainly concentrated on comparing non-native speakers to native speakers while studies on the development of pragmatic competence are scarce (Kasper & Rose 2002: 1). This study attempted to contribute to these gaps in research by finding answers to the following questions:

- 1) What is the level of pragmatic competence of Finnish secondary and upper secondary school learners of English?
 - a. Is there evidence of pragmatic development among the two groups of learners: eighth graders of secondary school and second year students of upper secondary school?
- 2) Do learning context and learning opportunities influence the Finnish learners' pragmatic competence?
 - a. Is there any difference between the pragmatic competence of learners studying in EFL classes and learners studying in CLIL classes?
 - b. Do English free time activities and the length of stay in an English-speaking country influence the level of Finnish learners' pragmatic competence?

My study can be defined as cross-sectional, as explained in Chapter 4, because I compared learners from secondary and upper secondary schools and attempted to find out whether any development can be found among these two groups. To the best of my knowledge, similar studies have not been carried out in Finland. In contrast, ILP researchers have been interested in the various factors that can influence the pragmatic competence of language learners. In this study, I chose to examine the influence of learning context, namely, the influence of EFL and CLIL classes and the influence of different learning opportunities, more specifically, the influence of incidental learning or English free time activities and the length of stay. As presented in Chapter 4.2 *Factors that influence L2 pragmatic competence*, previous research has shown that these factors influence the development of pragmatic competence to some degree. Within this study, I wanted to examine whether the chosen aspects have an effect on Finnish learners' pragmatic competence.

In this chapter, I will present how I constructed the present study and how I collected my data. I will first describe my study participants and the testing situations and continue with the presentation of the data collection and data analysis methods used in this study. While presenting these different elements of the data collection process, I will try to justify my choices: I will explain why I chose the particular study subjects and constructed the test in the chosen manner.

5.1 Study subjects

In the present study, I examined the difference between the pragmatic competence of eighth graders of secondary school and second year students of upper secondary school with the purpose of studying the possible development between the two groups. These groups were considered as the most representative of basic education and upper secondary education in Finland. More specifically, learners in both groups are in the second year of either secondary school or upper secondary school. These learners were chosen instead of seventh graders of secondary school and first year students of upper secondary school since the latter groups have recently finished the previous education systems (primary school and secondary school); examining seventh graders and first year students could have shown their gains in the previous schools but not in their current education systems. Third year students of upper secondary school were also considered but because they are preparing for their matriculation examination, schools do not easily give permission to test these students. Moreover, eighth graders of secondary school and second year students of upper secondary school were chosen because of practical reasons as both groups were available for testing in the contacted schools.

In addition to the reasons presented in the previous paragraph, it was also important to study learners of different ages who would be able to complete the same test. The two existing tests used in this study have been previously administered to learners with the average age of 19 (Roever 2005, 2006) and to university students (Hudson, Detmer & Brown 1995). Thus, I decided on testing learners from secondary school instead of learners from primary school since I believed that primary school pupils would not have been able to do the same test as the upper secondary school students. In fact, the curriculum for basic education states that Finnish primary school pupils (3-6 grades) should learn “to communicate in the target language in simple everyday situations, depending on the aid of an interlocutor when necessary” (Finnish National Board of Education 2004: 139). The test used in the present study contains more complex situations than “very concrete, personally immediate situations” (*ibid.*) that primary school learners are expected to learn. Therefore, these learners were not taken into account within this study.

Four groups of learners were chosen for the study: a group of EFL eighth graders and a group of EFL second year students as well as a group of CLIL eighth graders and a group of CLIL second year students. Every group contained learners whose L1 was not Finnish but because I was not interested in the influence of L1, only Finnish learners' answers were examined. The eighth graders came from Klassikon yläkoulu, Turun Normaalikoulu and Luostarivuoren yläkoulu which are all secondary schools in the city of Turku. From Klassikon yläkoulu, 24 EFL eighth graders, henceforth EFL8, participated in the test. Turun Normaalikoulu and Luostarivuoren koulu were chosen because these schools have CLIL classes. I tested 13 eighth graders from Turun Normaalikoulu and due to the small size of the group, I also tested a group of 30 CLIL eighth graders from Luostarivuoren yläkoulu. As both schools' eighth graders are enrolled in English-speaking instruction, the two groups were considered as one group, henceforth referred to as CLIL8. The test was conducted in Klassikon yläkoulu and in Turun Normaalikoulu in November 2011 whereas in Luostarivuori, the test was administered in January 2012.

Altogether 67 eighth graders were examined in this study. Most of the eighth graders were 14 years old (59 pupils) while some of them were also 13 (3 pupils) and 15 years (5 pupils) old. The number of years of studying English of the two secondary school groups is presented in Table 2:

YEARS	5		6		7		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
EFL8	19	79 %	4	17 %	1	4 %	24	100 %
CLIL8	10	23 %	4	9 %	29	68 %	43	100 %
Total	29		8		30		67	

Table 2. Number of years of studying English: EFL8 and CLIL8

Most of the EFL eighth graders had studied English five years (n=19) which implies that they had started the formal English lessons in the third grade. Also, some EFL learners reported that they had studied English for six and seven years. The majority of the CLIL pupils, by contrast, had studied English seven years (n=29) while some CLIL learners had studied the language for five or six years. In other words, most of the CLIL pupils had either started their English lessons in the first grade or in the

third grade as the majority of the EFL eighth graders. However, it is also possible that the CLIL eighth graders' formal English lessons had started in the third grade whereas English-speaking instruction had begun in the first grade.

The second year students of upper secondary school came from Klassikon lukio and Turun Normaalikoulun lukio: 32 EFL second year students (henceforth EFL2) from Klassikon lukio and 20 CLIL students from Turun Normaalikoulu (henceforth CLIL2) participated in my study making the total number of second year students 52. Both groups of second year students were tested in November 2011. The second year students were either 16 (7 students), 17 (42 students) or 18 years (3 students) old. In both groups most of the students were 17 years old and as the age of most of the eighth graders was 14, the age difference between the test groups was approximately three years. As with the eighth graders, the number of study years of English varied among the second year students:

YEARS	7		8		9		10		11		Total	
	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%	n	%
EFL2	3	9 %	21	66 %	6	19 %	-	-	2	6 %	32	100 %
CLIL2	1	5 %	6	30 %	4	20 %	7	35 %	2	10 %	20	100 %
Total	4		27		10		7		4		52	

Table 3. Number of years of studying English: EFL2 and CLIL2

The majority of the EFL2 students had studied English eight years (n=21) which means that they had started their formal English lessons in the third grade. Some EFL2 students reported that they had studied English for seven, nine and also eleven years. Similarly, the reported number of English study years varied in the CLIL2 group: students in this group had studied English seven, eight, nine, ten or eleven years. The students' backgrounds are different and it is possible that they have participated in different education systems. Moreover, in the background questionnaire of the present study, the learners were only asked the number of study years and the questionnaire did not contain a specific question on the starting grades or places. Therefore, it is possible that some pupils did not give the correct number of study years. I acknowledge that the number of years of studying the target language

can be considered as an important part of exposure to the language. Hence, the possible influence of these study years on the learners' performance in the pragmatic test will be examined in Chapter 6 *Results*.

To conclude, Table 4 presents the four study groups of the present study:

Group	Number of learners
EFL8	24
CLIL8	43
EFL2	32
CLIL2	20
Total	119

Table 4. Study groups of the present study

As mentioned, the answers of 67 eighth graders and 52 second year students were examined in this study which makes the total number of participants 119. 56 of the study participants were EFL learners (EFL8 & EFL2) and 63 were CLIL learners (CLIL8 & CLIL2). Moreover, the groups contained 73 female learners and 46 male learners.

The test of pragmatic competence was administered in every group during the learners' English lessons and the testing situations were conducted as similarly as possible: I explained briefly the purpose of my study and gave the instructions (see Appendix 4) for completing the test and the background questionnaire. I told the respondents that I was interested in finding out how Finnish learners use English in varying communication situations and explained that I was going to examine learners of different ages. In every group, I gave the instructions in Finnish in order to be sure that the learners understood what they were expected to do. The majority of the respondents filled in the test and the background questionnaire in 15 to 25 minutes while the slowest participants completed both parts in 30 to 40 minutes. In the next sub-chapter, I will present the test and background questionnaire in detail.

5.2 Data collection methods

Two different data collection methods were used in this study: a test for assessing the pragmatic competence of Finnish learners of English and a background questionnaire for gaining information on the learners and for example, on their use of English during their free time. The test of pragmatic competence was developed by using two existing questionnaires by Roever (2005, 2006) and Hudson, Detmer and Brown (1995) which were presented in Chapter 4.3.2 *Testing sociopragmatics and pragmalinguistics*. In the next sub-chapters, I will first discuss why I chose to use the two questionnaires and how I adapted the tests for my own research purposes. Secondly, I will present the background questionnaire of the present study.

5.2.1 Test of pragmatic competence

The aim of my test of pragmatic competence was to assess the Finnish learners' knowledge of different aspects of pragmatics in English. As presented previously, to measure the learners' pragmatic competence, two test batteries by Roever (2005, 2006) and Hudson, Detmer and Brown (1995) were used. More precisely, I chose to use the multiple choice discourse completion tasks of these two test batteries. As discussed in Chapter 4.3.1 *Discourse Completion Tasks*, although multiple choice questionnaires have been criticised as only measuring written receptive language (Brown 2001: 320) and the knowledge dimension of pragmatic competence (McNamara & Roever 2006: 67), they are easy to administer and score and they allow the examination of large-scale groups since they are in paper-and-pencil format (Brown 2001: 320). Furthermore, multiple choice questionnaires allow a quantitative analysis of the data. As the aim of this study was to examine quite large groups of learners so that some generalisations could be made, the multiple choice DCT was chosen as the most suitable testing format.

Roever's (2005, 2006) and Hudson, Detmer and Brown's (1995) questionnaires include a number of question items with a situational description and a question on what the persons would say or what they mean by saying something in the given situations (see Appendix 1). Roever's test contains twelve multiple choice questions measuring knowledge of implicature and twelve questions on situational routines as

well as twelve discourse completion tasks measuring the knowledge of speech acts. In the present study, I chose to use Roever's multiple choice questions because of practical reasons presented in the previous paragraph. Moreover, discourse completion tasks with open-ended questions would have required more time for answering and scoring. Hence, Roever's multiple choice question items for measuring the knowledge of implicature and situational routines (Röver 2005: 122-129) were used to form the test of pragmatic competence.

Roever's implicature and situational routines' question items contain four answer alternatives and according to Roever's instructions (2005: 122), only one alternative is correct. In my test of pragmatic competence, I included only eleven of Roever's twelve implicature questions (Appendix 1, items 1-11) because one question item⁵ was considered to demand cultural information about the situation. Seven of the eleven question items contain the use of idiosyncratic implicature (items 1, 3, 4, 7, 8, 9, 10) and four items contain the use of formulaic implicature, more precisely, indirect criticism (items 2, 5) and the Pope Question (items 6, 11) (Röver 2005: 45). In the case of the situational routines, all twelve question items were included (Appendix 1, items 12-23). This section of the test contains strongly situational routines (items 13, 19, 20, 22) which refer to, for example, meals and telephone calls, more functional routines (items 14, 15, 17, 21) such as introductions and invitations as well as second turns of adjacency pairs (items 12, 16, 18, 23) (Röver 2005: 47). In the present study, one answer alternative to one question (question 13, answer b.) was changed: the given answer alternatives of the question item were considered too similar and therefore, one alternative was changed into a

⁵Jenny and her housemate Darren go to college in Southern California. They are talking one morning before going to class.

Jenny: "Darren, is it cold out this morning?"

Darren: "Jenny, it's August!"

What does Darren probably mean?

- a It's surprisingly cold for August.
- b It's so warm that it feels like August.
- c It's warm like usual in August.
- d It's hard to predict the temperature in August.

more dissimilar answer⁶. As mentioned in Chapter 4.3.2, creating inappropriate answers in pragmatic tests is challenging since the assessment of what is and what is not appropriate differ among native as well as among non-native speakers. I considered that changing one of Roever's answer alternatives was necessary in order to gain more explicit scores.

Hudson, Detmer and Brown (1995) developed various methods of assessing language learners' sociopragmatic competence as was discussed in Chapter 4.3.2. Their test battery was created to measure learners' ability to recognise apologies, refusals and requests. Furthermore, the researchers varied the relative power, degree of imposition and social distance of the subject factors in every question item. Since I chose to use multiple choice questions and since Roever's test does not include the chosen test format for assessing speech acts, Hudson, Detmer and Brown's multiple choice questions on speech acts were used in the present study. Although researchers such as Brown (2001), Yamashita (1996) and Yoshitake (1997 in Brown 2001), have found Hudson, Detmer and Brown's multiple choice questionnaires unreliable (see 4.3.2 *Testing sociopragmatics and pragmalinguistics*), to the best of my knowledge, no similar questionnaires have been formed. Consequently, I found Hudson, Detmer and Brown's question items as the most suitable for my study purposes.

Hudson, Detmer and Brown's test battery contains three multiple choice questionnaires on the knowledge of speech acts with 24 question items (1995: 107-130). All question items have three answer alternatives and as with Roever's test, only one alternative is considered to be correct (Hudson, Detmer & Brown 1995: 54). When forming their test battery, Hudson, Detmer and Brown tested university students with the mean age of 27 (Hudson 2001: 289). Because my

⁶ 13. Carrie has done some shopping at a grocery store. The man at the cash register has just finished packing her groceries and gives her the bags.

What would the man probably say?

- a "Here you go."
- b "There they are." *changed into* "Go ahead."
- c "All yours."
- d "Please."

study included significantly younger learners, I discussed the questionnaires with a teacher of English who teaches secondary and upper secondary school students, in order to get a second opinion on the test's difficulty. With the help of the teacher's commentaries and suggestions, eight items from Hudson, Detmer and Brown's questionnaires (Appendix 1, items 24-31) were chosen for the present study. Although only these eight questions could be used, all three speech acts (apology: items 24, 27, 28, 30; refusal: item 31; request: items 25, 26, 29) studied in the original test battery were included in the test.

In the present study, Roever's and Hudson, Detmer and Brown's tests were chosen because they assess different dimensions of pragmatic competence: Roever's test measures the knowledge of situational routines and implicature and Hudson, Detmer and Brown's test measures the knowledge of speech acts. Furthermore, Roever's test assesses the pragmalinguistic component while Hudson, Detmer and Brown's test measures the sociopragmatic component of pragmatic competence (see 3.3 *Sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic competence*). Thus, by combining these two tests it was possible to measure the Finnish learners' pragmatic competence as holistically as possible. The two questionnaires have been previously combined by Rosin (2008) who used question items from Roever and Hudson, Detmer and Brown to test the pragmatic competence of Finnish upper secondary school learners of English. Rosin found that combining these two questionnaires produced a functional tool for assessing the pragmatic competence of a large group of learners (2008: 68). However, Rosin tested only second year students of upper secondary school and was able to use the two tests without any changes. In the present study, I found it necessary to make the presented changes to the tests mainly because of the younger learners: I had to take into account the eighth graders' ability to complete the test so that the study subjects' answers would provide explicit and comparable results.

In order to examine the eighth graders' ability to participate in the test, it was pre-tested with two learners of English at the ages of 15 and 17. The purpose of the pre-test was also to indicate possible misspellings or unclear instructions, words or structures and to find out how long it would take to complete the test. The pre-test showed that the younger learner was able to fill in the test without problems and

within the same amount of time as the older learner. Some of the question items present situations in which the respondents had to imagine that they worked, for example, in a school or in an office. It could have been difficult especially for the younger learners to relate to these situations. However, the two pre-tested learners made no comments about these question items. Nonetheless, because of the age difference of the two tested learner groups, I decided to include Finnish translations of difficult words in the test. Although no translations were provided in the original tests by Roever and Hudson, Detmer and Brown, I considered that the translations would not affect the results since I did not measure learners' knowledge of English vocabulary but their knowledge of different aspects of pragmatics. I believe that providing the translations helped the learners to understand the given situations and certain answer alternatives but the translations did not affect their ability to understand how to act appropriately in the given situations.

5.2.2 Background questionnaire

The background questionnaire of the present study was developed in order to gather basic information about the respondents and also, about the different factors that have been shown to have an influence on the pragmatic competence of language learners. The questionnaire was formed with the help of background questionnaires created for other studies. Namely, I used Rosin's (2008) questionnaire as my main model since Rosin studied some of the same elements examined in this study. I created two questionnaires, one in Finnish (Appendix 2) and the other in English (Appendix 3). I examined only Finnish learners but as the tested classes, especially the CLIL classes, could have contained learners of different nationalities, the English questionnaire was formed. However, only the CLIL eighth graders completed the English background questionnaire at the teacher's request while all of the other groups did the questionnaire in Finnish. The respondents filled in the questionnaire after they had completed the test of pragmatic competence.

The first main purpose of the background questionnaire was to gain information on the respondents' age, sex and L1 (questions 1, 2, 3). In addition, the number of years of studying English at school (question 4) was asked in order to find out possible differences between the learners. The second main purpose of the questionnaire was

to establish the learners' different learning opportunities which were examined within this study. Therefore, the background questionnaire contained questions that related to learners' exposure to English. In question 5, the respondents were asked to state whether they had spent time in an English-speaking country and if so, how long they had stayed there. Five different time categories, from six weeks to more than two years, were created since research has shown that sojourns from six weeks onwards can influence the pragmatic competence of learners (Roever 2006: 234). In question 6, the learners had to indicate how much time they spent their free time doing different free time activities in English. These activities included for example, reading books and magazines, watching TV-programmes, listening to music or spending time with English-speaking friends. Different time categories were used in this question as well: the times ranged from daily to more seldom.

In addition to the questions presented in the previous paragraph, the background questionnaire contained a question in which the learners had to think about the pragmatic test that they had completed and indicate whether they thought that English lessons at school or the free time they spend doing various activities in English helped them to complete the test. The learners were also asked to explain briefly why they had chosen the particular answer alternative. This question was placed before the other background questions so that it was easier to reflect on the test. The purpose of the question was to gain more information about the possible influence of formal instruction and free time activities. As the learners' answers are merely their reflections on these aspects, no official generalisations can be made. Nonetheless, I find that the learners' opinions will give some indication of the usefulness or benefits of explicit instruction and of incidental learning. I believe that no previous studies on interlanguage pragmatics have contained a similar task.

5.3 Data analysis

The data of the present study was analysed mainly quantitatively with SPSS statistics for Windows (version 20) and the analyses were conducted with the help of Muijs' (2004) instruction manual. In order to examine the study subjects' level of pragmatic competence, the means, standard deviations, standard errors and minimum and maximum values of the scores in the test of pragmatic competence and in the

different sections of the test were calculated. Also, distributions of the test points and number of correct and incorrect answers in the sections of the test were examined. When studying the differences between the eighth graders and second year students as well as the differences between the EFL and CLIL learners, paired t-tests were used. The t-test allows the examination of a continuous dependent variable and nominal variable (see Muijs 2004: 127) and in this case, t-tests were used to compare the performance of the four study groups in the pragmatic test.

For the analyses of the learning opportunities, namely, free time activities and the length of stay, cross-tabulations and in some cases, chi square tests were performed. Cross tabulations were used to compare nominal variables or ordinal variables while chi square tests were used when examining the associations between groups and their responses to a certain question (see Muijs 2004: 114, 122). The possible influence of free time activities and the length of stay was studied with paired t-tests or with analyses of variance (ANOVA) which allows the comparison of means between several groups (see Muijs 2004: 185). Since ANOVA does not indicate in which groups the possible significant differences lay (see Muijs 2004: 187) post hoc comparisons between the different groups were performed with the Scheffe's test. In the present study, p-values below 0.05 were considered as statistically significant.

As mentioned, the data analysis of the present study was mainly quantitative. However, the learners' answers to the background question in which they had to indicate whether they thought that English lessons at school or the free time they spent doing various activities in English helped them to complete the test, were analysed qualitatively. As the learners were asked to explain briefly why the alternative they chose helped them to do the test, these explanations were examined in order to find out the most common reasons for the learners' choices. These learners' reported reasons as well as the other results of the present study will be examined in the next chapter.

6 RESULTS

In this chapter I will present the results of the study. I will begin with the overall performance in the test of pragmatic competence by all the tested groups. Secondly, I will concentrate on the test performance by the four study groups (EFL8, EFL2, CLIL8, CLIL2) in order to find out whether any statistically significant differences were found between the eighth graders and the second year students and also, between the EFL and CLIL learners. Thirdly, I will present the test performance of all groups according to different learning opportunities. In other words, I will discuss whether English free time activities and the length of stay in an English-speaking country influenced the subjects' test performance. In this chapter I will also examine whether the number of years the learners had studied English had an effect on the learners' pragmatic competence. Finally, I will examine the participants' answers to the question regarding their opinion on whether English lessons at school or English free time activities helped them to complete the test (see Appendix 2/3, *Background questionnaire in Finnish/English*). I will end this chapter by discussing the reliability and validity of the present study. The results presented in this chapter will be discussed in Chapter 7 *Discussion*.

6.1 Performance in the test of pragmatic competence

The test performance of the eighth graders of secondary school and the second year students of upper secondary school was calculated as the number of correct answers in the test of pragmatic competence. Every correct answer gave one point while an incorrect answer gave zero points. If a learner had circled two or more answers as correct in a certain question item, and similarly, if some items were left blank, zero points were marked for these items. Table 5 shows the means, standard deviations as well as the minimum and maximum values of the test scores in the whole pragmatic test and in the different sections of the test:

	Mean	Standard deviation	Minimum	Maximum
Pragmatic test	22.47	3.795	11	29/31
Implicature	8.52	1.995	2	11/11
Situational routines	8.64	1.721	4	12/12
Speech acts	5.31	1.431	2	8/8

Table 5. Means, standard deviations and minimum and maximum values of the scores in the test of pragmatic competence

The possible range of points in the whole test was 0-31 points, in the implicature section 0-11 points, in the situational routines section 0-12 points and in the speech acts section 0-8 points. Thus, as Table 5 presents, none of the participants reached the maximum score of 31 points in the test since the maximum value of points was 29. However, the possible maximum scores were reached in the different sections of the pragmatic test (11, 12, 8 points). The mean value of the total test score was 22.47 and the standard deviation, that is, the measure of the extent to which the values of the distribution, in this case the gained points, cluster around the mean (see Muijs 2004: 110), was 3.795. The mean value in the implicature section was 8.52, in the situational routines section 8.64 and in the speech acts section 5.31. Figure 4 presents the distribution of the scores in the whole test:

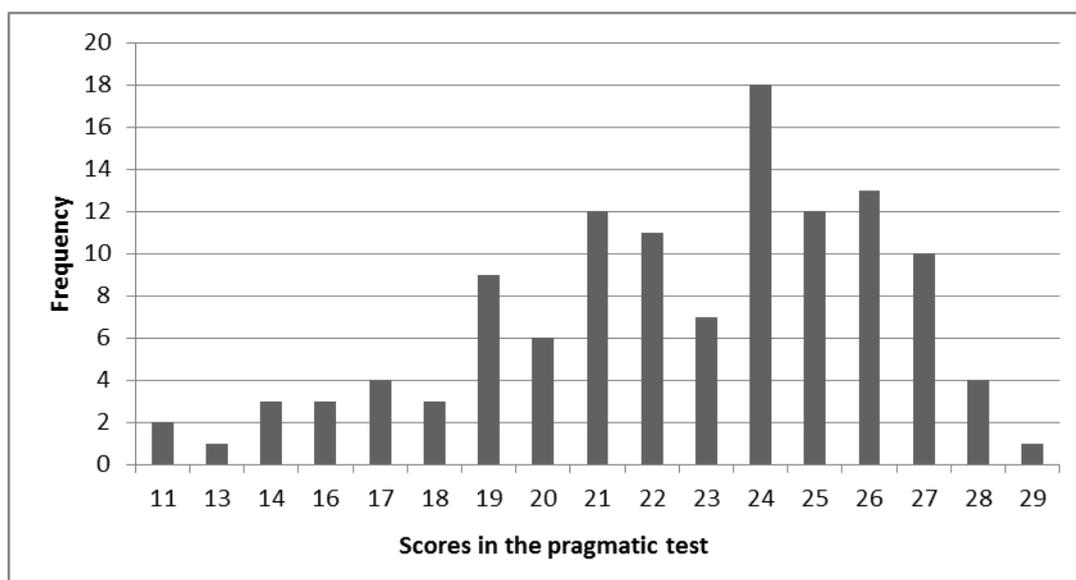


Figure 4. Distribution of the scores in the pragmatic test (n=119)

The total score ranged between 11 and 29 points and the mode or the most common score in the pragmatic test was 24 points. Six learners (5 %) answered less than half

of the questions correctly (11-14 points) while 95 % (n=113) of the subjects answered more than half of the questions correctly (16-29 points). Figure 5 shows the distribution of the scores in the implicature section:

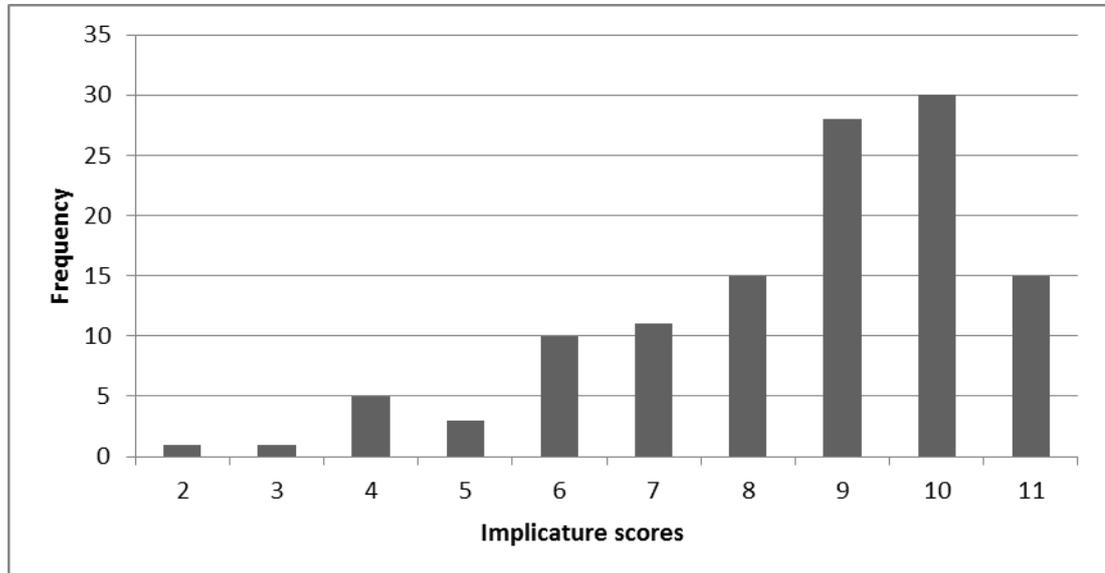


Figure 5. Distribution of the scores in the implicature section of the pragmatic test (n=119)

The maximum score of 11 points in the implicature section was reached by 15 subjects while 88 subjects got 8-11 points. The mode in this section of the test was 10 points since thirty participants reached this score. Only one study subject from the EFL8 group got the minimum score of 2 points. There was some variation in the number of correct and incorrect answers in the different test items of the implicature section as presented in Table 6:

Implicature item number*	Correct answers		Incorrect answers	
	n	%	n	%
1	117	98.3	2	1.7
2	90	75.6	29	24.4
3	111	93.3	8	6.7
4	103	86.6	16	13.4
5	36	30.3	83	69.7
6	87	73.1	32	26.9
7	74	62.2	45	37.8
8	110	92.4	9	7.6
9	78	65.5	41	34.5
10	107	89.9	12	10.1
11	101	84.9	18	15.1
Total**	1014	77.5	295	22.5

* See Appendix 1, items 1-11.

** Total number of answers in the implicature section was 1309.

Table 6. Number and percentages of correct and incorrect answers in the implicature section

Most implicature questions were answered correctly by approximately 60 % to more than 90 % of the subjects but no implicature item was answered correctly by all learners. However, item number 1 which demanded the understanding of an idiosyncratic implicature (*Do you know where Frank is, Sarah? – Well I heard music from his room earlier*) was answered incorrectly by only two participants. Similarly, two other question items (items 3, 8) containing the use of idiosyncratic implicature were answered correctly by more than 90 % of the subjects. The question item that produced most incorrect answers (69.7 %) was item number 5 which dealt with indirect criticism (*How did you like Derek's essay? – Well I think it was well-typed*). Other question items containing the use of formulaic implicature, that is indirect criticism (item 2) or the Pope question (items 6, 11), were answered correctly by approximately 70 to 80 % of the participants. The remaining items presenting idiosyncratic implicature (items 4, 7, 9, 10) were answered correctly by approximately 60 to 90 % of the learners. Altogether 77.5 % of the answers in the implicature section were correct.

Figure 6 below shows the distribution of the scores in the situational routines section of the test. The mode of this section was 9 points and all subjects got at least 4 points. One participant from the EFL2 group got the maximum score of 12 points whereas 68 study subjects got 9-11 points.

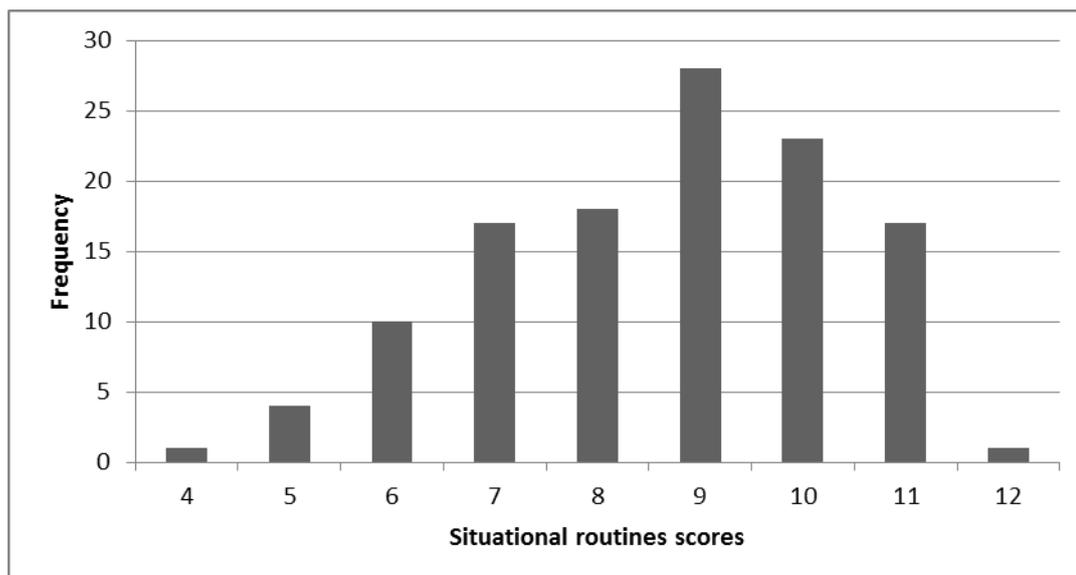


Figure 6. Distribution of the scores in the situational routines section of the pragmatic test (n=119)

Table 7 presents the number and percentages of the correct and incorrect answers in the situational routines section. As in the implicature section, no item was answered correctly by all subjects but item number 13 was answered correctly by all but one study subject. This item presented a situation in which the subjects were asked to indicate how a person would thank another person for a small favour. Other items in which more than 90 % of the answers were correct were item number 12 (3 incorrect answers), item number 16 (2 incorrect answers) and item number 20 (9 incorrect answers). In the first two items the respondents' task was to indicate how they would respond to a simple greeting (*How are you?*) at a party (item 12) or to an inquiry of whether they would have some more food during a dinner at a friend's house (item 16). In the third item with more than 90 % correct answers (item 20) the participants had to know how they would ask someone to leave a message to their friend during a phone call.

Situational routines item number*	Correct answers		Incorrect answers	
	n	%	n	%
12	116	97.5	3	2.5
13	118	99.2	1	0.8
14	103	86.6	16	13.4
15	18	15.1	101	84.9
16	117	98.3	2	1.7
17	80	67.2	39	32.8
18	97	81.5	22	18.5
19	65	54.6	54	45.4
20	110	92.4	9	7.6
21	67	56.3	52	43.7
22	73	61.3	46	38.7
23	64	53.8	55	46.2
Total**	1028	72.0	400	28.0

* See Appendix 1, items 12-23.

**Total number of answers in the situational routines section was 1428.

Table 7. Number and percentages of correct and incorrect answers in the situational routines section

The situational routine item which produced most incorrect answers was question 15 in which the subjects had to indicate how to ask what time it is. The performance in this item differed greatly from all other items with only 18 correct answers. In fact, this situation was the most difficult question item in the whole test. Items 19, 21, 23 were also somewhat problematic for the participants since these question items were answered correctly by approximately 50 % of the subjects. Item 19 contained a situational routine which demanded the knowledge of answering the phone and item 23 demanded the use of a suitable response to an apology. In item number 21 the learners had to know how a waitress would ask whether a customer wanted to eat his meal at the restaurant or whether he wanted to take it home with him. In total 72 % of the situational routines were answered correctly.

Figure 7 presents the distribution of the scores in the speech acts section:

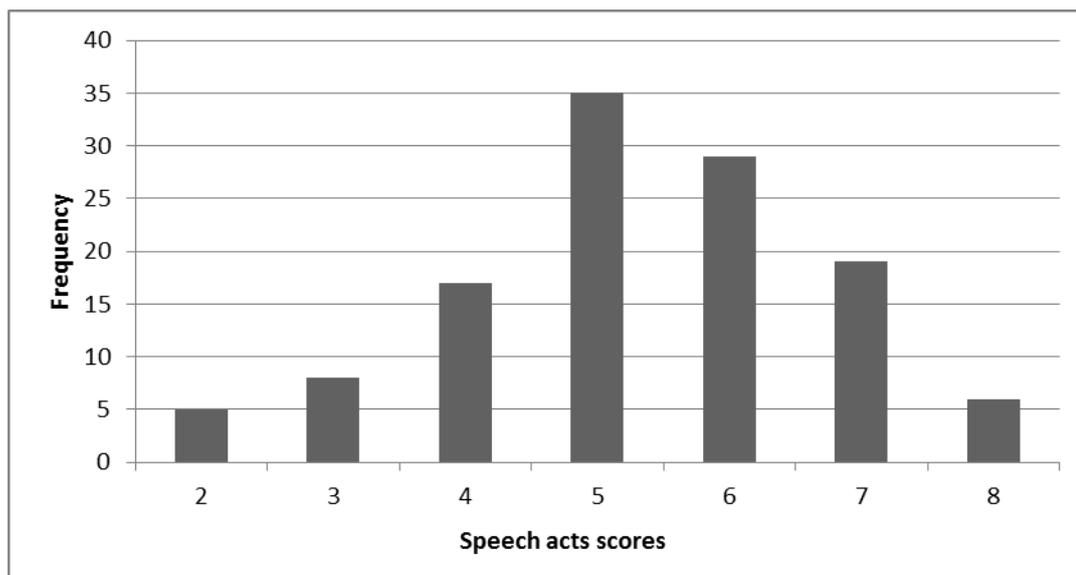


Figure 7. Distribution of the scores in the speech acts section of the pragmatic test (n=119)

In the speech acts section the scores ranged from 2 to 8 points. Five learners got only 2 points whereas six learners reached the maximum score of 8 points. The mode in this section was 5 points since 35 learners reached this score. 89 participants (75 %) answered more than half of the questions correctly; in other words, they scored 5-8 points. Table 8 shows the variation of the correct and incorrect answers in this section of the test:

Speech acts item number*	Correct answers		Incorrect answers	
	n	%	n	%
24	42	35.3	77	64.7
25	108	90.8	11	9.2
26	62	52.1	57	47.9
27	70	58.8	49	41.2
28	112	94.1	7	5.9
29	69	58.0	50	42.0
30	103	86.6	16	13.4
31	67	56.3	52	43.7
Total**	633	66.5	319	33.5

* See Appendix 1, items 24-31.

** Total number of answers in the speech acts section was 952.

Table 8. Number and percentages of correct and incorrect answers in the speech acts section

As Table 8 presents, in two test items (item 25: request; item 28: apology) the learners' performance was excellent since approximately 90 % of the study subjects answered these items correctly. Item 25 contained a situation in which the subjects had to know how to ask for a napkin from a flight attendant during a flight. Item 28 included a description of a situation in which the person comes late to a school meeting and has to apologise for his lateness. By contrast, the other question items in the speech acts section showed more variation. Only one item (item 30: apology) was answered correctly by more than 80 % of the learners while four items were answered correctly by approximately 50 % and one item by 35.3 % of the participants. The item that contained the most incorrect answers (item 24) described a situation in which the president of a ski club asks for a pen in a meeting and the respondent has to refuse the request or apologise for not being able to lend a pen, in an appropriate manner. The items with approximately 50 % correct answers contained two situations that demanded the appropriate use of a request (item 26, item 29), one situation demanding the use of an apology (item 27) and one situation that demanded the use of a refusal (item 31). Altogether 66.5 % of the speech acts questions were answered correctly by the participants.

In this chapter, I presented the results of the performance in the pragmatic test by all tested groups. As discussed, none of the participants reached the maximum score of 31 points in the test but in the different sections of the test, some learners were able to get the maximum scores. In the implicature, situational routines and speech acts sections the number of correct and incorrect answers varied. However, in the first two sections more than 70 % (77.5 %, 72.0 %) of the answers were correct while the speech acts section contained 66.5 % correct answers. These results will be discussed in Chapter 7 *Discussion*. I will now continue with the presentation of the test performance by the four different study groups.

6.2 Test performance of the four study groups

In addition to the overall performance in the pragmatic test, my aim was to examine the difference between eighth graders of secondary school and second year students of upper secondary school as well as the difference between learners in EFL and CLIL environments. In order to discuss these research aims, in this chapter, I will present analyses in which the performance in the test and its sections is explained with the groups examined in the study (EFL8, EFL2, CLIL8, CLIL2). In brief, the purpose of this chapter is to demonstrate whether any statistically significant differences could be found between the four study groups. I will first present descriptive statistics on the scores of the whole test and of the sections of the test by the study groups. The structure of the presentation is the following: I will first compare the EFL8 and EFL2 groups and the CLIL8 and CLIL2 with the purpose of finding possible differences between the eighth graders and second year students and I will continue with the comparison of EFL8 and CLIL8, and EFL2 and CLIL2 groups in order to examine the influence of the two learning environments. After the presentation of descriptive statistics on the study groups' performance, I will examine the results of paired t-tests which compare the means of the test scores between the study groups (see Muijs 2004: 127).

Table 9 shows the means, standard deviations, standard errors of means and minimum and maximum values of the total score of the pragmatic test:

Group	N	Mean	Standard deviation	Standard error of mean	Minimum	Maximum
EFL8	24	18.88	4.121	0.841	11	26/31
EFL2	32	24.38	2.904	0.513	19	28
CLIL8	43	21.81	3.096	0.472	14	26
CLIL2	20	25.15	1.725	0.386	23	29
Total	119	22.47	3.795	0.348	11	29

Table 9. Group-wise means, standard deviations, standard errors and minimum and maximum values of the total score of the test

When comparing the EFL8 and EFL2 groups, the mean value of the test score in the EFL8 group was more than five (5.5) points lower than that of EFL2. Also, the standard deviation and the standard error of mean, that is the standard deviation of

the sampling distribution (see Muijs 2004: 204), were somewhat higher in EFL8 than in EFL2. The range of points in the EFL8 group was significantly bigger when compared to the range of points in EFL2 which can also be seen in the higher figure of standard deviation of EFL8. Moreover, the lowest minimum score of 11 points was gathered in the EFL8 group. The difference of mean values in the CLIL8 and CLIL2 groups was more than three points: the CLIL8 group's mean was 3.34 points lower than that of CLIL2. The minimum score of CLIL2 is 23 which was higher than that of CLIL8 (14) and similarly, the range of points was smaller in the CLIL2 group than in the CLIL8 group which also explains the difference in the figures of standard deviation. Using the t-test for independent samples, a highly significant difference between the ELF8 and ELF2 ($t=-5.86$, $df=54$, $p=0.000$) as well as between the CLIL8 and CLIL2 groups ($t=-5.47$, $df=58.83$, $p=0.000$) was found in the total score of the pragmatic test.

The EFL8 and CLIL8 groups showed differences in all the values presented in Table 9. The mean value of EFL8 was more than two points (2.93) lower than the mean of CLIL8. Both groups reached the same maximum value of points (26) but the EFL8 group's minimum score was lower than that of CLIL8. However, the mean values of both of these groups were below the mean of all participants. The comparison of EFL2 and CLIL2 showed that the mean values differed in these groups by almost one point (0.77). CLIL2 reached a higher maximum score in the test (29) and also the range of points was somewhat smaller in this group when compared to the EFL2 group. The mean values of EFL2 and CLIL2 groups were both above the mean value of all study subjects. The t-test for the equality of means showed a significant difference between the EFL8 and CLIL8 groups ($t=-3.30$, $df=65$, $p<0.05$) whereas no statistically significant difference was found between the EFL2 and CLIL2 groups ($t=-1.21$, $df=49.92$, $p>0.05$).

In the implicature section the following means, standard deviations, standard errors and minimum and maximum values were gathered:

Group	N	Mean	Standard deviation	Standard error of mean	Minimum	Maximum
EFL8	24	7.00	2.106	0.430	2	10/11
EFL2	32	9.50	1.414	0.250	5	11
CLIL8	43	8.12	2.038	0.311	4	11
CLIL2	20	9.65	0.813	0.182	8	11
Total	119	8.52	1.995	0.183	2	11

Table 10. Group-wise means, standard deviations, standard errors and minimum and maximum values of the implicature score

In the implicature score, the EFL8 and EFL2 groups' mean values differed by 2.5 points. Again, in the EFL8 group the lowest minimum score and also, the lowest maximum value of 10 points was gathered. The mean values of CLIL8 and CLIL2 differed by more than one point. Both groups reached the possible maximum score of 11 points in this section but CLIL8 group's minimum score was somewhat lower than that of CLIL2. Highly significant differences were found between the EFL8 and EFL2 groups ($t=-5.31$, $df=54$, $p=0.000$) and the CLIL8 and CLIL2 groups ($t=-4.26$, $df=60.10$, $p=0.000$).

The comparison of the EFL and CLIL groups showed that the mean value of the implicature score in the EFL8 group was more than one point lower (1.12) than that of CLIL8. The range of points was smaller in the CLIL8 than in the EFL8 group which was apparent in the smaller figure of standard deviation in the CLIL8 group. T-test results showed that EFL8 and CLIL8 differed significantly in their performance in the implicature section ($t=-2.12$, $df=65$, $p<0.05$). By contrast, there was not a large difference between the CLIL2 and EFL2 groups: the mean of EFL2 was only 0.15 points lower than that of CLIL2. In fact, no statistically significant difference was found between these groups ($t=-0.49$, $df=49.75$, $p>0.05$).

Group	N	Mean	Standard deviation	Standard error of mean	Minimum	Maximum
EFL8	24	7.17	1.834	0.374	4	11/12
EFL2	32	9.38	1.581	0.280	6	12
CLIL8	43	8.35	1.378	0.210	6	11
CLIL2	20	9.85	0.813	0.182	9	11
Total	119	8.64	1.721	0.158	4	12

Table 11. Group-wise means, standard deviations, standard errors and minimum and maximum values of the situational routines score

Table 11 above presents descriptive statistics on the situational routines section. The mean value of EFL8 was lower than that of EFL2 and again the range of points was bigger in the EFL8 group which was also shown in the higher figure of standard deviation. The CLIL8 group had a mean value of 8.35 in the situational routines section which was more than one point (1.21) lower than the mean value of scores of the CLIL2 group. The minimum score of 6 points of CLIL8 was lower than the minimum score of 9 points in the CLIL2 group. Nonetheless, both groups reached the same maximum score of 11 points. Using the t-test, a highly significant difference between the EFL8 and EFL2 ($t=-4.83$, $df=54$, $p=0.000$) and the CLIL8 and CLIL2 groups ($t=-5.40$, $df=57.38$, $p=0.000$) was found.

When comparing the EFL8 and CLIL8 groups' performance in the situational routines section, the mean values differed by more than one point (1.18) EFL8 group's mean being lower than that of CLIL8. The minimum score was two points lower in the EFL8 group (4 points) than the minimum score of the CLIL8 group (6 points) but both groups reached the same maximum score of 11 points. A statistically significant difference between the EFL8 and CLIL8 groups was found ($t=-2.98$, $df=65$, $p<0.05$) whereas the t-test showed no statistically significant difference between the EFL2 and CLIL2 groups ($t=-1.43$, $df=48.58$, $p>0.05$). The mean value of the situational routines score in the EFL2 group was less than one point (0.47) lower than that of CLIL2 but the range of scores differed in these groups: the range was smaller in the CLIL2 group but the possible maximum score of 12 points was reached by only one learner from the EFL2 group.

Table 12 presents descriptive statistics on the speech acts score:

Group	N	Mean	Standard deviation	Standard error of mean	Minimum	Maximum
EFL8	24	4.71	1.628	0.332	2	7/8
EFL2	32	5.50	1.191	0.211	3	8
CLIL8	43	5.35	1.557	0.237	2	8
CLIL2	20	5.65	1.089	0.244	4	8
Total	119	5.31	1.431	0.131	2	8

Table 12. Group-wise means, standard deviations, standard errors and minimum and maximum values of the speech acts score

The performance in the speech acts section did not vary between the comparable groups as much as in the other two sections or in the total score of the pragmatic test. The difference of means between the comparable groups (EFL8/EFL2, CLIL8/CLIL2, EFL8/CLIL8, EFL2/CLIL2) was less than one point. In fact, a statistically significant difference was found only between the EFL8 and EFL2 groups ($t=-2.10$, $df=54$, $p<0.05$) while no significant differences were found between CLIL8 and CLIL2 ($t = -0.78$, $df=61$, $p>0.05$), EFL8 and CLIL8 ($t=-1.59$, $df=65$, $p>0.05$) or the EFL2 and CLIL2 groups ($t=-0.46$, $df=50$, $p>0.05$).

In addition to the different values and figures presented in the previous tables and paragraphs, I also examined the distributions of the test scores by the four different groups. In brief, in the total score of the test, five subjects from EFL8 and one subject from CLIL8 answered less than half of the questions correctly while in both EFL2 and CLIL2 groups all subjects answered more than half of the questions correctly. In the implicature section in which the maximum possible score was 11 points, only the CLIL2 learners were able to get more than five points (8-11 points) whereas five EFL8 learners, one EFL2 learner and four CLIL8 learners answered less than half of the questions correctly. In the situational routines section which contained 12 questions, five learners from EFL8 got less than 6 points and in the speech acts section, learners from EFL8 ($n=6$), EFL2 ($n=1$), CLIL8 ($n=6$) answered less than half of the question correctly.

To conclude, in all the sections of the pragmatic test, the order of the means remained the same (see Tables 9, 10, 11, 12): the highest mean was always reached by the CLIL2 group, the second highest by the EFL2 group and the CLIL8 and EFL8 groups had the lowest means. Furthermore, the biggest difference between the mean values was found between the EFL8 and EFL2 groups. The standard deviation of the CLIL2 was always the lowest which indicates that the data points of this group were close to the mean (see Muijs 2004: 107). By contrast, in the EFL8 group the standard deviation was always the highest. The analyses of the differences in the mean values showed statistically highly significant differences ($p<0.002$) between the EFL8 and EFL2 and the CLIL8 and CLIL2 groups in the total score of the pragmatic test and in the implicature and situational routines sections. In these parts of the test, statistically significant differences ($p<0.05$) were also found between the EFL8 and CLIL8

groups. EFL2 and CLIL2 groups did not differ significantly in their performance in the test and in the speech acts section, a significant difference ($p < 0.05$) was found only between the EFL8 and EFL2 learners.

6.3 Test performance according to learning opportunities

In addition to the level of Finnish learners' pragmatic competence and the differences between the comparable groups, the study subjects' exposure to English was examined in the present study. Information on the learners' exposure to English was gathered via the background questionnaire (see Appendix 2/3) which contained questions on the respondents' possible stays in English-speaking countries and on their free time activities conducted in English. In the next sub-chapters, I will present the data and the results concerning the learners' reported free time activities and lengths of stays. Moreover, as the examination of the study subjects showed that they differed not only in these two variables presented but also in the number of years they had studied English, I will examine whether the number of English study years influenced the learners' performance in the pragmatic test.

6.3.1 Free time activities

In this chapter, I will first present descriptive statistics on the different free time activities examined. I will describe how often the test participants spent their free time doing different activities in English and discuss the possible statistically significant differences between the four study groups (EFL8, EFL2, CLIL8, CLIL2) according to their reported frequency of English free time activities. These differences were drawn from cross-tabulations and chi square tests which present the differences between the study subjects' responses (see Muijs 2004: 114, 122). After presenting descriptive statistics and the results of the chi square tests, I will discuss whether free time activities seemed to influence the learners' pragmatic competence by presenting the results of analyses of variance (ANOVA).

Figure 8 below shows the frequencies of the learners' answers to the question "How often do you read books, newspapers or magazines in English?":

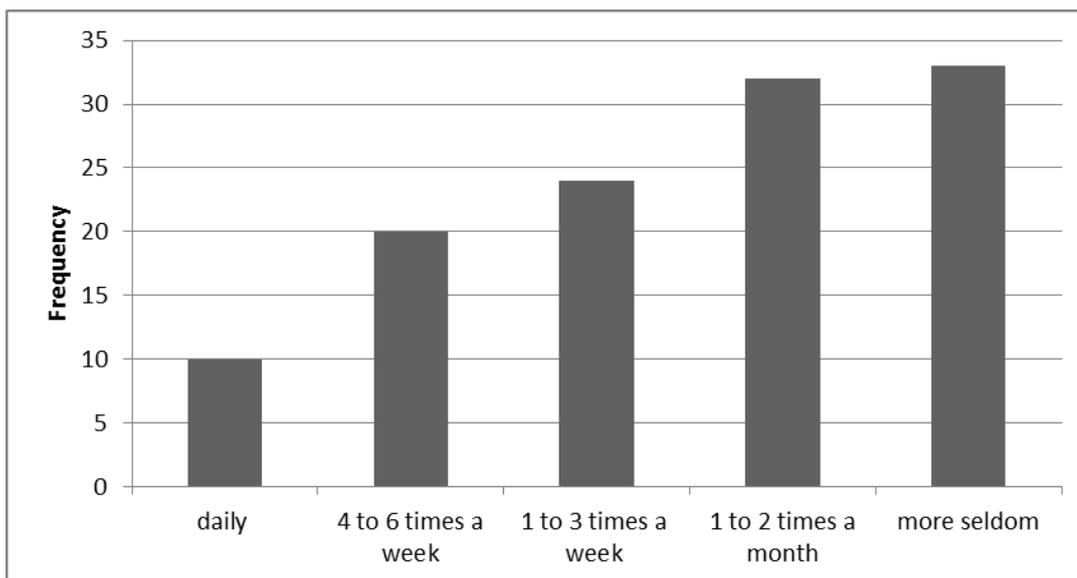


Figure 8. Frequencies of the study subjects' answers to the question "How often do you read books, newspapers or magazines in English?" (n=119)

It can be seen from Figure 8 that most participants (n=65) read English books, newspapers and magazines one to two times a month to more seldom. Only ten subjects read English books or magazines daily whereas in total 44 subjects read them one to six times a week. In order to compare the frequencies of the different activities, three new answer categories were created by combining the data of the original answer alternatives: alternatives "more seldom" and "1 to 2 times a month" were combined to form a new category "up to twice a month" and alternatives "1 to 3 times a week" and "4 to 6 times a week" formed a new category called "1 to 6 times a week" while "daily" was left unchanged. Statistically significant differences in this first question were found between the CLIL8 and CLIL2 groups (chi square=8.99, df=2, $p<0.05$) and between the EFL2 and CLIL2 groups (chi square=7.03, df=2, $p<0.05$) while no significant differences were found between the EFL8 and ELF2 (chi square=2.03, df=2, $p>0.05$) and the EFL8 and CLIL8 groups (chi square=2.57, df=2, $p>0.05$). The data presented in Table 13 confirm that the learners in the CLIL2 group read English books, newspapers and magazines more often than the other groups:

	Daily	1 to 6 times a week	Up to twice a month	Total
EFL8	0	8	16	24
EFL2	1	15	16	32
CLIL8	4	11	28	43
CLIL2	5	10	5	20
Total	10	44	65	119

Table 13. Group-wise responses to the question “How often do you read books, newspapers or magazines in English?”

In contrast to English books, newspapers and magazines, English TV-programmes and movies were watched daily by more than 50 % (n=62) of the learners as presented in Figure 9 below. Only four learners reported to watch TV and movies more seldom than one to three times a week while 53 participants watched English programmes and movies weekly. No significant differences were found between the responses of the four study groups to this question.

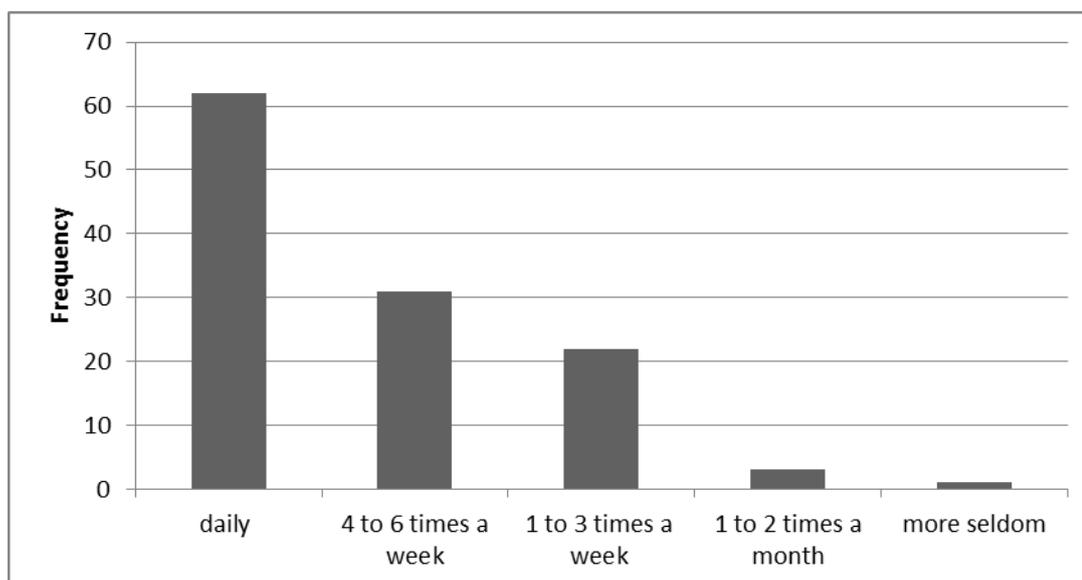


Figure 9. Frequencies of the study subjects’ answers to the question “How often do you watch English TV-programmes or movies?” (n=119)

Another very popular leisure time activity among the participants was listening to English music. In fact, only three answer categories were needed in this question: all subjects listened to music in English either daily (n=102), four to six times a week (n=15) or one to three times a week (n=2) (see Figure 10). The majority of the

subjects (85.7 %) listened to English music every day, thus, listening to English music was the most popular leisure time activity of the study.

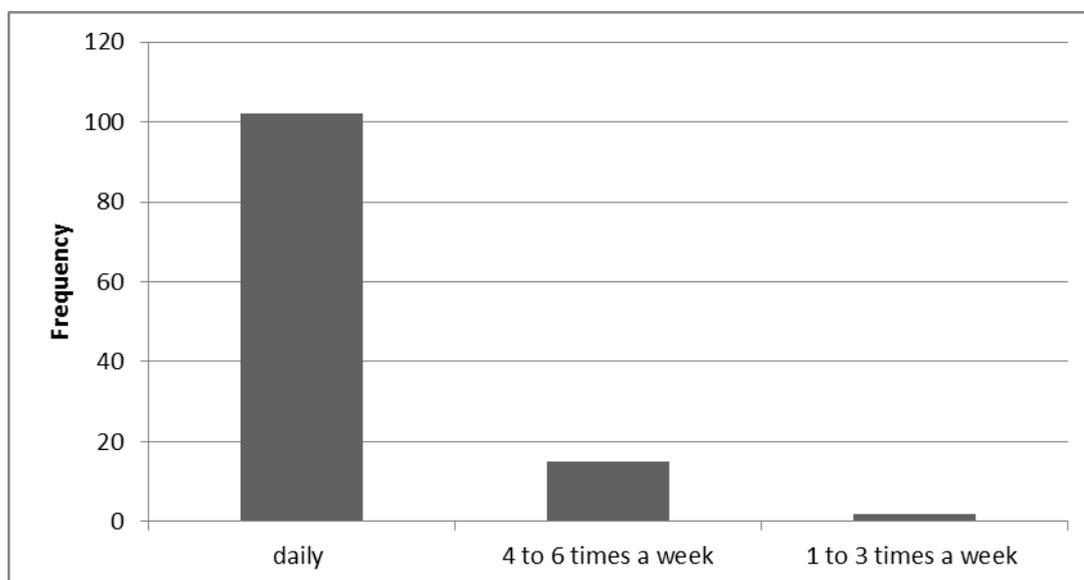


Figure 10. Frequencies of the study subjects' answers to the question "How often do you listen to English music?" (n=119)

Similarly to English TV-programmes, movies and music, using the Internet was also a common leisure time activity among the participants: as Figure 11 shows, the majority of the learners needed English daily when using the Internet (n=81) while some subjects used the Internet weekly (1 to 6 times a week, n=17) and some monthly or more seldom (n=7). No statistically significant differences were found between the frequencies of responses of the four study groups to the questions concerning listening to English music or using the Internet.

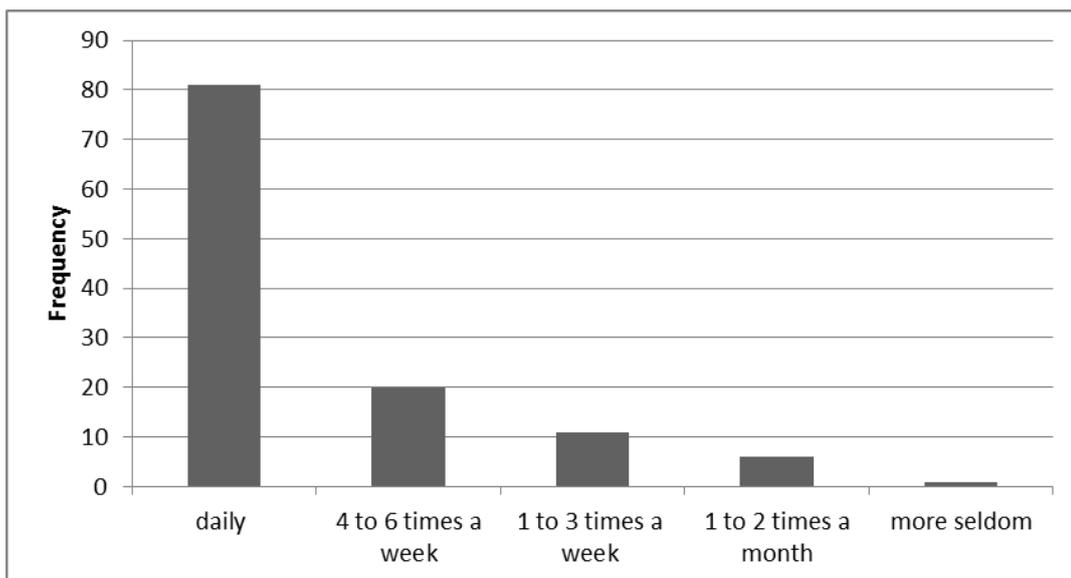


Figure 11. Frequencies of the study subjects' answers to the question "How often do you use the Internet and need English to do this?" (n=119)

Figure 12 shows the frequencies of the answers to the question "How often do you write letters or emails in English?":

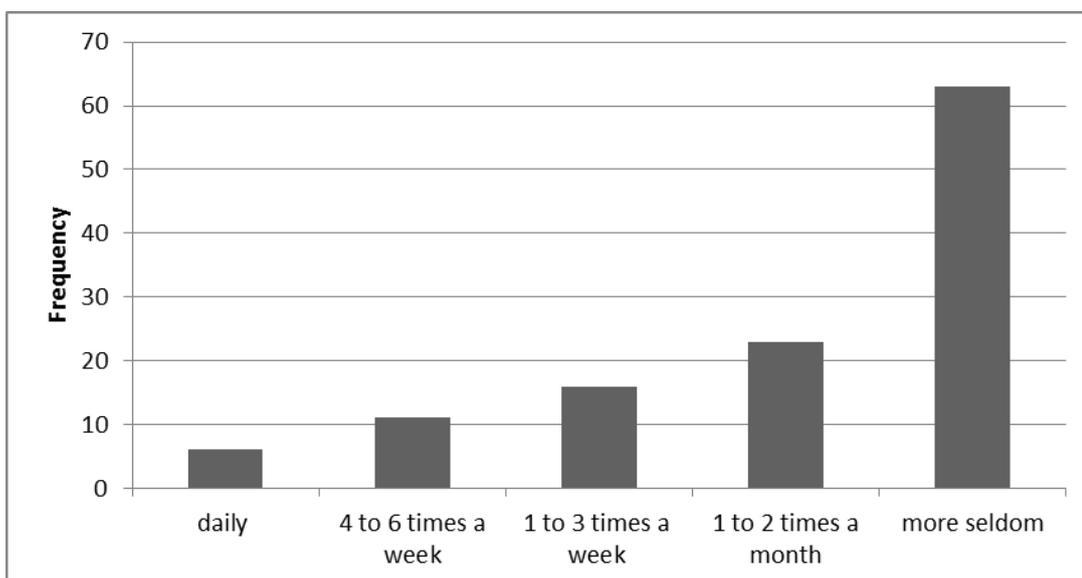


Figure 12. Frequencies of the study subjects' answers to the question "How often do you write letters or emails in English?" (n=119)

Writing letters or emails in English was not a frequent free time activity in this study. As Figure 12 presents, only six participants wrote letters or emails in English every day while 63 learners wrote them more seldom. However, the chi square test showed a statistically significant difference between the two groups of second year students,

namely EFL2 and CLIL2 (chi square=6.40, df=2, p<0.05). The data suggest that the CLIL2 learners wrote letters and emails in English more often than the EFL2 learners:

	Daily	1 to 6 times a week	Up to twice a month	Total
EFL2	0	8	24	32
CLIL2	3	7	10	20
Total	6	27	86	52

Table 14. EFL2 and CLIL2 groups’ responses to the question “How often do you write letters or emails in English?”

Figure 13 presents the distribution of the answers to the question “How often do you play computer games that are in English?”:

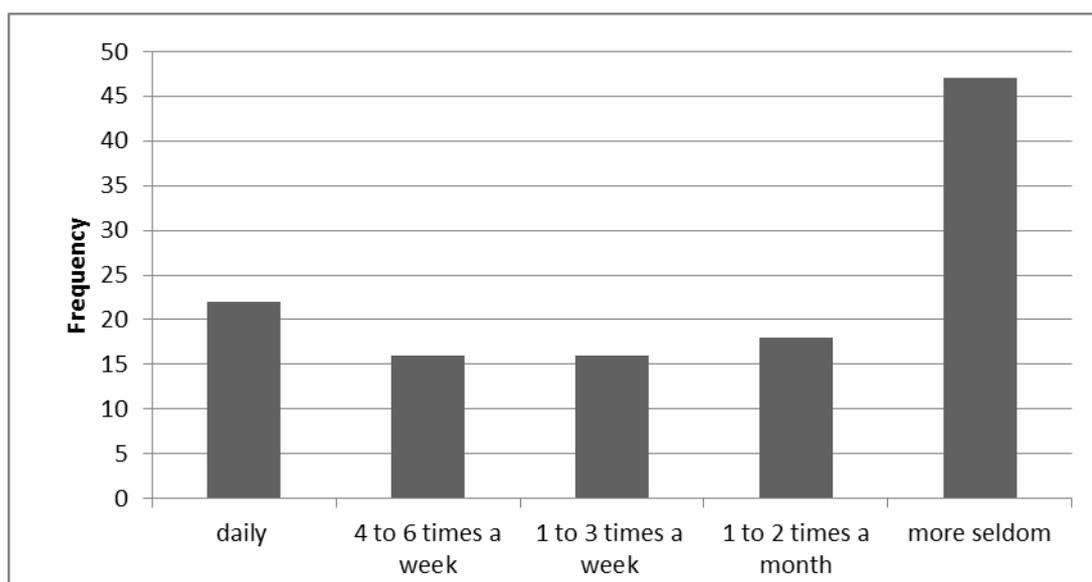


Figure 13. Frequencies of the study subjects’ answers to the question “How often do you play computer games that are in English?” (n=119)

Answers to the question “How often do you play computer games that are in English?” were more evenly distributed than the learners’ answers to the other questions concerning their free time activities. However, the answer category “more seldom” was clearly the most common answer in this question. Two statistically significant differences were found when comparing the responses of the four study groups: EFL8 and EFL2 groups’ responses (chi square=8.01, df=2, p<0.05) and CLIL8 and CLIL2 groups’ responses (chi square=6.91, df=2, p<0.05) differed

significantly. As Table 15 presents, the eighth graders played computer games that were in English considerably more often than the second year students: most eighth graders (EFL8/CLIL8) played computer games either daily or 1 to 6 times a week whereas most second year students (EFL2/CLIL2) played these games more seldom.

	Daily	1 to 6 times a week	Up to twice a month	Total
EFL8	5	10	9	24
EFL2	3	5	24	32
CLIL8	12	14	17	43
CLIL2	2	3	15	20
Total	22	32	65	119

Table 15. Group-wise responses to the question “How often do you play computer games that are in English?”

The last leisure time activity considered in the present study was spending time with English-speaking friends. This activity was not very common among the study subjects: the minority of the subjects spent time with English-speaking friends daily to six times a week (n=16) while more than half of the participants (n=66) met English-speaking friends more seldom than once a month as can be seen in Figure 14 below.

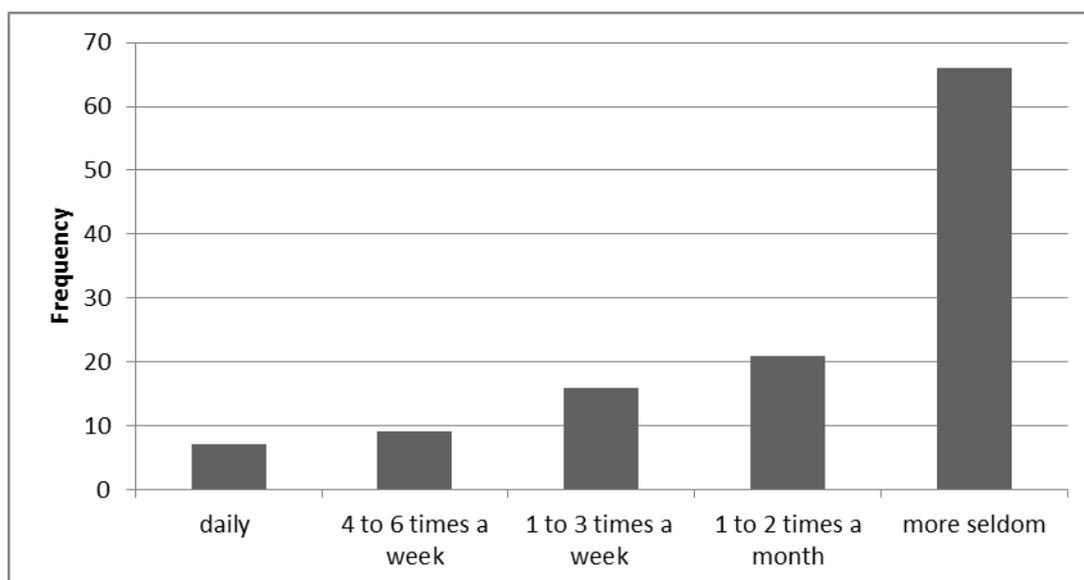


Figure 14. Frequencies of the study subjects’ answers to the question “How often do you spend time with English-speaking friends?” (n=119)

Although the study subjects did not seem to spend time with English-speaking friends very often, two statistically significant differences were found between the study groups: significant differences were found between the CLIL8 and CLIL2 groups (chi square=14.25, df=2, $p<0.05$) and the EFL2 and CLIL2 groups (chi square=15.559, df=2, $p<0.05$). In fact, the differences were highly significant since the p-values were in both cases less than 0.02 ($p=0.001/p=0.000$). The data in Table 16 confirm that the CLIL2 learners spent time with English-speaking friends more often than the other groups:

	Daily	1 to 6 times a week	Up to twice a month	Total
EFL8	0	3	21	24
EFL2	0	6	26	32
CLIL8	3	6	34	43
CLIL2	4	10	6	20
Total	7	25	87	119

Table 16. Group-wise responses to the question “How often do you spend time with English-speaking friends?”

In order to examine the possible influence of these different English free time activities on the learners’ performance in the pragmatic test, a new variable called “free time activity score” was created. The subjects’ responses were changed into scores, for example, the score of the answer alternative “daily” was 5 points and the score of the answer alternative “more seldom” was 1 point and the new variable was created by summing up the learners’ scores. As the questions regarding English free time activities contained always five time categories (“daily”, “4 to 6 times a week”, “1 to 3 times a week”, “1 to 2 times a month”, “more seldom”) and as the background questionnaire contained seven questions on different free time activities, the maximum score of the “free time activity score” was 35. The distribution of the learners’ scores is presented in Figure 15:

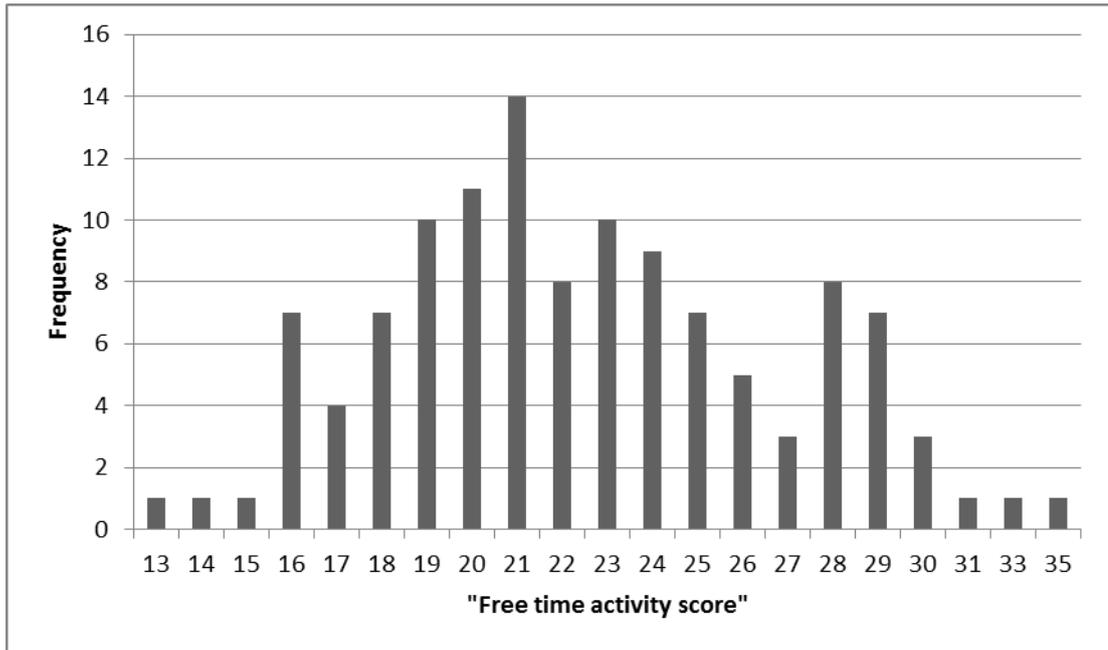


Figure 15. Distribution of the values of the variable “free time activity score” (n=119)

Most study subjects used English in their free time moderately (score 18 to 22, n=50) while some of them used the language either infrequently (score 13 to 17, n=14) or frequently (score 28 to 35, n=55). Based on these scores, the study subjects were divided into four groups: infrequent users of English (score 13 to 18), moderate users of English (score 18 to 22), frequent users of English (score 23 to 27) and very frequent users of English (score 28 to 35). These groups were then used in the analysis of variance which calculates the overall differences between the groups. Table 17 presents the basic descriptive statistics on the four different groups:

	Groups*	N	Mean	Standard deviation	Standard error	Min.	Max.
Pragmatic test	1	14	21.43	4.256	1.137	13	27/31
	2	50	22.62	3.999	0.566	11	29
	3	34	22.41	3.726	0.639	11	28
	4	21	22.90	3.177	0.693	16	27
	Total	119	22.47	3.795	0.348	11	29
Implicature	1	14	8.29	2.164	0.578	4	11/11
	2	50	8.58	2.071	0.293	3	11
	3	34	8.35	1.968	0.337	2	11
	4	21	8.81	1.834	0.400	4	11
	Total	119	8.52	1.995	0.183	2	11
Situational routines	1	14	8.21	1.528	0.408	5	11/12
	2	50	8.64	1.804	0.255	5	11
	3	34	8.74	1.797	0.308	4	12
	4	21	8.76	1.578	0.344	6	11
	Total	119	8.64	1.721	0.158	4	12
Speech acts	1	14	4.93	1.492	0.399	2	7/8
	2	50	5.40	1.512	0.214	2	8
	3	34	5.32	1.224	0.210	2	7
	4	21	5.33	1.560	0.340	2	8
	Total	119	5.31	1.431	0.131	2	8

*Groups: 1 = Infrequent users of English, 2 = Moderate users of English, 3 = Frequent users of English, 4 = Very frequent users of English

Table 17. Means, standard deviations, standard errors and minimum and maximum values of the pragmatic test according to the frequency of English free time activities

The mean scores of the very frequent users of English (group 4) were the highest in the pragmatic test and in the implicature and situational routines sections but in the speech acts section, the highest mean was gathered in the group of moderate users of English (group 2). The analysis of variance showed that no statistically significant differences were found in the four groups' performance:

	Groups*				F-value	p-value
	1	2	3	4		
Pragmatic test	21.43	22.65	22.41	22.90	0.466	0.825
Implicature	8.29	8.58	8.35	8.81	0.301	0.790
Situational routines	8.21	8.64	8.74	8.76	0.350	0.757
Speech acts	4.93	5.40	5.35	5.33	0.394	0.707

*Groups: 1 = Infrequent users of English (n=14), 2 = Moderate users of English (n=50), 3 = Frequent users of English (n=34), 4 = Very frequent users of English (n=21)

Table 18. Mean values and the results of the analysis of variance: performance in the pragmatic test and English free time activities

As Table 18 shows, the statistical analyses of variances showed that the frequency of English free time activities did not affect the learners' performance in the pragmatic test ($p > 0.05$) and in its different sections ($p > 0.05$). In order to confirm this finding, groups 1 and 2 were combined to form a new group "infrequent users of English" and groups 3 and 4 were combined to form a group called "frequent users of English". The difference of these two groups was then calculated with a t-test and the results are the following:

	Groups*		t	df	p
	1	2			
Pragmatic test	22.36	22.60	0.344	117	0.732
Implicature	8.52	8.53	0.032	117	0.975
Situational routines	8.55	8.75	0.626	117	0.533
Speech acts	5.30	5.33	0.115	117	0.909

* Groups: 1 = Infrequent users of English (n=64), 2 = Frequent users of English (n=55)

Table 19. Mean values and the results of the t-test: performance in the pragmatic test and English free time activities

The t-test results showed that although the infrequent users of English had lower mean values than the frequent users of English in the pragmatic test and in its different sections, no statistically significant differences were found between the performances of the two groups in question. Thus, this finding suggests that the frequency of free time activities conducted in English did not affect the Finnish learners' pragmatic competence.

6.3.2 Length of stay

In the present study, the learners' exposure to English contained different free time activities conducted in English as well as possible stays in English-speaking countries. In the background questionnaire, the respondents were asked to indicate whether they had visited or stayed in an English-speaking country. Table 20 presents the study subjects' reported lengths of stays in such countries:

Length of stay	n	%
none	55	46.2 %
less than 6 weeks	43	36.1 %
6 weeks to 6 months	12	10.1 %
6 months to 1 year	3	2.5 %
1 to 2 years	1	0.8 %
more than 2 years	5	4.2 %
Total	119	100 %

Table 20. Study subjects' reported lengths of stays in English-speaking countries

Most subjects (n=55) had never visited an English-speaking country while some learners (n=43) had stayed in a target language country less than six weeks or from six weeks to six months (n=12). Only nine learners had stayed in an English-speaking country more than six months and the stays of five learners had lasted more than two years. As table 21 below presents, the learners whose sojourns had lasted more than two years came from the two CLIL groups (CLIL8: 3 learners; CLIL2: 2 learners) while one subject from the EFL2 group had stayed in an English-speaking country for one to two years. However, most of the CLIL8 (n=24) as well as EFL8 (n=17) learners had never visited an English-speaking country but some of them (CLIL8: 16 learners; EFL8: 7 learners) had been in such countries for less than six weeks to six months.

	Length of stay					
	none	less than 6 weeks	6 weeks to 6 months	6 months to 1 year	1 to 2 years	more than 2 years
EFL8	17	4	3	-	-	-
EFL2	11	16	3	1	1	-
CLIL8	24	14	2	-	-	3
CLIL2	3	9	4	2	-	2
Total	55	42	12	3	1	5

Table 21. Group-wise lengths of stays in English-speaking countries (n=119)

In order to examine whether the length of stay influenced the learners' performance in the pragmatic test, new categories of the variable were created. The category "none" which referred to learners who had never visited or stayed in an English-speaking country remained the same and the answer categories "less than 6 weeks" and "6 weeks to 6 months" were combined to form a new category "up to 6 months". The remaining two categories, namely "6 months to 1 year" and "1 to 2 years"

formed a category called “over 6 months”. Table 22 presents the basic descriptive statistics of these three categories of the variable “length of stay” in the pragmatic test and its sections:

	Length of stay*	N	Mean	Standard deviation	Standard error	Min.	Max.
Pragmatic test	1	55	21.49	4.095	0.552	11	28/31
	2	55	23.47	3.360	0.453	13	29
	3	9	22.33	3.082	1.027	18	27
	Total	119	22.47	3.795	0.348	11	29
Implicature	1	55	7.95	2.215	0.299	2	11/11
	2	55	9.20	1.432	0.193	5	11
	3	9	7.89	2.421	0.807	4	10
	Total	119	8.52	1.995	0.183	2	11
Situational routines	1	55	8.24	1.763	0.238	5	12/12
	2	55	9.00	1.678	0.226	4	11
	3	9	8.89	1.269	0.423	7	11
	Total	119	8.64	1.721	0.158	4	12
Speech acts	1	55	5.31	1.514	0.204	2	8/8
	2	55	5.27	1.394	0.188	2	8
	3	9	5.56	1.236	0.412	4	8
	Total	119	5.31	1.431	0.131	2	8

* Categories: 1 = None, 2 = Up to 6 months, 3 = Over 6 months

Table 22. Means, standard deviations, standard errors and minimum and maximum values of the pragmatic test according to the learners’ lengths of stays (three categories)

As Table 22 shows, in the whole test and in the implicature and situational routines sections, the means of groups 1 (“none”) and 2 (“up to 6 months”) differed so that those who had stayed in an English-speaking country up to six months (group 2) performed better in the pragmatic test. Surprisingly, the group containing the learners who had stayed in an English-speaking country over 6 months (group 3) had the second best mean in the pragmatic test and in the situational routines section, that is, the mean value was higher than that of group 1 but lower than that of group 2. Furthermore, in the implicature section, group 3 had the lowest mean, while in the speech acts section this group had the highest mean and group 2 (“up to 6 months”) had the lowest mean. In order to further investigate these findings, the differences between the three groups were tested statistically with the analysis of variance and the results of this test are presented in Table 23:

	Length of stay*			F-value	p-value
	1	2	3		
Pragmatic test	21.49	23.47	22.33	3.943	0.022
Implicature	7.95	9.20	7.89	6.475	0.002
Situational routines	8.24	9.00	8.89	2.901	0.059
Speech acts	5.31	5.27	5.56	0.149	0.862

* Categories: 1 = None (n=55), 2 = Up to 6 months (n=55), 3 = Over six months (n=9)

Table 23. Mean values and the results of the analysis of variance: performance in the pragmatic test and the length of stay

The analysis of variance showed that there was a significant difference between the three categories of lengths of stays in the total score of the pragmatic test ($F(2)=3.94$, $p<0.05$) and in the implicature score ($F(2)=6.48$, $p<0.05$). However, no statistically significant differences were found in the situational routines and speech acts scores. Further analysis with the Scheffe's test showed that the performance of group 1 and group 2 differed significantly in the total score ($p=0.022$) and in the implicature section ($p=0.003$) but no other statistically significant differences between the three groups were found.

Since the performance of group 3 differed strikingly from the other two groups and since this group was considerably smaller than the other groups with only 9 learners, groups 2 and 3 were combined with the purpose of examining just two categories of lengths of stays. These new categories represented those who had never visited an English-speaking country (group 1) and those who had visited or stayed in such country for less than six weeks to over two years (group 2). The performance of these two groups is presented in Table 24:

	Length of stay*	N	Mean	Standard deviation	Standard error	Min.	Max.
Pragmatic test	1	55	21.49	4.095	0.552	11	28/31
	2	64	23.31	3.323	0.415	13	29
	Total	119	22.47	3.795	0.348	11	29
Implicature	1	55	7.95	2.215	0.299	2	11/11
	2	64	9.02	1.647	0.206	4	11
	Total	119	8.52	1.995	0.183	2	11
Situational routines	1	55	8.24	1.763	0.238	5	12/12
	2	64	8.98	1.618	0.202	4	11
	Total	119	8.64	1.721	0.158	4	12
Speech acts	1	55	5.31	1.514	0.204	2	8/8
	2	64	5.31	1.367	0.171	2	8
	Total	119	5.31	1.431	0.131	2	8

* Categories: 1 = None, 2 = Less than 6 weeks to over 2 years

Table 24. Means, standard deviations, standard errors and minimum and maximum values of the pragmatic test according to the learners' lengths of stays (two categories)

The examination of groups 1 and 2 showed that the length of stay seemed to influence the learners' performance in the whole pragmatic test as well as in the implicature and situational routines sections. However, the mean values of those who had not and those who had visited an English-speaking country in the speech acts score was the same (5.31). A further analysis of the differences between the means of categories 1 and 2 was calculated with the t-test. Table 25 shows the results of this test:

	Length of stay*		t	df	p
	1	2			
Pragmatic test	21.49	23.31	-2.678	117	0.008
Implicature	7.95	9.02	-2.950	98.498	0.004
Situational routines	8.24	8.98	-2.412	117	0.017
Speech acts	5.31	5.31	-0.013	117	0.990

* Categories: 1 = None (n=55), 2 = Less than 6 weeks to over 2 years (n=64)

Table 25. Mean values and the results of the t-test: performance in the pragmatic test and the length of stay

Groups 1 and 2 differed significantly in the whole pragmatic test, in the implicature section and in the situational routines section ($p < 0.05$). By contrast, in the speech acts score, no statistically significant difference was found between learners who had not and learners who had stayed in an English-speaking country ($p > 0.05$).

6.3.3 Number of years of studying English

One of the main aims of the present study was to examine the influence of exposure to English on the Finnish learners' pragmatic competence in English. Exposure to English was considered to contain different free time activities conducted in English and also possible stays and visits in English-speaking countries. However, as mentioned previously, the study subjects differed not only in these two variables presented but also in the number of years they had studied English (see 5.1 *Study subjects*, Tables 2 & 3). Since explicit teaching and learning of the foreign language can be seen as an essential part of exposure to the target language (see 4.2.1 *Influence of learning context*), I considered it important to examine whether these study years had an influence on the pragmatic competence of the learners. Hence, in this chapter, I will briefly examine the possible effect of the number of years of studying English on the learners' performance in the pragmatic test.

As discussed, the study subjects' number of years of studying English varied considerably: some of the learners had studied English for five years while some had studied the language for eleven years. Table 26 presents the distribution of the learners' study years:

Number of years	n	%
5	29	24.4 %
6	8	6.7 %
7	34	28.6 %
8	27	22.7 %
9	10	8.4 %
10	7	5.9 %
11	4	3.3 %
Total	119	100 %

Table 26. Study subjects' reported number of years of studying English

Most subjects had studied English for seven years (n=34) but five years and eight years were also common numbers of study years. Only four learners reported to have studied English for eleven years while some learners had also studied English for six (n=8), nine (n=10) and ten (n=7) years. The learners who had studied English for eleven years came from the EFL2 (n=2) and CLIL2 groups (n=2). Some learners of

these two groups had studied the target language for seven to eleven years. By contrast, the EFL8 and CLIL8 study subjects had studied English for five to seven years (see 5.1 *Study subjects*, Tables 2 & 3).

The means, standard deviations and minimum and maximum values in the pragmatic test and its different sections according to the study years (5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11 years) were studied and these values are presented in Table 27:

	Number of years	N	Mean	Standard deviation	Standard error	Min.	Max.
Pragmatic test	5	29	20.52	3.961	0.735	11	26/31
	6	8	19.13	4.224	1.493	13	24
	7	34	21.82	3.335	0.572	14	26
	8	27	24.70	2.812	0.541	19	29
	9	10	24.60	2.591	0.819	21	27
	10	7	25.14	1.464	0.553	24	27
	11	4	23.75	3.594	1.797	19	27
	Total	119	22.47	3.795	0.348	11	29
Implicature	5	29	7.52	2.262	0.420	2	11/11
	6	8	7.50	2.070	0.732	4	10
	7	34	8.09	2.006	0.344	4	11
	8	27	9.52	1.312	0.252	5	11
	9	10	9.70	0.823	0.260	8	11
	10	7	9.86	0.690	0.261	9	11
	11	4	9.50	1.732	0.866	7	11
	Total	119	8.52	1.995	0.183	2	11
Situational routines	5	29	7.93	1.771	0.329	5	11/12
	6	8	7.13	2.031	0.718	4	10
	7	34	8.41	1.520	0.261	6	11
	8	27	9.44	1.528	0.294	6	12
	9	10	9.40	1.265	0.400	7	11
	10	7	9.86	0.690	0.261	9	11
	11	4	9.25	1.708	0.854	7	11
	Total	119	8.64	1.721	0.158	4	12
Speech acts	5	29	5.07	1.557	0.289	2	7/8
	6	8	4.50	1.604	0.567	2	7
	7	34	5.32	1.628	0.279	2	8
	8	27	5.74	1.095	0.211	4	8
	9	10	5.50	1.269	0.401	4	7
	10	7	5.43	1.134	0.429	4	7
	11	4	5.00	0.816	0.408	4	6
	Total	119	5.31	1.431	0.131	2	8

Table 27. Means, standard deviations, standard errors and minimum and maximum values of the pragmatic test according to the number of years of studying English

In the pragmatic test and in the implicature and situational routines sections, the learners who had studied English for ten years had the highest mean. However, the highest mean in the speech acts section was gained by learners who had studied the language for eight years. Learners who reported to have studied English for six years had the lowest mean in the pragmatic test and in the three sections of the test. In order to test the possible differences between the learners of varying years of English studies, the analysis of variance was conducted. Table 28 shows the results of this test:

	Number of study years *							F	p
	5	6	7	8	9	10	11		
Pragmatic test	20.52	19.13	21.82	24.70	24.60	25.14	23.75	6.741	0.000
Implicature	7.52	7.50	8.09	9.52	9.70	9.86	9.59	5.115	0.000
Situational routines	7.93	7.13	8.41	9.44	9.40	9.86	9.25	4.660	0.000
Speech acts	5.07	4.50	5.32	5.74	5.50	5.43	5.00	1.044	0.401

* 5 years (n=29), 6 years (n=8), 7 years (n=34), 8 years (n=27), 9 years (n=10), 10 years (n=7), 11 years (n=4)

Table 28. Mean values and the results of the analysis of variance: performance in the pragmatic test and the number of years of studying English

The analysis of variance found highly significant differences between the groups in the whole pragmatic test ($F(112)=6.74$, $p=0.000$), in the implicature section ($F(6)=5.12$, $p=0.000$) and in the situational routines section ($F(6)=4.66$, $p=0.000$). No statistically significant differences were found in the speech acts scores ($F(6)=1.04$, $p>0.05$). Further analyses with the Scheffe's test found significant differences between learners who had studied English for five years and learners who had studied English for eight years in the total score of the pragmatic test ($p=0.002$) and in the implicature score ($p=0.013$). Also in the total score, a significant difference was found between subjects who reported to have studied English for six years and learners who had studied the language for eight years ($p=0.012$). Moreover, a significant difference was found between the latter groups in the situational routines score ($p=0.047$). These results will be discussed in Chapter 7.

6.4 English lessons or English free time activities: a qualitative analysis of the learners' answers

The background questionnaire used in the present study contained a question in which the learners had to indicate whether they thought that English lessons at school or the free time they spend doing various activities in English helped them to complete the test. In addition, the learners were asked to write briefly why the alternative they chose helped them to do the test (see Appendix 2/3, *Background questionnaire in Finnish/English*). In this chapter, I will first present the distribution of the learners who chose English lessons and the learners who chose English free time activities as more helpful in the completion of the test. Secondly, I will present the learners' explanations for their choices. Examples of the learners' answers are presented in Appendix 5.

Answers	n	%
English lessons at school	26	21.8 %
English free time activities	92	77.3 %
no answer	1	0.8 %
Total	119	100 %

Table 29. Study subjects' opinions on the influence of English lessons or English free time activities

As presented in Table 29, most subjects (n=92) found that English free time activities helped them to answer to the multiple choice DCT while 26 learners explained that the topics and matters covered in English lessons at school helped them to complete the test. One subject from the CLIL8 group did not answer this question. When examining the group-wise opinions on the influence of English lessons or English free time activities (Figure 16), it can be seen that nine eighth graders from both EFL8 and CLIL8 groups and four second year students from both EFL2 and CLIL2 groups chose English lessons over free time activities. To summarise, approximately 38 % of the EFL8 learners and 20 % of the CLIL8 and CLIL2 learners chose English lessons as more helpful in the completion of test, whereas 14 % of the EFL2 learners chose lessons at school as the best alternative.

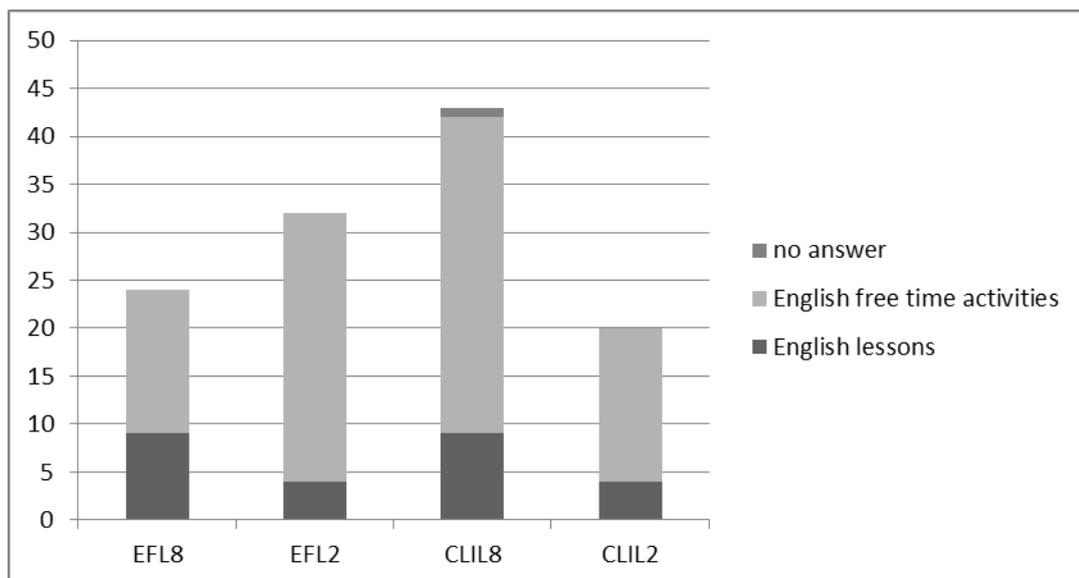


Figure 16. Group-wise opinions on the influence of English lessons or English free time activities (n=119)

The learners gave various reasons for their choice of English lessons or English free time activities. Most study subjects who had chosen English lessons as more helpful in completing the pragmatic test explained that similar situations as the test presented have been discussed and practiced during the lessons. According to these learners, lessons provide them with the knowledge of how English is used in everyday life or “real life” as one of the learners wrote. Some subjects pointed out that at school, English is taught “thoroughly” or more “accurately” and aspects of language and culture as well as politeness are discussed. Learning of basic words, basic situations and basic phrases, such as “Nice to meet you”, in English was also mentioned as an advantage of English lessons. In addition to these reasons, some learners explained that they use English more at school during the English lessons than in their free time. One subject wrote that he learns easily at school while another explained that he uses “official” English only during the lessons. Moreover, one learner pointed out that he had studied English for a long period of time which helped him to answer the questions in the pragmatic test.

Most learners, as discussed, chose the English that they use and hear in their free time as more helpful than English lessons at school in completing the pragmatic test. These learners’ explanations included three types of answers. Firstly, learners wrote that the test contained situations from everyday life which are associated with different free time activities. The subjects explained that they use this everyday or

“practical” English during their free time or while travelling or living in an English-speaking country. The learners pointed out that they imagined themselves in the test situations or remembered a similar situation in their own lives so that it was easy for them to find the most suitable answers to the questions. Furthermore, learners explained that the situations were “natural” and contained “free time vocabulary” which they had acquired during their free time.

Secondly, learners explained that they had either witnessed or had been part of similar situations that were presented in the test in their free time. Some study subjects wrote that they frequently use English, for example, when reading books or talking with friends or family members. Also, learners pointed out that they use English in the Internet or when playing computer games which helped them in the test. Most study subjects, however, explained that they hear English on the radio, in the Internet, in movies or on television. In fact, the benefits of watching television programmes in English were mentioned by most learners. According to the learners, watching television helps them to learn English because in Finland, TV-programmes in English are very common and these programmes contain useful dialogue and the use of spoken English. One learner pointed out that sitcoms are especially beneficial while others wrote that it is easy to learn different phrases and expressions when watching television.

The use of everyday English in their free time and English free time activities containing, for instance, watching television were the most common explanations of the learners. However, a third type of reason was also given by the learners: in their explanations, the study subjects criticised the English used at school during English lessons. The learners wrote that “practical” or everyday English is not discussed at school since teachers usually concentrate on grammar or vocabulary. Some learners pointed out that English textbooks do not contain situations presented in the test and that the English used during the lessons is “stiff” or “official”. In addition, one learner wrote that he has not learnt for example different tones of voice, which were important in the test, at school while another learner explained that different matters and topics are discussed very briefly during English lessons. Although some learners pointed out the importance or usefulness of English lessons, they explained that they

use more versatile English in their free time. Thus, generally, the learners thought that they learn English better or use it more in their free time than at school.

6.5 Reliability and validity

In this last sub-chapter of the empirical section, I will reflect on the reliability and validity of the present study. In other words, I will discuss whether my study succeeded in measuring the pragmatic competence of Finnish learners of English and whether my study can be replicated or my results generalised. I will reflect on the pragmatic test and my study subjects and evaluate whether my research questions correspond to the adopted methodology.

The test of pragmatic competence used in the present study measured the learners' knowledge of implicature, situational routines and speech acts which are all closely connected to Grice's cooperative principle and politeness conventions as presented in Chapter 2. To increase the validity of the study, I wanted the test to include several sections measuring different aspects of pragmatics. Moreover, the implicature and situational routines sections measured pragmalinguistic knowledge while the speech acts section demanded the ability to use sociopragmatic competence which also allowed a holistic examination of the study subjects' pragmatic competence. However, as the test assessed only the learners' comprehension of implicatures and their ability to choose the most appropriate situational routine or speech act in a given situation, the production dimension of pragmatic competence was not assessed with the chosen test. Hence, the learners' ability to use English in face-to-face interaction was not examined within this study. However, as McNamara and Roever state (2006: 65) given the nature of pragmatics as containing various different aspects of language use, one single test cannot assess learners' pragmatic competence as a whole. McNamara and Roever acknowledge that it is unpractical or even impossible to test the entirety of pragmatic knowledge (*ibid.*). Consequently, it is often more practical to focus on certain areas of pragmatics.

In the present study, some changes were made to the original test batteries by Roever (2005, 2006) and Hudson, Detmer and Brown (1995). As discussed in the chapter presenting the study subjects (5.1), the level of difficulty of the test had to be taken

into account because of the younger learners. Therefore, from Roever's original test, one question item was not included in the test and one answer alternative was changed and also, only eight items from Hudson, Detmer and Brown's test battery were chosen for the present study. As a result, the different sections of the test contained different numbers of question items which could have influenced the internal validity of the study. Nevertheless, the function of every question item was carefully considered and discussed with a teacher of English. Furthermore, I find that additional question items would have firstly, been difficult to find and secondly, the addition of questions would have made the test longer which in turn, could have affected the schools' consent to participate in my study.

A written discourse completion task with multiple choice questions was chosen as the most suitable testing format for the present study because of its practicality as presented in Chapter 5. As discussed previously, DCTs are not always considered to be reliable measures for pragmatic competence since written tasks can only elicit the knowledge dimension of pragmatic competence. It is questionable whether respondents would use exactly the same forms elicited in the questionnaires in actual discourse. It is acknowledged that the multiple choice format, in particular, allows guesswork and, furthermore, in this format, opting out of answering is not truly possible because it would be difficult to distinguish opting out from not knowing the correct answer (McNamara & Roever 2006: 69). Moreover, especially Hudson, Detmer and Brown's DCTs have received criticism: Yamashita (1996), Yoshitake (1997 in Brown 2001) and Brown (2001) found that Hudson, Detmer and Brown's multiple choice DCTs are not reliable. In addition, as only eight speech acts items from the discussed test battery were included in the present study, the learners' knowledge of speech acts cannot be fully examined in this study. In spite of the limitations of DCTs, researchers often use them and as Kasper and Rose (2002: 96) point out, when carefully designed, they provide useful information about the respondents' pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic knowledge.

The study subjects were chosen because of practical reasons, more precisely, because of the availability and access to the sample. Thus, the selection of the subjects was not random mainly because of the small scale of the present study. Furthermore, the number of the subjects (119) was limited. However, some ILP researchers have

studied even a smaller number of learners. For example, in their cross-sectional studies on request development (see 4.1.2.2), Rose examined only 15 (2000) and 39 (2009) primary school pupils while Félix-Brasdefer's study (2007) focused on 45 university students. In the present study, it was possible to examine each testing variable with two comparable groups (EFL8/EFL2, CLIL8/CLIL2; EFL8/CLIL8, EFL2/CLIL2). In other words, when comparing the eighth graders and second year students it was possible to examine both the difference between EFL8 and EFL2 groups and CLIL8 and CLIL2 groups while when examining the difference between the EFL and CLIL learners, EFL8 and CLIL8 as well as EFL2 and CLIL2 groups were compared. In brief, the same groups were then used on different occasions.

Since the study subjects were selected non-randomly and since the number of learners was rather small, it is likely that the results of the present study are not generalizable to other groups of learners. In effect, several reasons might differentiate the study subjects from other learners. Nonetheless, it is unlikely that the tested learners are very different from other learners from similar education systems, and the background questionnaire of the present study was formed in order to report the possible differences between the study subjects. The aim of this study was to give some indication of the level of Finnish learners' pragmatic competence and of possible differences between eighth graders and second year students as well as between EFL and CLIL learners. The pragmatic test and background questionnaire were created in order to answer these research questions. Notwithstanding the tests' limitations, I found it practical and also valid for testing Finnish learners' pragmatic competence as holistically as possible. I acknowledge that because of the limitations of the methods used and the non-random selection of the subjects, based on the results of this study, no definitive conclusions of the pragmatic competence of Finnish learners of English can be drawn.

7 DISCUSSION

The pragmatic competence of Finnish secondary and upper secondary school learners of English was examined within the present study. In the previous chapter, the results gained from the pragmatic test were presented and the purpose of this chapter is to discuss these results in order to find answers to the research questions presented in Chapter 5. In this chapter, I will briefly present my main findings and discuss what they indicate in terms of the Finnish learners' pragmatic competence. I will also compare the results to previous research with the purpose of pointing out possible similarities and differences between the older studies and the present study.

I will begin this chapter with my main research question concerning the Finnish learners' overall level of pragmatic competence and continue with the comparison of eighth graders' and second year students' performance in the pragmatic test. Secondly, I will discuss the influence of the learning context; namely, I will reflect on the results on the comparison of EFL and CLIL learners and present whether the learning context seemed to affect the learners' performance. Thirdly, I will concentrate on the influence of learning opportunities which in the present study contained various free time activities conducted in English and the length of stay in an English-speaking country. As the number of years the learners had studied English was also considered as exposure to English, the possible effect of English study years will be discussed. Finally, I will reflect on the Finnish learners' thoughts about the benefits of English lessons at school or English free time activities in terms of their test performance.

7.1 Finnish learners' level of pragmatic competence

The Finnish secondary and upper secondary school learners' level of pragmatic competence can be evaluated with their performance in the pragmatic test. To my knowledge, only a handful of studies have examined or assessed L2 learners' performance with a multiple choice questionnaire similar to the one applied in the

present study. Namely, Roever (2005⁷, 2006) examined 267 ESL learners' knowledge of pragmalinguistics in Germany, Hawai'i and Japan and Yoshitake (1997⁸) assessed 25 Japanese EFL learners' ability to use speech acts with Hudson, Detmer and Brown's test battery. Since this test battery includes the multiple choice discourse completion task adapted in the present study and as Roever's tests of implicature and situational routines were applied in this study, I consider that Roever's and Yoshitake's findings can be compared to my results. In addition, I will refer to Rosin's MA thesis (2008) in which the researcher examined the pragmatic performance of 71 Finnish upper secondary school students with partly the same data collection methods as the ones used in this study (see 5.2.1 *Test of pragmatic competence*). Even though the number of subjects and their level of studies as well as the data collection and data analysis methods are somewhat different in the presented studies, I find that the comparison of these three studies with the present study will give some indication of the level of Finnish learners' pragmatic competence.

In the pragmatic test, the possible maximum score was 31 points and the mean value of the total score of the Finnish learners was 22.47. This implies that on average, 72.5 % of the learners' answers were correct. This finding is almost identical with Rosin's results: Rosin found that the Finnish second year students' average total score in the pragmatic test was 72.7 % (Rosin 2008: 120). In contrast, the learners in Roever's study gained the mean total score of 61.92 % (Roever 2006: 241) which is somewhat lower than the Finnish subjects' mean score in the present study as well as in Rosin's thesis. Thus, similarly to Rosin, it can be concluded that the Finnish secondary and upper secondary school learners did quite well in the test when considering the percentage of correct answers and in comparison to Roever's findings.

The pragmatic test contained three sub-sections. In the first sub-section measuring the learners' knowledge of implicatures, the mean total score was 8.52. In other words, approximately 77.5 % of the implicature items were answered correctly. In

⁷ Röver Carsten 2005. *Testing ESL Pragmatics: Development and Validation of a Web-Based Assessment Battery*. Frankfurt am Main: Peter Lang. (Röver and Roever used interchangeably).

⁸ Yoshitake's original study was not available as reference for the present study. As Brown (2001) reports on Yoshitake's results, I will refer to his article when necessary.

the second sub-section which assessed the knowledge of situational routines, the mean percentage score was 72.0 %. These results can be compared to Roever's and Rosin's findings because the knowledge of implicature and situational routines in the studies in question were examined with almost identical question items (see 5.2.1). The study subjects of the present study performed better than Roever's subjects who scored on average 60.41 % of the implicature items and 59.57 % of the situational routines correctly (Roever 2006: 241). Roever's test is partly based on Bouton's earlier test of EFL implicature. Bouton found that learners of English answered 62.9 % (Bouton 1988: 186) and 75 % (Bouton 1994: 164) of the implicature items correctly. Rosin reports that Finnish second year students' mean total score in the implicature section was 85.8 % and in the situational routines section 80.7 % (2008: 121). In brief, the performance of the subjects of the present study was better than that of Roever's and Bouton's learners but worse than that of Rosin's Finnish learners. However, Rosin examined only second year students while in the present study, both eighth graders and second year students were examined. Hence, the results are not necessarily comparable. The difference between the eighth graders and second year students will be discussed in the next sub-chapter.

In the third part of the test which assessed the learners' knowledge of speech acts, the Finnish eighth graders and second year students answered 66.5 % of the items correctly. Compared to Rosin's and Yoshitake's study participants, the learners of the present study performed better: the subjects of Rosin's study scored the mean percentage of 62.8 % (Rosin 2008: 121) and Yoshitake's learners got the mean score of 58.3 % (Yoshitake 1997 in Brown 2001: 307). Roever, who used a discourse completion task to assess learners' knowledge of speech acts, concluded that 56.72 % of the questions were answered correctly (Roever 2006: 241). Thus, it can be speculated that the learners of the present study performed somewhat better than Rosin's, Yoshitake's and Roever's subjects in the speech acts section. On the other hand, in the present study, this section contained only eight question items whereas in the three previous studies 12 (Roever 2005, 2006) to 24 (Yoshitake 1997, Rosin 2008) speech acts items were examined. Furthermore, several researchers have pointed out that the reliability of the speech acts section of Hudson, Detmer and Brown's test battery is low (Yamashita 1996, Yoshitake 1997 in Brown;

Brown 2001). Therefore, it is difficult to make any absolute conclusions about the Finnish learners' pragmatic performance in the speech acts section.

The number of correct and incorrect answers in every section of the test was also examined in the present study. In the implicature section, the items which presented formulaic implicature produced more incorrect answers than the items of idiosyncratic implicature (see 6.1, Table 6). This results gains support from Bouton (1988, 1994) and Roever (2005, 2006) who concluded in their studies that formulaic implicature is generally more difficult for L2 learners than idiosyncratic implicature (see 4.1.2.1). The most difficult implicature item in the present study dealt with indirect criticism (see Appendix 1, item 5): learners were expected to know what a professor meant by commenting on an irrelevant element of a students' essay, which was difficult to 69.7 % of the learners. This same item was the most difficult question in Rosin's (2008) and Roever's (2005) studies. Rosin does not discuss the possible reasons for the difficulty of this item but according to Roever, it is probable that learners' L1 influences their pragmalinguistic knowledge on indirect criticism (2005: 108). It is difficult to speculate whether, in the present study, L1 had an effect on the learners' test performance since the influence of L1 was not examined.

In the situational routines section, the item with most incorrect answers contained a situation in which the learners had to indicate how to ask what time it is (item 15) (see 6.1, Table 7). Rosin found that the same item was also the most difficult situational routine for Finnish second year students (2008: 93) and in Roever's study, this item was the second most difficult question (2005: 109). In the present study, the majority of the learners chose the first distractor item "Excuse me, can you tell the time?" as the correct answer. It is possible that since this item is more similar to the Finnish expression "Mitä kello on?" than the correct answer "Excuse me, do you have the time?" which does not translate to Finnish, the learners chose the item which corresponded to their L1. In fact, Roever states that the learners' L1 can affect their choice of answer in the item in question (2005: 109). However, as argued previously, it is not possible to make any firm conclusions about the influence of L1 as it was not examined within the present study.

In the speech acts section, the Finnish learners' performance varied because many items were answered incorrectly by approximately 30 to 60 % of the learners (see 6.1, Table 8). It is not possible to compare these findings with previous studies as Yoshitake (1997 in Brown 2001) does not report on the difficulty of the speech acts items and Rosin's test contained more speech act items than the test of the present study. It would have been interesting to examine further the situations in every section of the test and discuss, for example, how the variables of politeness and the directness or indirectness of the answer alternatives affected the study subjects' performance. Within the scope of the present study, a further analysis of the test items was not possible.

To conclude, the results discussed in this chapter indicate that the level of Finnish secondary and upper secondary school pupils' pragmatic competence was high when considering their good performance in the pragmatic test and when compared to previous research on learners of different ages and nationalities. It is noteworthy that the eighth graders' and second year students' performance was almost identical with that of Rosin's second year students and also, the performance was better than that of Roever's or Yoshitake's learners from higher levels of education. In the next sub-chapter, I will compare the eighth graders' and second year students' pragmatic performance in order to discuss further the possible differences between the groups. In the final chapters, I will examine the factors that might have had an influence on the overall performance of the study subjects.

7.2 Comparison of eighth graders' and second year students' pragmatic competence

In the present study, four groups of learners were examined: one group of EFL eighth graders (EFL8), one group of EFL second year students (EFL2) as well as a group of CLIL eighth graders (CLIL8) and a group of CLIL second year students (CLIL2). Thus, when examining the differences between eighth graders and second year students, pair-wise comparisons were made between the EFL8 and EFL2 groups as well as the CLIL8 and CLIL2 groups. In the whole pragmatic test and in the implicature and situational routines sections of the test, highly significant differences ($p=0.000$) were found between the comparable groups. In brief, the EFL and CLIL

second year students performed significantly better than the EFL and CLIL eighth graders in the test and its first two sections. This result suggests that there is development between the secondary and upper secondary school learners. Nonetheless, both the eighth graders' and second year students' performance in the pragmatic test was high as the mean percentage in the total score and in the implicature and situational routines sections ranged from approximately 60 % to 80 % of correct answers.

Although the development of pragmatic competence has lately gained more interest within ILP (see 4 *Interlanguage pragmatics*), to my knowledge, no studies have compared the pragmatic competence of two different age groups with a similar pragmatic test used in the present study. Though, for example Roever's (2005, 2006) studies contain learners of different proficiency levels, he does not discuss the differences between these subjects. Nonetheless, as mentioned in Chapter 4.1.2, ILP research has shown that pragmatic competence develops with time and with increasing proficiency (e.g. Félix-Brasdefer 2007, Rose 2000, 2009). In the present study, it was not possible to identify any developmental stages such as Kasper and Rose's (2002) framework has indicated (see 4.1.2.2 *Development of pragmatic production*); the use of multiple choice questionnaire as data collection method does not allow to distinguish for instance, the different strategies used by the learners when forming speech acts or situational routines. However, as the second year students performed better in the pragmatic test than the eighth graders, it is possible to state that pragmatic competence develops between these two age groups.

In the speech acts section of the pragmatic test, although both EFL2 and CLIL2 performed better than the EFL8 and CLIL8 groups, a significant difference between the groups' performances was found only between the EFL8 and EFL2 learners. As presented earlier, the speech acts section is more problematic than the other two sections of the pragmatic test in terms of reliability which may account for the results gained in this section. However, it can be speculated that the difference between the CLIL8 and CLIL2 learners was not significant because the CLIL8 learners of the present study already possessed a higher pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic competence which allowed them to recognise and use appropriate speech acts. For example, Chang (2011: 796) states that the relation of pragmalinguistic and

sociopragmatic competence is dynamic and seems to vary during different developmental stages so that even beginning learners are aware of the contextual factors of a conversation. On the other hand, Félix-Brasdefer (2007), Rose (2000, 2009) and Matsumura (2007) all found that pragmalinguistic knowledge precedes sociopragmatic competence because situational variation and the awareness of context appear in the later stages of pragmatic development (see 4.1.2.2). As previous research shows varying results on the relationship of the pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic competence, it is likely that the divergent findings regarding the speech acts section of the present study are due to the unreliability of the section.

The comparison of eighth graders' and second year students' pragmatic competence showed that there was development between the two groups of learners when considering their performance in the pragmatic test and its first two sections. Moreover, the results showed that the biggest mean difference in the test was always between the EFL8 and EFL2 groups while between CLIL8 and CLIL2, the difference was constantly smaller: the difference of mean values of the EFL8 and EFL2 groups ranged from one to five points whereas the difference between the CLIL8 and CLIL2 groups was one to three points. These findings indicate that the development of pragmatic competence was greater in the FL context than in the CLIL context. In addition, these results suggest that the CLIL classrooms provide learners with better knowledge of pragmatic aspects. The influence of FL and CLIL contexts is further discussed in the sub-chapter below.

7.3 Influence of learning context

The influence of learning context was examined via the comparison of the EFL and CLIL learners of the present study. The CLIL subjects seemed to do better than the EFL subjects in the test and its three sub-sections but statistically significant differences were only found between the performance of the EFL8 and CLIL8 groups in the whole pragmatic test and in the implicature and situational routines sections. These results seem to indicate that the learning context mattered more in the earlier stages of development, that is, in the secondary school while in the upper secondary school, the difference between the EFL and CLIL context was not visible. In the speech acts section, no significant differences were found between the

comparable groups. As discussed in the previous chapters, the speech acts section was proved to be somewhat difficult to analyse because of the small number of question items and the unreliability of this section in earlier research. Thus, it is not possible to discuss further the results regarding the speech acts section.

Previous research on the difference between CLIL and EFL classrooms has mainly concentrated on describing these two learning contexts whereas little research on CLIL and EFL learners' learning outcomes has been carried out (see 4.2.1.2 *CLIL classrooms*). Only Rosin (2008) has explicitly compared the pragmatic competence of Finnish upper secondary school students of English in EFL and CLIL classes in her MA thesis. Rosin found that the CLIL students performed better than the EFL students in the pragmatic test similar to the one applied in the present study (2008: 123). Therefore, Rosin concludes that CLIL teaching can be considered to benefit more the learners' pragmatic competence than EFL teaching (*ibid.*). This finding gains support from Nikula's studies (2002, 2005, 2008) in which the researcher compared the CLIL environment to the EFL environment; Nikula found that CLIL teaching is often better at conveying pragmatic information than EFL classrooms by stating that CLIL and EFL environments differ in the amount as well as in the quality of the target language input.

Rosin's and Nikula's findings are not entirely comparable to my results since in the present study, only the EFL8 and CLIL8 groups' performance in the pragmatic test differed significantly. On the basis of Rosin's findings presented in the previous paragraph, however, it could have been hypothesised that the EFL2 and CLIL2 learners' performance would have differed as well. Nonetheless, in the present study, the performance of the second year students from the two different learning contexts was very similar in the pragmatic test and its sections. Even though, for example, the CLIL2 learners mean values in the test were always higher than those of EFL2, the differences were not large and thus, no statistically significant differences were found. It can be speculated that the background variables of the EFL2 learners considered in this study were different than the EFL learners examined in Rosin's study. For instance, it is possible that the EFL2 subjects had higher proficiency in English than the EFL learners of Rosin's study. In effect, when comparing the mean values of the pragmatic test, the EFL2 learners of the present study answered on

average 78.6 % of the questions correctly while the EFL learners of Rosin's study answered 69.3 % of the questions correctly (Rosin 2008: 98). However, the CLIL second year students' mean percentage was considerably lower in Rosin's study (77.34 %) than the CLIL2 students' mean in the present study (81.1 %). Therefore, as Rosin's EFL and CLIL second year students performed worse than the EFL2 and CLIL2 subjects, it is probable that the overall English proficiency of the EFL2 learners does not explain the divergent results of the present study.

As discussed in this chapter, the comparison of EFL and CLIL classrooms showed that the learning context seems to influence the pragmatic competence of Finnish learners more in the secondary school than in the upper secondary school. This is a new finding since previous research has not found similar results. In future studies, it would be important to examine further the learning outcomes of learners in FL and CLIL classrooms, for example, with a pragmatic test and also, compare learners of different proficiency levels. It is of course important to describe the differences between the two learning environments but in order to gain explicit results and thoroughly examine the influence of these learning contexts, it is essential to study and compare the pragmatic performance of FL and CLIL learners.

7.4 Influence of learning opportunities

The learning opportunities considered in the present study included free time activities conducted in English, the length of stay in an English-speaking country as well as the number of years the learners had studied English. The results showed that generally, the study subjects used English frequently during their free time. The most common leisure time activities were watching English-speaking TV-programmes and movies, listening to English music and using the Internet which required the use of English. The chi square test which calculates the difference between the frequencies of answers between the examined groups showed some statistical differences. Firstly, the CLIL2 learners read books, newspapers and magazines in English and spent time with English-speaking friends more often than the other groups. Moreover, the CLIL2 learners seemed to write more letters and emails in English than the EFL2 learners. A significant difference was also found in the frequencies of answers to the

question regarding computer games: both groups of eighth graders were more frequent players than the groups of second year students.

The results presented in the previous paragraph gain support from Rosin's MA thesis (2008). Similarly to my findings, Rosin concluded that the most common English-speaking leisure time activities among Finnish second year students were watching TV-programmes and movies, listening to music and using the Internet. She also found differences in the frequency of writing letters and emails, meeting English-speaking friends and reading books and magazines in English between the EFL and CLIL students (Rosin 2008: 118-119). Furthermore, Rosin reported that male subjects played computer games more often than female subjects (*ibid.*). In this study, the difference between female and male participants was not considered. However, Rosin's finding might explain why, in the present study, eighth graders played games more frequently than the second year students. In fact, the EFL8 group contained more boys (54 %) than girls which might have affected the results. Moreover, the learners' age might influence the frequency of playing computer games; it seems that the younger learners played games more often than the older learners.

Although the study subjects of the present study differed in their use of English during their free time, the frequency of English-speaking leisure time activities did not have an effect on the learners' performance in the pragmatic test. In other words, no statistically significant differences were found between the infrequent and frequent users of English. This same result was also gained by Rosin (2008). In brief, though exposure to input is reportedly very important in the development of pragmatic competence, the benefits of exposure in the foreign language context were not visible in the present study. In effect, as discussed in Chapter 4.2.2, Matsumura (2003) examined the influence of free time activities in the target language country and concluded that learners who had more exposure to English abroad became more competent in using the language when compared to learners who had less exposure to the L2 (Matsumura 2003: 484). In the present study, it was not possible to examine the frequency of leisure time activities in second language contexts. However, the influence of the length of stay was studied with the purpose of differentiating between different types of learning opportunities.

The examination of the learners reported lengths of stays showed that the majority of the study subjects had never visited or stayed in an English-speaking country (n=55). Only nine learners had stayed in an English-speaking country for more than six months but the length of stay of five of them was two years. Most of the ELF8 and CLIL8 learners had not stayed in an English-speaking country while the ELF2 and CLIL2 learners' lengths of stays varied. The learners who had stayed in an English-speaking country more than two years came from the CLIL8 and CLIL2 groups. The analyses of the effect of length of stay showed varying results. The study subjects were first divided into three groups of learners: learners with no residence, learners with residence of up to six months and learners with residence of over six months. The difference between learners with no residence and learners who had stayed in the L2 country for up to six months was significant in the whole pragmatic test and in the implicature section. This suggests that to some degree, the length of stay influenced positively the pragmatic performance of the Finnish learners. However, no significant differences were found between the latter groups of learners and the study subjects who had stayed in an English-speaking country for more than six months. This result is surprising since it could have been hypothesised that the longer the residence was, the better the learners' pragmatic competence would be.

As the performance of the group with the longest length of stay varied considerably, it is important to reflect on the possible reasons for this divergent performance. When examining the mean values of the group with over six months' stays in an English-speaking country in the pragmatic test, it is evident that the group's performance especially in the implicature section differed greatly in comparison to the other groups of learners with no residence and residence of up to six months: the group with the longest length of stay gained a mean value of 7.89 which was considerably lower than the mean value of all the participants (8.52) and of the other two groups (7.92/9.20). Although for example Bouton (1988, 1994) found that the length of stay increases the knowledge of implicature (see 4.1.2.1 & 4.2.2.1), Roever argues that better knowledge of implicature can be attributed to proficiency and not to exposure to English (2005: 103, 2006: 245). Thus, it can be speculated that the learners with over six-month stays in English-speaking countries might have lower proficiency in English than the learners in the other groups of length of stay. However, in the speech acts section, the group with over six months' residence had

the highest mean which suggests that the length of stay had an influence on the performance in this section of the test. Contrary to this finding, Roever (2005: 103) states that similarly to the understanding of implicature, greater knowledge of speech acts increases with proficiency, not with exposure.

Length of stay is a complex variable to study since it is difficult to differentiate between length of stay, proficiency and learners' overall exposure to the target language (eg. Bardovi-Harlig & Bastos 2011, see 4.2.2.1). As the learners' grades of English were not inquired in the present study, it is not possible to know whether the general L2 proficiency of the learners differed. The study subjects' grades could have explained the divergent performance of the learners who had stayed in an English-speaking country over six months. The examination of the total scores showed that four of these learners got lower total scores than the mean value of all participants in the test whereas five learners got higher scores than the mean value gathered for all study subjects. The varying performance of the nine subjects might further explain the findings.

It is important to notice that the group with over six months' residence contained only nine learners while the other two groups with no residence or residence of up to six months contained 55 subjects, respectively. The analysis of variance should be done with categories of an equal number of subjects in order to account for a more reliable comparison of the dependent variables. Therefore, the unequal number of subjects could account for the results of the comparison of the three groups. Since the examination of the three categories of the length of stay showed unexpected results, the variable was further studied by analysing only two groups of learners: those who had not visited an English-speaking country and those who had visited or stayed in such country. Results from the analysis indicated that learners with residence abroad performed better in the pragmatic test and in the implicature and situational routines sections. In fact, significant differences between the groups were found in these sections of the test. Especially in the implicature section, learners with residence performed considerably better than learners without residence: 82 % of the answers of learners with residence were correct while 72 % of the answers of learners without residence were correct. In the speech acts section, the mean values of the two

examined groups were the same (5.31). Thus, length of stay did not influence the learners' performance in this section of the test.

My results indicate that exposure to the L2 in the target language country seems to influence the Finnish learners' knowledge of situational routines and implicature but not their ability to use speech acts. Support for these findings can be found in Roever's studies (2005, 2006, 2012). Most importantly, according to Roever, the knowledge of situational routines increases with exposure since learners in the foreign language environment are more exposed to routine expressions and thus, learn them easily (see 4.2.2.1 *Free time activities and the length of stay*). Moreover, my results suggest that the knowledge of speech acts is not related to the length of stay which was also found by Roever (2005, 2006). As mentioned previously in this chapter, Roever found that the ability to use speech acts is connected to proficiency since the appropriate use of different speech acts depends on the knowledge of conventional indirectness and illocutionary force (2005: 103). The knowledge of these aspects is more likely to be gained with time and instruction and not necessarily during a sojourn abroad. However, again the unreliability of the speech acts section may also have influenced the gained results.

Contrary to my findings, Roever states the length of stay does not have an effect on the use of implicature (2005: 103, 2006: 245). In fact, my results on the learners' performance in the implicature section get support from Bouton's (1988, 1994) and Taguchi's (2007) findings which indicate that the length of stay affects the comprehension of implicature (see 4.1.2.1 *Development of pragmatic comprehension*). It can be speculated that in the present study, both proficiency and the length of stay account for the better performance in the comprehension of implicature as the second year students performed significantly better than the eighth graders in the implicature section (see 7.2 *Comparison of eighth graders' and second year students' pragmatic competence*). On the other hand, in the present study, the general L2 proficiency in terms of the learners' grades in English was not considered. Thus, it is not possible to further differentiate between proficiency and the length of stay. In future studies it would be important to make this distinction and examine the relationship between these variables.

The influence of the number of years of studying English on the Finnish learners' pragmatic competence was not a main research aim within this study. However, as the examination of the study subjects showed that the number of study years varied considerably, the influence of the learners' reported study years was examined as part of exposure to English. Generally, most of the EFL8 learners had studied English for five years while most of the CLIL8 learners had studied the language for seven years. In the case of the second year students, the number of study years showed more variation: the majority of the EFL2 students reported to have studied English for eight years whereas the CLIL2 pupils had studied the language for seven, eight, nine, ten or eleven years. It is unfortunate that the background questionnaire did not contain a more specific question on the number of study years. It would have been useful to ask the learners to specify in which grade and, for example, where they had started to study English, in order to get a clearer impression of the learners' studies.

The order of the mean values varied according to the number of years of studying English. Thus, at first glance it seems that the number of study years did not affect the learners' performance in the test. Nevertheless, the performance in the test differed significantly between learners who had studied English five or six years and learners who reported to have studied the language eight years: the study subjects with eight study years performed significantly better than the learners with five or six study years in the whole pragmatic test (8 years/5 years, 8 years/6 years), in the implicature section (8 years/5 years) and in the situational routines section (8 years/6 years). Moreover, the learners who had studied English six years had the lowest mean in the pragmatic test and its sections. It is only possible to speculate why statistically significant differences were found between these three groups of learners. For example, the learners with five or six study years consisted of eighth graders whereas the learners with eight study years consisted of second year students. Hence, the second year students' better test performance can explain the difference between the three study years. Furthermore, the groups with nine, ten or eleven study years contained considerably fewer learners than the other groups which complicate the use of statistical analyses. Rosin who examined Finnish second year students' pragmatic competence found that the number of study years did not affect their performance in the test (2008: 107). Rosin's finding suggests that in the present

study, the difference between the learners with five or six study years and eight study years was mostly due to the overall difference between eighth graders' and second year students' performance in the test.

In addition to the different learning opportunities discussed in the previous paragraphs, this study set to investigate the Finnish learners' opinions on the benefits of English lessons at school or English free time activities as regards their performance in the pragmatic test. The majority of the learners (77.3 %) thought that English-speaking free time activities were more helpful than the matters and subjects covered during English lessons, when completing the test. I distinguished four types of explanations in the learners' answers. Firstly, learners who had chosen English lessons as more beneficial pointed out that English lessons cover various pragmatic matters and provide them with more information as well as ensure the use of language in different situations. Secondly, study subjects who thought that English free time activities helped them to complete the test explained that during their free time they use "real life" and "practical" language which was required in the test. Thirdly, they explained that they use or hear the target language more in their free time for example, when watching television or speaking to English-speaking friends. Finally, these learners also criticised the English taught at school: according to the study subjects, "practical" English is not taught during the lessons and the used language is "stiff" and "official". Since no other ILP studies have examined the learners' opinions about English lessons and free time activities, it is not possible to compare my results to those of previous research.

The learners' reflections on the usefulness of language lessons and exposure to the target language suggest that they have understood that the knowledge language use is important. Most learners felt that English lessons do not provide them with the knowledge of the different aspects needed in target language interaction. As discussed in the chapter on FL classrooms (4.2.1.1), some researchers have found that the input in FL contexts is functionally and formally limited and, hence, not authentic (Kasper & Rose 2002: 208). In fact, the Finnish learners criticised English lessons as being too "official" and concentrating only on grammar and vocabulary. However, other researchers have recognised the usefulness of FL classrooms by stating that explicit instruction benefits learners' pragmatic competence

(e.g. Alcón Soler 2002, 2005). In the present study, some learners pointed out in their explanations that English lessons are very beneficial and different aspects of pragmatics are covered at school. Moreover, learners who had chosen free time activities as more helpful in completing the test recurrently mentioned that English lessons can also facilitate the learning of pragmatic aspects. To conclude, on the one hand, the learners' answers indicate that foreign language can be learnt outside the classroom but on the other hand, the learners understood that explicit instruction is also very important in learning pragmatic aspects of the target language. These results suggest that pragmatic aspects should be covered explicitly in FL lessons.

In the present sub-chapter, the influence of learning opportunities was discussed. The results suggest that English-speaking free time activities and the number of English study years did not affect the learners' performance in the test whereas the length of stay in an English-speaking country had an effect on the learners' pragmatic competence. The learners' reflections on the usefulness of English lessons and free time activities, however, indicate that free time activities are beneficial although the quantitative analysis did not show the same result. Exposure to English can be seen as a somewhat complex variable to study because it is difficult to differentiate between the varying learning opportunities and for example, the learners' overall proficiency in English. I would suggest that in future studies, researchers should further examine these variables of exposure to target language input. Furthermore, it would be interesting to study the influence of English lessons and English free time activities with more explicit and qualified measures.

8 CONCLUSION

Finnish learners of English are expected to learn pragmatic aspects of the foreign language in secondary and upper secondary schools. Curricula for basic education and for upper secondary schools state that L2 education should provide learners with pragmatic information so that they can function appropriately in foreign language interaction (Finnish National Board of Education 2003: 100; 2004: 138). The aim of the present study was to examine whether Finnish secondary and upper secondary school learners are able to use and understand pragmatic aspects of English. More precisely, their level of pragmatic competence and the possible development between eighth graders and second year students were studied. Moreover, this study examined the difference between EFL and CLIL pupils and the influence of different learning opportunities on the learners' pragmatic competence.

The present study showed that the Finnish secondary and upper secondary school learners' level of pragmatic competence was high when compared to previous assessments of L2 learners' pragmatic performance. There was also evidence of pragmatic development among the eighth graders and second year students examined in this study: the second year students performed better in the pragmatic test than the eighth graders and statistically highly significant differences between the comparable groups were found. The results indicate that there was a bigger difference between the EFL groups than the CLIL groups. In other words, the development of pragmatic competence was somewhat larger in the FL context than in the CLIL context. This is a new finding within interlanguage pragmatics research; thus, in further studies, it would be important to examine the possible difference of pragmatic development in FL and CLIL classrooms.

The learning context influenced the pragmatic competence of Finnish learners. Overall, the CLIL learners' performance in the pragmatic test was better than that of the EFL learners. The present study showed that the difference between the EFL and CLIL eighth graders was considerably bigger than the difference of the EFL and CLIL second year students. In fact, statistically significant differences were found only between the two groups of eighth graders. Therefore, it can be concluded that

the learning context mattered more in the secondary school than in the upper secondary school. Again, to my knowledge, this is a new finding in L2 pragmatic research which should be confirmed with future studies.

The development of pragmatic competence is influenced by various factors. Most importantly, exposure to the target language input is essential in order to be able to function appropriately in foreign language interaction. However, it is difficult to examine the different variables of exposure, as was noted in the present study. The Finnish learners differed in the amount of time they spent their free time doing different activities in English, in their possible stays in English-speaking countries as well as in the number of years they had studied English. In effect, the results showed that only the length of stay influenced the learners' performance in the pragmatic test. Nonetheless, the learners' opinions on the usefulness of English lessons and English free time activities as regards their performance in the test showed that free time activities are important in developing pragmatic competence: according to most of the learners, free time activities helped them more in completing the test than the matters covered during English lessons. It was concluded that pragmatic aspects of language can be learnt outside language classrooms but explicit pragmatic information is also essential and should be provided in FL classrooms.

A major limitation of the present study is the small number of learners. In order to get more valid results on Finnish learners' pragmatic competence, it would be important to study considerably more study subjects from different cities of Finland. Another limitation is the nature of the pragmatic test. The test assessed only the knowledge dimension of pragmatic competence and did not take into account the production of pragmatic competence in on-line communication. Moreover, the test measured only three aspects of pragmatics, namely, implicature, situational routines and speech acts, and the speech acts section was proven to produce somewhat unreliable results. Within the scope of the study, it was not possible to examine all the aspects of pragmatics or the production of these features in face-to-face interaction. Hence, I chose to adapt two existing tests by acknowledged researchers and use a written discourse completion task which assessed some of the main features of pragmatics.

In spite of the limitations presented above, this study represents one of the first attempts to measure Finnish learners' pragmatic competence. Therefore, it can be seen to give some indication of learners' level of pragmatic competence in Finland. Furthermore, the present study examined the development of pragmatic competence between secondary and upper secondary school learners which has not gained much interest within interlanguage pragmatics. Since pragmatic competence is a central part of second language learning, it would be important to find new methods and tests to assess the pragmatic performance of learners. In addition, the production of pragmatic aspects in real-life communication should be examined in future studies.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1: Test of pragmatic competence

Items 1-11: *implicatures* (from Röver 2005: 122-129)

1. Jack is talking to his housemate Sarah about another housemate, Frank.

Jack: “Do you know where Frank is, Sarah?”

Sarah: “Well, I heard music from his room earlier.”

What does Sarah probably mean?

- a Frank forgot to turn the music off.
- b Frank’s loud music bothers (*haitata*) Sarah.
- c Frank is probably in his room.
- d Sarah doesn’t know where Frank is.

2. Toby and Ally are trying a new buffet restaurant in town. Toby is eating something but Ally can’t decide what to have next.

Ally: “How do you like what you’re having?”

Toby: “Well, let’s just say it’s colorful.”

What does Toby probably mean?

- a He thinks it is important for food to look appetizing (*herkullinen*).
- b He thinks food should not contain artificial colors (*sisältää keinotekoisia väriaineita*)
- c He wants Ally to try something colorful.
- d He does not like his food much.

3. Jane notices that her co-worker Sam is dirty all over, has holes (*reikiä*) in his pants, and has scratches (*naarmuja*) on his face and hands.

Jane: “What happened to you?”

Sam: “I rode my bike to work.”

What does Sam probably mean?

- a Today he finally got some exercise biking.
- b He hurt himself biking.
- c It’s hard to get to work without a car.
- d He enjoys biking.

4. Felicity is talking to her co-worker Brian during a coffee break.

Felicity: “So, life must be good for you. I hear you got a nice raise (*palkankorotus*).

Brian: “This coffee is awfully thin. You’d think they’d at least give us decent (*kunnollinen*) coffee.

What does Brian probably mean?

- a He does not want to talk about how much money he makes.
- b He likes his coffee strong.
- c He is planning to complain (*valittaa*) about the coffee.
- d He doesn’t care very much about money.

5. Jose and Tanya are professors at a college. They are talking about a student, Derek.

Jose: “How did you like Derek’s essay (*kirjoitelma*)?”

Tanya: “I thought it was well-typed (*hyvin koneella kirjoitettu*).

What does Tanya probably mean?

- a She did not like Derek’s essay.
- b She likes if students hand in (*palauttaa*) their work type-written (*koneella kirjoitettu*)
- c She thought the topic Derek had chosen was interesting.
- d She doesn’t really remember Derek’s essay.

6. Maria and Frank are working on a class project together but they won’t be able to finish it by the deadline (*määräaikaan mennessä*).

Maria: “Do you think Dr. Gibson is going to lower our grade (*alentaa arvosanaa*) if we hand it in late (*palauttaa myöhässä*)?”

Frank: “Do fish swim?”

What does Frank probably mean?

- a He thinks they should change the topic of their project.
- b He thinks their grade will not be affected (*myöhästyminen ei vaikuta arvosanaan*).
- c He did not understand Maria’s question.
- d He thinks they will get a lower grade (*huonompi arvosana*).

7. Carrie is a cashier (*kassanhoitaja*) in a grocery store (*ruokakauppa*). After work, she's talking to her friend Simon.

Carrie: "I guess I'm getting old and ugly."

Simon: "What makes you say that?"

Carrie: "The men are beginning to count their change (*laskea vaihtorahansa/kolikkonsa*)"

What does Carrie probably mean?

- a She has given wrong change a number of times, so people count their change now.
- b Male customers aren't admiring (*ihailta*) her anymore like they used to.
- c The store might lose business (*menettää asiakkaita*) if she doesn't look good.
- d It gets harder to give correct change as you get older.

8. Max and Julie are jogging together.

Max: "Can we slow down a bit? I'm all out of breath (*hengästynyt*)."

Julie: "I'm sure glad I don't smoke."

What does Julie probably mean?

- a She doesn't want to slow down.
- b She doesn't like the way Max's breath smells.
- c She thinks Max is out of breath because he is a smoker (*tupakoitsija*).
- d She's happy she stopped smoking (*lopetti tupakoinnin*).

9. At a recent party, there was a lot of singing and piano playing. At one point, Matt played the piano while Brian sang. Jill was not at the party, but her friend Linda was.

Jill: "What did Brian sing?"

Linda: "I don't know what he thought he was singing, but Matt was playing 'Yesterday'."

What does Linda probably mean?

- a Brian sang very badly.
- b She was only interested in Matt and didn't listen to Brian.
- c Brian and Matt were not doing the same song.
- d The song that Brian sang was 'Yesterday'.

10. Hilda is looking for a new job. She's having lunch with her friend John.

John: "So how's the job search coming along?"

Hilda: "This curry is really good, don't you think?"

What does Hilda probably mean?

- a She's very close to finding a job.
- b She's no longer looking for a job.
- c She just found a job.
- d Her job search isn't going very well.

11. Mike is trying to find an apartment (*asunto*) in New York City. He just looked at a place and is telling his friend Jane about it.

Jane: "Is the rent (*vuokra*) high (*korkea/kallis*)?"

Mike: "Is the Pope (*paavi*) Catholic (*katolinen*)?"

What does Mike probably mean?

- a He doesn't want to talk about the rent.
- b The rent is high.
- c The apartment is owned by the church (*kirkko omistaa asunnon*)
- d The rent isn't very high.

Items 12-23: situational routines (from Röver 2005: 122-129)

12. Tim runs into his old friend Pam at a party. Pam says "How are you?"

What would Tim probably say?

- a "I have a headache."
- b "Thank you."
- c "I'm Tim."
- d "Good, how are you?"

13. Carrie has done some shopping at a grocery store (*ruokakauppa*). The man at the cash register (*kassa*) has just finished packing her groceries and gives her the bags.

What would the man probably say?

- a "Here you go."
- b "Go ahead."
- c "All yours."
- d "Please."

14. Tom ordered a meal (*tilasi aterian*) in a restaurant and the waitress just brought it. She asks him if he wants to order something else.

What would the waitress probably say?

- a “Would you like anything extra?”
- b “Is there more for you?”
- c “What can I do for you?”
- d “Can I get you anything else?”

15. Jane is at the beach and wants to know what time it is. She sees a man with a watch.

What would Jane probably say?

- a “Excuse me, can you tell the time?”
- b “Excuse me, how late is it?”
- c “Excuse me, what’s your watch show?”
- d “Excuse me, do you have the time?”

16. Sam is having dinner at a friend’s house. His friend offers him more food but he couldn’t possibly eat another bite (*syödä lisää*).

What would Sam probably say?

- a “No, thanks, I’ve had it.”
- b “No, thanks, I’ve eaten.”
- c “No, thanks, I’m full.”
- d “No, thanks, I’ve done it.”

17. Ted is inviting his friend to a little party he’s having at his house tomorrow night.

Ted: “I’m having a little party tomorrow night at my place.”

How would Ted probably go on?

- a “How would you like to come in?”
- b “Do you think you could make it?”
- c “How about you’re there?”
- d “Why aren’t you showing up?”

18. The person ahead (*edessä*) of Kate in line at the cafeteria drops his pen. Kate picks it up and gives it back to him. He says “Thank you.”

What would Kate probably say?

- a “Thank you.”
- b “Please.”
- c “You’re welcome.”
- d “It’s nothing.”

19. The phone rings. Stan picks it up.

What would Stan probably say?

- a “Hi.”
- b “Hello.”
- c “It’s Stan.”
- d “Who is speaking?”

20. Claudia calls her classmate Dennis but his roommate answers the phone and tells her that Dennis isn’t home. Claudia would like the roommate to tell Dennis something.

What would Claudia probably say?

- a “Can you write something?”
- b “Can I give you information?”
- c “Can I leave a message?”
- d “Can you take a note?”

21. Tim is ordering food (*tilata ruokaa*) at a restaurant where you can sit down or take your food home with you.

What would the waitress probably ask Tim?

- a “For home or here?”
- b “For going or staying?”
- c “For taking it with you?”
- d “For here or to go?”

22. Candice is talking to her friend Will from a payphone (*puhelinkoppi*) on a noisy street. She can't hear something Will said because a large truck (*suuri kuorma-auto*) passed by.

What would Candice probably say?

- a "Repeat yourself, please."
- b "Say that again, please."
- c "Another time, please."
- d "Restate (*toistaa*) what you said, please."

23. In a crowded subway (*täpötäydessä metrossa*), a woman steps on Jake's foot. She says "I'm sorry".

What would Jake probably say?

- a "That's okay."
- b "No bother."
- c "It's nothing."
- d "Don't mention it."

Items 24-31: speech acts (from Hudson, Detmer and Brown 1995: 107–130)

24. You are a member of a ski club (*hiihtoseura*). Every month the ski club goes on a ski trip. You are in a club meeting (*kokous*) now helping to plan next month's trip. The club president (*seuran johtaja*) is sitting next to you and asks to borrow a pen. You cannot lend your pen because you only have one and need it to take notes yourself.

What do you say?

- a Oh, sorry, it's my only one. Maybe John has an extra, let me check.
- b I'm terribly sorry, this is the only one I have at the moment. Perhaps you might ask John?
- c No, I can't lend this pen. It's my only one.

25. You are on an airplane. It is dinner time. The flight attendant (*lentoemäntä*) sets your food on your tray. You need a napkin (*lautasliina*).

What do you say?

- a Excuse me, I seem to be missing a napkin. Could you give me one?
- b Excuse me! Give me a napkin!
- c Excuse me, could I have a napkin please?

26. You work in a restaurant. You have just taken a customer's order (*asiakkaan tilaus*) and you are ready to leave the table. The customer is still holding the menu and you need it.

What do you say?

- a Excuse me, are you finished with that?
- b Excuse me, would you give me that menu? I need it.
- c Excuse me. If it's not too much trouble could I please take your menu.

27. You are in a small restaurant. You go up to the counter (*tiski/myyntipöytä*) to pay your bill. When you reach to hand your money to the restaurant worker, you accidentally knock (*pudottaa*) a few of the menus on the floor.

What do you say?

- a Oh, I'm sorry. I hope I didn't make them dirty.
- b Oh, I hope I didn't get them dirty. Let me pick them up for you, please.
- c Oops! Sorry. Let me get them.

28. You teach in a small school. You have a meeting (*kokous*) with the lead teacher for your grade (*luokkatasosi johtava opettaja*) at two o'clock today. When you show up it is a few minutes after two.

What do you say?

- a Sorry to be late. But it is no big deal.
- b Sorry I'm late.
- c Hi!

29. You are shopping in the drug store (*apteekki*). You need to buy some envelopes but cannot find them. You see a salesperson (*myyjä*) nearby.

What do you say?

- a Excuse me. I need to buy some envelopes to send some letters. Where can I find them?
- b Excuse me! Show me the envelopes.
- c Excuse me, where are the envelopes?

30. You are buying four tickets to a movie. You have a coupon (*kuponki*) for a free ticket. You tell the ticket clerk (*lipunmyyjä*) about the coupon but when you look for it you can't find it right away. After a little while you find the coupon. You hand it to the ticket clerk.

What do you say?

- a Oh, here it is. This is a coupon for a free ticket.
- b Oh, my. I am so sorry I'm so slow.
- c Here it is. Sorry it took so long.

31. You are a tourist in a large city. You have taken your camera's film to a photo shop. When you go into the shop to pick up the pictures, the salesperson (*myyjä*) asks if you would like some coupons for film developing (*alennuskuponkeja filmien kehitykseen*). You do not need the coupons because you are leaving the city today.

What do you say?

- a No. I really don't want any.
- b Thanks but I don't need them because I'm going to leave this city soon.
- c No thanks, I'm leaving town today.

5. Oletko käynyt tai asunut englanninkielisissä maissa? (esim. Iso-Britannia, Yhdysvallat, Australia)? Ympyröi sopiva vaihtoehto:

- | | |
|---|---|
| a | en ole |
| b | olen, yhteensä alle 6 viikkoa
(esim. lomamatkalla) |
| c | olen, yhteensä 6 viikkoa – 6 kuukautta |
| d | olen, yhteensä 6 kuukautta – 1 vuoden |
| e | olen, yhteensä 1 – 2 vuotta |
| f | olen, yhteensä yli 2 vuotta |

6. Arvioi, miten usein nykyisin käytät vapaa-aikaasi seuraaviin englanninkielisiin toimiin. Rastita sopiva vaihtoehto.

päivittäin 4-6 kertaa 1-3 kertaa 1-2 kertaa harvemmin
viikossa viikossa kuukaudessa

- | | | | | | |
|---|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| a. Luen englanninkielisiä kirjoja tai lehtiä. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| b. Katson englanninkielisiä TV-ohjelmia tai elokuvia. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| c. Kuuntelen englanninkielistä musiikkia. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| d. Käytän internetiä, jolloin tarvitsen englannin kieltä. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| e. Kirjoitan kirjeitä tai sähköpostiviestejä englanniksi | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| f. Pelaan tietokone- tai konsolipelejä englanniksi. | <input type="checkbox"/> |
| g. Vietän aikaa englanninkielisten ystävien tai tuttavien kanssa. | <input type="checkbox"/> |

Kiitos vastauksistasi ☺

APPENDIX 3: **Background questionnaire in English**

Think about the test you just completed. When you answered the questions, which one of the next two alternatives helped you to choose the suitable answers (circle the most suitable alternative):

- a the topics and matters covered in the English lessons at school
- b the English that I use and hear during my free time

Write briefly why the alternative you chose helped you to do the test:

Please fill in your background information by choosing the most suitable alternative or by writing your answer on the line.

- 1. Sex female
 male

- 2. Age _____ years

- 3. First language Finnish
 Swedish
 English
 other, what? _____

- 4. How many years have you studied English at school? _____

5. Have you visited English-speaking countries (e.g. the United Kingdom, the United States, Australia)? Circle the most suitable alternative:

- a no
- b yes, altogether less than 6 weeks
- c yes, altogether 6 weeks to 6 months
- d yes, altogether 6 months to 1 year
- e yes, altogether 1 to 2 years
- f yes, altogether more than 2 years

6. How often do you spend your free time doing the following English activities? Tick the most suitable alternative.

	daily	4 to 6 times a week	1 to 3 times a week	1 to 2 times a month	more seldom
a. I read books, newspapers or magazines in English.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
b. I watch English TV -programmes or movies.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
c. I listen to English music.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
d. I use the Internet and I need English to do this.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
e. I write letters or emails in English.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
f. I play computer games which are in English.	<input type="checkbox"/>				
g. I spend time with English-speaking friends	<input type="checkbox"/>				

Thank you for your answers 😊

APPENDIX 4: Instructions to the test of pragmatic competence

Seuraavassa testissä on 31 eri tilannetta.

Jokaisessa kohdassa kuvataan tietty tilanne. Yksi henkilö aikoo sanoa jotain tilanteessa ja sinun pitää vastata joko mitä henkilö aikoo sanoa tai mitä henkilö mahdollisesti tarkoittaa sanomallaan.

Jokaisessa tilanteessa on kolme tai neljä vastausvaihtoehtoa.

Ympyröi vastaus (a, b, c tai d), joka mielestäsi sopii tilanteeseen parhaiten.

Lue tilanteet tarkasti ja valitse vain yksi vastaus vaihtoehdoista.

Esimerkit:

Jack was introduced to Ben by a friend. They're shaking hands.

What would Jack probably say?

- a "Nice to meet you."
- b "Good to run into you."
- c "Happy to find you."
- d "Glad to see you."

Mary and John are at home.

Mary: "Has the mail come yet?"

John: "It's only eleven."

What does John probably mean?

- a He thinks Mary wants to know what time it is.
- b The mail has not come.
- c The mail is late.
- d He does not understand Mary's question.

APPENDIX 5: English lessons or English free time activities: examples of learners' answers

Think about the test you just completed. When you answered the questions, which one of the next two alternatives helped you to choose the suitable answers (circle the most suitable alternative):

a
b

the topics and matters covered in the English lessons at school
the English that I use and hear during my free time

Write briefly why the alternative you chose helped you to do the test:

I don't use as official english on my free time as on the English lessons.

englannin kieleen / kulttuuriin liittyvät tavat ja kohteisuusudet olen oppinut tunnilta

Olemme käyneet melko paljon jo asioita läpi :)

koulussa käydään läpi myös arkipäiväisissä tilanteissa käytettävää englantia ja se auttoi vastauksissa.

Enkun tunnilta opetellaan sanoo kaikkee ystävällisesti ja lyhyesti.

Koska koulussa opetetaan englantia tarkemmin ja opetetaan myös kielioppia. Virheet korjataan tunnilta, mutta vapaa-aikana kukaan ei välttämättä korjaa virheitä.

Think about the test you just completed. When you answered the questions, which one of the next two alternatives helped you to choose the suitable answers (circle the most suitable alternative):

- a the topics and matters covered in the English lessons at school
 b the English that I use and hear during my free time

Write briefly why the alternative you chose helped you to do the test:

I hear and read English so much during my free time, so it made this test very simple and easy.

Koska tunneilla ei käytetä englantia "tosi tilanteissa.

Käymme koulussa enemmän kielioppia läpi, mutta toisaalta sekä koulutyöskentely että vapaa-aika on opettanut eri asioita. Pienet kohteliaisuudet olen oppinut vapaa-aikallani.

testissä esimerkkitapaukset olivat arkipäiväisiä tilanteita ja mietin mielessäni miten itse käyttäytyisin / sanoisin samassa tilanteessa. Ei siinä mieltä kielioppeja vaan sitä mikä "kuulostaa" oikealta. Monissa tapauksissa auttoi TV:ssä kuullut jutut esim. Amerikkalaisissa sarjoissa.

Osa vastauksista eivät olleet niinhän "virallisia" kuin englannin tunneilla, jolloin toin helpommaksi valita vastaukseni vapaa-aikan englantia käyttäen.

Televisiossa ja kirjoissa on usein kieltä, jota käytetään oikeissa tilanteissa, eikä englannin tekstikirja opeta aina niitä asioita. Silloin, kun käyttää kieltä vapaa-aikana, tulee puhuttua kavereiden kanssa tai ulkomailla asoidessa jossain, mitä nuokin tilanteet suurimmaksi osaksi olivat.

Vapaa-aikaa käytetty englanti on enemmän käytännön englantia, jota tarvittiin näissä kysymyksissä. Se siis auttoi enemmän vaikka koulussa opitusta on myös apua.

Tilanteet olivat arkipäiväisiä ja TV-sarjoissa on ollut paljon vastaavia tilanteita. Tunnilla opin myös, mutta enemmän lajakielistä englantia kuin uusia sanoja.

APPENDIX 6: **Finnish summary**

Johdanto

Vieraan kielen omaksuminen perustuu useimmiten kielen rakenteen ja sanaston oppimiseen. Oppijat käyvät läpi kielioppia, tutustuvat kielen muotoihin ja funktioihin ja yrittävät painaa mieleensä vieraan kielen sanoja. Kieliopin ja sanaston tuntemus ei kuitenkaan pelkästään riitä vieraalla kielellä kommunikoimiseen. Oppijoiden tulee myös tietää, miten kieltä käytetään eri kommunikaatiotilanteissa vieraan kielen tapojen mukaisesti. Nykyään vieraan kielen oppimisessa painotetaan kykyä käyttää kieltä. Oppijoiden oletetaan siis omaavan pragmaattista kompetenssia, joka on osa kommunikatiivista kompetenssia, kykyä ymmärtää ja käyttää kieltä vuorovaikutuksessa. Suomessa pragmaattisen kompetenssin tärkeys on huomattu vieraiden kielten opetussuunnitelmissa: opetuksessa pyritään siihen, että kieltä opittaisiin käyttämään erilaisissa vuorovaikutustilanteissa.

Pro gradu -tutkielmassani käsittelin suomalaisten englannin oppijoiden pragmaattista kompetenssia. Tarkoitukseni oli selvittää, millä tasolla pragmaattinen kompetenssi on yläkoulussa ja lukiossa. Tutkin myös, kehittykö kompetenssi yläkoulun ja lukion välillä. Lisäksi halusin selvittää, vaikuttavatko oppimisympäristö ja erilaiset oppimismahdollisuudet oppijoiden kykyyn käyttää vierasta kieltä. Tutkimukseni kohderyhmässä oli sekä formaalissa englannin opetuksessa että englantipainotteisilla luokilla olevia oppijoita, ja halusin tutkia, eroaako näiden oppijoiden pragmaattinen kompetenssi toisistaan. Selvitin myös, oliko englanninkielisillä vapaa-ajan aktiviteeteilla kuten englanninkielisten televisio-ohjelmien ja elokuvien katsomisella, lehtien ja kirjojen lukemisella tai englanninkielisten ystävien kanssa puhumisella sekä englanninkielisissä maissa oleskeluilla vaikutusta oppijoiden kykyyn käyttää kieltä.

Tutkimuksen teoreettinen tausta

Pragmatiikka voidaan määritellä lingvistiikan osa-alueeksi, joka käsittelee sitä, miten puhujat ja kuulijat rakentavat merkityksiä vuorovaikutuksessa (Thomas 1995). Pragmatiikka kuvailee muun muassa puheaktien ja implikaatioiden käyttöä, kohteliaisuutta, keskustelun rakennetta ja tilannekohtaisia rutiineja. Omassa tutkimuksessani tutkin oppijoiden kykyä ymmärtää ja käyttää puheakteja kuten esimerkiksi pyyntöjä ja kieltöjä, tilannekohtaisia rutiineja, tavallisia kysymys-vastaus-pareja ja implikaatioita, joiden avulla puhuja viestii enemmän kuin sanoo. Nämä vuorovaikutukseen liittyvät taidot voidaan sisällyttää pragmaattiseen kompetenssiin. Itse asiassa Leechin (1983) mukaan pragmatiikka tai pragmaattinen kompetenssi voidaan jakaa sosiopragmaattiseen ja pragmalingvistiseen kompetenssiin: kykyyn ymmärtää, miten esimerkiksi puheakteja ja implikaatioita käytetään vuorovaikutuksessa ja kykyyn käyttää tätä tietoa erilaisissa kommunikaationtilanteissa. Tutkijat ovat osoittaneet, että tavallisesti pragmalingvistinen kompetenssi edeltää sosiopragmaattista kompetenssia (esim. Rose 2000, 2009, Félix-Brasdefer 2007): vasta myöhemmissä kehitysvaiheissa oppijat ymmärtävät kielen sosiaalisia funktioita, vaikka he ovat tietoisia kielenkäyttötaidoistaan jo oppimisen alkuvaiheissa.

Oppijoiden sosiopragmaattista ja pragmalingvististä kompetenssia tutkitaan välikielen pragmatiikassa, johon myös oma tutkimukseni sijoittuu. Välikielen pragmatiikka kuuluu sekä vieraan kielen oppimistutkimukseen että välikielen tutkimukseen (Kasper & Blum-Kulka 1993). Yleisesti sen määrittellään tutkivan kielen oppijoiden pragmaattista kompetenssia; välikielen pragmatiikka tutkii, miten oppijat oppivat, ymmärtävät ja käyttävät vierasta kieltä, mitkä asiat voivat vaikuttaa kompetenssin kehittymiseen ja miten pragmaattiset aspektit otetaan huomioon kielenopetuksessa. Välikielen pragmatiikan tutkijat keskittyvät useimmiten kuvailemaan, miten oppijat käyttävät kieltä vuorovaikutuksessa, kun taas pragmaattisen kompetenssin kehitys ei ole saanut osakseen paljon huomiota (Kasper & Rose 2002). Kuitenkin esimerkiksi Bialystokin ja Schmidin teoriat kuvaavat sitä, miten oppijoiden täytyy toisaalta muodostaa pragmaattista tietoa ja kontrolloida sitä (Bialystok 1993) ja toisaalta ensin huomata tai rekisteröidä tämä tieto, ennen kuin se

voidaan ymmärtää (Schmidt 1993). Nämä teoriat valottavat pragmaattisen kompetenssin kehitystä.

Kasper ja Rose (2002) jakavat pragmaattisen kompetenssin kehityksen pragmaattisen tiedon ymmärryksen ja tuottamisen kehitykseen. Pragmaattinen ymmärrys käsittää lähinnä implikaatioiden käytön, kun taas pragmaattinen tuottaminen sisältää muun muassa tilannekohtaisten rutiinien ja puheaktien käytön. Pragmaattisten aspektien ymmärtäminen lisääntyy vähitellen esimerkiksi kohdekielisessä maassa oleskelun aikana. Tutkijat eivät ole kuitenkaan pystyneet osoittamaan tarkkoja vaiheita pragmaattisen ymmärryksen kehitykselle. Pragmaattisten aspektien tuottaminen on taas herättänyt paljonkin kiinnostusta. Tutkijat ovat havainneet, että esimerkiksi tilannekohtaiset rutiinit kuten ”you’re welcome” tai ”how are you?” ovat helppoja jo kehityksen alkuvaiheissa, koska ne esiintyvät usein vuorovaikutuksessa ja ovat yksinkertaisia ja lyhyitä. Puheaktien kehitys näyttää seuraavan tiettyjä kehitysvaiheita. Tutkijat ovat osoittaneet, että aluksi oppijat käyttävät yksinkertaisia sanamuotoja ja toistoja. Vähitellen he alkavat laajentaa pragmaattista tietoaan käyttämällä uusia, monimutkaisempia muotoja ja olemalla tietoisempia vuorovaikutukseen vaikuttavista tekijöistä (Kasper & Rose 2002). Tutkijat ovat kuitenkin päätelleet, että pragmaattinen kehitys ei välttämättä aina seuraa näitä vaiheita. Se voi pysähtyä tai jopa taantua, sillä kehityksen eri vaiheissa oppija saattaa käyttää kohdekielille vieraita muotoja.

Kuten aikaisemmin mainitsin, välikielen pragmatiikka on pragmaattisen kompetenssin kehityksen lisäksi tutkinut myös, miten esimerkiksi oppimisympäristö ja oppimismahdollisuudet vaikuttavat kompetenssin kehitykseen ja käyttöön. Tutkimustavoitteenani olikin selvittää, eroaako englantipainotteisten luokkien oppijoiden ja formaalin opetuksen oppijoiden kompetenssi toisistaan. Tutkijat ovat kuvailleet eri oppimisympäristöjä ja päätelleet, että pragmaattisten tietojen eksplisiittinen opettaminen on hyödyllistä. Formaalisissa opetuksessa on hyvin tärkeää saada oppijat huomaamaan kielenkäyttöön liittyviä seikkoja vieraskielisestä kieliaineksestä. Formaali kieltenopetus on kuitenkin saanut kritiikkiä siitä, että se ei pysty tarjoamaan autenttista kieliaainesta esimerkiksi rajoitettujen tuntimäärien ja suurien luokkakokojen johdosta (Kasper & Rose 2002, Rose 1999). Englantipainotteisten luokkien eduksi nähdäänkin juuri se, että vierasta kieltä käytetään

oppimisvälineenä myös eri oppiaineiden tunneilla eikä vain kyseisen vieraan kielen tunneilla. Esimerkiksi Nikula (2002, 2005, 2008) on tutkimuksissaan päätellyt, että englantipainotteisilla luokilla vierasta kieltä käytetään enemmän ja eri tilanteissa kuin formaalissa opetuksessa. Lisäksi tutkimukset ovat osoittaneet, että englantipainotteisilla luokilla olevien oppilaiden pragmaattinen kompetenssi on jonkin verran korkeampi kuin formaalin opetuksen oppijoiden (Rosin 2008). Oppimistuloksien vertailuja näissä kahdessa oppimisympäristössä ei ole kuitenkaan vielä tehty tarpeeksi, jotta voitaisiin tehdä tarkkoja päätelmiä. On myös otettava huomioon se, että sekä formaalia että kielipainotteista opetusta määrittelevät tietyt institutionaaliset ja opetukselliset rajoitukset. Siksi vieraan kielen käyttö ei ole kummassakaan oppimisympäristössä täysin autenttista.

Oppimisympäristöjen ohella tutkin, vaikuttavatko oppijoiden englanninkieliset vapaa-ajan aktiviteetit tai mahdolliset kielialueella vierailut heidän kykyynsä käyttää vierasta kieltä. Vapaa-ajan merkitystä pragmaattiseen kompetenssiin ei ole tutkittu paljon. Vain Rosin (2008) on käsitellyt aihetta pro gradu -tutkielmassaan ja päätellyt, että vapaa-ajan aktiviteeteilla ei ollut vaikutusta suomalaisten lukio-opiskelijoiden kykyyn käyttää englannin kieltä. Oppijoiden vierailujen pituus kohdemaissa on kuitenkin herättänyt kiinnostusta tutkijoiden keskuudessa. Yleisesti oletetaan, että vierailut ovat hyödyllisiä pragmaattisen kompetenssin kehitykselle, sillä niiden aikana oppijat luultavasti kuulevat ja käyttävät kieltä enemmän kuin kotimaassaan. Tutkijat ovatkin saaneet selville, että oppijat, jotka ovat oleskelleet kohdemaassa kuudesta viikosta esimerkiksi kahteen vuoteen, kehittävät pragmaattista kompetenssiaan huomattavasti oleskelunsa aikana (esim. Roever 2006, 2012, Taguchi 2008). Pelkästään vierailujen pituuden vaikutusta on kuitenkin vaikeaa arvioida ja etenkin erottaa muista pragmaattisen kompetenssin kehitykseen vaikuttavista seikoista kuten oppijoiden yleisestä kielitaidosta (Bardovi-Harlig & Bastos 2011).

Aineisto ja metodit

Tutkimukseni kohderyhmä koostui yläkoulun kahdeksaluokkalaisista ja lukion toisen vuosikurssin opiskelijoista. Testasin neljä eri ryhmää, joissa oli sekä formaalissa opetuksessa olevia oppijoita (yksi ryhmä kahdeksaluokkalaisia ja yksi ryhmä toisen vuosikurssin opiskelijoita) että englantipainotteisten luokkien oppijoita (yksi ryhmä kahdeksaluokkalaisia ja yksi ryhmä toisen vuosikurssin opiskelijoita). Kohderyhmässäni oli yhteensä 119 oppijaa. Testasin näiden oppijoiden pragmaattista kompetenssia monivalintatestillä, jonka laadin kahden aikaisemmin tehdyn testin avulla: käytin Roeverin (2005, 2006) testiä, joka arvioi oppijoiden kykyä käyttää implikaatioita ja tilannekohtaisia rutiineja, sekä Hudsonin, Detmerin ja Brownin (1995) puheaktitestä. Kokosin näiden tutkijoiden kysymyksistä testin, joka koostui 31 kohdasta. Jokaisessa kohdassa kuvataan tietty tilanne, jossa yksi henkilö aikoo sanoa jotakin. Oppijoiden piti tietää, mitä henkilö aikoo sanoa tai mitä hän mahdollisesti tarkoittaa sanomallaan. Testin lopuksi oppijat täyttivät lyhyen taustakyselyn, jonka avulla kartoitin muun muassa oppijoiden englanninkielisiä vapaa-ajan aktiviteetteja sekä mahdollisia vierailuja kohdemaissa. Analysoin oppijoiden testisuoritusta kvantitatiivisesti käyttämällä SPSS-tilasto-ohjelmaa. Ohjelman avulla laskin esimerkiksi testin ja sen osien keskiarvot ja mahdolliset tilastolliset merkitsevät erot ryhmien välillä.

Tutkimustulokset

Tutkimustulokseni osoittivat, että suomalaiset yläkoulun ja lukion oppijat suoriutuivat testistä hyvin. Testin maksimipistemäärä oli 31 pistettä, ja oppijoiden keskiarvo oli 22,47. Myös testin eri osioissa keskiarvot olivat korkeita: implikaatio- ja rutiiniosioissa oppijat saivat noin 70 % vastauksistaan oikein, kun taas puheaktiosiossa oikeita vastauksia oli keskimäärin 66,5 %. Verrattaessa kahdeksaluokkalaisten ja lukion toisen vuosikurssin opiskelijoita erot olivat tilastollisesti merkitseviä. Koko testissä sekä implikaatio- että rutiiniosioissa erot olivat tilastollisesti hyvin merkitseviä, koska p-arvo oli alle 0,01. Puheaktiosiossa merkitsevä ero löytyi ainoastaan formaalin opetuksen luokkien välillä. Itse asiassa esimerkiksi keskiarvojen välinen ero oli aina suurempi formaalissa opetuksessa olevien

kahdeksaluokkalaisten ja toisen vuosikurssin opiskelijoiden välillä kuin englantipainotteisten luokkien oppijoiden välillä.

Oppimisympäristön vaikutusta analysoidessani vertasin formaalissa ja kieli-painotteisessa opetuksessa olevia oppijoita. Tulokset osoittivat, että ryhmien testisuoritus erosi: jälkimmäiseen ryhmään kuuluvat oppijat suoriutuivat testistä paremmin kuin ensiksi mainitun ryhmän jäsenet. Kuitenkin erot olivat tilastollisesti merkitseviä vain kahdeksaluokkalaisten välillä. Lukion toisen vuosikurssin opiskelijoiden testisuoritukset sekä formaalissa että englantipainotteisessa opetuksessa olivat hyvin lähellä toisiaan, eikä merkitseviä eroja löytynyt.

Oppimismahdollisuuksien analysointi ei tuonut esiin paljon merkitseviä tuloksia. Vaikka oppijat käyttivät englantia vapaa-ajallaan, vapaa-ajan aktiviteeteilla ei ollut vaikutusta testitulokseen. Englanninkielisessä maassa vierailu taas vaikutti jonkin verran oppijoiden pragmaattiseen kompetenssiin: oppijat, jotka olivat käyneet tai vierailleet kohdemaissa, suoriutuivat koko testistä ja sen implikaatio- ja rutiiniosioista merkitsevästi paremmin kuin oppijat, jotka eivät olleet koskaan vierailleet kyseisissä maissa. Tutkielmassani selvitin myös, vaikuttiko se, miten kauan oppijat olivat opiskelleet englantia, heidän testisuoritukseensa. Oppijat olivat opiskelleet englantia viidestä yhteentoista vuotta, joten mielestäni oli tärkeää selvittää, oliko opiskeluvuosien määrällä vaikutusta oppijoiden pragmaattiseen kompetenssiin. Tulosten analyysi kuitenkin osoitti, että oppijoiden testisuoritus opiskeluvuosien mukaan vaihteli paljon. Tilastollisesti merkitseviä eroja löytyi vain niiden oppijoiden välillä, jotka olivat opiskelleet englantia joko viisi tai kuusi vuotta, ja niiden, jotka olivat opiskelleet sitä kahdeksan vuotta.

Johtopäätökset

Tutkimustuloksieni perusteella voidaan päätellä, että suomalaisten englanninoppijoiden pragmaattinen kompetenssi oli melko korkea. Esimerkiksi Roeverin (2005, 2006) tutkimuksissa englanninoppijat osasivat vastata noin 61,92 % vastauksista oikein, kun taas Rosinin (2008) tutkimuksessa suomalaiset oppijat saivat keskiarvokseen 72,7 %. Kohderyhmäni keskiarvo oli 72,5 %, mikä osoittaa, että suomalaiset oppijat suoriutuivat testistä paremmin kuin Roeverin oppijat. Rosinin

tutkimukseen verrattaessa keskiarvot olivat melkein yhtäläiset. Pragmaattinen kompetenssi kehittyi kahdeksaluokkalaisten ja lukion toisen vuosikurssin välillä, sillä lukion toisluokkalaisten suoriutuivat testistä paremmin kuin yläkoulun kahdeksaluokkalaisten. Kehitys oli kuitenkin suurempaa formaalissa opetuksessa kuin kielipainotteisilla luokilla. Tämä on uusi tulos välikielen pragmatiikassa. Tulevissa tutkimuksissa olisikin tärkeää selvittää oppimisympäristön vaikutusta pragmaattiseen kehitykseen vielä tarkemmin.

Englantipainotteisilla luokilla olevat oppilaat suoriutuivat testistä paremmin kuin formaalin opetuksen oppilaat. Tosin erot olivat tilastollisesti merkitseviä vain yläkoulussa. Tutkimuksessani siis päätin, että vieraskielinen opetus vaikutti enemmän nuorempiin oppijoihin. Tällaista johtopäätöstä ei ole tehty välikielen pragmatiikan tutkimuksessa. Aikaisempi tutkimus on pääosin kuvannut kielipainotteisen ja formaalin opetuksen eroja, mutta oppimistuloksien vertailua varsinkin pragmaattiseen kompetenssiin liittyen ei ole tutkittu riittävästi.

Oppimismahdollisuudet osoittautuivat jokseenkin haastaviksi analysoida. Tulokset osoittivat, että vain englanninkielisessä maassa oleskelulla oli vaikutusta oppijoiden pragmaattiseen kompetenssiin. Tätä tulosta vahvistavat aikaisemmat tutkimukset, joiden mukaan vapaa-ajan aktiviteeteilla ja englannin opiskeluvuosilla ei ole merkitystä pragmaattiseen kompetenssiin (Rosin 2008), kun taas kohdemaissa vierailut parantavat usein oppijoiden testisuoritusta (esim. Roever 2006, 2012). Tutkimuksessani ei ollut mahdollista selvittää, oliko esimerkiksi oppijoiden yleisellä englannin kielen tasolla merkitystä testisuoritukseen, mikä olisi voinut selventää oppijoiden välisiä eroja. Tulevaisuudessa tutkijoiden olisikin hyvä tutkia tarkemmin eri oppimismahdollisuuksien vaikutusta pragmaattisen kompetenssin kehitykseen.

Testissäni pyysin oppijoita kertomaan, auttoivatko heidän mielestään vapaa-ajan aktiviteetit vai koulun englannin tunneilla läpikäytyt asiat testiin vastaamisessa. Suurin osa oppijoista totesi, että vapaa-ajan aktiviteetit auttoivat heitä enemmän kuin englanninopetus. Oppijat kertoivat, että he käyttävät ja kuulevat englantia enemmän vapaa-ajallaan esimerkiksi lukiessaan kirjoja tai katsellessaan televisiota ja elokuvia. Heistä englannin tunneilla kieli on liian virallista tai ”jäykkää”, eikä kielenkäyttöön

liittyviä asioita käydä tarpeeksi läpi. Kouluissa tulisikin jatkossa painottaa yhä enemmän vuorovaikutteista kieltenopetusta.

Tutkimusaineistoni rajallisen koon takia tuloksieni perusteella ei voi tehdä lopullisia päätelmiä suomalaisten englanninoppijoiden pragmaattisesta kompetenssista. Testini arvioi ainoastaan pragmaattisten aspektien tietämystä, mutta testin tarkoituksena oli kartoittaa suomalaisten oppijoiden pragmaattista kompetenssia niin kokonaisvaltaisesti kuin mahdollista. Itse asiassa tutkielmani lukeutuu ensimmäisiin tutkimuksiin, jotka ovat selvittäneet suomalaisten oppijoiden kykyä käyttää englannin kieltä. Jatkossa olisi mielenkiintoista tutkia, miten suomalaiset oppijat tuottavat pragmaattisia aspekteja vuorovaikutuksessa.