สามัตถิยะด้านวัจนปฏิบัติศาสตร์ระหว่างภาษาของนักศึกษาจีน
ที่เรียนภาษาอังกฤษในฐานะภาษาต่างประเทศ

นางหลาน ฉื่อ

INTERLANGUAGE PRAGMATIC COMPETENCE

OF CHINESE EFL UNIVERSITY STUDENTS

Lan Xu

A Thesis Submitted in Partial Fulfillment of the Requirements for

the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy in English Language Studies

Suranaree University of Technology

Academic Year 2015

INTERLANGUAGE PRAGMATIC COMPETENCE
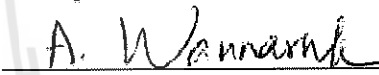
OF CHINESE EFL UNIVERSITY STUDENTS

Suranaree University of Technology has approved this thesis submitted in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

Thesis Examining Committee

_____

(Dr. Peerasak Siriyothin)
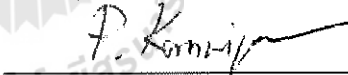
Chairperson

_____

(Assoc. Prof. Dr. Anchalee Wannaruk)

Member (Thesis Advisor)

_____

(Asst. Prof. Dr. Nawamin Prachanant)

Member

_____

(Asst. Prof. Dr. Kornwipa Poonpon)

Member

_____

(Dr. Butsakorn Yodkamlue)

Member

_____

(Dr. Peerasak Siriyothin)

_____

(Prof. Dr. Sukit Limpijumnong)

Vice Rector for Academic Affairs

and Innovation

Dean of Institute of Social Technology

หลาน ฉื่อ : สามัตถิยะด้านวัจนปฏิบัติศาสตร์ระหว่างภาษาของนักศึกษาจีนที่เรียน
ภาษาอังกฤษในฐานะภาษาต่างประเทศ (INTERLANGUAGE PRAGMATIC
COMPETENCE OF CHINESE EFL UNIVERSITY STUDENTS)
อาจารย์ที่ปรึกษา : รองศาสตราจารย์ ดร.อัญชลี วรรณรักษ์, 358 หน้า

สามัตถิยะด้านวัจนปฏิบัติศาสตร์ระหว่างภาษามีความสำคัญต่อผู้เรียนภาษาอังกฤษใน
ฐานะภาษาต่างประเทศเป็นอย่างมากในการสื่อสารภาษาอังกฤษ งานวิจัยนี้ได้ศึกษา 1) ระดับ
สามัตถิยะด้านวัจนปฏิบัติศาสตร์ระหว่างภาษาของผู้เรียนชาวจีนระดับมหาวิทยาลัย 2) รูปแบบการ
แปรของสามัตถิยะด้านวัจนปฏิบัติศาสตร์ระหว่างภาษาของผู้เรียนชาวจีนระดับมหาวิทยาลัยตาม
สัญชาติ 3) รูปแบบการแปรของสามัตถิยะด้านวัจนปฏิบัติศาสตร์ระหว่างภาษาของผู้เรียนชาวจีน
ระดับมหาวิทยาลัยตามเพศ และ 4)รูปแบบการแปรของสามัตถิยะด้านวัจนปฏิบัติศาสตร์ระหว่าง
ภาษาของผู้เรียนชาวจีนตามระดับความสามารถทางภาษา

ผู้เข้าร่วมงานวิจัยนี้ คือนักศึกษาสาขาภาษาอังกฤษ จำนวน 390 คน จาก 4 มหาวิทยาลัยใน
มณฑลกุ้ยโจว ประเทศจีน ซึ่งมีการคัดเลือกโดยวิธีการคัดเลือกกลุ่มตัวอย่างแบบตามสะดวกและ
แบบเจาะจง เครื่องมือที่ใช้ในการเก็บข้อมูลในงานวิจัยนี้ คือแบบวัดสามัตถิยะด้านวัจนปฏิบัติ
ศาสตร์ระหว่างภาษาและการสัมภาษณ์แบบกึ่งมีโครงสร้าง แบบวัดสามัตถิยะด้านวัจนปฏิบัติ
ศาสตร์ระหว่างภาษาแบ่งออกเป็นแบบสอบถามชนิดเติมเต็มบทสนทนาแบบปลายเปิดและแบบ
ตัวเลือก แบบสอบถามชนิดเติมเต็มบทสนทนาแบบปลายเปิดใช้ในการศึกษาสามัตถิยะด้านวัจน
ปฏิบัติศาสตร์ระหว่างภาษาในการแสดงวัจนกรรม ในขณะที่แบบสอบถามชนิดเติมเต็มบทสนทนา
แบบตัวเลือกใช้ในการประเมินความเข้าใจความหมายชี้บ่งเป็นนัยและการแสดงพจนวัตรของ
ผู้เข้าร่วมงานวิจัย

ข้อมูลที่ได้จากงานวิจัยนี้ ถูกนำมาวิเคราะห์ทั้งเชิงปริมาณและคุณภาพมีการใช้สถิติเชิง
พรรณนาในการคำนวณข้อมูลเพื่อบรรยายสามัตถิยะด้านวัจนปฏิบัติศาสตร์ระหว่างภาษาของ
ผู้เข้าร่วมงานวิจัยแบบโดยรวมและแยกประเภท การวิเคราะห์ความแปรปรวนทางเดียวและการ
ทดสอบความแตกต่างรายคู่โดยวิธีการของเชฟเฟ่ถูกนำมาใช้ในการหารูปแบบการแปรของ
สามัตถิยะด้านวัจนปฏิบัติศาสตร์ระหว่างภาษาของผู้เข้าร่วมงานวิจัยตามตัวแปร 3 ประเภท ได้แก่
สัญชาติ เพศ และระดับความสามารถทางภาษา การวิเคราะห์เนื้อหาถูกนำมาใช้ในการวิเคราะห์
ข้อมูลที่ได้จากการสัมภาษณ์แบบกึ่งมีโครงสร้างเพื่อที่จะศึกษาระดับสามัตถิยะด้านวัจนปฏิบัติ
ศาสตร์ระหว่างภาษาของผู้เข้าร่วมงานวิจัยและรูปแบบการแปรตามตัวแปรดังกล่าว

ผลการวิจัยพบว่า แบบวัดสามัตถิยะด้านวัจนปฏิบัติศาสตร์ระหว่างภาษามีความเชื่อมั่นและความเที่ยงตรงสูง ยังพบว่าสามัตถิยะด้านวัจนปฏิบัติศาสตร์ระหว่างภาษาของผู้เรียนชาวจีนระดับมหาวิทยาลัยอยู่ในระดับปานกลางและมีความแตกต่างอย่างมีนัยยะสำคัญตามตัวแปรทั้งสาม ได้แก่ สัญชาติ เพศ และระดับความสามารถด้านภาษาคำอธิบายเกี่ยวกับระดับสามัตถิยะด้านวัจนปฏิบัติศาสตร์ระหว่างภาษาและรูปแบบการแปรตามตัวแปรทั้งสามถูกนำเสนอหลังจากที่มีการแสดงผลการวิจัย

งานวิจัยนี้ ช่วยเพิ่มพูนวรรณกรรมด้านการวัดสามัตถิยะด้านวัจนปฏิบัติศาสตร์ระหว่างภาษาและยังช่วยสร้างความเข้าใจเกี่ยวกับระดับสามัตถิยะด้านวัจนปฏิบัติศาสตร์ระหว่างภาษาและรูปแบบการแปรตามสัญชาติ เพศ และระดับความสามารถด้านภาษาของผู้เรียนภาษาอังกฤษในฐานะภาษาต่างประเทศในประเทศจีน หวังเป็นอย่างยิ่งว่างานวิจัยนี้ จะมีประโยชน์ต่อการพัฒนาสามัตถิยะด้านวัจนปฏิบัติศาสตร์ระหว่างภาษาของผู้เรียนภาษาอังกฤษในฐานะภาษาต่างประเทศ

สาขาวิชาภาษาต่างประเทศ   ลายมือชื่อนักศึกษา_____

ปีการศึกษา 2558   ลายมือชื่ออาจารย์ที่ปรึกษา_____

LAN XU : INTERLANGUAGE PRAGMATIC COMPETENCE OF

CHINESE EFL UNIVERSITY STUDENTS. THESIS ADVISOR :

ASSOC. PROF. ANCHALEE WANNARUK, Ph.D., 358 PP.

INTERLANGUAGE/PRAGMATIC COMPETENCE/CHINESE UNIVERSITY EFL

LEARNERS

ILP competence is of vital importance for EFL learners in communication with

English. The present study has been designed 1) to investigate the Chinese EFL

learners' ILP competence level; 2) to investigate the patterns of variations of the EFL

learners' ILP competence according to nationality; 3) to investigate the patterns of

variations of the EFL learners' ILP competence according to gender, and 4) to

investigate the patterns of variations of the EFL learners' ILP competence according to

level of language proficiency.

The participants in the present study were 390 English majors in four

universities in Guizhou Province, China. They were selected by convenient and

purposive sampling methods. The data collection instruments for the present study were

the ILP competence test and semi-structured interview. The ILP competence test was

further divided into WDCT and MDCT. WDCT was applied to examine the EFL

learners' ILP competence in conducting speech acts, while MDCT was used to evaluate

their ILP competence in understanding implicature and performing routines.

The data in the present study were analyzed both quantitatively and

qualitatively. The simple descriptive statistics were calculated to describe the Chinese

EFL learners' ILP competence at the overall level and category level; the one-way

ANOVA and the Post-hoc Scheffe test were applied to investigate the variations of the EFL learners' ILP competence according to the three variables, i.e. nationality, gender, and level of language proficiency. Content analysis was conducted to analyze the semi-structured interview data in order to understand the EFL learners' ILP competence level and the variations according to the variables.

The ILP competence test proved highly reliable and valid. The results revealed that the Chinese EFL learners' ILP competence was at the medium level and there existed significant differences in relation to the three variables: nationality, gender and level of language proficiency. Possible explanations for the EFL learners' ILP competence level and the variations according to the three variables were provided immediately after the presentation of the results.

The present study has enriched the literature in ILP competence testing, and it helped to understand the ILP competence level as well as its variations with different nationality, gender and language proficiency groups of the EFL learners in China. It is hoped that this research could make some contributions to the improvement of the EFL learners' ILP competence.

School of Foreign Languages   Student's Signature_____

Academic Year 2015   Advisor's Signature_____

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Looking back on the whole process of thesis writing, I experienced very mixed feelings. There were both excitement and hardship as I worked on my thesis. I would like to acknowledge all the people who have given me help, cooperation, support, and encouragement in writing my thesis.

First and foremost, I would like to express my sincere gratitude to my advisor, Assoc. Prof. Dr. Anchalee Wannaruk, for her careful, patient and systematic academic supervision in the writing of my thesis, through which I learnt quite a lot and made great progress in doing research. Without her insightful advice, constructive feedback, and constant encouragement, the completion of the thesis would have been impossible. I would also like to extend my grateful thanks to my advisor for her encouragement for my life in the process of my studying and writing, without her spiritual support, the completion of the whole Ph.D. project would have been impossible.

Secondly, I would like to express my heartfelt thanks to the committee members of my proposal as well as my thesis defense, Dr. Peerasak Siriyothin, the chair of the committee, Asst. Prof. Dr. Nawanmin Prachanant, Asst. Prof. Dr. Kornwipa Poonpon and Dr. Butsakorn Yodkamlue, With their comments and suggestions, I have made my research work more comprehensive and systematic.

Thirdly, my sincere gratitude goes to all the teachers of the School of Foreign Languages, Suranaree University of Technology in Thailand for their instruction in the course work. Their teaching enlightened me and gave me ideas for the present

design of the thesis. My sincere thanks also go to the secretaries of the School of Foreign Languages, Suranaree University of Technology for their help in my study.

Fourthly, I would like to acknowledge all the teachers and students who have given me help and cooperation for data collection, data analysis and proofreading. Without their cooperation and support, the research would have been much more difficult to conduct and complete.

Fifthly, I would like to send my gratitude to my university, Guizhou University in China for the financial support during the years of my study. I would also like to express my special thanks to all my leaders and colleagues in the School of Foreign Languages Studies in Guizhou University for their understanding, support, encouragement as well as helping me do my job in the years of my study.

Last but not the least, my heartfelt gratitude goes to my parents for their wholehearted help in taking care of my daughter during all the years that I was away for study. I would also like to thank my husband and my daughter for understanding my absence during this time.

Lan Xu

TABLE OF CONTENTS

Page

CHAPTER

TABLE OF CONTENTS (Continued)

TABLE OF CONTENTS (Continued)

TABLE OF CONTENTS (Continued)

TABLE OF CONTENTS (Continued)

TABLE OF CONTENTS (Continued)

TABLE OF CONTENTS (Continued)

Page

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF TABLES

LIST OF FIGURES

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ANOVA   Analysis of Variance

CET   College English Test

CP   Cooperative Theory

D   Social Distance

DCT   Discourse Completion Task

DIF   Differential Item Functioning

EFL   English as a Foreign Language

ESL   English as a Second Language

FTA   Face Threatening Theory

GRE   Graduate Record Examination

IELTS   The International English Language Testing System

ILP   Interlanguage Pragmatic

KFL   Korean as a Foreign Language

L1   The First Language

L2   The Second Language

L3   The Third Language

MA   Master of Arts

MDCT   Multiple-choice Discourse Completion Task

MFRM   Many Facet Rasch Model

NNS   Non-Native Speaker

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS (Continued)

NS	Native Speaker
ODCT	Oral Discourse Completion Task
P	Relative Power
Ph.D.	Doctor of Philosophy
PP	Politeness Principle
R	Absolute Ranking
RPDT	Role-play Discourse Completion Task
RPSA	Role-play Self-assessment
SA	Self-assessment
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
SPSS	Statistical Package for Social Science
TEM	Test for English Majors
TLU	Target Language Use
TOFEL	Test of English as a Foreign Language
WDCT	Written Discourse Completion Task

CHAPTER 1
INTRODUCTION

This chapter is an introduction to the thesis. It provides the background and context for the present study, which aims to examine the interlanguage pragmatic (ILP) competence of English as a foreign language (EFL) learners in China. The participants were English major students in four universities in the Guizhou Province, China. This chapter includes the statement of the problem, the rationale of the study, the scope of the study, the objectives and the research questions, the significance of the study and the terms used in the present study. In the end, the outline of the thesis is presented.

1.1 Background of the Study

Misunderstanding is a central issue in interlanguage pragmatics, which may easily occur among people from different cultural backgrounds. According to the National Language Research Institute (Shinpro 'Nihongo' Dai 2-han, 1999a; 1999b), different language speakers interpret pragmatic behaviors differently due to different cultural backgrounds. Nishihara (1999) states that pragmatic standards for a culture or a country are not universal. Thus, when we conduct an international or intercultural studies, we need to be cautious to avoid overgeneralizing our own beliefs. Misunderstanding between a native speaker (NS) and a learner can naturally occur very often because of the learner's weak understanding of the target culture's pragmatics.

It is easy for EFL learners to be influenced by their mother tongue. Pragmatic transfer is a quite common phenomenon for EFL learners. It is the transfer from the first language socio-cultural communicative competence to L2 pragmatic behaviors (Takahashi & Beebe, 1987). Although positive transfer can facilitate the acquisition due to the influence of cross-linguistic similarities, negative transfer will cause errors and result in a divergence between native and non-native speakers in the performance of a language. In conducting speech acts, EFL learners can make all kinds of mistakes, including the wrong selection of speech acts, non-typical expressions, an unsuitable amount of information, and inappropriateness for formality, directness and politeness. In understanding implicature, EFL learners may interpret the meaning of an utterance in the wrong way. In performing routines, EFL learners may embarrass the native speakers or feel embarrassed for breaking the rules of the target language.

In China, the majority of students consider the purpose of learning English is to pass all kinds of English examinations, so as required in most national English examinations, they grasp enough grammatical knowledge, memorize a large number of words, and do listening, reading and writing exercises frequently for achieving high scores. Appropriate use of English is not included in most Chinese national tests for university students, including CET 4 (College English Test Band 4), CET 6 (College English Test Band 6), TEM 4 (Test for English Majors Band 4) and TEM 8 (Test for English Majors Band 8). Thus, communicative English is their weak point, even for English majors. On the one hand, the students do not consider communication

important for their scores; on the other hand, either Chinese teachers or students pay little attention to correcting errors in communicative English, so some non-habitual or non-standard use of English that left uncorrected could be a problem for the students for many years. As Liu (2004) points out that in China, it is a common phenomenon for an English learner to receive over 600 points in the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOFEL) and over 2000 in the Graduate Record Examination (GRE) but still not know how to make a simple request in English in real communications. The EFL learners' ability in communication has been a problem that has attracted the attention of many researchers in China. In 2015, Yue states that the Chinese learners' communicative ability was very weak, even for the students who had achieved a high ability score in listening, writing and reading.

1.2 Rationale of the Study

The major reason to conduct the present research is the importance of ILP competence in communication. According to Ellis (2008), second language acquisition (SLA) researchers have paid attention to learners' ability in pragmatic aspects. This has been encouraged by the belief that only by exploring the way in which the formal properties are used in real communication can a full understanding of how they are learnt be understood. It has also been encouraged by the belief that the study of learner language needs to considerate pragmatic aspects in their own right. The view that "the goal of SLA research is to describe and explain not only learners' linguistic competence,

but also their pragmatic competence" (Ellis, 2008, p.159) shows the importance of pragmatic ability in SLA. On a review of the academic literature in the study of ILP competence, the following research gaps have been found:

First, up to now, the studies of ILP competence of the EFL learners focus on very limited kinds of speech acts, such as request (Liu, 2004; Garcia, 2004; Takahashi, 2005; Rover, 2006; Xu, Case & Wang, 2009; Li, 2010; Shao, Zhao & Sun, 2011; Soo, 2013; Li & Chen, 2016), refusal (Rover, 2006; Xu, Case & Wang, 2009; Soo, 2013; Li & Lin, 2015), apology (Liu, 2004; Rover, 2006; Xu, Case & Wang, 2009; Shao, Zhao & Sun, 2011; Usó-Juan & Martínez-Flor, 2015), suggestion (Garcia, 2004; Xu, Case & Wang, 2009), offer (Garcia, 2004), correction (Garcia, 2004), compliment (Shao, Zhao & Sun, 2011, Cher, 2015), invitation (Shao, Zhao & Sun, 2011) and comment (Soo, 2013). Even fewer studies can be found in understanding implicature (Bouton, 1988; 1994; and 1999; Rover, 2010b; Akerman, 2015) and in performing routines (Pürschel et al., 1994; Rover, 2006; Aijmer, 2014). No research has been found to examine the ILP competence of the EFL learners including such a broad domain of speech acts, implicature and routines. The present research aims to examine the EFL learners' ILP competence in the aspects of conducting the most frequently used ten speech acts, undertanding implicature and performing routines.

Second, previous studies have investigated the ILP competence of different groups of test-takers, such as the different levels of language proficiency (Yamanaka, 2003; Liu, 2004, 2012; Garcia, 2004; Xu, Case & Wang, 2009; Soo, 2013; Xiao, 2015),

different length of residence in English speaking countries (Xu, Case & Wang, 2009; Naoko, 2013; Alcón-Soler, 2015), different genders (Wang, 2006; Li, 2012), motivations (Takahashi, 2005; Shao, Zhao & Sun, 2011), cognitive styles (Liu & Huang, 2013) and so on. Some researchers also investigated the ILP competence of minority students in China (Li, 2010; Tian, 2013), or the ILP competence of non-English major students (Yang, 2015). However, through an extended review of previous studies, no research concerning the comparison of the ILP competence between Han and ethnic minority groups has been found, so it is necessary to conduct such a study to investigate L2 and L3 learners in their competence of interlanguage pragmatics in the Chinese context. The present research plans to fill in this gap.

Last but not the least, the studies on the relation between ILP competence and level of language proficiency have been conducted frequently. The previous studies show that research about the relation between the level of language proficiency and ILP competence has been conducted in the past decades, but researchers have not reached an agreement. Some researchers reported a positive relationship between level of language proficiency and ILP competence, such as Yamanaka (2003), Garcia (2004), Xu, Case & Wang (2009), Soo (2013), Naoko (2013), and Xiao (2015), while others did not find a relation between the level of language proficiency and ILP competence, such as Hoffman-Hicks (1992), Liu (2004, 2012) and Takahashi (2005). Thus, further study is needed, for the results may be different with different participants and different contexts. No researcher has been found to have carried out such a research with English

majors in the Guizhou Province of China. Therefore, it is worth conducting the research to explore the relationship between the level of language proficiency and ILP competence with the English major participants in the Guizhou Province of China.

Ellis (2008) states that the relationship between pragmatic development and linguistic ability is still poorly understood. It may differ depending on the EFL learners' development stage and the acquisitional context. "What is not clear in the foregoing account of research into interlanguage pragmatics is the extent to which the acquisition of pragmatic knowledge is distinct from or related to the acquisition of linguistic knowledge" (Ellis, 2008, p.194). Since there are still research gaps in the field of ILP studies, further research is worthy of consideration.

The frameworks for ILP competence (Bardovi-Harlig & Dörnvei, 1998; Jung, 2005) have illustrated a number of variables under investigation. However, it is hardly possible to investigate most, if not all, of the variables examined in the previous literature. The theoretical framework for the present study includes three variables: nationality, gender, and level of language proficiency. The following discussions are about the rationales for the selected variables based on the previous studies and theories.

1) Nationality

China is a country with 56 nationalities, and except for Han, all the others are minority groups. Guizhou is a province with 49 minorities, and the second largest minority group in the country. The majorly inhabitant minorities are: Tujia, Miao, Puyi, Dong, Gelo, Bai, Shui, and etc. For most of the minority students, their first languages

are their minority languages, and their pronunciations, syntaxes and vocabulary are totally different from Mandarin--the official language of China. These minority students normally begin to learn Mandarin when they enter primary school, so Mandarin is their second language (L2). Different from most Han people for whom English is their second language, English is the third language (L3) for them (Qin, 2015). Thus, their acquisition of English is influenced by both the minority languages and Mandarin. It is interesting to explore whether there is a difference in the ILP competence between the Han who consider English as L2 and the Minority people who regard English as L3.

2) Gender

Sunderland (2000) indicates that a wide range of language phenomena, including literacy practices, self-esteem, styles, language test performance, and strategies, have been proved to be connected with learners' gender. Ellis (2008) includes gender as a variable which may have influence on the SLA. Penelope & Sally (2003) point out that gender may structure language learners' access to participate in situations, activities, and events, hence to the opportunity to perform in particular speech acts legitimately. They also think that one gender may perform certain pragmatic behaviors more often than the other or that their effect is different depending on who performs those behaviors (Penelope & Sally, 2003). They also find that the same or closely related oppositions can also describe gender differentiation in politeness, and females are tend to be more polite and use more polite language than males. This is because

females are more other-oriented, more collaborative, and more affective (Penelope &

Sally, 2003). Thus, it is worth exploring gender-related variation in ILP competence.

3) Level of Language Proficiency

Ellis (2008) suggests language proficiency as one factor which is of vital

importance in pragmatic competence acquisition according to the studies to date.

Language proficiency is defined by Bachman & Palmer (1996) as learner's knowledge

of L2 grammar and vocabulary, as well as their ability in using language skills. It is a

part of general language ability. It is always selected as a variable in the ILP competence

studies, not only because it is an equal component with pragmatic competence in

communicative competence but also because it is an important factor in SLA. Ellis

(2008) holds the view that language learners are not able to construct native-speaker-

type discourse unless they are equipped with the linguistic means to do so. Learners

with limited L2 proficiency have fewer problems in conducting speech acts which are

communicatively important to them but difficult in conducting them as native speakers.

Since pragmatic competence is a component of overall L2 proficiency, the common

sense assumption would be that an increase in overall L2 proficiency would be

companied by an increase in L2 pragmatic competence (Arghamiri & Sadighi, 2013).

However, some previous researchers did not agree with this, so it would be worthy of

investigating the relationship between language proficiency and ILP competence with

different EFL contexts.

1.3 Scope of the Study

Researchers have been interested in all fields in the study of pragmatics: speech acts, implicature, routines, deixis and presupposition. Deixis refers to the pointing, indicating or picking out function of a language, and it includes spatial deixis, person deixis, temporal deixis, discourse deixis and social deixis (He, Peng & Yu, 2007). Presupposition is the background beliefs of the speakers, which is attached to utterances instead of sentences and appears in the context conditions (Heim, 1992). Deixis and presupposition are common language phenomenon and they exist in every language. The usages of them are quite similar in different languages (He, 2000), so they will not be the concern of the present study. The present research involves three major fields of ILP competence: speech acts, implicature and routines.

1) Speech acts

According to Rover (2001), the major concern of ILP competence is the knowledge of speech acts. Speech acts are the minimal or basic unit of linguisic communication. The central tenet of the speech act theory is "the uttering of a sentence is, or is a part of, an action in the framework of social institutions and conventions" (Searle, 1969). The pragmatics researchers' interests lie in how speakers express their intentions and how listeners interpret those intentions. Interlanguage pragmatics researchers' are concern about whether language learners can identify utterances appropriately and whether they can conduct speech acts appropriately. The reason to study speech acts is simply that the uttering of an utterance is the conducting of speech acts.

2) Implicature

Conversational implicature is one component in pragmatics with the highest importance (Levinson, 1983). Two attributions are notable: First, conversational implicature can help to understand and find appropriate explanations for some difficult linguistic phenomenon; Second, conversational implicature can help to understand the formation of certain grammatical structures with the context and intention (He, 2003). In speaking a language, the context and intention are of essential importance because the speaker intends to communicate with his hearer by letting the hearer recognize the speaker's communicative purposes with certain contexts (He, 2003). Conversational implicature is vitally important because it clarifies between what is said and what is implicated (Grice, 1975). Misunderstandings of utterances sometimes occur easily among people from different cultures because they interpret them differently according to their own culture.

3) Routines

Routines are an essential component in the verbal handling of daily conversation. From a sociolinguistic point of view, it is necessary to learn routines at all learning stages because the societal knowledge that members of a certain community share is embodied with it (House, 1996). Routines constitute a significant part of interlanguage pragmatics and language learners need to acquire a large size of repertoire of routines for the purpose of coping with recurrent and expanding social situations and discourse requirements efficiently (Coulmas, 1981). Non-use or inappropriate use of

routines is common for the language learners (Kasper, 1995), and it would cause not only

misunderstandings but embarrassment in the real communications with native speakers.

The studies of interlanguage pragmatics have aroused the interest of

researchers since Kasper (1981) proposes the concept of interlanguage pragmatics.

Some researchers (Kasper, 1981; Kasper & Blum-Kulka, 1993; Kasper &

Rose, 1999) are concerned about the theory of interlanguage pragmatics,

some explore the nature and content of interlanguage pragmatics (Bialystok

& Sharwood, 1985; Bachman, 1990; Bialystok, 1993; Bardovi-Harlig &

Hartford, 2016), some compare the strategies employed by EFL learners and

native speakers in conducting speech acts (Blum-kulka, 1992; Wannaruk,

2004), some study the pragmatic transfer in conducting speech acts

(Olshtain, 1983; Takahashi, 1996; Fouser, 1997; Cohen, 1997; Wannaruk,

2008), others investigate the teachability of interlanguage pragmatics

(Billmyer, 1990a, 1990b; Morrow, 1995; Liddicoat &Crozet, 2001; Alcón-

Soler, 2015; Bardovi-Harlig, Mossman, & Vellenga, 2015). However,

studies of EFL learners' ILP competence (Rover, 2001, 2004, 2006, 2007,

2008, 2010a, 2010b, 2014; Liu, 2004, 2006a, 2006b, 2007, 2012) are still at

their beginning stage. In China, research on the ILP competence is also very

limited and no comprehensive research can be found (Li & Zou, 2015). No

research has been found to explore the EFL learners' ILP competence in

such a broad domain (including ten frequently used speech acts, implicature

and routines) both in China and abroad. Therefore, exploring the ILP competence for EFL learners is necessary and urgent.

1.4 Research Objectives and Research Questions

The main purpose of the present study aimed to investigate the EFL learners' ILP competence in Guizhou province, China. In detail, the research objectives of the present reseach are as follows:

1. To investigate the English majors' ILP competence level in the aspects of conducting speech acts, understanding implicature and performing routines.

2. To investigate whether the English majors' ILP competence varies significantly according to nationality.

3. To investigate whether the English majors' ILP competence varies significantly according to gender.

4. To investigate whether the English majors' ILP competence varies significantly according to level of language proficiency.

Based on the research objectives, the following research questions were formulated.

1. What are the ILP competence levels of English majors in the aspects of conducting speech acts, understanding implicature and performing routines?

2. Do the English majors' ILP competence levels vary significantly according to nationality? If they do, what are the patterns of variation?

3. Do the English majors' ILP competence levels vary significantly according to gender? If they do, what are the patterns of variation?

4. Do the English majors' ILP competence levels vary significantly according to level of language proficiency? If they do, what are the patterns of variation?

1.5 Significance of the Study

Either pragmalinguistic failure or sociopragmatic failure can be caused by the low ILP competence. Thomas (1983) holds the point that pragmalinguistic failure is resulted from the lack of language knowledge, while sociopragmatic failure is due to hostility and rudeness. In China, vocabulary, grammar and syntax were the focus of the national English examinations in the past (Liu, 2007), but in recent years, the Ministry of Education in China has realized the importance of ILP competence of English, which was emphasized in *College English Curriculum Requirements* (The Higher Education Department of the Ministry of Education, 2007), and it points out that one of the objectives of college English education is to help students conduct cross-cultural communication appropriately and effectively.

However, the studies on ILP competence are still in their initial stage, and China is no exception (Li & Zou, 2015). Up to now, no comprehensive research in this

area has been done. Most researchers concentrate on the reliability and validity of different kinds of testing methods with very limited domain in ILP knowledge (Hudson, 2001a, 2001b; Yamashita, 1996a, 1996b; Yoshitake, 1997; Ahn, 2005; Liu, 2007; Rover, 2010a, Duan, 2012). Thus, it is urgent to design reliable and valid measurements for a wider domain of ILP competence study. The present study aims to make some contribution in this field. It is hoped that both the teachers and learners will be benefited from the study and develop the ILP competence when learning English.

Examining the EFL learners' ILP competence will be of great help in understanding their levels. The learners could recognize their problems in pragmatics in English, and then pay attention to them in the process of learning and in communication with native speakers. In addition, most English majors in China will go to English-related jobs after graduation (Zhu, 2007; Zhang, 2012), so realizing their weaknesses and improving their ILP ability will be helpful for their future careers since appropriate use of English is not emphasized in their English learning and most EFL learners and teachers tend to ignore its importance (Liu, 2004; Ji & Jiang, 2010).

This study will also presumably bring some pedagogical enlightenment to English teachers and learners. EFL teachers are unwilling to teach pragmatics with a foreign language, and the major reason is that they do not have a valid and reliable ILP competence measurement, thus, they could not understand the EFL learners' weaknesses in the knowledge of interlanguage pragmatics (Li & Zou, 2015). It is hoped that the results will serve as a guide for English teachers in their teaching. They may

emphasize the ILP knowledge and help improve the EFL learners ILP competence in their classroom teaching. Furthermore, the present study also investigates the relationship between nationality, gender, and level of language proficiency with the ILP competence, the differences among the groups may help the teachers to emphasize different aspects for each group, and then treat the students distinctively to some extent. As a result, the teaching efficiency in interlanguage pragmatics can be improved.

In addition, the study may be helpful in designing the curriculum and syllabus. The findings of the present research may help the course designers in choosing teaching materials, designing exercises, selecting typical expressions and so on. Therefore, the study of ILP competence and the understanding of EFL learners' ILP competence level is not only important and meaningful, but also necessary and urgent.

1.6 Definitions of Terms in the Study

The following are the definitions of the key terms in the present research: interlanguage, interlanguage pragmatics, English majors, nationality, level of language proficiency, speech acts, implicature and routines.

1) Interlanguage: Interlanguage refers to the English language that Chinese EFL learners acquire in the process of college education, especially the third year English major students in the Guizhou Province, China. It is the interlanguage between Chinese and English for the Han people, and among minority language, Chinese and English for the ethnic minorities.

2) Interlanguage Pragmatics: Interlanguage pragmatics concerns Chinese EFL learners' performance in pragmatics when learning English. It includes three aspects in pragmatics: speech acts, implicature and routines.

3) Speech acts: The speech acts included in the present research refer to the most frequently used ten speech acts (advice, gratitude, greeting, congratulation, apology, request, compliment, inquiry, refusal and compliment response) in the daily life of the English major college students in China.

4) Implicature: Implicature refers to conversational implicature in Grice's (1975) terms, which is the violation of a Gricean maxim and the hearer needs to infer meaning beyond the literal meaning of the utterance by using background knowledge and the context (Rover, 2008). It includes both idiosyncratic implicature and formulaic implicature.

5) Routines: Routines refer to the customized use of the English language by native speakers in conversations. Both situational routines, as the utterances in making calls, giving responses to congratulations, serving a customer in a shop, and functional routines, such as the utterances in request, inquiry, greeting, suggestion, and other speech acts, are included.

6) English majors: English majors are the students who have learnt English for about six years in middle schools of China and have entered a Chinese university to study the English major program for the third year. Hence, the population for the present study is the English majors in the universities of the Guizhou Province who are pursuing bachelor degrees.

7) Nationality: Nationality is a variable which is assumed to have an influence on ILP competence. Nationality refers to the Han and ethnic minorities in China, especially in the Guizhou Province. The participants were divided into two groups based on their nationality: Han and ethnic minorities. The Han people are the majority group who represent 92.51% of the population in China (Report of the 6th census of population, 2011). All the minority students were grouped into one although they came from different ethnic backgrounds, such as Miao, Buyi, Tujia, Shui, Dong, Gelao and so on. Furthermore, the minority students only included those who grew up in the minority districts and whose mother tongues were their minority languages, but not those who grew up in the cities with the Han people and whose first language was Mandarin.

8) Level of language proficiency: Level of language proficiency refers to the achievement of the English majors in the TEM 4. The students' level of language proficiency were defined as high, medium and low based on the students' test scores in TEM 4 in 2014. The students were grouped by their scores, the top one-third were grouped into the high level group, the middle one-third formed the medium level group, and the bottom one-third made up the low level group.

1.7 Outline of the Thesis

The present research includes eight chapters. Chapter one provides the background of the present research. Chapter two deals with literature review. Chapter

three mainly represents the research methodology for the present study. Chapter four reports and discusses the EFL learners' ILP competence in the present study with a comparison of the previous studies. Chapter five to chapter seven report and discuss the EFL learners' variations in ILP competence according to nationality, gender and level of language proficiency one by one. Chapter eight is the conclusion of the whole study, which includes the summary of the findings of the present study, the pedagogical implication from the study, the limitation of the present study and suggestions for future research.

1.8 Summary of the Chapter

Misunderstanding is a vital problem in interlanguage communications. Interlanguage pragmatics, as a subset of interlanguage studies, needs to receive greater attention. Through a broad review of the literature, no research has concerned itself with the ILP competence with such a wide domain of ILP knowledge. The present research aimed to investigate the ILP competence of the Chinese learners and tried to discover the patterns of variations with three variables: nationality, gender and level of language proficiency. This chapter has given an overall description of the present study.

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF RELATED LITERATURE

This chapter aims to review the related literature on interlanguage pragmatics research and locate the present study in the context of the previous studies. To review the related research works on ILP competence, some basic theories and definitions will be introduced. First, the concept of communicative competence is introduced. Then, theories of pragmatics are discussed. After that, pragmatic competence and interlanguge pragmatics are explained. The subsequent sections cover the domain of the ILP competence test of the present study, the main testing methods of pragmatic competence, and previous studies on reliability and validity of ILP competence testing. Finally, studies of EFL learners' ILP competence are reviewed.

2.1 Communicative Competence

Pragmatic competence is normally analyzed under the framework of communicative competence. Thus, it is untenable to discuss pragmatic competence without describing communicative competence. The following are the definitions and explanations of communicative competence.

Chomsky (1965) put forward the concept 'competence' in his linguistic theory. According to his hypothesis, competence refers to a speaker's knowledge of

his/her native language rules, or his/her linguistic competence. It is the system of phonological, lexical and syntactic rules, and a formal grammar, acquired or internalized, by native speakers during the process of language acquisition. It underlies the native speakers' ability to understand or produce the sentences of a given language, and identify deviant and ambiguous sentences.

Hymes (1972) proposes the notion of 'communicative competence' to respond to the theories of Chomsky. He puts forward the concept of socialinguistic competence as a supplement of linguistic competence. Socialinguistic competence is another rule system of native speakers. Native speakers know what is socially appropriate or inappropriate and can adjust their language use to such factors as the topic, situation, social distance intuitively. Hyme (1972) asserts that linguistic competence and sociolinguistic competence are both needed to explain language acquisition and language use. This view encompasses both knowledge and the ability to put that knowledge into use in communication, and so far has exerted great influences on language teaching and assessment.

Canale & Swain (1980) and Canale (1983) build up a communicative competence model in which not only linguistic competence/grammatical competence and sociolinguistic competence, but also discourse competence (the ability to combine utterances and communicative functions) and strategic competence (the ability to compensate for deficits or problems in communication and do different types of planning) are included. This model is regarded as a clarification and improvement of that of Hymes

(1972). Although Canale's model does not put forward the concept 'pragmatic competence', appropriateness of meaning and appropriateness of form are involved.

Bachman (1989) presents a more refined framework, which he calls communicative language ability. In this framework, communicative language ability is divided into three components: language competence, strategic competence and psychophysical skills. He holds that language competence is further composed of two parts: organizational competence and pragmatic competence. Bachman's model of language competence part is illustrated below:

Language Competence
- Organization Competence
  - Grammatical Competence
  - Textual Competence
- Pragmatic Competence
  - Sociolinguistic Competence
  - Illocutionary Competence
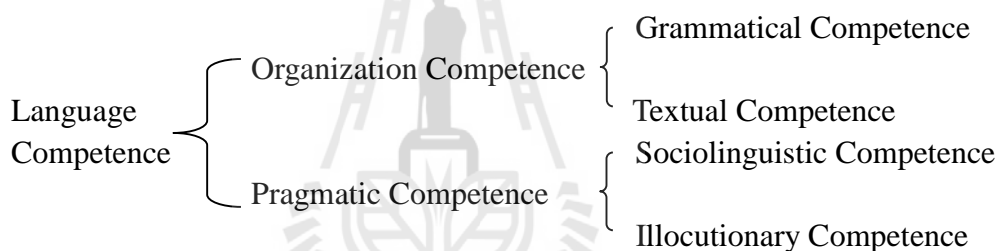
Adapted from Bachman (1989, p.253)

Figure 2.1 Bachman's (1989) Model of Language Competence

In Bachman's model, pragmatic competence is composed of sociolinguistic competence and illocutionary competence. Sociolinguistic competence refers to sensitivity to both language and context. Knowledge of the contextual appropriateness and the linguistic forms of realizing illocutions are also in his concern. Illocutionary competence concerns about knowledge of pragmatic conventions, including speech acts and speech functions. Bachman's (1989) model of language competence is regarded as the most acceptable one up to now.

2.2 Theories of Pragmatics

Pragmatics, as a subfield of linguistics, developed in the late 1970s. Yule (1996) argues that pragmatics is the study of meaning communicated by a speaker (or writer) and interpreted by a listener (or reader). According to Levinson (2001), pragmatics is the study of the relations between language and context, grammaticalized, or encoded in the structure of a certain language. Pragmatics is the systematic study of meaning dependent on, or by virtue of, the language use (Huang, 2007).

Generally speaking, pragmatics concerns how language users comprehend and produce a communicative act (speech act) in a conversation. It differentiates two meanings or intents in utterances or verbal communicative act of communication. One is regarded as the informative intent or the sentence meaning, and the other is understood as the communicative intent or speaker meaning (Leech, 1983; Sperber & Wilson, 1986). The studies on pragmatics are rapidly growing in contemporary linguistics. Pragmatics has become not only a center of linguistics but also the philosophy of language (Huang, 2007). Many universally accepted principles in pragmatics are guiding people's verbal communication and leading to the appropriateness in utterances and comprehension in languages.

2.2.1 Politeness and Face

Politeness is one of the major social constraints on interaction among people. It regulates human's communicative behaviors by constantly reminding them of the feelings of others (He, 2003). It is important to take into consideration the feelings of

others for achieving levels of mutual comfort and promote rapport in social relation. Politeness could bring acceleration and facilitation in human communication. The term *face* in the sense of a person's social reputation was introduced into English in 1876 (Seiwald, 2011). According to Goffman (1967), *face* is the positive feeling a person claims for himself/herself when others assume he/she has taken after a particular contact. *Face* is an image of self, built up through approved social attributes, which others may share when a person show himself/herself with his profession or religion.

Building on Goffman's theory of identity and facework, Brown and Levinson (1978) further developed politeness theory and the concept *face*. The pragmatists' major concern is why people do not tend to use simple and direct language, but rather complex and sometimes indirect phrases instead in a conversation, especially if a hearer has to be encouraged to conduct a particular act. The following sections are the detailed descriptions of politeness and face.

2.2.1.1 Politeness principle

He (2003) argues that the Politeness Principle (PP) may be formulated with the concern of two aspects: to minimize the expressions of impolite beliefs and to maximize the expressions of polite beliefs. The two terms, *self* and *other*, are used in the maxims for the PP. Politeness concerns the relationship between two sides of a conversation. In a conversation, *self* is typically identified as the speaker and *other* is normally identified as the hearer, but *other* may also refer to a third party, present or absent. Leech (1983, p.132) formulates the PP and its maxims as follows:

1. Tact Maxim (in impositives and commissives)

    a. Minimize cost to *other;*

    b. Maximize benefit to *other.*

2. Generosity Maxim (in imposives and commissives)

    a. Minimize benefit to *self*;

    b. Maximize cost to *self*.

3. Approbation Maxim (in expressives and assertives)

    a. Minimize dispraise of *other*;

    b. Maximize praise of *other*.

4. Modesty Maxim (in expressives and assertives)

    a. Minimize praise of *self*;

    b. Maximize dispraise of *self*.

5. Agreement Maxim (in assertives)

    a. Minimize disagreement between *self* and *other*;

    b. Maximize agreement between *self* and *other*.

6. Sympathy Maxim (in assertives)

    a. Minimize antipathy between *self* and *other*;

    b. Maximize sympathy between *self* and *other*.

The PP principle explains why some utterances are more polite and others are less, or even violate the maxims in the PP. The following are some examples for each maxim, arranged from the most polite to the least, and the ones with " * " show the utterances which violate the maxims. However, the most polite utterance does not necessarily mean the most appropriate. Neither impolite utterances nor too polite utterances are acceptable (He, 2000).

1. Tact Maxim

(1) Would it be possible for you to lend me your car?

(2) Could you lend me your car?

(3) Will you lend me your car?

(4) Lend me your car?

(5) * You must lend me your car.

2. Generosity Maxim

(1) * Would you mind having another sandwich?

(2) * Would it be possible for you to have another sandwich?

(3) Would you like to have another sandwich?

(4) Please have another sandwich.

(5) Have another sandwich.

(6) * You must have another sandwich.

3. Approbation Maxim

(1) You are the best cook in the world.

(2) What a marvelous cook you are!

(3) You are really a good cook.

(4) You certainly know something about cooking.

(5) * Well, there must be someone thinks you are a good cook.

4. Modesty Maxim

(1) A: What a bright boy you are! You always get full marks.

   B1: Thank you. I have very good teachers.

   B2: Thank you. The exam questions are not that hard.

   B3: Thank you. I am not the only one in the class that gets full marks.

   B4: * Yes, I am, aren't I?

5. Agreement Maxim

(1) A: That dress she is wearing is beautiful, don't you think so?

   B1: Yes, absolutely.

B2: Yes, I couldn't agree with you more.

B3: Yes, I think so too.

B4: Well, I like the color.

B5: * I don't think it's beautiful at all.

6. Sympathy Maxim

(1) A: I lost my kitten last week and I still can't get over it.

    B1: It's most unfortunate that you lost your pet.

    B2: I know what it is like. You have all my sympathy.

    B3: I am sorry to hear that.

    B4: Never mind. You can find another one.

    B5: * So we won't be annoyed by that nasty little animal any more (Adapted

    from He, 2000).

PP helps to explain how people interpret each other's utterances. The obedience to the PP helps speakers tend to give options, avoid intrusion, and make their hearer feel good (Leech, 1983). The violation of the PP signals urgency, intimacy, aggression or unfriendliness (Wolfson, 1988). Although the PP is universal, its realization is different from culture to culture (Brown & Levinson, 1987).

2.2.1.2 Face Theory

Face is the public self-image which people wish to maintain. *Face* is first introduced by Goffman (1959) who states that *face* is sacred for every person, it is an essential factor that communicators have to take into consideration, and face wants are reciprocal.

Politeness strategies are developed for the purpose of saving the hearer's *face*. Two opposite feelings are involved with *face* and both are treated as perpetual

wants (Brown & Levinson, 1987). The first is the *negative face,* which is the desire of the individual not to be imposed upon, while the other is *positive face,* which is the desire of the individual to be approved of or to liked (Brown & Levinson, 1978). Face threatening acts (FTAs) are acts imposed on the hearer's need to maintain his/her self-esteem, and his need to be respected. According to Brown & Levinson (1978), the degree of threat infringed by FTAs is calculated by speakers of a culture with three independent variables: the social distance between the speaker and the hearer (D), the relative power (P), and the absolute ranking (R) of impositions in that culture (Brown & Levinson, 1978). Like the PP, face theory is also universal, but its realization is various with different cultures. Brown and Levinson (1978) believe that the *Face* theory has offered a framework for analyzing cross-cultural differences in politeness, based on the differing weights on the P and D, and the kinds of impositions acknowledged in R, in individual societies.

2.2.2 Cooperative Principle

Grice (1975) proposes a set of maxims and sub-maxims guiding and constraining people's conversations. That is the widely-known 'Cooperative Principle' (CP). According to Grice (1975), CP is making the conversational contribution as expected at the stage that it occurs by the required direction in talk exchange. Four maxims were further divided by Grice (1975) in CP. The details of each maxim are as follows (Cole & Morgan, 1975):

Quantity Maxim:

1. Make your contribution as informative as is required (for the current

 purposes of the exchange).

2. Do not make your contribution more informative than is required.

Quality Maxim:

Try to make your contribution one that is true:

1. Do not say what you believe to be false.

2. Do not say that for which you lack adequate evidence.

Relation Maxim:

Be relevant.

Manner Maxim:

Be perspicuous:

1. Avoid obscurity of expression.

2. Avoid ambiguity.

3. Be brief (avoid unnecessary prolixity).

4. Be orderly.

The violation of the quantity maxim is the most frequently happening for

language speakers. An example provided by Grice can show such variation. In this

example, a student is applying for a job, which requires the candidates to hold a degree

in philosophy. He asks his university professor to write a letter for him to prove this.

The professor writes:

Dear Sir,

X's command of English is excellent and his attendance at tutorials has been

regular, yours, etc. (Grice, 1989).

Unfortunately, his professor does not mention about philosophy which is expected by the receiver. In this case, the quantity maxim is violated and the interviewer may interpret the implicature that the student is not good at philosophy.

The following examples present the violation of quality maxim:

1. He is made of iron.

2. Every nice girl loves a sailor.

The two expressions are false statements with the literal meaning. In example 1, everyone knows no human being is made of iron, so this example cannot be understood literally. Instead it should be interpreted as a metaphor which means that this person is with a character as iron. In the case of example 2, the implicature is all girls love sailors, which is too generalized.

As for the maxim of relation, Grice thinks that examples to violate this example are rare, but the following can be a good one. A says "*Mrs. X is an old bag*" tt a genteel tea party, a moment of appalled silence later, and B says "*The weather has been quite delightful this summer, hasn't it?*"". Apparently, B failed to make his/her words relevant to A's topic. The implicature is that B thinks A's talk should be stopped. More specifically, A has broken a social taboo (Grice, 1989: 54).

The violation of manner maxim does not frequently happen. In such situations, people refuse to speak in a concise and normal way, but speak with indirectness. The following examples can show that.

1. A: Let's get the kids something.

    B: Okay, but I veto I-C-E-C-R-E-A-M.

2. Miss X produced a series of sounds that corresponded closely with the scores of "Home, Sweet Home" (He, 2000).

In the first example, B refuses to say "ice-cream" directly, but pronounces the letters one by one, the purpose is to avoid the children to understand it and ask for it. However, A can understand it without any problem.

In the second example, the speaker refuses to use a simple word "*sing*" directly, but says "*produced a series of sounds that corresponded closely with the scores of*" to show the same meaning. It is a violation of manner maxim for the speaker wants to express that Miss X did not sing well indirectly.

In essence, the CP is a kind of tacit agreement that leads people to work together to create a coherent and effective communication. The participants in the conversation should conduct sincere, relevant and clear speech while providing sufficient information to obey this tacit principle. It is not followed compulsorily but reasonably (Grice, 1975). Grice (1975) also assumes that the CP is usually observed and that any violations of the maxims in CP will result in conversational implicature, i.e. messages intended to deliver by the speaker should be inferred by the hearer on the hypothesis that the speaker would cooperate in a specific manner. When CP is applied to speaking, speakers decide which maxims to emphasize and which to ignore. Grice (1975) proposes four possibilities that CP can be violated, they are:

1. The speaker may violate the CP deliberately but without making the hearer realize it.

2. The speaker may avoid cooperation in an explicit way by telling the hearer that he is unwilling to cooperate.

3.   The speaker may face a dilemma.

4.   The speaker may deliberately violate one of the maxims or fail to fulfill it.

CP is an important principle for comprehending and producing utterances, especially when the conversational implicature lied in the literal meaning of utterances. The maxims in CP can be observed by all participants in any speech communities in communicative events, but the ways to observe them can be different with various speech communities (Grice, 1975).

2.2.3 Relevance Theory

Relevance theory is an attempt to work out one of Grice's central claims. It holds that one essential feature of most human communication is the recognition and expression of intentions (Grice, 1989). The central claim of relevance theory is that the human cognitive system works in such a way as to attempt to maximize relevance with communication. Hence, the principles in relevance theory are responsible for the realization of both the explicit and implicit content of utterances. Sperber & Wilson (2002) point out that it is assumed that pragmatics, incorporating the relevance theoretic comprehension procedure, as a sub-module of the 'theory of mind', i.e. a variety of mind-reading.

From the linguistic philosophical, cognitive psychological point of view, relevance theory explains language communication. It is a combination of cognition and pragmatics, and puts focuses on discourse understanding. In the relevance theory, it is expected that the relevance raised by an utterance is precise and predicable enough for the hearer to be guided to the speaker's communicative intention. It aims to explain

the extent to which the expectations of relevance amount to, and how these expectations contribute to an empirically plausible account of communicative comprehension. The examples of relevance theory can be seen below:

1. A: Either Mary is early or Bob is late.

    B: Bob is never late (Sperber & Wilson, 1986:13).

2. Father: What time is it?

    Daughter: Mum said she would come to me (He, 2000).

From the short conversation in example 1, it is easy for the hearers to infer that the fact is "Mary is early". In the second example, the daughter does not tell the father the time directly, but it seems that there is a certain time related to the mother's coming. When the daughter answers "*Mum said she would come to me*", the father can understand it is not the time yet.

To sum up, all these pragmatic principles are important for the interpretation and production of utterances. A language learner should keep in mind the existence of these principles and how these principles are abided by in the target language country. Learning these pragmatic principles is an indispensable task for the language learners to achieve comparatively high pragmatic competence and make effective communication.

2.3 Pragmatic Competence

As an integral and indispensable component of overall language competence, pragmatic competence concerns about the ability to use available linguistic resources

(pragmalinguistics) in an appropriate fashion with particular context (sociopragmatics). Put briefly, pragmatic competence is how to do things with words appropriately (Kasper & Rose, 1999). He & Chen (2004) confirm that pragmatic competence emphasizes appropriateness in communication. It includes all knowledge needed in discourses and based on context.

According to Bialystok (1993), pragmatic competence includes the following: 1) the speaker's ability of how to use language for different purposes; 2) the listener's ability of how to understand the speaker's real attempts; and 3) the rules commanded by which utterances come together to create discourse.

Si (2001) holds that pragmatic competence for Chinese EFL learners including the following three aspects: pragmalinguistic competence, sociopragmatic competence and the awareness of the difference between the use of the English and the Chinese languages.

Pragmatic competence can be achieved by both sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic knowledge (Leech, 1983). The former emphasizes socially appropriate language use: sociopragmatically competent language users can use the social rules for 'what you do, when and to whom' appropriately, and they can take into consideration the social variables like relative power, social distance, and degree of imposition (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Those users are also familiar with the mutual rights, taboos, obligations, and conventional courses of action applied in a particular speech community (Thomas, 1983), while the latter focuses on the "the more linguistic

'end' of pragmatics" (Crystal, 2003). What Clark (1979) calls as conventions of means and conventions of form is the major concern of pragmalinguistic competent users, which refers to linguistic strategies for implementing speech intentions and the linguistic items needed to express these intentions.

Kasper (1992) and Thomas (1995) stress that it is not easy to conclude from instances of pragmatic failure whether to blame sociopramatic knowledge or pragmalinguistic knowledge. An instance of pragmatic failure could be caused by either a sociopragmatic misjudgment or a lack of pragmalinguistic knowledge. The development of pragmalinguistic knowledge and sociopragmatic knowledge does not necessarily go hand-in-hand: learners can be more developed in their sociopragmatic ability than their pragmalinguistic ability or vice versa (Scarcella, 1979; Hill, 1997; Rose, 2000).

2.4 Interlanguage Pragmatics

In learning a new language, learners build up a language system which is to some extend different from their first language (L1), second language (L2), or third language (L3) systems. This new system built up in the process of language learning is what 'interlanguage' about (Selinker, 1972). Interlanguage put an emphasis on the structurally intermediate status of the learner's language system between his mother tongue and the target language. Interlanguage refers to the following:

> …a continuum between the LI and L2 along which all learners traverses. At any
>
> point along the continuum, the learners' language is systematic, i.e. rule-governed,

and common to all learners, any difference being explicable by differences in their learning experience (Larsen-Freeman & Long, 2000, p. 60).

As a point along a continuum, although a learner's interlanguage is neither identical to L1 or L2, it shares some characteristics of both. Elements of the mother tongue, including politeness rules and formulae may be transferred to the interlanguage. Interlanguage operates by approaching to an incomplete and developing hypothesis of appropriate L2. Although systematic, it is also naturally transitory.

The learner language has aroused a growing interest for linguists. A new inter-discipline, interlanguge pragmatics, is born with the heated studies on the pragmatic perspective on the learner language. Arising in the 1980s, interlanguage pragmatics is considered as a second-generation hybrid of two different disciplines, second language acquisition (SLA) and pragmatics, and both of them are interdisciplinary.

Ma (2010) argues that interlanguage pragmatics is one of the several specializations in interlanguage studies, contrasting with interlanguage phonology, interlanguage morphology, interlanguage syntax, and interlanguage semantics. Interlanguage phonology cares about the factors which are relevant to language learning in general as well as to the development of phonological skills in L2 (Major, 1994). Interlanguage morphology concerns about the knowledge of how accurately a morpheme is used and how early it is learned (Dulay & Burt, 1974). Interlanguage syntax is the study concerning about the understanding of the processes involved in acquiring the syntax structures of L2, in which the generalizations and approximations

of target language (TL), language transfer, and language universals need to be paid attention to (Gass,1984). Interlanguage semantics covers the studies in the five aspects: 1) understanding "information packaging" and how it works in interlanguage; 2) understanding "conversational implicature"; 3) understanding the ability to perform referential tasks; 4) understanding how "semantic networks" are created and persisted in interlanguage; 5) paraphrasing relations in interlanguage (Selinker, 2016). As a subset of pragmatics, interlanguage pragmatics is regarded as a sociolinguistic, psycholinguistic, or simply linguistic enterprise, depending on how people define the scope of pragmatics.

Interlanguge pragmatics investigates L2 learners' developing knowledge and ability in the use of pragmatic rules and conventions as well as practices of the target language (Kasper, 1998). Interlanguage pragmatics denotes the systematic but transient nature of language learners' pragmatic knowledge of the target language. It implies the factors that have been identified to have influence on SLA research may affect interlanguage systems: transfer, simplification, overgeneralization, amount and quality of input, attention, awareness, motivation, aptitude, and so on (Selinker, 1972; Kasper, 1995; Kasper & Schmidt, 1996).

2.4.1 Definition of Interlanguage Pragmatics

Interlanguage pragmatics is "the study of nonnative speakers' comprehension, production and acquisition of linguistic action in L2, or, put briefly, interlanguage

pragmatics investigates 'how to do things with words' in a second language" (Kasper, 1998, p.184).

The definition of interlanguage pragmatics indicates that the main concern of it has been on 'linguistic action' in L2. Interlanguge pragmatics is normally concerned with nonnative speakers and emphasizes the L2 learners' acquisition of the target language. In addition, it cares about language learners' comprehending, producing and conductiing of speech acts and other linguistic actions.

2.4.2 Domains of Interlanguage Pragmatics

Generally speaking, the studies on interlanguge pragmatic are composed of the following four domains: pragmatic comprehension, development of pragmatic competence, pragmatic transfer and communicative effect (Kasper & Blum-Kulka, 1993).

2.4.2.1 Pragmatic Comprehension

Studies in pragmatic comprehension can be found in language learners' attribution of illocutionary force and their perception of politeness (Kasper & Blum-Kulka, 1993). The former is the central concern of SLA in the end of 70s and 80s. The center of the research on the attribution of illocutionary force has been on the comprehension of indirect speech acts, the role of linguistic form, context information, factors contributing to pragmatic comprehension, and learner variables affecting illocutionary force attribution. Correl (1979) points out that good L2 learners can make full use of their inferential ability in comprehending indirect speech acts. The findings

expose that linguistic forms, learner variables, context, and cultural background are the factors which have influence on language learners' pragmatic comprehension (Kasper & Blum-Kulka, 1993). The latter focuses on the learners' comprehension of pragmalinguistic information and sociolinguistic information, especially the level of politeness in conducting different speech acts. Kasper & Blum-Kulka (1993) mention that advanced language learners can distinguish the level of politeness based on the rules of the target language, but the difference between them and native speakers does exist.

2.4.2.2 Development of Pragmatic Competence

The relationship between language proficiency and pragmatic competence is a major concern to the development of pragmatic competence. In previous studies, some studies did not find the proficiency effects learners' pragmatic competence (Hoffman-Hicks, 1992; Liu, 2004, 2012; Takahashi, 2005), whereas others did (Yamanaka, 2003; Garcia, 2004; Xu, Case & Wang, 2009; Soo, 2013; Naoko, 2013). However, developmental effects are observable in language learners' repertoires of modality markers and pragmatic routines (Scarcella, 1979; Trosborg, 1987).

2.4.2.3 Pragmatic Transfer

Pragmatic transfer refers to the process by which language learners choose certain forms and strategies from their mother tongue in their interlanguage. Two types of pragmatic transfer can be found, pragmalinguistic transfer and sociopragmatic transfer. Pragmalinguistic transfer refers to the influence of the

illocutionary force or politeness value embedded in a particular linguistic material of native language on the learners' production and perception of forms in the target language (Kasper, 1992). Sociopragmatic transfer focuses on how the learners' perceptions of contextual variables and social relationships in native language decide whether to perform a particular illocution or not. Although the distinction is clear by the definitions, the two concepts are interrelated and normally difficult to identify in practice (Kasper, 1992).

Learners' native language and their cultural background can influence performance in the target language either positively or negatively. Positive influence may occur when specific conventions in language use are non-universally accepted but shared between the native language and the target language (Kasper, 1992); Negative influence may occur when the pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic knowledge based on the native language is projected onto the contexts of the target language and different from the pragmatic behaviors and perceptions of the target language (Kasper, 1992). Ellis (1999) mentions that errors, facilitation, avoidance and overuse are the manifestations of language transfer. Thus, positive transfer has received little attention while negative transfer has been frequently noticed and studied.

2.4.2.4 Communicative Effect

Communicative failure can be caused by the deviations from target language norms.. Learners with higher levels of L2 proficiency may achieve a success in communication, but they still have possibilities of pragmatic failure (Kasper & Blum-Kulka, 1993). "Pragmatic failure is neither easily recognizable by interlocutors without

training in pragmatics, nor explained away by recognizing the speaker as nonnative"
(Kasper & Blum-Kulka, 1993, p.13).

Blum-Kulka & Olshtain (1986) point out that pragmatic failure is
closely related to cultural variability while implementing conversations. Pragmatic
failure reveals the inability to use language appropriately and to understand correctly
what is meant by what is said (Thomas, 1983). Thomas (1983) indicates that the
possibility of pragmatic failure could be on any occasion if the forces of the speaker's
utterances are perceived by the hearer in a way different from the speaker's intention
(Thomas, 1983). Research from the acquisitional perspective has revealed that internal
factors, including pragmatic overgeneralization, interlingual influence and teaching-
induced errors, external factors including learning context, learner-specific input and
the like, may cause pragmatic failure (Ma, 2010).

Thomas (1983) distinguishes two kinds of 'pragmatic failure':
pragmalinguistic failure and sociopragmatic failure, based on the distinction between
pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics (Leech, 1983). Pragmalinguistic failure refers
to the deviation from the target norm for a specified speech act, and sociopragmatic
failure is the failure in performing the required speech act in a certain context (Thomas,
1983). According to Thomas (1983), pragmalinguisitc failure is basically a linguistic
problem, resulting from the differences in the linguistic interpretation of pragmatic
force, while sociopragmatic failure stems from the cross-cultural differences in
perceptions related to appropriate linguistic behavior.

There is no clear-cut in the distinction between pragmalinguistic failure and sociopragmatic failure. The same pragmatic failure may include both a pragmalinguistic failure and a sociopragmatic failure from different perspectives. Thomas (1983) demonstrates that even advanced language learners' cannot avoid pragmatic errors in communicative acts; they may not succeed in conveying the expected politeness values or illocutionary force.

Indeed, research on interlanguage pragmatics aims to understand and explain what stands in the middle of learners' ability to comprehend and produce pragmatic meaning. Studies have focused on such features as the following (Kasper & Blum-Kulka, 1993, p.4-9):

1. Attribution of illocutionary force

2. Perception of politeness and of indirectness

3. The role of linguistic form versus contextual information

4. The impact of the L1 background and of stereotypes of L2 language behavior

5. The processing of conventional and conversational implicature

6. The perception of such sociopragmatic features as social status and weight of imposition

In general, ILP research has made some achievements in the past 30 years. The previous research has investigated the following topics: 1) the development of ILP competence (Ellis, 1992; Sawyer, 1992; Weizman, 1993; House, 2013), 2) pragmatic transfer (Kasper, 1992; Takahashi, 1992); 3) the teachability of L2 pragmatics (Kitao, 1990; Kasper 1997; Judd, 1999; Kasper & Rose 2001; Koike & Pearson 2005; Takimoto 2008), 4) the relationship between the individual variables and

ILP competence, such as age (Bialystok, 1993; Kasper, 1996), gender (Kereks, 1992), characteristics (Kasper, 1996), motivation and attitudes (Thompson,1991; Ehrman & Oxford, 1995; Tremblay & Gardner, 1995), language proficiency (Matsumura, 2003), 5) web-based learning and teaching of pragmatics (Belz & Vyatkina, 2005; Belz, 2007), and 6) ILP research methods (Kasper & Dahl, 1991; Rose, 1994b; Hudson et al., 1995; Kasper, 1995, Rover, 2005; Duan, 2012).

2.5. Domains of ILP Competence in the Present Study

The present study focuses on the three fields of ILP knowledge, speech acts, implicature and routines. The following sections are the detailed description of those three fields.

2.5.1 Speech Acts

The speech act theory were first formed in the late 1930s and presented in the lectures of Austin in 1952 (Cited in Huang, 2007). In 1960s, this theory was refined, systematized and devdeloped by Searle (1975) who claims that saying is (part of) doing, or words are (part of) deeds. Austin (1962) states that each utterance performs specific acts via the particular communicative force, in addition to mean whatever it means. Furthermore, he introduces a threefold distinction among the acts that one simultaneously performs when making utterances: 1) locutionary act, the uttering of a meaningful linguistic expression; 2) illocutionary act, the action intended to be performed by a speaker in producing a linguistic expression, by virtue of the

conventional force related to it, either explicitly or implicitly, and 3) perlocutionary act, the bringing about of effects or consequences on the hearers through the uttering of a linguistic expression, and such effects or consequences are special to the circumstances of the utterances (Austin, 1962).

According to Austin (1962), when asking what a person is doing while he/she makes an utterance, three types of answers can be obtained. One is to describe the noises he/she makes, the grammatical construction of these noises, and their meaning. This is the locutionary aspect of the utterance which includes the uttering of certain noises, the uttering of certain words in a certain construction and the uttering with a certain "meaning". The second understanding to the question is "He/she was complaining about something" or "He/she was conducting a refusal". This is the illocutionary aspect of the utterance. Roughly, the illocutionary act is the act performed while uttering certain words in context. Or, the illocutionary act can be considered to be with the force which the sentence was associated. The third answer to the question could be "He/she was threatening someone", or "He/she was warning someone of something". This is the perlocutionary aspect of an utterance, which refers to the consequential effects of an utterance upon the thoughts, feelings, or actions of the speakers or of the hearers, or of the third party.

Searle (1975) classifies all the speech acts into five types. His typology of speech acts is considered as the most influential one (Huang, 2007). The five types of speech acts are as follows:

1) Representatives or assertives, they are the kinds of speech acts that commit the speaker to the truth of the expressed proposition, and thus carry a truth-value. They express speaker's belief. Speech acts in this type includes asserting, claiming, concluding, reporting and stating.

2) Directives, they are those kinds of speech acts that are present attempts by the speakers to get the addressee to do something. They express the speaker's desire/wish for the addressee to do something. Speech acts in this group include advice, commands, orders, questions, and requests.

3) Commissives, they are those kinds of speech acts that commit the speakers to some future course of action. They express the speaker's intention to do something. The speech acts in this type include offers, pledges, promises, refusals, and threats.

4) Expressives, they are those kinds of speech acts that express a psychological attitude or state in the speaker such as joy, sorrow, and likes/dislikes. Speech acts in this type include apologizing, blaming, congratulating, praising, and thanking.

5) Declaration (or declaratives), they are those kinds of speech acts that effect immediate changes in some current state of affairs. Because they tend to rely on elaborate extralinguistic institutions for their successful performance, they may be called institutionalized performatives. Speech acts in this type include bidding in bridge, declaring war, excommunicating, firing from employment and nominating a candidate (Searle, 1975).

Pragmatics researchers are concerned about how speakers express their intentions and how listeners identify those intentions. Interlanguage pragmatics researchers' interest lies in whether language learners can interpret an utterance or conduct a speech act appropriately in a particular context.

2.5.2 Implicature

In communications, it is a frequently happened phenomenon that what a speaker says is not what he means, and this is what implicature is all about. The speaker's intention communication is far richer than what he/she utters directly (He, 2003).

Grice (1975) distinguishes between conventional implicature and conversational implicature. In conventional implicature, the inferences are based on the conventional meanings of lexical items with no influence of the context. In contrast, the inferences of conversational implicature strongly rely on context features. In conversational implicature, conversational principles are assumed to be shared mutually.

Bouton (1999) distinguishes between idiosyncratic implicature and formulaic implicature in conversational implicature, and both of them are in the concern of EFL researchers. In idiosyncratic implicature, a Gricean maxim is violated and the hearer is forced to infer meaning beyond the literal meaning of the utterance with his/her background knowledge. In formulaic implicature, a routinized schema is followed. An indirect criticism is normally conducted with a focus on a minor, irrelevant aspect. "Pope Question" also belongs to idiosyncratic implicature. Although formulaic implicature follows the same basic principles with idiosyncratic implicature it is more patterned, which makes it possible for hearers who know the pattern to decode the implicature but almost impossible for those who do not.

Interlanguage pragmatics research puts focus on illocutionary meanings, or language functions (Ellis, 1994). People with different backgrounds and cultures may

interpret an utterance variously, and researchers in this field are absorbed in the variations of understanding the implicature with different languages as in conversational implicature instead of the similarities of it as in conventional implicature.

2.5.3 Routines

Routines are more or less with a fixed meaning in a situation and a communicative function (Coulmas, 1979; Wray, 1999, 2000). Routines can be either tightly or loosely bound to situations. Rover (2005) distinguishes between situational routines and functional routines. Situational routines are limited in their appropriate occurrence to fulfill situational conditions i.e., many of the context factors are fixed, and the occurrence of the routine is limited to a small number of situations that satisfies the context requirements (Rover, 2004). In contrast, the occurrence of functional routines is with a wide variety of different situations and allows variation in context conditions. One central function of functional routines is to serve as part of speech acts, in which users are allowed to manage discourse and conversations.

Interlanguage pragmatics researchers have most often concentrated on functional routines and their usage in conversations (Wildner-Bassert, 1984, 1994; Aijmer, 1996), but in recent years, situational routines have also been in the concern of the interlanguage pragmatics research (Rover, 2006; Taguchi, 2013). Research indicates that inappropriate use or non-use of routines by EFL learners is common (Kasper, 1995), even for advanced language learners (House, 1996).

2.6 Testing Methods of Pragmatic Competence

Testing is a procedure designed to elicit certain behavior from individuals and from such behavior, one can make inferences about particular characteristics of individuals (Correl, 1968). It follows that a test is a measuring instrument developed to elicit a specific sample of individuals' behavior (Bachman, 1990). Being one type of measurements, a test should necessarily quantify particular characteristics of individuals according to explicit procedures.

A pragmatic competence test is a procedure or task that leads the learners to process sequences of elements in a certain language with the consideration of the normal contextual constrains of that language. It requires the learners to combine sequences of linguistic elements with extralinguistic context via pragmatic mappings (Oller, 1979).

Two constraints are set for pragmatic competence tests (Oller, 1979). First, pragmatic competence tests must be constrained in a way consistent with the real world use of the language forms temporally and sequentially. Second, pragmatic competence tests should use language in a way which resembles natural occurrences language use outside formal language testing environments. The language understood or produced in pragmatic tests must be related to a meaningful extralinguistic context familiar to the test takers. Although Oller (1979) stresses the naturalness of such a test, language test is nearly impossible to reach the real life situations. Clark's (1978) notion that testing contexts could only be approximate the real world circumstances may help us to develop high-quality tests in interlanguge pragmatics.

Data collection methods play a vitally important role in the development of an ILP competence test. With a broad review of the literature, six main methods are found to be used to in the studies of ILP competence: 1) written discourse completion task (WDCT), 2) oral discourse completion task (ODCT), 3) multiple-choice discourse completion task (MDCT), the first three are different forms of DCT (discourse completion task), 4) role play discourse task (RPDT), 5) self-assessment (SA) and 6) role play self-assessment (RPSA) (Hudson, et. al., 1992, 1995).

2.6.1 Discourse Completion Task

The most often used research instrument in pragmatic research is production questionnaire (Kasper, 2000), typically known as DCT. It requires test takers to read a situational prompt or an opening utterance by an imaginary interlocutor, and then to respond to an elicitation question, such as "what would you say in this situation?" Three forms are included in DCT: written discourse completion task (WDCT), oral discourse completion task (ODCT) and multiple-choice discourse completion task (MDCT).

WDCT is requires the test takers to read a written description of a situation (including factors as settings, participant roles, and degree of imposition) and asks them to write down what they would say in that situation. A number of researchers have applied this method in the studies of ILP competence in the past 30 years (Blum-Kulka, 1982, 1983; Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1986; Cohen, Olshtain & Rosenstain, 1986; House & Kasper, 1987; Olshtain & Weinbach, 1987; Takahashi & Beebe, 1987, 1993; Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper, 1989; Faerch & Kasper, 1989; House, 1989; Kasper, 1989; Rintell &

Mitchell, 1989; Wolfson, Marmor & Jones, 1989; Rose, 1992, 1994a; Bergman & Kasper, 1993; Ikoma, 1993; Rose & Ono, 1995; Johnston, Kasper & Ross, 1998; Liu, 2006a, 2006b; Fauzul, 2013; Liu & Xie, 2014; Muthusamy & Farashaiyan, 2016).

ODCT requires test takers to listen to a description of a situation and to speak out what they would say in that situation. Still many researchers have employed and discussed this method in their studies of ILP competence (Fraser et al., 1980; Cohen & Olshtain, 1981, 1993, 1994; Scarcella & Brunak, 1981; Olshtain, 1983; Edmonson et al., 1984; Kasper, 1984; Trosborg, 1987; Tanaka, 1988; Fiksdal, 1989; Rintell & Mitchell, 1989; Kasper & Dahl, 1991; Hudson et al., 1992, 1995; Eisenstein & Bodman, 1993; Jernigan, 2007; Taguchi, 2013; Shirinbakhsh, Eslami Rasekh & Tavakoli, 2015).

MDCT requires test takers to read a written description of a situation, but different from WDCT, MDCT requires the test takers to select what would be the best to say in that situation among three to four choices. MDCT has also been used frequently in measuring ILP competence in the past 20 years (Rose, 1994b; Rose & Ono, 1995; Yamashita, 1996a, 1996b; Rover, 2006; Nemati, Rezaee & Mahdi, 2014; Tabatabaei, & Farnia, 2015).

DCT provides useful information about language speakers' pragmalinguistic knowledge with the realization of the strategies and linguistic forms, and about their sociopragmatic knowledge with appropriate linguistic choices related to the contextual factors. Advantages of DCT are stressed by Beebe & Cummings (1985, p.13), they state that DCT is means of the following:

1. Gathering a large amount of data quickly.

2. Creating an initial classification of semantic formulas and strategies that will occur in natural speech.

3. Studying the stereotypical perceived requirements for a socially appropriate (though not always polite) response.

4. Gaining insight into social and psychological factors that are likely to affect speech and performance.

5. Ascertaining the canonical shape of refusal, apologies, partings, etc, in the minds of the speakers of (a given) language.

The first aspect in this list has been supported extensively by other researchers (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989; Cohen, 1996, Houck & Gass, 1996; Billmyer & Varghese, 2000), and they agree that DCT is a practical measure in testing because it is time-saving, economical, and relatively acceptable (Genesee & Upshur, 1996, Bachman & Palmer, 1996). Aspects 2, 3 and 5 in the list declare that DCT can ensure a high validity. The advantages of DCT can also support a high reliability in this type of test (Yamashita, 1996a, 1996b; Brown, 2001). The fourth aspect is shared by Tateyama (2001), who considers that DCT is a useful measure in assessing the test takers' metapragmatic knowledge, but he does not state whether the learners actually command to use a specific expression in face-to-face interactions or not.

Despite the advantages of DCT, Beebe & Cummings (1996) reveal some disadvantages attributed to DCT. They state that DCT could not elicit natural responses in real language settings. This makes test takers fail to elaborate their responses but summarize them, and thus eliminate their use of hedging and negotiation. The disadvantages of DCT are listed below:

1. Actual wording used in real interaction

2. The range of formulas and strategies used

3. The length of response or the number of turns it takes to fulfil the function

4. The depth of emotion that in turn qualitatively affects the tones, content, and form of linguistic performance

5. The number of repetitions that occur (Beebe & Cumming, 1996, p.14)

These findings are supported by Cohen & Olshtain (1994), who argue that the cognitive process in producing responses in DCT may not reflect the natural formation of utterances since DCT is a projective method to elicit speaking. The study of Rose & Ono (1995) adds to these statements. They conclude that DCT data cannot represent important features of naturally occurring speech, including wording and range of semantic formulas. These limitations of DCT certainly raise doubts about the adequacy of applying DCT to collect pragmatic data, and also make it clear that DCT may provide some type of information not some other type. DCT is able to provide information of test takers' competence in controlled situations, but say nothing about their abilities to communicate in real situations (Trosborg, 1995). It is encouraging to know this because it will help us to explore possibilities in improving the utilization and construction of DCT. In addition, the advantages in administration do not guarantee the advantages in scoring the data, since scoring requires raters to be trained with the coding systems (Brown, 2001). Rose & Ono (1995) doubt the practicality of DCT with respect to the efforts needed for constructing a questionnaire that elicits sound data.

The disadvantages make DCT problematic as a survey instrument, but the advantages are also obvious since it does elicit responses to possible speech acts (Kasper & Rover, 2005), and it is convenient to collect the data with a large sample in a short time, it is still an appropriate instrument for testing ILP knowledge.

2.6.2 Role Play

Role play (DRPT) is a game in which players assume the roles of characters in a fictional setting. Players act out these roles within a narrative, either through a process of structured decision-making or through literal acting or character development (Cover, 2010). It is possible for DRPT to simulate conversational turns and to make the interlocutor apply conversational pressures which are not present in DCT (Cohen & Olshtain, 1994). As recording equipment has been widely used in SLA research, DRPT has been conducted with more and more cross-cultural and interlanguage studies (Yamashita, 1996a, 1996b).

The advantage of DRPT as a testing method in pragmatic competence lies in that the full discourse context and sequential organization with negotiation of meaning, politeness and strategy choice can be examined (Kasper & Dahl, 1991). Naturally nonverbal elements of authentic conversations are also observable in DRPT. The disadvantage of DRPT in a real testing situation is that it is time consuming and requires rater training. Another problem of DRPT is its practicality. It is resource intensive and expensive to conduct because its requirement of one-on-one interaction with an interlocutor and human raters. This is in concern since practicality is an indispensible

aspect of validity: if an assessing method is not practical, it is less possible to be used, and decisions are more possible to be made without it (Ebel, 1964).

2.6.3 Self-assessment

Self-assessment (SA) is "the easiest, cheapest and quickest form of assessment" (Unerhill, 1987, p.22). It can be done over the telephone, by post, or as a spoken or written question. It can be conducted alone or form a small part of a larger test.

SA procedures usually require participants to rate their ability to 'do' certain things with the target language, or their 'knowledge' of particular patterns or elements of the target language. SA can be introspective and the participants are required to reflect back on his/her foreign language learning experience and rate himself/heeself with certain scales; or it can be based on particular speech samples elicited by any testing methods (Unerhill, 1987).

Disadvantages of SA are seen in its poor reliabilities when participants are either unwilling or unable to give an honest self-evaluation. The first case arises when the advantage of high or low ratings are obvious, and the second case arises when the criteria is unclear or unfamiliar or the participants lack of ability to analyze his or her own performance.

2.6.4 Role Play Self-assessment

Role play self-assessment (RPSA) combines role play tests with the self-assessment tests by requiring participants to rate their own pragmatics performance in previously performed role plays recorded verbally and visually (Hudson et al., 1992, 1995). RPSA is unlikely to be an adequate measure of pragmatic competence due to that fact that various factors may influence people's judgment of themselves. These

may be either conscious or unconscious factors, including the different degrees of perspectiveness and self-confidence that participants bring to self-judgment. Such factors are related to personalities and socialization, and are subject to variation; they are neither measurable nor predictable. Examiners must try to be as sensitive as possible to sources of bias with the test takers he/she is dealing with.

2.6.5 Comparison of the Testing Methods

The methods mentioned above have been used as instruments to test pragmatic competence. In this respect, Yamashita (1996a, 1996b) suggests to be cautious on applying appropriate tests to different types of research purposes. The advantages and disadvantages are compared in Table 2.1.

Table 2.1 Comparison of the Testing Methods

Method	Advantages	Disadvantages
WDCT	1. Eliciting more authentic language; 2. Easy to transcribe; 3. Easy to administer because of paper and pencil.	1. Difficult to score because it requires recruiting, training, scheduling, and paying raters; 2. Time consuming for scoring; 3. Written receptive and productive language only; 4. Does not encourage oral production or self-reflection.
ODCT	1. Eliciting more authentic language; 2. Recording gestures, speech markers; 3. Encouraging oral production; 4. Relatively quick to administer.	1. Equipment needed; 2. Difficult to score because it requires recruiting, training, scheduling, and paying raters; 3. Time consuming for recording, transcribing and scoring; 4. Difficult to administer because it requires two audio cassette recorders.

Table 2.1 Comparison of the Testing Methods (Cont.)

Method	Advantages	• Disadvantages
MDCT	1. Good for large sample; 2. Time-saving; 3. Easy to calculate; 4. Easy to administer because paper and pencil.	1. Not accurate enough; 2. Data might not be satire; 3. Written receptive language only; 4. Does not encourage oral production or self-reflection.
DRPT	1. Eliciting more authentic language; 2. Recording gestures, speech markers and so on; 3. Relatively quick to administer.	1. Equipment needed; 2. Difficult to score because it requires recruiting, training, scheduling, and paying raters; 3. Time consuming for recording and scoring; 4. Expensive to conduct 5. Difficult to administer because it must be administered individually using video equipment and an interlocutor.
SA	1. Convenient to collect data; 2. Time-saving for large samples; 3. Encouraging self-reflection; 4. Easy to administer because paper and pencil; 5. Easy to score.	1. Not accurate enough; 2. Not suitable for high-stake decisions.
RPSA	1. Convenient to collect data; 2. Time-saving; 3. Encouraging self-reflection; 4. Easy to score.	1. Not accurate enough; 2. Not suitable for high-stake decisions; 3. Difficult to administer because it must be administered individually using video equipment.

(Adapted from Brown, 2001, p.320)

Based on the comparisons in Table 2.1, it is difficult to conclude which testing method is more advantageous or more disadvantageous, and the selection of the research methods relies on the research purposes, the time given, and the amount of research fund in doing research. In addition, the reliability and validity of each method are also important factors to be taken into consideration.

In the present study, WDCT was used to elicit the data of conducting speech acts because a wide flexibility was allowed in conducting speech acts and the large number of the participants. MDCT was applied to understand the EFL learners' ability in understanding implicature and performing routines since for the two aspects in ILP knowledge, the correct understanding or appropriate performance was not flexible. MDCT was a good choice because it is easy to rate with a short time for a large number of participants.

2.7 Reliability and Validity of ILP Competence Testing

In designing a test, reliability and validity are the most important factors to take into consideration since they are the test-internal construct. "Validity is the most important quality to consider in the development, interpretation, and use of language tests" (Bachman, 1990, p.289) and it has been described as a unitary concept related to the appropriateness and adequacy of the way people interpret and use test scores (Bachman, 1990), while reliability is an indispensable condition for validity, in the sense that "test scores which are not reliable cannot provide a basis for valid interpretation and use" (Bachman, 1990, p.290). Reliability and validity are the test-internal construct of ILP competence (Rover, 2005). They are also the basic concern for all researchers in designing a language test, ILP competence is no exception.

2.7.1 Reliability

Reliability is defined as the consistency of the scores obtained, i.e., how consistent the scores are for each individual from the administration of one instrument to another or from one set of items to another (Subong, 2005). Reliability includes internal reliability and external reliability. Internal reliability refers to "the consistency of the results obtained from a piece of research" (Nunan, 1992, p.14). External reliability refers to "the extent to which independent researchers can reproduce a study and obtain results similar to those obtained in the original study" (Nunan, 1992, p.14).

The studies of reliabilities on ILP competence testing mainly focused on internal reliability (Hudson et al., 1992, 1995; Yamashita, 1996a, 1996b; Yoshitake, 1997; Ahn, 2005; Liu, 2007; Duan, 2012). The researchers are interested in the reliability of different testing measures and aim at finding out the most effective testing measures for different testing purposes.

2.7.2 Validity

Validity is the most important quality of test interpretation or use. It is defined as the extent to which the inferences or decisions made on the basis of test scores are appropriate, meaningful, and useful (American Psychological Association, 1985). Validity of an assessment is "the degree to which it measures what it is supposed to measure" (Garrett, 1937, p.324). The drawing of correct conclusions with the data obtained by useing an instrument is what validity is all about. There are three types of validity: construct validity, content validity and criterion validity.

Construct validity refers to the extent to which operationalizations of a construct (i.e., practical tests developed from a theory) do actually measure what the theory requires they do. It is the extent to which people can interpret given test scores as an indicator of the ability or construct(s). Bachman & Palmer (1996) further indicate that we need to predetermine the extent to which the test corresponds to tasks in the Target Language Use (TLU) domain or 'authenticity', and to predetermine the extent to which the test engages the test takers' areas of language ability, or 'interactiveness'. For a test of ILP competence, including only speech acts as the construct is not sufficient, as Rover (2006) argues, besides speech acts, an approach to include implicature and/or routines is needed.

Content validity is another important factor to keep in mind in test construction. Content validation refers to the process of investigating whether the selection of tasks observed in a test can represent the larger set of tasks when the test is assumed to be a sample (Palmer et al., 1981). A test has content validity built into it by carefully selecting items to include (Anastasi & Urbina, 1997). The selected items should comply with the test specification drawn up through a thorough examination of the subject domain. Foxcroft et al. (2004) note that content validity of a test will be enhanced by a panel of experts reviewing on the test specifications and selecting the items.

Criterion validity refers to the correlation between the new developed test and a criterion variable (or variables) taken as representative of the construct (American

Educational Research Association et al., 1999). In other words, it compares the new test

with other measures or outcomes (the criteria) already considered to be valid. The

nature of the criterion is of vital importance in gathering criterion-related evidence, so

high positive correlations do not mean high quality of a test if the criterion measure

does not make logical sense.

Messick (1988; 1989) proposes a unified view of validity in which construct

validity is the central concern (Messick, 1996). The more a test reflects the construct,

the more likely the scores achieved on it will be an accurate representation of that

construct. Besides measuring accurately, a test should also measure all aspects of the

construct. If it just measures some aspects, the test suffers from construct under-

representation, and scores based on it will be too sweeping.

2.8 Previous Studies on Reliability and Validity of ILP Competence Testing

Researchers began to show their interest in the reliability and validity in ILP

competence testing since the 1990s. They have studied both of these in different testing

methods with a certain domain of knowledge in ILP competence.

Hudson et al. (1992, 1995) designed a pragmatic competence test for the

students in an EFL context with speech acts. Five testing instruments were included:

WDCT, ODCT, DRPT, SA, and RPSA. Three speech acts, request, refusal and apology,

were tested. The test was specifically designed for Japanese learners and tried with 25

participants. Applying a five-step rating scale from 'very unsatisfactory' to 'completely appropriate', raters assessed the performance of the test takers on four dimensions: correct speech act, formulaic expressions, amount of speech and information, and formality, directness and politeness. As a result, they reported that all the five measures were with high reliabilities, ranging from .75 to .90.

Yamashita (1996a, 1996b) translated and adapted Hudson et al.'s test (1992, 1995) for learning Japanese as a second language learners. The test was administered to 47 native speakers of American English who study Japanese in Japan. His study dealt with three speech acts: request, apology and complaint. All the six testing methods were applied. He found that the reliabilities were high for all the testing methods except MDCT. He further indicated that the reliability of the test methods differed from one to another.

Yoshitake (1997) examined the reliability and validity of a pragmatic competence test for 25 Japanese EFL learners with the six testing methods with four speech acts: request, apology, and refusal. The situations involved in his study included various degrees of relative power, social distance, and imposition. The framework of the test was developed from Hudson et al. (1992, 1995). Except MDCT, all the other five testing methods were proved to be with highly reliability and validity.

Rose & Ono (1995) explored the validity of WDCT and MDCT in an ILP competence test with Japanese EFL learners. Three speech acts were included: request, apology, and refusal. Altogether 36 Japanese female undergraduate students

participated in the study. They revealed that DCT in general was not valid in collecting data with the Japanese context. However, males were not include in the study, so the conclusion might be overgeneralizing.

Hinkel (1997) studied the validity of WDCT and MDCT with the speech act 'advice'. Two groups of participants were included, English native speakers and Taiwanese EFL learners, 40 participants in each group. Degree of appropriateness in both WDCT and MDCT was evaluated in common and observed situations. He found that DCT may not be a valid instrument in that the situations designed may constrain the pragmalinguistic acts.

Brown (2001, 2008) studied three speech acts: request, refusal and apology with 53 Korean as a foreign language (KFL) learners in America. He found except MDCT, all the other five instruments were with satisfactory reliability but were greatly varied in their practicality. Brown (2001, 2008) also reported that MDCT was very problematic because it was almost impossible to design distractors which were completely incorrect without being clearly implausible.

In Liu's (2004) study, two speech acts: apology and request were examined with MDCT, WDCT and SA. Two hundred Chinese EFL learners took part in the study. The results showed that the three testing methods were both reliable and valid and the reliabilities for the MDCT, WDCT and SA were high at .88, .95 and .95 respectively.

Rover's (2006) test was a web-based ILP competence test covered speech acts (request, apology, and refusal), implicature and routines. MDCT and SA were

applied to evaluate the EFL learners' ILP competence in implicature and routines sections; while WDCT was used to evaluate the ability to conduct speech acts with rejoinders (responses by the imaginary interlocutor). Altogether 267 participants, including both native speakers (American) and non-native speakers (German and Japanese), took part in his study. In his study, an overall alpha reliability of .91 was achieved. Different from the Hudson et al.'s (1995) tradition, Rover's instrument did not specify a native language. Rover (2007, 2010a) demonstrated through differential item functioning (DIF) analyses that either European test takers or Asian learners were not advantaged overall.

Another study was Rover's (2010b) ILP competence test with a focus on implicature. MDCT was designed for 442 health-sciences students with. All participants had an average residential experience in Australia of eight years. The participants were from 49 countries and English was the native language for 51% of them. The results showed that the alpha reliability was low at .52. The low reliability may be due to the generally high overall proficiency of the sample since more than half of which were native speakers.

Duan (2012) also conducted an ILP competence testing project on 315 EFL learners in China. She compared three measures in her testing and included ten speech acts. The results showed a medium reliability for all the three measures and the reliabilities were ranged from .64 to .74. She also investigated the validity of the three measures. She studied the three types of validity: content validity, criterion validity and

construct validity. Results showed that content validity and construct validity effectively tested the learners' pragmatic competence, whereas the correlation of the three measures was not high.

In 2015, Liu designed a test of the speech act of refusal for the Chinese EFL learners. Eight situations of refusal were designed with the method of WDCT. Among them, two situations were refusal for request, refusal for invitation, refusal for offer, and refusal for suggestion respectively. Altogether 240 students in four language proficiency groups, ranging from junior school to college, took the test. The rating scale was the Likert five point rating scale. The reliability for the test was .87.

In the previous studies for reliability and validity for ILP competence, most researchers just concentrated on one area of ILP competence except Rover (2006), and the studies related to speech acts were focused on limited speech acts (one to three) but Duan (2012). Thus, the results might be overgeneralized and further studies with a broader domain are needed. The following table is a summary of the major findings in the reliability of the measures of pragmatic competence testing and their instruments to calculate the reliabilities.

Table 2.2 Reliability Estimates for Previous Testing Projects

Researcher(s)	Year of study	Statistic measures	WDCT	MDCT	ODCT	DRPT	SA	RPSA
Yamashita	1996a	K-R21	.87(S)	.45(S)	.93(S)	.93(S)	.91(S)	.92(S)
	1996b	Alpha	.99(S)	.47(S)	.99(S)	.99(S)	.94(S)	.95(S)
Yoshitake	1997	K-R21	.50(S)	.61(S)	.62(S)	.76(S)	.89(S)	.88(S)
Hudson	2001a	Alpha	.86(S)	-	.78(S)	.75(S)	-	-
	2001b	Alpha	-	-	-	.82(S)	.87(S)	.90(S)
Liu	2004	Alpha	.95(S)	.88(S)	-	-	,95(S)	-
Rover	2006	Alpha	.89(S)	.82 (I)	-	-	-	-
				,73 (R)				
		K-R21	.82(S)	.80 (I)	-	-	-	-
				,67 (R)				
	2010b	Alpha	-	.52(S)	-	-	-	-
Duan	2012	Alpha	.74(S)	.64(S)	-	-	.73	-
Liu	2015	Alpha	.87(S)	--	--	--	--	--

Note：(S), speech acts   (I), implicature   (R), routines

Generally speaking, the above studies showed a low reliability in MDCT in testing ILP competence, no research showed an acceptable reliability (equal or above 0.70) (Cronbach, 1951) except Liu (2004) for this measure. DPRT, SA and RPSA had the comparatively high reliability, and most researchers show acceptable reliabilities in WDCT and ODCT. Furthermore, Cronbach alpha is the most frequently used statistical measure to calculate the test reliability.

With regard to validity of the research methods, researchers found that DRPT (Yamashita, 1996a, 1996b), WDCT (Yamashita, 1996a, 1996b; Duan, 2012), MDCT (Liu, 2007), SA (Duan, 2012) were valid measures to test ILP competence; while others drew different conclusions. Rose (1994) and Rose & Ono (1995) found that DCT may not be valid for collecting data for ILP competence in Japanese context, while Hinkel (1997) found DCT might be very valid in eliciting data of ILP performance.

Researchers (Johnston et al. 1998; Duan, 2012) also suggested that different research

methods might not be comparable in testing ILP competence since correlations among

different testing methods were not high.

2.9 Previous Studies of EFL Learners' ILP Competence

Besides test-internal criterion, researchers also show their interest in test-

external criterion of interlanguage pragmatics, i.e. the influence of individual difference

on ILP competence. Individual differences are an important factor which may influence

SLA. As a component of SLA, ILP competence is no exception. Bardovi-Harlig et al.

(1998) and Jung (2005) hypothesize the factors which may relate to the ILP competence.

In this model, six groups of factors can be categorized to have effects on ILP

competence. The details of this model are shown in Figure 2.2 below.
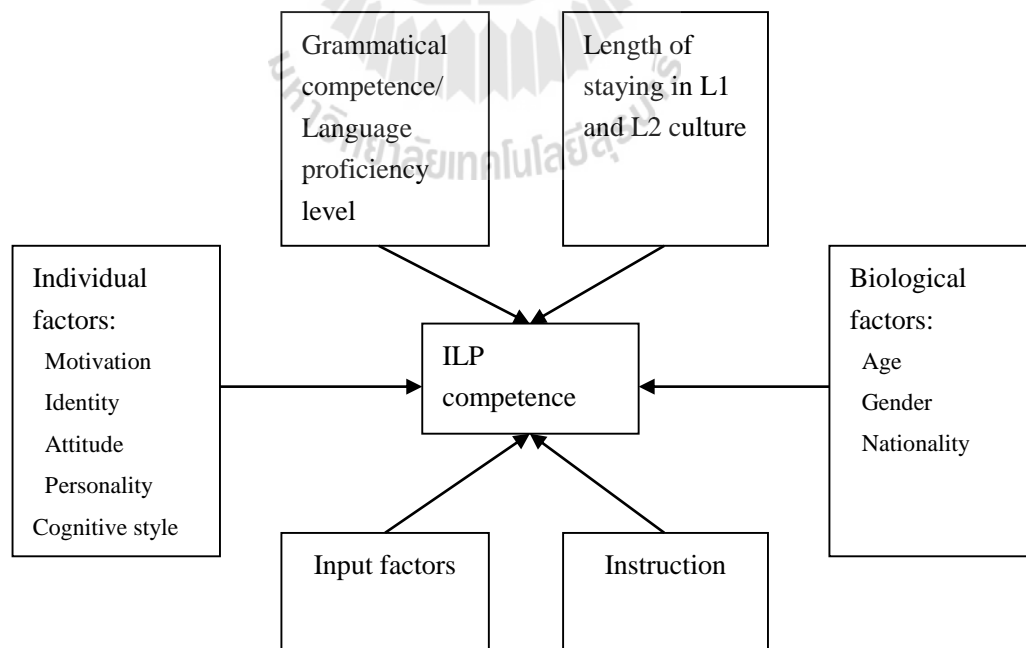
Adapted from Bardovi-Harlig, et al. (1998) and Jung (2005)

Figure 2.2 Factors Determining ILP Competence

Neizgoda & Rover (2001) state that researchers need pay attention to individual differences in doing ILP research. Taking different language learners as participants and using different research methods, researchers have conducted a large amount of studies with a concern of different variables. This section is a review of the previous studies of the test-external criterion of ILP competence.

Many Chinese researchers preferred to examine the EFL learners' ILP competence in terms of pragmalinguistic knowledge and sociopragmatic knowledge. Wang (2006) investigated the relationship between ILP competence and gender in a Chinese EFL context with 107 college students. He found that females' overall ILP competence was significantly higher than males'.

Zhao's study followed in 2008. He examined the ILP competence of college minority students in China. The participants were 50 non-English major minority students in a university for nationalities. His concluded that the minority students' overall ILP competence was low. Zhao's (2008) sample included students from different fields of study in the same university, and the sample size was very small number. Thus, the data might not be big enough to represent the population. Larger sample is needed for the future research.

Li (2012) studied the relationship between ILP competence and gender in a Chinese EFL context with 120 college students. He found that females' ILP competence was significantly higher on the overall level.

Tian (2012) investigated pragmatic transfer with three minority groups (Yi, Ha and Bai) in the Yunnan Province. Altogether 315 high school students took part in his study. Results showed that there was a significant difference among the three minority groups on the overall level in the number of mistakes caused by pragmatic transfer; and there was a significant difference among the three minority groups in each subpart of the test.

Tian (2013) investigated the non-English major minority students' pragmatic competence in the Qinghai Province. Eighty-two non-English major minority students (Zang, Menggu, Hui, Sala and Tu) were involved in his study. He found that the overall pragmatic competence of the minority students was very low; and there was no significant difference between low grade and high grade students in pragmatic competence.

Liu & Huang (2013) studied the relationship between ILP competence and field dependence/independence cognitive style with 200 EFL college learners in China. The results revealed that ILP competence was not related to field independence cognitive style but to field dependence cognitive style.

In these studies, the most serious limitations were the researchers investigated the ILP competence in two categories, pragmaliguistic competence and sociolinguistic competence, with one research method, MDCT. However, language learners may have different performances in speech acts, implicature or routines. Some of them might be teachable and can be helped with instruction, such as formulaic implicature and

situational routines (Rover, 2004); some are more influenced by mother tongue transfer, such as speech acts and functional routines (Rover, 2004). The studies with the two categories were too general and researchers could not differentiate how well the EFL learners perform in various fields of ILP knowledge. Furthermore, with only MDCT to collect data from, no qualitative data can be obtained, and the EFL learners might get high or low scores just by chance. The aspects of ILP competence performance, such as appropriateness, cannot be evaluated.

More researchers pay attention to a certain field or fields in the study of ILP competence. Speech acts have aroused the interest of most previous researchers. Hoffman-Hicks (1992) conducted a research with 14 students learning French at Indiana University with a control group of nine French native speakers. He investigated the relationship between linguistic competence and pragmatic competence with speech acts. The results revealed that linguistic competence was a necessary to pragmatic competence but it did not guarantee the development of pragmatic competence. In addition, the linguistic competence needed for effective communication did not assure learners' high ability of ILP competence. Hoffman-Hicks's (1992) study was a starting point for ILP competence testing, but the sample size was too small and the results might be overgeneralizing.

Liu (2004) continued the study with ILP competence on speech acts. He investigated the relationship between L2 proficiency and ILP ability in a Chinese EFL context. The participants were 200 Chinese university EFL learners. His focused on

two speech acts: request and apology. Results of his study revealed that participants of higher language proficiency did not correspond with higher ILP ability. Liu's study was a progress after Hoffman-Hicks's study, but only two speech acts were included. The study for a broader domain is still needed.

Later on, Takahashi (2005) studied the relationship between motivation and language proficiency with 80 Japanese university students. The speech act "request" was tested to investigate the learners' awareness of six types of L2 pragmalinguistic features with implicit input. He found that the EFL learners noticed the target pragmalinguistic features differentially, but the learners' awareness of the target features did not relate to their language proficiency. He also found that the learners' awareness of the target features closely related to motivation. The limitation of Takahashi's (2005) study lied in that only one speech act was included.

In 2009, Xu, Case & Wang investigated the influence of length of residence in English speaking countries and overall language proficiency on pragmatic competence. They studied 126 EFL learners from 17 different countries. The participants spoke 20 different languages. In his study, four speech acts were included: request, apology, suggestion, and refusal. They found that both length of residence and overall language proficiency influenced the acquisition of L2 pragmatics significantly. In this study, four speech acts were covered. This was a step forward compared with the previous studies. However, the participants were from too many different countries, which made the results much more complicated, for language transfer may play different roles in their EFL acquisition and performance of speech acts.

The speech act of request was studied again in 2010 by Li, who investigated English pragmatic competence of 123 Normal university students in Guangxi Zhuang autonomous regions. The results showed that the students' English pragmatic competence was low on the average level. This study just evaluated the EFL learners' ILP competence with one speech act of request, and the results could be more reliable if more speech acts and some variables can be included.

Shao, Zhao & Sun (2011) probed into the effects of learning motivation and cultural identity on learners' pragmatic competence development with 120 college English-major students in China. Four speech acts were included in their study: request, apology, compliment and invitation. They found that the learners' instrumental motivation was in a weak positive correlation with their pragmatic competence; the learners' integrative motivation was in a strong positive correlation with their pragmatic competence; the learners' cultural identity towards the target language was in a weak positive correlation with their pragmatic performance; and the learners' cultural identity towards the native language was in a strong negative correlation with their pragmatic performance.

Soo (2013) investigated the relationships among pragmatics, grammar, and proficiency. Written pragmatic production was collected with 40 EFL learners. By comparing the syntactic complexity with four speech acts, request, recommendation, refusal and comment, he found that the learners' pragmatic performances were more correlated with syntactic complexity than their proficiency levels in all aspects except for phrasal-level complexity. Learners with higher pragmatic ability produced longer

utterances, more complex sub-clausal structures, and more subordination. Soo's (2013) study included only 40 participants, so the data might not be satire enough.

In 2014, Li & Jiang applied WDCT to test the Chinese EFL learners' ILP competence with different levels of language proficiency. The test included four speech acts, greeting, request, gratitude and apology. The results revealed that there was no significant difference among the language proficiency groups. Thus, they concluded that for the English major students in college, pragmatic competence and language proficiency were not correlated.

Yang & Ma (2015) studied the minority students' ILP competence with the speech act of request. The participants were 95 college students and they were composed of 35 minorities, including Zhuang, Man, Hui, Miao, Tujia, Weiwuer and so on. Four WDCT situations were designed to examine the EFL learners' pragmalinguistic competence and sociolinguistic competence. The results showed that both pragmalinguistic competence and sociolinguistic competence of the minority students were highly related to language proficiency.

All the previous studies in ILP competence with speech acts covered a limited number of speech acts, the maximum was only four. Thus, a study in this field is still needed on a broader domain and more speech acts should be included.

A few researchers studied the ILP competence with implicature or routines. Yamanaka (2003) investigated the relationship between L2 proficiency and ILP competence with implicature. He studied 43 Japanese ESL learners in the United States

and a control group of 13 native speakers. Results showed that L2 proficiency was highly correlated with ILP competence in terms of understanding implicature. In addition, he found that L2 proficiency represented a strong predictor of L2 pragmatics.

Naoko (2013) examined the influence of proficiency and study abroad experience on L2 learners' ability to perform routines. Sixty-four Japanese students in an English-medium program were included in his study. He found that the effects of language proficiency were on three aspects: appropriateness, planning time, and speech rate, and the higher proficiency level indicated a higher ability in performing L2 routines.

In the fields of ILP competence in implicature or routines, both Yamanaka's (2003) and Naoko's (2013) studies involved a small sample, and a bigger sample is quite needed for a more representative conclusion.

Except that, some other researchers were interested in ESL learners' ILP competence with the knowledge of more than one field. Garcia (2004) investigated the relation between different language proficiency learners and their pragmatic comprehension ability. His interest lied in speech acts and conversational implicature. Four speech acts were included in his study: request, offer, suggestion and correction. Sixteen advanced learners and 19 beginners of English were involved in his study. The results showed that there was a significant difference between advanced learners and beginners in overall and all subparts of the task in terms of pragmatic listening comprehension. Garcia's (2004) domain of study was much broader than the other researchers, and he included both speech acts and implicature in his study, but there

were still some limitations: 1) the sample was too small; 2) the data collection method was only with MDCT, and no qualitative data was obtained. Researchers had no access to understand how the learners performed in conducting speech acts.

Rover (2006) examined the EFL learners' pragmatic knowledge in implicature, routines, together with three speech acts (request, apology and refusal) with a sample 267 students. The EFL learners' language proficiency ranged from beginner to advanced. He found that the learners' knowledge of speech acts increased with language proficiency, as did the knowledge of implicature, and the knowledge of routines was strongly related to L2 exposure.

Liu (2012) examined the relationship between language proficiency and ILP competence with 141 Chinese EFL learners. His study covered routines, conversational implicature and speech acts (request and apology). He concluded that the overall L2 proficiency was positively related to the ILP competence. Significant differences were found among students with different language proficiency in terms of performing routines and conducting speech acts. However, significant differences were not found among the students in understanding conversational implicature according to level of language proficiency. In addition, different components of the EFL students' ILP knowledge did not develop at an equal rate.

Comparatively speaking, Rover's (2006) and Liu's (2012) studies can be thought of as the most advanced up to the present in ILP competence. They included most of the fields of ILP knowledge and the sample size was big enough. The data

collection methods were diverse, but the limitation was that only two or three speech acts were covered.

       Table 2.3 is a summary of the previous research works on test-external criterion of ILP competence, ranging from 1992 to 2015. These studies have demonstrated the ways in which the researchers have conducted studies on the ILP competence. The research purposes, the focus of the knowledge of pragmatics, the participants, data collection instruments, investigated variables, data analysis methods and research results are reported with their studies in the following table.

Table 2.3 Research works on Text-external Criterion of ILP Competence

1. Hoffman-Hicks (1992). Linguistic and Pragmatic Competence: Their Relationship in the Overall Competence of the Language Learner.	
Purpose(s) of the study	To examine the relationship between two kinds of language competence, linguistic and pragmatic, within the larger domain of the learner's overall competence. Specifically, it investigates whether linguistic competence is (1) necessary, and (2) sufficient for pragmatic competence.
Research focus	Speech acts
Participants	14 students of French at Indiana University and a control group of 9 native speakers of French
Instruments	1. A standardized multiple-choice test of French; 2. DRPT; 3. WDCT.
Data Analysis	1. Descriptive statistics; 2. Content analysis.
Results	1. Linguistic competence is a prerequisite to pragmatic competence but that it does not itself guarantee pragmatic competence; 2. The level of linguistic competence needed for adequate communication in given language use situations does not necessarily assure learners' high ability of ILP competence.

Table 2.3 Research works on Text-external Criterion of ILP Competence (Cont.)

2. Yamanaka (2003). Effects of proficiency and length of residence on the pragmatic comprehension of Japanese ESL learners	
Purpose(s) of the study	To investigate the relationship between L2 proficiency and ILP competence.
Research focus	Implicature
Participants	43 Japanese ESL learners in the US in four groups based on the L2 proficiency; 13 native speakers
Instruments	12 televised-vignettes
Data Analysis	1. Descriptive statistics; 2. Pearson correlation.
Results	1. L2 proficiency correlates significantly with ILP competence in terms of interpreting implicature with a Person's r of .603. 2. Overall L2 proficiency is influential and represents a strong predicator in L2 pragmatics.
3. Liu (2004). Measuring interlanguage pragmatic knowledge of Chinese EFL learners	
Purpose(s) of the study	To investigate the relationship between L2 proficiency and ILP ability of Chinese EFL learners
Research focus	Two speech acts: requests and apologies
Participants	200 Chinese EFL college learners who are divided into two proficiency groups according to their scores in a TOEFL test
Instruments	1. WDCT; 2. MDCT; 3. SA.
Data Analysis	1. Descriptive statistics; 2. Pearson correlation; 3. Reliability (Cronbach alpha).
Results	Participants of higher level of English proficiency seem not to have correspondingly higher interlanguage pragmatic ability.
4. Garcia (2004). Pragmatic comprehension of high and low level language learners	
Purpose(s) of the study	To explore the relation between different level language learners and their pragmatic comprehension ability
Research focus	1. Four speech acts (requests, offers, suggestions and corrections); 2. conversational implicature
Participants	16 advanced and 19 beginning nonnative English language learners, among them, 9 speak Japanese, 7 speak Korean, 5 speak Arabic, 4 speak Spanish, 3 speak Chinese, 2 speak Russian, and one each speak Dutch, Portuguese, Hungarian, Haitian Creole, and Turkish.
Instruments	48 MDCT items

Table 2.3 Research works on Text-external Criterion of ILP Competence (Cont.)

Data Analysis	1. Reliability; 2. Descriptive statistics; 3. Independent T test. 4. Pearson correlation.
Results	1. there is a significant difference between high English level and low English level students in overall and all subparts of the task in terms of pragmatic listening comprehension; 2. High English level students score higher than low English level in both overall and all subparts of the task.
5. Takahashi (2005). Pragmalinguistic Awareness: Is it related to motivation and proficiency?	
Purpose(s) of the study	To exploring the relationships of motivation and proficiency with Japanese EFL learners' awareness of six types of L2 pragmalinguistic features under an implicit input condition.
Research focus	Speech act of request
Participants	80 Japanese college students
Instruments	1. a proficiency test; 2. a motivation questionnaire; 3. a noticing-the-gap activity as the treatment task; 4. a retrospective awareness questionnaire
Data Analysis	1. Descriptive statistics; 2. Pearson correlation; 3. Reliability (Cronbach alpha).
Results	1. The learners differentially noticed the target pragmalinguistic features; 2. The learners' awareness of the target features is not correlated with their proficiency; 3. The learners' awareness of the target features was correlated with motivation subscales.
6. Rover (2006). Validation of a web-based test of ESL pragmalinguistics	
Purpose(s) of the study	To examine learners' offline knowledge of pragmatics.
Research focus	Implicature, routines and three speech acts (requests, apologies and refusals)
Participants	267 ESL and EFL learners, ranging in proficiency from beginner to advanced
Instruments	1. MDCT 2. WDCT
Data Analysis	1. Descriptive statistics; 2. Reliability (Cronbach Alpha, KR-21); 3. Pearson correlation; 4. Factor analysis; 5. ANOVA.

Table 2.3 Research works on Text-external Criterion of ILP Competence (Cont.)

Results	1. The learners' knowledge of speech acts increased with proficiency, as did their knowledge of implicature; 2. Their knowledge of routines was strongly dependent on L2 exposure.
7. Wang (2006). How sexual difference affects EFL learners' linguistic and pragmatic competence	
Purpose(s) of the study	To investigate the relationship between gender and ILP competence in Chinese EFL context.
Research focus	Pragmalinguistic knowledge and sociopragmatic knowledge
Participants	107 college students, 75 females and 32 males
Instruments	28-item MDCT written by He (1988)
Data Analysis	1. Reliability (Cronbach Alpha); 2. Descriptive statistics; 3. Independent T-test.
Results	Females' overall ILP competence is significantly better than males.
8. Zhao (2008). 少数民族学生跨文化交际中语用能力的调查与研究 (An investigation of minority students' interlanguage pragmatic competence)	
Purpose(s) of the study	To examine the ILP competence of college minority students in China
Research focus	Pragmalinguistic knowledge and sociopragmatic knowledge
Participants	50 non-English major minority students in a university of nationalities in China
Instruments	28-item MDCT adapted from He (1988)
Data Analysis	1. Descriptive statistics; 2. Content analysis.
Results	The minority students' overall ILP competence is low.
9. Xu, Case & Yu (2009). Pragmatic and grammatical competence, length of residence, and overall L2 proficiency	
Purpose(s) of the study	To examine the influence of length of residence in the target language community and overall L2 proficiency on L2 pragmatic competence with a reference to L2 grammatical competence.
Research focus	Four speech acts: requests, apologies, suggestions, and refusals
Participants	126 L2 learners from 17 different countries speaking 20 languages and of advanced and intermediate proficiencies in English
Instruments	A questionnaire consisting of 20 scenarios (1) Indicate the correctness of the last utterances in the 20 scenarios by checking yes or no; (2) If the answer was no, the participants then rated the severity of the incorrectness on a Likert-scale of six points from "not bad at all" to "very bad";

Table 2.3 Research works on Text-external Criterion of ILP Competence (Cont.)

	(3) The participants completed a discourse completion task to replace the utterances that they thought incorrect.
Data Analysis	1. Descriptive statistics; 2. ANOVA; 3. Pearson correlation.
Results	1. Both length of residence and overall L2 proficiency influence L2 pragmatics significantly with overall L2 proficiency demonstrating a stronger influence; 2. There is a strong and positive correlation between pragmatic and grammatical competence for advanced participants and all participants as a group.
10. Li (2010). 少数民族地区师范院校学生语用能力的调查报告(A Survey on Pragmatic Competence of Normal College Students in the Minority Areas)	
Purpose(s) of the study	To investigate English pragmatic competence of normal college students in Guangxi Zhuang autonomous rigion.
Research focus	The speech act of request
Participants	123 students from two universities in China
Instruments	WDCT
Data Analysis	1. Content analysis; 2. Descriptive statistics.
Results	The students' English pragmatic competence is low on the average level.
11. Shao, Zhao & Sun (2011). 学习动机及文化认同与语用能力发展的相关性 (Correlation between the English Learner's Learning Motivation，Cultural Identity and the Development of the Learners' Pragmatic Competence)	
Purpose(s) of the study	To probe into the effects of learning motivation and cultural identity on learners' pragmatic competence development
Research focus	Four speech acts: requests, apologies, compliments and invitation
Participants	120 college English-major students in China
Instruments	1. a 30-item MDCT for pragmatic competence; 2. a 12-item Likert-scale questionnaire for motivation; 3. a 10-item Likert-scale questionnaire for cultural identity.
Data Analysis	1. Descriptive statistics; 2. Pearson correlation; 3. Independent T-test.
Results	1. The learners' instrumental motivation is in a weak positive correlation with their pragmatic competence; 2. The learners' integrative motivation is in a strong positive correlation with their pragmatic competence;

Table 2.3 Research works on Text-external Criterion of ILP Competence (Cont.)

	3. The learners' cultural identity towards the target language is in a weak positive correlation with their pragmatic performance;
	4. The learners' cultural identity towards the native language is in a strong negative correlation with their pragmatic performance.
12. Liu (2012). Chinese EFL learners' English proficiency and their pragmatic competence development	
Purpose(s) of the study	To explore whether students with different language proficiency exhibit differential pragmatic competence.
Research focus	Routines, Conversational Implicature and Speech Acts (requests and apologies)
Participants	141 students on different education levels (grade 1 in high school, 1st year in college and 3rd year in college)
Instruments	1. English proficiency test; 2. MDCT.
Data Analysis	1. Descriptive statistics; 2. ANOVA; 3. Factor analysis; 4. Pearson correlation.
Results	1. Overall L2 proficiency level is positively related to the ILP competence level; 2. Significant differences are found among different language groups in terms of performances in the Routines and Speech Acts sections but not in the Conversational Implicature subtest; 3. Different components of EFL students' ILP competence do not develop at an equal rate.
13. Li (2012). 性别差异与英语专业学生语用能力发展的相关性研究 (A correlational study of interlanguage pragmatic competence development on gender difference of English majors)	
Purpose(s) of the study	To explore the relationship between gender and ILP competence in Chinese EFL context.
Research focus	Pragmalinguistic knowledge and sociopragmatic knowledge
Participants	120 college students', 60 females and males respectively
Instruments	28-item MDCT adapted from He (1988)
Data Analysis	1. Content analysis; 2. Descriptive statistics; 3. ANOVA.
Results	Females' ILP competence is significantly higher on the overall level.

Table 2.3 Research works on Text-external Criterion of ILP Competence (Cont.)

14. Tian (2012). 三个少数民族的语用能力调查 (An Investigation of the pragmatic competence in three minority nationalities)	
Purpose(s) of the study	To investigate the pragmatic transfer in three minority nationalities (Yi, Ha and Bai) in Yunnan province
Research focus	Sociopragmatic transfer and pragmalinguistic transfer
Participants	315 high school students (102 Yi, 100 Ha and 113 Bai in high school in Yunan province)
Instruments	20-item MDCT
Data Analysis	1. Descriptive statistics; 2. ANOVA
Results	1. There is significant difference among the three minority groups in overall level in the number of mistakes made in terms of pragmatic transfer; 2. There is significant difference among the three minority groups in each subpart of the test in the number of mistakes made in terms of pragmatic transfer.
15. Soo (2013). Measuring syntactic complexity in L2 pragmatic production: Investigating relationships among pragmatics, grammar, and proficiency	
Purpose(s) of the study	To examine relationships among pragmatics, grammar, and proficiency by comparing the syntactic complexity of ESL learners' written pragmatic production
Research focus	Four Speech acts: request, recommendation, refusal, comment.
Participants	40 ESL learners
Instruments	Four task-based written letters
Data Analysis	1. Content analysis; 2. Internal reliability by FACETS.
Results	1. Except for phrasal-level complexity, learners' pragmatic performances were more highly correlated with syntactic complexity of their pragmatic production than their proficiency levels; 2. Pragmatically advanced learners produced longer utterances, more complex subclausal structures at the phrasal level, and more subordination, suggesting the crucial roles played by syntactically complex structures in expressing pragmatic functions.

Table 2.3 Research works on Text-external Criterion of ILP Competence (Cont.)

16. Naoko (2013). Production of routines in L2 English: Effect of proficiency and study-abroad experience	
Purpose(s) of the study	To examine the effect of proficiency and study abroad experience on L2 learners' ability to produce routines.
Research focus	Routines
Participants	64 Japanese students in an English-medium university in Japan
Instruments	An ODCT involving four situations that elicited routines.
Data Analysis	1. Content analysis; 2. Descriptive analysis; 3. Manne Whitney U tests
Results	1. There is a significant effect of proficiency on all three aspects: appropriateness (rated by native speakers), planning time, and speech rate; 2. The high proficiency level indicates high ability in producing L2 routines.
17. Tian (2013). 青海地区少数民族大学生跨文化语用能力研究 (A Study of cross-culture pragmatic competence of the minority college students in Qinghai)	
Purpose(s) of the study	To investigate non-English major minority students' pragmatic competence in Qinghai province.
Research focus	The knowledge of both pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics.
Participants	82 non-English major minority students' (Zang, Menggu, Hui, Sala, Tu) in Qinghai province
Instruments	1. 40-item MDCT and 10 true or false items. 2. Language proficiency test.
Data Analysis	1. Descriptive statistics; 2. Independent T-test; 3. Content analysis.
Results	1. The overall pragmatic competence of the minority students is very low; 2. There is no significant difference between low grade and high grade students in pragmatic competence.
18. Liu & Huang (2013). 场独立与依赖性认知风格与语际语用能力的相关性研究 (A Study of Correlation Between Field Dependence / Independence Cognitive Style and Interlanguage Pragmatic Competence)	
Purpose(s) of the study	To explores the correlation between field dependence/independence cognitive style and interlanguage pragmatic competence.
Research focus	Pragmalinguistic knowledge and sociopragmatic knowledge
Participants	200 EFL college students in China
Instruments	1. Questionnaire for cognitive style; 2. MDCT adopted from He (1988)

Table 2.3 Research works on Text-external Criterion of ILP Competence (Cont.)

Data Analysis	1. Descriptive statistics;
	2. Pearson correlation.
Results	Field independence cognitive style has no significant correlation with interlanguage pragmatic competence while field dependence cognitive style has significant correlation with ILP competence,
19. Li & Jiang (2014). 新时期英语专业学生语用能力调查报告及启示 (An Investigation of English Majors' ILP Competence)	
Purpose(s) of the study	To investigate the English majors' ILP competence according to level of language proficiency
Research focus	Four speech acts: greeting, request, gratitude and apology
Participants	103 English majors
Instruments	1. WDCT
	2. Interview
Data Analysis	1. Descriptive statistics;
	2. One-way ANOVA
Results	There is no significant difference between low grade and high grade students in the ILP competence.
20. Yang & Ma (2015). 少数民族大学生英语请求言语行为能力发展研究 (The Development of Minority Students' ILP Competence in the Speech Act of Request)	
Purpose(s) of the study	To investigate the minority students' ILP competence with the speech act of request according to level of language proficiency
Research focus	ILP competence and level of language proficiency
Participants	1 speech act: request
Instruments	WDCT
Data Analysis	1. Descriptive statistics;
	2. One-way ANOVA
Results	The minority students' both pragmalinguistic competence and sociolinguistic competence were highly related to the language proficiency

With regard to the research purposes, the researchers are mainly concerned about the relationship between ILP competence and different variables, including language proficiency (Hoffman-Hicks, 1992; Yamanaka, 2003; Garcia, 2004; Liu, 2004, 2012; Takahashi, 2005; Xu, Case & Wang, 2009; Soo 2013; Naoko, 2013; Li & Jiang, 2014; Yang & Ma, 2015), gender (Wang, 2006; Li, 2012), length of residence in

English speaking countries (Xu, Case & Wang, 2009; Naoko, 2013), motivation (Takahashi, 2005; Shao, Zhao & Sun, 2011), nationalities (Zhao, 2008; Li, 2010; Tian, 2012; Tian, 2013), grammatical competence (Xu, Case & Yu, 2009; Soo, 2013), cognitive style (Liu & Huang, 2013), cultural identity (Shao, Zhao & Sun, 2011) and exposure to the target language (Rover, 2006).

In terms of participants of the previous studies, the participants range from junior middle school students to college students. The participants can be classified into English majors and non-English majors, native speakers and non-native speakers, beginners and advanced, females and males and L2 learners and L3 learners (minority learners), etc.

Regarding the instruments of data collection, the researchers usually adopt MDCT, WDCT, ODCT, SA, DRPT, language proficiency test and questionnaire, etc. As to the methods of data analysis, researchers often use descriptive statistics, independent T-test, ANOVA, Pearson correlation, Cronbach Alpha reliability, factor analysis, content analysis, and so on.

The results indicate that most of the research works show individual differences according to different variables. For example, in the research about the relation between language proficiency and ILP competence, researchers find a positive relationship between language proficiency and ILP competence (Yamanaka, 2003; Garcia, 2004; Xu, Case & Wang, 2009; Soo 2013; Naoko, 2013; Li & Jiang, 2014; Yang & Ma, 2015); according to the very limited studies of ILP competence and gender, researchers find females' ILP competence is significantly higher than males'; variables

such as motivation, exposure to the target language, personality and cognitive style are strongly related to ILP competence. On the contrary, some researchers do not find a significant relationship between some variables and ILP competence, for instance, some researchers do not find that language proficiency correlates with ILP competence (Hoffman-Hicks, 1992; Liu, 2004, 2012; Takahashi, 2005).

2.10 Summary of the Chapter

This chapter has reviewed the related literature on ILP competence testing. It covered the discussion of the definitions of communicative competence, pragmatic competence, interlanguage and interlanguage pragmatics. In order to provide a theoretical background for the present research, the basic theories of pragmatics are revisited, the research areas of interlanguage pragmatics are followed, and then the domain of the ILP competence in the present study was discussed. The subsequent sections deal with the discussion of data collection methods of ILP competence, and the studies on both internal-construct of ILP competence and test-external criterion of ILP competence.

The review of the literature provides an overall picture of interlanguage pragmatics and ILP competence research, which may help the researcher of the present study find the research gap, bridge the previous works to the present study, and construct the research framework for the present investigation. The next chapter discusses how the present study is conducted. The focus is on the design of the research methodology in the present study.

CHAPTER 3

RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

This chapter gives a brief account of the research methodological issues relating to the present study. First, it describes the theoretical framework. After that, the development of the instruments for the ILP competence test is introduced. Finally, the participants, data collection methods and data analysis methods for the study are discussed.

3.1 Theoretical Framework of the Present Study

The purpose of the present research was to test the Chinese EFL learners' ILP competence and to explore the variations. For the type of research design, mixed methods were applied, i.e. both qualitative and quantitative methods. The present study took three variables into consideration, i.e. nationality, gender and level of language proficiency. The three variables were hypothesized to influence the EFL learners' ILP competence. The framework of the present study is illustrated in Figure 3.1.
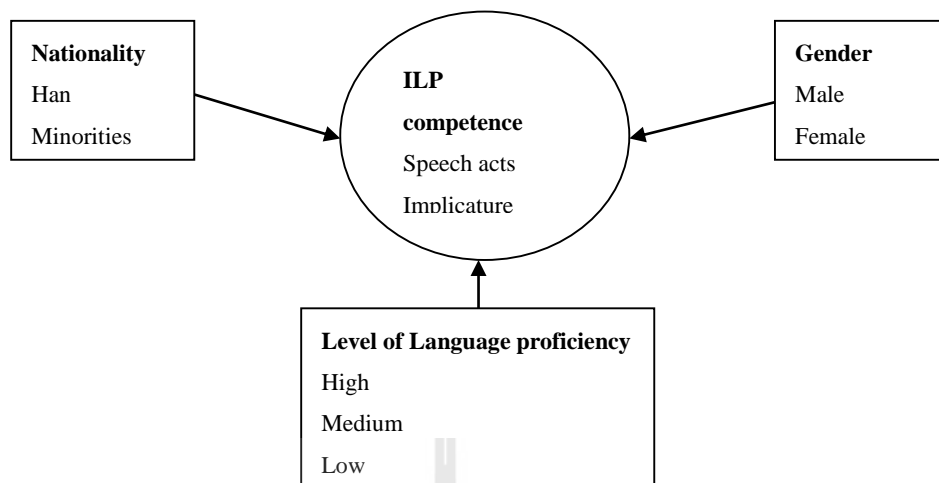
Figure 3.1 Theoretical Framework of the Present Study

3.2 Development of Research Instruments

Data collection methods are highly related to research purposes, research questions and research types. The present study is a mix-method research, so both quantitative and qualitative data were collected. Based on the comparison of the six major data collection methods in interlanguge pragmatics study, it is learnt that each method has its strengths and drawbacks. The appropriate data collection methods were selected in order to satisfy the research purposes, answer the research questions, suit the research types, and match the given time.

Taking all the factors into consideration, the present research adopted two data collection methods in testing the Chinese EFL learners' ILP competence: WDCT and MDCT. In addition, semi-structured interview was applied to investigate their opinions in the ILP competence test for the purpose of better understanding their ILP competence. The purpose of using each data collection method is listed in Table 3.3.

Table 3.1 Purpose of Using Each Data Collection Method

Data collection method	Purpose
WDCT	Testing the EFL learners' ILP competence in conducting speech acts
MDCT	Testing the EFL learners' ILP competence in understanding implicature and performing routines
Semi-structured interview	Investigating the EFL learners' opinions in conducting speech acts, understanding implicature and performing routines in the ILP competence test.

3.2.1 WDCT

A WDCT usually contains a brief description of a situation on a particular speech act with an incomplete discourse sequence. Participants are required to complete a dialogue that is appropriate for specified context in which the speech act is conducted (Huang, 2012).

An example of WDCT is as follows:

You are now shopping in a department store. You see a beautiful suit and want to see it. You ask the salesperson to show you the suit.

You say:_____

(Liu, 2004: 268).

WDCT allows the participants to respond in a way that they believe would be appropriate in a particular situation within possible, yet imaginary, interactional settings. Thus, responses within a WDCT can be regarded as revealing participants' accumulated experience within a giving setting indirectly.

WDCT is a valid instrument in measuring performance of conducting speech acts (Liu, 2004). It is widely applied in the fields of pragmatics mainly because the high degree of control of variables and their simplicity of use lead to easy replicability

(Golato, 2003). Supporters of this instrument insist that WDCT can not only assess language learners' pragmatic awareness, but also evaluate their production of certain speech acts (Fauzul, 2013). Another advantage of WDCT is that it gives participants a certain degree of freedom to articulate their responses in situations. The present study applied WDCT without rejoinders, and rejoinders are frequently claimed to interfere with realistic and appropriate test takers' responses (House & Kasper, 1987).

3.2.1.1 WDCT Development

The development of WDCT in the present study experienced four stages as shown in figure 3.2 and both Chinese EFL learners and English native speakers were invited to help design this part.

Selection of the speech acts to be tested	⇨	Exemplar generation	⇨	Likelihood investigation	⇨	Content validity check

Figure 3.2 The Development of WDCT

1) Selection of the speech acts to be tested

To select the speech acts to be tested, a questionnaire was designed. In this questionnaire, all the speech acts in Searle (1975) (See in Section 2.5.1) were included except the last type, because there is a very low probability for them to happen in the students' daily life according to the judgment of the teachers group (two American teachers and four Chinese teachers from the Foreign Languages College in Guizhou University) and the researcher, and the speech acts appeared in the previous studies

were listed. The teachers group were invited to evaluate the possibility of all the speech

acts for college students with the researcher. The selection of the speech acts were based

on the familiarity and frequency of use in the daily life decided by the teachers group

and the researcher, and 20 speech acts were selected to list in the questionnaire

(Appendix A). After that, the questionnaire was distributed to 100 English majors of

the second academic year in Guizhou University and they were required to choose the

top ten speech acts they may meet in their daily life. Ninety-seven valid questionnaires

were collected. After the calculation of the mean scores, the most frequently used ten

speech acts were: advice, gratitude, greeting, congratulation, apology, request,

compliment, inquiry, refusal and compliment response. The frequencies of them are

illustrated in Table 3.2.

Table 3.2 Number of the Students for the Top Ten Used Speech Acts

Speech act	Number
Advice	79
Gratitude	69
Greeting	67
Congratulation	62
Apology	61
Request	57
Compliment	54
Inquiry	49
Refusal	41
Compliment Response	37

2) Exemplar Generation

After the ten speech acts were decided, the next step was to obtain situations

of each speech act through a type of exemplar generation (Groves, 1996; Ostrom &

Gannon, 1996; Rose & Ono, 1995; Rose & Ng, 2001). An exemplar generation

questionnaire was designed in which one example of the situation in each speech act was

illustrated in the form of WDCT with both English and Chinese. Every student was

required to write one possible situation they met in their daily life for each speech act.

The exemplar questionnaire was written in both English and Chinese (Appendix B). The

students were encouraged to write their situations in English, but if they felt writing in

English was difficult, Chinese was allowed. All the students wrote in English except one.

Most students finished it within half an hour. As a result, 173 situations were collected,

and the distribution of situations for each speech act is illustrated in Table 3.3.

Table 3.3 Distribution of Situations

Speech act	No. of situations
Advice	18
Gratitude	23
Greeting	16
Congratulation	18
Apology	20
Request	17
Compliment	16
Inquiry	19
Refusal	15
Compliment Response	11

3) Likelihood Investigation

The third stage was a likelihood investigation. A questionnaire was designed

to include all the situations collected in the above stage. Thirty-three native   English

speakers in Guizhou University from different countries, including America, England,

and Canada, were asked to indicate on a five-point rating scale of likelihood, from "1"

impossible to "5" most likely, according to the possibility that the situations would occur in their daily life. The likelihood investigation questionnaire (Appendix C) was written in English. All the native English speakers finished it within an hour. The mean scores were calculated. Three situations with the highest mean scores were selected in each speech act. Altogether 30 situations were included in WDCT.

4) Content validity check

The 30 situations were organized and rewritten without changing the original meaning. After that, the two American teachers and four Chinese teachers of English in the Foreign Languages College of Guizhou University were invited to check the content validity of WDCT with the researcher. As Intaraprasert (2000) indicates that all texts need to be validated in terms of familiarity, appropriateness and degree of specification. The purpose of checking for content validity was to obtain the data for the following issues: 1) Whether the expressions of the items were appropriate; 2) Whether each situation could elicit the expected speech act; 3) Whether the situations were typical in both English and Chinese; 4) Whether the situations were familiar with the students. The results revealed that all items were appropriate for the present study and they could elicit the correct speech acts except some revisions on the language organization. Besides, the teachers group and the researcher decided to assign this test to the third-year students since the third year students have been equipped with basic skills in using English and they have taken courses as western cultures and applied linguistics.

3.2.1.2 Reliability and Validity of WDCT

After the WDCT was finished, it was tested for reliability and validity. The two American teachers in Guizhou University were invited to rate the WDCT. The American teachers were trained before they started scoring. They were introduced to the criteria and rubrics of WDCT first, and then some examples were given to them to rate. Until they reached an agreement, the training stopped. In addition, a third rater was also prepared in case that there existed a significant difference between the two raters.

The data collected from WDCT was input into FACETS (3.71.4) to calculate the reliability and validity with MFRM. Implemented through FACETS software (Linacre & Wright, 1999), MFRM assumes that at least three facets of any testing situation interact to affect ratings: test taker's ability, item difficulty and severity or leniency of raters in a setting where ratings of performance are involved (Rover, 2008). High-ability test takers are expected to perform better on items of greater difficulty than low-ability test takers, but if high-ability test takers meet harsh raters and low-ability test takers meet lenient raters, they may be rated similarly although their abilities are different. Similarly, harsh raters would make items seem much more difficult than lenient raters because the ratings that test takers obtain from harsh raters are lower.

To relate different facets of the measurement situation to consideration, deviations from theoretical expectations can be identified, and misfitting test takers,

items, or raters will be flagged. For instance, a test taker might be misfitting when performing well on difficult items but poorly on easy items, an item might be misfitting when low-ability test takers perform better than expected, and a rater might be misfitting when rating high-ability test takers lower than low-ability test takers. A misfitting test taker may not try their best, e.g. answering randomly, and a misfitting rater may rate erratically or inconsistently. A misfitting item may measure something other than the construct required. However, the Rasch model is probabilistic, so a certain degree of deviations from theoretical expectations simply due to chance is allowed, but a misfit is indicated if violations of the model's assumption exceed certain thresholds (Linacre & Wright, 1999). In addition, the cases in which the deviation from theoretical expectations is less than expected is also identified by the Rasch model. It is known as 'overfit' and particularly related to raters: a rater may be overfitting when he/she does not use the full measurement scale, e.g. mostly use mid-level ratings but shy away from the extremes of the rating scale.

Linacre & Wright (2000) state that MFRM is a new instrument which examines reliability and validity of testing. A test can be with both high reliability and validity if the results are in accordance with MFRM (Brown, 1996; Linacre & Wright, 2000). In the present study, MFRM was used to investigate the reliability and validity of WDCT in the ILP competence test, in detail, the test taker ability, the rater harshness/leniency, the item difficulty and the rating scare characteristics were calculated. All the results of WDCT show expected reliability and validity. The

following paragraphs describe the results briefly, and more details can be seen in Appendix E.

After calculation, it shows that for examinees, the infit MnSq and infit ZStd were acceptable except one (<2%), the separation was 3.47(>2.00), the reliability was .92 (>.70), the fixed Chi-square was 5236.1 and the significance was .00 (<.01), which means there existed significant difference of the examinees, so the WDCT part could well distinguish the examinees.

As for the raters, infit MnSq and infit ZStd were acceptable, the separation of the raters was 1.47 (<2.00), the reliability was .68 (<.70), the fixed Chi-square was 3.2 and the significance was .08 (>.05), which means that there was no significant difference of the severity/leniency of the two raters. The third rater was not invited.

For items, the infit MnSq and infit ZStd were all acceptable, the separation was 9.03 (>2.00), the reliability was .90 (>.70), the fixed Chi-square was 2332.1 and the significance was .00 (<.01). It indicates that there existed significant difference of item difficulties, and this confirmed that WDCT could well distinguish the examinees.

The rating scale statistics illustrate that the average measures were monotonically increasing, every outfit MnSq index was around 1.0 and no one was greater than 2.0, and step calibration indicates that the distance between each two rating scales was no bigger than 4.0 logits and there was no central tendency. The rating scale

worked as intended, which assured the construct validity of WDCT. In the present study, the reliability and validity of WDCT were acceptable, and the ILP competence test was to be applied to answer the research questions.

3.2.1.3 Rubrics of WDCT

The participants' responses in WDCT were evaluated by the rating criteria adapted from Hudson et al. (1995). There were four aspects of pragmatic competence to be rated in conducting speech acts, i.e. the ability to use the correct speech act, typical expressions, amount of speech and information, and levels of formality, directness and politeness. The appropriateness of each aspect was scored on a five-point rating scale ranging from "1" very unsatisfactory to "5" completely appropriate. The total score for each item was 20.

Table 3.4 Rubrics of WDCT

Grade	Correct speech act	Typical expressions	Amount of speech and information	Levels of formality, directness and politeness
1 not appropriate at all	Incorrect speech act or no speech act is elicited	Expressions and wording are not appropriate	The amount of information given is either too much or too little	Levels of formality, directness and politeness are not appropriate
2 not very appropriate, but acceptable	Intended speech act is vaguely implied but may cause misunderstanding	Expressions and wording are non-typical but still acceptable	The amount of information given is inappropriately much or little but still acceptable	Levels of formality, directness and politeness are not very appropriate but still acceptable

Table 3.4 Rubrics of WDCT (Cont.)

Grade	Correct speech act	Typical expressions	Amount of speech and information	Levels of formality, directness and politeness
3 generally appropriate	Intended speech act is implied and understandable	Expressions and wording are generally appropriate	The amount of information given is generally appropriate	Levels of formality, directness and politeness are generally appropriate
4 mostly appropriate	Correct speech is elicited but not very clear	Expressions and wording are mostly appropriate	The amount of information given is appropriate	Levels of formality, directness and politeness are mostly appropriate
5 completely appropriate	Correct speech act is elicited	Expressions and wording are completely appropriate	The amount of information given is completely appropriate	Levels of formality, directness and politeness are completely appropriate

In the rating rubrics, the first aspect is the ability to use the correct speech act. Each situation in the present study is developed to elicit a particular speech act, and the American raters rated the degree to which each response in the situation captured the intended speech act.

The second aspect of the rating rubrics is typical expressions. The appropriate expressions according to the American raters would win high scores. Non-typical expressions might be caused by non-native speakers' ignorance of particular English phrases or due to mother tongue transfer. Non-typical expressions appear frequently in

the non-native speakers' responses. The native-speaker intuitions of raters could serve well in rating typical expressions (Hudson et al., 1992).

The third aspect is amount of speech and information. The amount of speech is adjusted by speakers to fit a particular situation of speech acts. Hudson et al. (1995) hypothesized that it is possible for non-native speakers to use more or less speech than expected. The amount of speech used by non-native speakers might be due to their elaboration or circumlocution depending upon the language proficiency. However, language proficiency is not the deciding factor for the amount of speech and information given, and individual choice may also influence it. It is not easy to decide the appropriate amount of information for a given situation because individual variation is normal. Thus, raters are suggested to use their native speaker's intuition to judge whether a response includes appropriate amount of speech and information or not.

The last aspect is levels of formality, directness and politeness. "Formality can be expressed through word choice, phrasing, use of titles, and choice of verb forms" (Hudson et al., 1995, p.50). Most speech is indirect from the pragmatic point of view (Hudson et al., 1995). However, the three elements: formality, politeness, and directness are often overlapping. The aspects of formality and directness are involved in politeness among strategies such as politeness markers like 'thank you', 'please'. Hence, raters are suggested to take these three elements as a whole when judge the appropriateness of a response.

In order to make the rating rubrics clear, situation 19: "*A stranger offers you a ride downtown, but you refuse*", is taken as an example. To make it easier to

understand the rating criteria, the responses were purposively chosen and the scores

obtained by the examinees were the same in the four aspects in the following analysis.

> 5: completely appropriate in each aspect

> You are so kind, but I really want to take a bus. Thank you very much. (The

total score is 5+5+5+5=20)

The four aspects in evaluating the level of appropriateness were 1) correct

speech act, 2) typical expressions, 3) amount of speech and information, and 4) levels

of formality, directness and politeness. In terms of the correct speech act, this situation

aimed to elicit the speech act of refusal, and the above response successfully conducted

the exact speech act by saying "*I really want to take a bus*". As for the second aspect,

typical expressions, the expressions and wording were completely appropriate. "*You

are so kind*" and "*thank you very much*" were good expressions to show gratitude, and

"*but I really want to take a bus*" was a very good expression to show explanation for

the refusal. As to the amount of speech and information, the response contained an

appropriate length of content for expressing "gratitude" and "explanation" and the

sentences were coherent with each other. In levels of formality, directness and

politeness, the level of formality was very appropriate because the word choice was

suitable for the social distance (strangers). The degree of directness was also quite

suitable since refusal is a face threatening speech act, in the above response, there was

no direct refusal in the sentences. The politeness degree was marked by the use of

expressions which showed "gratitude". Therefore, the score for each of the four aspects

was five, and the overall performance was excellent.

4: mostly appropriate in each aspect

Thank you. My friend may pick me up. Maybe I can go with him/her. (The total score is 4+4+4+4=16)

In this response, the score for each aspect was four and the total score was 16. In the aspect of correct speech act, the speech act "refusal" was conducted but not very clear with the utterance "*maybe I can go with him/her*", and the hearer may understand it as that the speaker does not want to bring trouble to others. For typical expressions, the expressions "*thank you*" for showing "gratitude" and "*My friend may pick me up. Maybe I can go with him/her*" for showing "explanation" were mostly appropriate. For the amount of speech and information, the expressions and wording were mostly appropriate, and coherence existed among the sentences although it was not very strong. For levels of formality, directness and politeness, the formality was appropriate by showing "gratitude" with the social distance, the degree of directness was also almost appropriate since no direct refusal was conducted, but the two American raters considered that the expressions were a little bit too polite and the hearer may get confused whether he/she was refused or not, and the level of politeness was matched with "*thank you*" in the response. Thus, the score for each aspect in evaluating this response was four and the total score was 16.

3: generally appropriate in each aspect

No bother, I can get there by myself. (The total score is 3+3+3+3=12)

This response won a total score of 12 points. For correct speech act, the speech act "refusal" was implied and understandable. For typical expressions, the

expressions and wording were generally appropriate by saying "*no bother*" to show "refusal" and "*I can go there by myself*" for "explanation". The amount of speech and information was generally appropriate, but for refusing an offer, the two American teachers both insisted that expressions for "gratitude" should be included, thus, the amount of speech and information was less than enough in this response. For levels of formality, directness and politeness, the word choice, phrasing, and choices of verb forms were generally appropriate. For the face threatening speech act, it is better to be more indirect when conducting it, but the two American raters thought the response seemed a little bit direct. For level of politeness, the expressions were generally appropriate, but no "gratitude" was included. For all the above defects, the score for the last aspect was reduced to three. The response was appropriate in general.

2: not very appropriate, but acceptable

No, thanks. (The total score is 2+2+2+2=8)

This response won a total score of eight with two in each aspect. As for the correct speech act, the speech act "refusal" was vaguely implied and the response might cause a misunderstanding. For typical expressions, the expression and wording were not very typical but still acceptable. Using the word "*No*" for refusal seemed to be too direct and it did not follow the custom in English. As for the amount of speech and information, the response was far less than enough but still acceptable. Levels of formality, directness and politeness were not very appropriate. The choice of the word "*No*" seemed too direct and not polite, so the score was only two in this aspect. The overall performance was poor.

1: Not appropriate at all

Thank you very much for your kindness. (The total score is 1+1+1+1=4)

In this response, no correct speech act was elicited. "*Thank you very much for your kindness*" showed "gratitude" instead of "refusal". Typical expressions were not conducted at all since no utterance in the response could show "refusal". The amount of speech and information was not adequate for the correct speech act could not be recognized. For levels of formality, directness and politeness, since the potential speech act was not conducted, this aspect was hard to evaluate, the two American raters agreed to give one point as well. The overall performance was very poor.

3.2.2 MDCT

A MDCT contains a brief description of situation in a particular speech act with an incomplete discourse sequence. Participants are required to complete a dialogue by selecting one from three or four choices as the following example shows.

You are now shopping in a department store. You see a beautiful suit and want to see it. You ask the salesperson to show you the suit.

You say:_____

A. Oh, sorry, could you pass that suit to me have a look? I want to buy it.

B. Lady, I'd like to have a look at that suit. Would you please do me a favor?

C. Excuse me. Could you show me this suit please? (Liu, 2004:272)

In the present study, MDCT was used to test the EFL learners' ILP competence in understanding implicature and performing routines. In previous studies of implicature and routines, most researchers applied this instrument to test EFL learners' ILP competence (He & Yan, 1986; Hong, 1991; Rover, 2006b; Jiang, 2009;

Ma, 2010; Mahmoodi, 2013; Chen, 2016). The reason is that the reliability of MDCT tends to be higher than that of other test methods through careful reviewing, pre-testing, trialling, analysis and revision, in combination with the objectivity in scoring (Hopkins & Antes, 1985; Brown & Hudson, 1998; Davies, 1999). However, most previous researchers have found low reliability in MDCT in testing pragmatic competence except Liu (2004), which makes this instrument very challenging. It is believed that through careful planning and developing, MDCT could work well. It is worth further investigation.

3.2.2.1 MDCT Development

In the present study, the MDCT items were formed through two methods, the items adapted from the previous studies and the items developed for the present research. The development of them experienced the following three steps: adaptation from the previous studies, development of new items and content validity check. The following figure illustrates the development of MDCT.

Figure 3.3 The Development of MDCT

1) Adaptation of the previous studies

Some of the MDCT items in implicature and routines were adapted from the previous research (He & Yan, 1986; Hong, 1991; Rover, 2006b; Jiang, 2009; Ma, 2010). Altogether 63 items were collected, among them, 32 were related to implicature and 31 to routines.

2) Development of new items

The new developed items in the sections of understanding implicature and performing routines followed three steps: 1) the collection of situations: the situations were obtained from the text books (He, 2000; He, 2003; McCarthy, McCarten & Sandiford, 2005; Richards, Hull, & Proctor, 2005; Richards & Bohlke, 2012). 2) The understanding of the implicature from the two native speaker teachers and the responses in the textbooks of routines were set as the key for each item. 3) The four Chinese teachers of English in Guizhou University and the researcher decided the distracters based on their experience for each situation. Finally, ten items for implicature and ten for routines were developed. The students' understandings for implicature and responses in routines were not considered as the means to collect distractors, because when they were used as distractors, they were not clearly incorrect in meaning or inappropriateness (Hudson et al. 1992, 1995).

3) Content validity check

The teachers group was invited again to check the content validity of MDCT with the researcher. The purposes of doing this were 1) whether the items could test the knowledge of interlanguage implicature and routines; 2) whether the items were

repetitive or similar; 3) whether the items were ambiguous for the readers; 4) whether the teachers group could not reach an agreement on the answers for the items; 5) whether the items could test the ILP competence; and 6) to examine and correct the grammar and spelling of the items. After the discussion, 40 items were selected for the pilot study, 20 were related to implicature and 20 to routines. Among them, 12 items for implicature were adapted and eight were developed, and ten items for routines were adapted and ten were developed by the teachers group.

3.2.2.2 MDCT Rating

There is only one correct choice for a MDCT item. If the students got the correct choice, they would get one point for each item, and if they got the wrong choice, they would get "0". The total score for this part was 40 points. 20 points were for the implicature section and 20 points were for the routines section. The MDCT was rated by the researcher.

Since the rating scales for the two testing methods, WDCT and MDCT, were different, the score obtained by each subject for each item was converted into 100 before the EFL learners' ILP competence was calculated. As Rover (2005) suggests that it is a good way to convert the total score of each part into 100 when compare different testing methods.

3.2.2.3 Reliability and Validity of the ILP Competence Test

The data collected from MDCT was input into SPSS (21.0) to calculate the reliability, and then into Delta Sigma software to calculate the validity. Data analysis methods for the reliability and validity of MDCT included item analysis and split-half reliability analysis.

1) Item Analysis

Item analysis is the process to examine the students' performances on each test item for judging the quality of items (Mehrens & Lehmann, 1978). As a procedure or simple statistical way for checking items (Madsen, 1983), the major purpose of item analysis is to give information on the extent to which the individual items comprising a test are functioning as expected. The resulting information of item analysis can be made use of to improve the reliability and validity of the test by editing, discarding or replacing poor items (Craighead & Nemeroff, 2002). The purpose of item analysis is to identify the items that need to be revised or replaced. Traditionally, item analysis involves the calculation of one or more statistical measures of item functioning, including item difficulty, and item discrimination as well as the effectiveness of each alternative (Wilson, 2013).

Item difficulty is an indication which estimates how difficult the item is for the test takers tested. Item difficulty can be calculated with dividing the number of students who answer the item correctly by the number of students answering the item (Wilson, 2013). If all students answer correctly, item difficulty will be one. If no student

answers correctly, item difficulty will be zero. To compute item difficulty, the following formula was adopted.

$$Difficulty = \frac{R}{T} \times 100$$

Where R = number of students who answered item correctly

T = total number of students in the high and low

(Adopted from Mehrens & Lehman, 1978, p.326)

Figure 3.4 The Formula for Difficulty

Item discrimination is an indication which estimates how effective the item distinguishes between test takers who know the material tested and those who do not (Wilson, 2013). Item discrimination is also regarded as construct validity (Mehrens & Lehman, 1978). It concerns whether or not the students who do well on the whole test answer each item correctly, or whether or not the students who do bad on the whole test answer each item correctly. The results are less bothersome if high-achieving test takers are answering incorrectly on some items (Wilson, 2013). In the present study, the 'third technique' proposed by Madsen (1983) was employed to carry out the item analysis for discrimination power. With this technique, the students were divided into three groups based on their total scores in the MDCT: the top third, the middle third and the bottom third. The top third considered as the high-score group and the bottom third as the low-score group were chosen to calculate the discrimination power. The item discrimination power for each item was obtained by subtracting the number of students in the low-

score group who got the correct answer from the number of students in the high-score

group who answered the item correctly, and then dividing by the number of students in

either group. Mehrens & Lehman (1978) suggest a formula for item discrimination

power. It is illustrated in Figure 3.5 below.

$$Discrimination = \frac{R_G - R_P}{(1/2)T}$$

Where R_G = the number in the high group who got the item right
R_P = the number in the low group who got the item right
T = total number of students in the high and low group

(Adapted from Mehrens & Lehman, 1978, p.326)

Figure 3.5 The Formula for Item Discrimination

"The optimum difficulty index varies with the purposes of the test and the

type of items" (Craighead & Nemeroff, 2002, p.805). For the discrimination power,

Mehrens & Lehmann (1978) state that the higher, the better. In the present study, item

analysis was used to investigate the validity of MDCT in the ILP competence test, and

the difficulty level and discrimination power of each item as well as their distractors

were calculated with both item analysis software and Delta Sigma software.

The effectiveness of the alternatives majorly refers to the difficulty level and

discrimination power of the distractors. The two indexes were calculated with Delta

Sigma software. Briefly speaking, the lowest requirement for the distractors is the number

of the students with higher ILP competence who chose each distractor should be smaller

than the number of students with lower ILP competence (Mehrens & Lehmann, 1978).

2) Split-Half Reliability

The split-half procedure is conducted by scoring two halves (usually odd items versus even items) of a test separately for each participant and then calculating a correlation coefficient for the two halves of scores. The coefficient indicates the degree to which the two halves of a test have the same results, and further describes the internal consistency of a test (Fraenkel, et al., 1993). Split half can be applied in a test in which the items are not of equal difficulty or the items are scored right versus wrong (Fraenkel, et al., 1993). In the present study, split half procedure was used to calculate the reliability of MDCT in the ILP competence test.

The teachers group and one American teacher at Suranaree University of Technology in Thailand were invited to check the content validity of MDCT. After a few trials and revisions in the pilot study, the reliabilities were .880 for implicature and .894 for routines. All the items and their distractors were with acceptable difficulty level and discrimination power in the MDCT. The MDCT were used in the main study. More details of the reliability and validity in MDCT can be seen in Appendix E.

After that, the construct validity of the ILP competence test was examined with Pearson Bivariate correlation. Pearson Bivariate correlation examines how far two variables go together within a group of individuals that vary with each other (Kothari, 2004). It is expressed by the correlation coefficient r, which is a succinct numerical indication showing the positive or negative value and the strength or closeness of the relationship (Kothari, 2004). In the present study, three fields of ILP competence were

tested: speech acts, implicature and routines. Bivariate correlation was applied to investigate the relationship between each two sections of the test in order to investigate the construct validity of the whole ILP competence test. The results show that the three sections were overlapped with each other, and the speech acts section and routines section overlap the most. More details can be seen in Appendix E.

3.2.3 Semi-structured Interview

In the present study, a semi-structured interview was applied to investigate the opinions from the EFL learners' perspective in the ILP competence in order to understand their ILP competence as a supplement for their scores of the ILP competence test. There are many reasons to use a semi-structured interview as a data collection method. First, it can deepen the understanding of the EFL learners' experiences, perceptions and thoughts in their ILP competence. Second, it provides the possibility of understanding the real world at a depth that is not possible with the ILP competence test from the perspective of the participants (Heigham & Croker, 2009). Third, a semi-structured interview can be conducted with flexible time with each interviewee. Since the present study planned to hold one-on-one interviews, there was no need to find a time when all the students are together. Fourth, during the interview, the interviewer can make the responses of the interviewees clear immediately. Based on the above reasons, an interview seems to be suitable method in learning the opinions that the participants had on the ILP competence test.

The interview questions focused on the opinions the students had in conducting speech acts, understanding implicature and performing routines. The teachers group and the researcher discussed the possible questions and time length before the pilot study. Altogether seven questions were prepared. A pilot study was held in advance to ensure the time length, the sequence of the questions, the recording and other problems which may happen. Ten students who took the ILP competence test in the pilot study were chosen randomly for the interview. The average time for the interview was around 20 minutes. More details of the pilot study and the interview questions in the pilot study can be seen in Appendix E. The interview questions for the main study can be seen in the following table.

Table 3.5 The Interview Questions in the Main Study

The Interview Questions
1. Have you leant pragmatics before?
2. In your opinion, what is pragmatics?
3. Do you have any difficulties in finishing this test?
4. What is the most difficult part for you?
5. Do you feel difficult in conducting speech acts? If yes, what are your difficulties?
6. Do you feel difficult in understanding implicature? If yes, what are your difficulties?
7. Do you feel difficult in choosing the answers for the routines? If yes, what are your difficulties?
8. Why do you think that you have difficulties in interlanguage pragmatics?

3.3 Participants

There are altogether 18 universities in the Guizhou Province, China. Among them, English is a major for 16 universities. The number of current English majors is more than 8,000 in the whole province. Altogether 390 English majors were selected

from four universities to participate in the present study. Based on the rationales and the objective conditions in doing the present research, it is difficult to choose the subjects by means of random sampling as the only method. Random sampling refers to select a sample from a larger population in a way that each individual of the population has an equal probability of being selected (Levy & Lemeshow, 2013). Therefore, purposive and convenient sampling methods were adopted. In purposive sampling, the researcher specified the characteristics of the population of interest and located individuals with those characteristics (Burke & Larry, 2010). Convenient sampling means that individuals are selected as the sample for the convenience of the researcher, or that the researcher tends to select individuals that are readily available (Wen, 2000).

Based on both convenient and purposive sampling principles, the researcher selected four universities in the Guizhou Province, two of them are common universities, and the other two are universities for minorities, to match the characteristics needed in the study. The third-year students were selected because they took TEM 4 in April 2014, which is considered as the standard for the level of language proficiency in this research.

TEM 4 is a national language proficiency test for examining English majors' comprehensive ability. It is held at the end of their second academic year. The purpose of the test is to examine all the basic skills of the learners in language learning as well as their grasp of grammar and vocabulary. The time limit for TEM 4 is 135 minutes and the total score is 100 points. The details of TEM 4 are seen in Table 3.6.

Table 3.6 The Construction of TEM 4

Part 1	Dictation	1 passage
Part 2	Listening comprehension	10 items for dialogues, short passages and news respectively
Part 3	Cloze	20 items
Part 4	Vocabulary and grammar	15 items for vocabulary, and 15 for grammar
Part 5	Reading comprehension	20 items, 4 to 5 passages
Part 6	Writing	1 composition writing and 1 note writing

For the level of language proficiency, the students were divided into three groups (high, medium, low) based on their scores in TEM 4, and an equal number of students were obtained for each group. However, since the number of English majors in the four universities were not evenly distributed in terms of nationality and gender, and the proportions of Han and female students were larger than the minorities and the males respectively, the researcher purposively selected all the minority and male English major students in the third year from all the four universities and tried to match them with the same number of Han and female students,. However, the male students were still too few compared with the female students among the English majors, i.e. the number of males and females still did not match. The distribution of the participants is illustrated in table 3.7.

Table 3.7 Distribution of Participants for the Present Study

University	No. of participants	Nationality		Gender		Language proficiency		
		H	Mi	M	F	Hi	Me	L
Guizhou University	96	194	196	155	235	130	130	130
Guizhou Minzu University	102							
Qiannan Normal College for Nationalities	113							
Zunyi Normal University	79							

Note: M, Male; F, Female; H, Han; Mi, Minority; Hi, High level; Me, Medium level; L, Low level

Twenty-four students were selected from the main study to take part in the interview, and all the interviewees in the pilot study were excluded. The distribution of the interviewees is shown in table 3.8.

Table 3.8 Distribution of Interviewees

Number of Interviewees	M, H, Hi	M, H, Me,	M, H, L	M, Mi, Hi	M, Mi, Me	M, Mi, L	F, H, Hi	F, H, Me	F, H, L	F, Mi, Hi	F, Mi, Me	F, Mi, L
24	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2	2

Note: M, Male; F, Female; H, Han; Mi, Minority; Hi, High level; Me, Medium level; L, Low level

From the above table, it can be seen that among all the interviewees, 12 of them were Han and 12 were minorities, 12 were female and 12 were male, and eight of them were in high-, medium- and low-level of language proficiency respectively. Table 3.9 shows the bio-data of the interviewees.

Table 3.9 Bio-data of the Interviewees

Interviewee	Gender	Nationality	Language proficiency
I1	Female	Han	High
I2	Female	Minority (Buyi)	Medium
I3	Male	Han	High
I4	Male	Minority (Buyi)	Medium
I5	Female	Han	High
I6	Female	Minority (Buyi)	High
I7	Female	Minority (Dong)	Medium
I8	Female	Han	Medium
I9	Female	Minority (Miao)	High
I10	Male	Minority (Tujia)	High
I11	Male	Han	Low
I12	Male	Minority (Shui)	Medium
I13	Female	Minority (Tujia)	Low
I14	Female	Han	Low
I15	Female	Han	Low
I16	Female	Minority (Tujia)	Low
I17	Female	Han	Medium

Table 3.5 Bio-data of the Interviewees (Cont.)

Interviewee	Gender	Nationality	Language proficiency
I18	Male	Han	Medium
I19	Male	Minority (Shui)	Low
I20	Male	Han	Low
I21	Male	Minority (Miao)	Low
I22	Male	Han	Medium
I23	Male	Han	High
I24	Male	Minority (Chuanqing)	High

3.4 Data Collection

Data collection in the main study consisted of two parts: DCT and interview. DCT was further divided into WDCT and MDCT and they formed the ILP competence test.

3.4.1 Administration of WDCT and MDCT

Before the administration of the DCT, a brief explanation was given to the students. The two parts of DCT were administered to the students at the same time. The time to finish the ILP competence test was about two hours.

3.4.2 Administration of Interview

A semi-structured interview was conducted immediately after the ILP competence test in the data collection process. Twenty-four interviewees were selected purposively to reach the balance within each variable. The interview was held with the one-on-one and face-to-face basis, and the time length for each interviewee was about 20 minutes.

In the present research, the interviewees were given the right to choose the language used in the interviews, only one interviewee decided to use English, and the other 23 interviewees finished the interviews in Chinese. Each interviewee was given ten minutes to read the prepared questions. All the interviews were recorded verbally. After that, the transcription was carried out by the researcher and two other teachers in Guizhou University, and then translated into English for content analysis.

3.5 Data Analysis

This section describes the methods of analyzing the data obtained from the WDCT, MDCT and semi-structured interviews. The data obtained from the WDCT and MDCT were analyzed quantitatively, and the quantitative data analysis methods include the following: 1) Descriptive statistics, 2) One-way Analysis of variance (ANOVA), and 3) Post-hoc multiple comparisons. Descriptive statistics were applied to calculate the EFL learners' ILP competence in each category and at the overall level to answer research question one for investigating the EFL learners' ILP competence in each category and at the overall level. The last two data analysis methods were used to answer research questions two to four for the purpose of investigating the variations in the EFL learners' ILP competence according to nationality, gender and level of language proficiency. The semi-structured interview data were analyzed qualitatively, using content analysis, as the support for the research questions.

3.5.1 Quantitative Data Analysis

All data collected from WDCT and MDCT were put into SPSS (21.0) to analyze the EFL learners' ILP competence in conducting speech acts, understanding implicature and performing routines. The EFL learners' variations of the ILP competence were also calculated with SPSS (21.0). Different data analysis methods were used to answer different research questions.

5) Descriptive Statistics

Descriptive statistics is used to summarize the data by central tendency and variability. Measures of central tendency can identify what is typical in a set of data. Measures of variability can identify how different the observations are from each other. In the present study, descriptive statistics were used to answer the first research question (What is the ILP competence of English majors in conducting speech acts, understanding implicature and performing routines?). The mean scores of the overall ILP competence and ILP competence in terms of conducting speech acts, understanding implicature and performing routines were calculated.

6) One-Way Analysis of Variance (ANOVA)

ANOVA is essentially a process for investigating the difference among different sets of data for homogeneity (Kothari, 2004). The essence of ANOVA is that the total amount of variation in a set of data is divided into two types: the amount that can be attributed to chance and the amount that can be attributed to specified causes. One-way ANOVA is a method of statistical analysis applied to test the significance of

differences among the means of two or more groups of one variable (Nunan, 1989). This method can be only applied to numerical data. In the present study, one-way ANOVA was used to analyze the data to answer research questions two to four, i.e. 2. Do the English majors' ILP competence levels vary significantly according to nationality? If they do, what are the patterns of variation? 3. Do the English majors' ILP competence levels vary significantly according to gender? If they do, what are the patterns of variation? 4. Do the English majors' ILP competence levels vary significantly according to level of language proficiency? If they do, what are the patterns of variation?

7) The Post-hoc Multiple Comparisons

The post-hoc comparisons are conducted after the overall F is calculated by ANOVA. If the overall F is significant, the post-hoc comparisons are followed. When there are more than two values or constants (groups) in a variable, F can just tell whether there is a significant difference among the groups, but it cannot tell how different it is, i.e. the variation patterns. However, post-hoc comparisons could further indicate where the differences exist (Broota, 1989). In the present study, there were three values, high, medium and low for the variable "level of language proficiency". One-way ANOVA cannot tell the patterns of variation, if any, in the three means. Thus, Post-hoc comparisons needed to be conducted. In the Post-hoc multiple comparisons, the Scheffé's method was applied, which is a procedure for adjusting significance levels in a linear regression analysis accounting for multiple comparisons. It is particularly used

in analyzing variance, and in constructing simultaneous confidence bands for regressions which involves basis functions.

3.5.2 Qualitative Data Analysis

The data collected from the semi-structured interviews were analyzed qualitatively. The content analysis method was adopted. Content analysis is a method which can describe the meaning of qualitative material systematically. The parts of the material are distributed to the categories of a coding frame. This frame is the core of content analysis, which covers all the meanings in the description and interpretation of the material (Schreier, 2012). Schreier (2012) further suggests eight steps in doing content analysis: 1) to decide the research question; 2) to select the material; 3) to build a coding frame; 4) to divide the material into categories of coding; 5) to try out the coding frame; 6) to evaluate and modify the coding frame; 7) to conduct main analysis; and 8) to interpret and present the findings.

In the present study, the semi-structured interview data were recorded, transcribed and translated. After that, these data were organized, coded and categorized, and then the theme for each category was worked out by the coders. Finally, the findings were interpreted and presented. To avoid individual bias, besides the researcher, another two teachers from English school in Guizhou University were invited to analyze the qualitative data in order to guarantee the inter-rater reliability.

Inter-rater reliability concerns the activity to classify objects into predefined groups or categories in the process of conducting a scientific investigation (Gwet, 2012).

These categories are usually values taken by an ordinal or a nominal characteristic. The reliability of such classification process can be achieved by inviting two or more raters who are required to independently perform this classification with the same group of objects. In order to accomplish this task, the raters will participate in an inter-rater reliability experiment in which they are expected to produce categorizations of the same objects. The extent to which these categorizations coincide represents their inter-rater reliability. If inter-rater reliability is high, then all raters can be used and the researcher does not need to worry about the categorization with an effect of a significant rater factor. Interchangeability of raters justifies how important the inter-rater reliability is. If inter-rater reliability is guaranteed, then the categories into which objects are classified can be applied with confidence in studies.

In the present study, both of the teachers had Ph.D.s and have had working experience as college teachers for more than ten years. The three coders, including the researcher, decided the coding frame and classified the material according to this coding frame together, for the goal of content analysis is to go beyond understanding and interpretation of individuals (Schreier, 2012). To make the analysis of the data more reliable, until the three coders reached an agreement, the results were decided, because checking for consistency between coders is one way to assess the reliability of the coding frame (Schreier, 2012).

3.6 Summary of the Chapter

This chapter mainly described the whole research design. This study was a survey study with a mixed approach. The total participants were 390 English majors from four universities in the Guizhou Province, China. The domain of this ILP competence test was speech acts, implicature and routines with testing methods of WDCT and MDCT. A semi-structured interview was applied after the ILP competence test to deepen the understanding of the students' ILP competence. The variables included in the present study were nationality, gender and level of language proficiency. The data analysis methods were descriptive statistics, ANOVA, and Post-hoc Scheffe analysis for quantitative data, and content analysis for qualitative data. After the calculations, it showed that the ILP competence test was reliable and valid. The pilot study showed that the semi-structured interview questions were appropriate and the time length was acceptable.
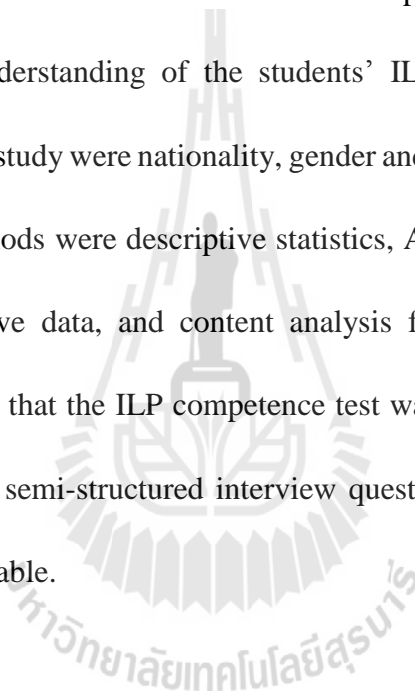
CHAPTER 4

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION I:

EFL LEARNERS' ILP COMPETENCE

The purpose of this chapter is to present the analysis and results of both the quantitative and qualitative data, together with the discussion of the results, related to the first research question "What is the ILP competence of English majors in conducting speech acts, understanding implicature and performing routines?", descriptive statistical methods were used to find out the mean scores of the students' ILP competence in different categories and at the overall level as well as for each item.

4.1 EFL Learners' ILP Competence

The ILP competence level of the EFL learners has been classified as "high-level", "medium-level", and "low-level" according to their scores in the test. The total score was 100.00. Based on the trichotomy method, scores ranging from 0.00 to 33.33 were in the "low-level" category, from 33.34 to 66.67 were in the "medium-level" category, and from 66.67 to 100.00 were in the "high-level" category.

The ILP competence test in the present study included three sections: speech acts, implicature and routines. Table 4.1 illustrates the students' ILP competence in the three categories and the average level for the whole test, together with their standard

deviations. The students' ILP competence was at the medium level in the three categories, and the mean scores were 61.33 for speech acts, 53.96 for implicature, and 51.15 for routines. This means that the students involved in this study had the highest ILP competence in the aspect of conducting speech acts, and the lowest ILP competence in performing routines. The holistic mean score of the 390 students was 55.48, which indicates that as a whole, the ILP competence of the EFL learners in the Guizhou Province was at the medium level.

Table 4.1 EFL Learners' ILP Competence at the Category and Overall Levels

Category	ILP Competence		ILP Competence Level
	Mean Score	Std. Deviation	
Speech acts	61.33	4.83	Medium
Implicature	53.96	28.48	Medium
Routines	51.15	24.76	Medium
Overall	55.48	17.84	Medium

Note: Low level: 0.00-33.33, Medium level: 33.34-66.67, High level: 66.68-100.00

Rather than describe the general picture of the EFL learners' ILP competence at the overall and the category levels, Table 4.2 intends to provide more detailed information about the EFL learners' ILP competence in each item for the purpose of presenting a clearer picture. In Table 4.2, the EFL learners' ILP competence at the individual level is presented with the mean scores and standard deviations. It can be seen that among all the 70 items, the students' performance was in the high level for two items, in the medium level for 65 items and in the low level for three items.

Table 4.2 EFL Learners' ILP Competence at the Item Level

Item	ILP Competence		ILP Competence Level
	Mean Score	Std. Deviation	
Speech acts			
Situation 1	63.46	10.16	Medium Level
Situation 2	62.86	9.77	Medium Level
Situation 3	62.68	10.39	Medium Level
Situation 4	61.91	11.59	Medium Level
Situation 5	62.31	10.83	Medium Level
Situation 6	62.85	10.95	Medium Level
Situation 7	58.26	11.11	Medium Level
Situation 8	57.22	10.07	Medium Level
Situation 9	55.30	12.21	Medium Level
Situation 10	59.35	11.16	Medium Level
Situation 11	61.69	10.15	Medium Level
Situation 12	62.29	9.53	Medium Level
Situation 13	62.26	9.11	Medium Level
Situation 14	63.12	10.33	Medium Level
Situation 15	64.58	9.97	Medium Level
Situation 16	61.15	10.02	Medium Level
Situation 17	62.99	9.77	Medium Level
Situation 18	60.61	9.74	Medium Level
Situation 19	59.16	10.58	Medium Level
Situation 20	59.88	10.82	Medium Level
Situation 21	58.22	12.66	Medium Level
Situation 22	59.32	11.02	Medium Level
Situation 23	65.01	9.75	Medium Level
Situation 24	61.94	11.53	Medium Level
Situation 25	69.77	10.24	High Level
Situation 26	64.63	10.08	Medium Level
Situation 27	66.65	9.62	Medium Level
Situation 28	55.56	12.01	Medium Level
Situation 29	57.07	11.82	Medium Level
Situation 30	57.72	11.89	Medium Level
Implicature			
Item 1	39.49	48.95	Medium Level
Item 2	64.61	47.88	Medium Level
Item 3	49.49	50.06	Medium Level
Item 4	49.49	50.06	Medium Level
Item 5	48.21	50.03	Medium Level

Table 4.2 EFL Learners' ILP Competence at the Item Level (Cont.)

Item	ILP Competence		ILP Competence Level
	Mean Score	Std. Deviation	
Item 6	67.69	46.83	High Level
Item 7	48.97	50.05	Medium Level
Item 8	33.08	47.11	Low Level
Item 9	66.92	47.11	Medium Level
Item 10	46.67	49.95	Medium Level
Item 11	61.03	48.83	Medium Level
Item 12	66.67	47.20	Medium Level
Item 13	60.00	49.05	Medium Level
Item 14	67.18	47.02	Medium Level
Item 15	65.90	47.47	Medium Level
Item 16	52.31	50.01	Medium Level
Item 17	41.54	49.34	Medium Level
Item 18	44.87	49.80	Medium Level
Item 19	43.33	49.62	Medium Level
Item 20	62.82	48.39	Medium Level
Routines			
Item 1	48.46	50.04	Medium Level
Item 2	65.64	47.55	Medium Level
Item 3	59.23	49.20	Medium Level
Item 4	28.21	45.06	Low Level
Item 5	66.41	47.29	Medium Level
Item 6	63.59	48.18	Medium Level
Item 7	36.92	48.32	Medium Level
Item 8	66.41	47.83	Medium Level
Item 9	59.23	49.72	Medium Level
Item 10	48.72	50.05	Medium Level
Item 11	49.59	50.06	Medium Level
Item 12	36.15	48.11	Medium Level
Item 13	50.00	50.06	Medium Level
Item 14	40.77	49.20	Medium Level
Item 15	54.10	49.90	Medium Level
Item 16	51.54	50.04	Medium Level
Item 17	66.15	47.38	Medium Level
Item 18	21.03	40.80	Low Level
Item 19	47.44	50.00	Medium Level
Item 20	66.15	47.38	Medium Level

Note: Low level: 0.00-33.34, Medium level: 34.00-67.67, High level: 67.68-100.00

4.2 Discussion on the EFL Learners' ILP Competence

In this section, possible reasons are provided to explain the Chinese EFL learners' ILP competence level. The results of the present study revealed that the Chinese EFL learners' ILP competence was at the medium level. The results were in accordance with Rover (2005), in which he found that the scores of the ESL learners' ILP competence were between 50 to 65 points at both overall and category levels with a total score of 100 points. Yang's (2006) study revealed that the Chinese EFL learners' ILP competence was low, and she divided the scores of the ILP competence into two categories, in which the ones who got scores equal to or higher than 60 points were classified into the high-level group, and those who got scores lower than 60 points were in the low-level group. The total score in Yang's study was 100 points. In addition, Liu (2004) found that the EFL learners' ILP competence was low in conducting speech acts when tested by WDCT and MDCT, and the mean score was around 32 points with 100 points in total. In Liu's (2004) study, the EFL learners' ILP competence was lower than the present study, and this might be explained from two aspects. One is that the major participants in Liu's (2004) study were in the low grades, grade one and two, while in the present study, the participants were all in their third year of university life. The other is that in Liu's (2004) study, the participants were non-English majors, while the participants were all English majors in the present study, whose English language competence was generally higher than the non-English majors.

In general, the Chinese EFL learners' ILP competence was not high either in the present study or in the previous studies. The interview data of the present study also exposed that many difficulties existed in the ILP competence test for the Chinese EFL learners. Based on the practical conditions in the Guizhou Province, the possible explanations for the medium level of the Chinese EFL learners' ILP competence, i.e. cultural differences, level of language proficiency, pragmatic input and university requirements, are discussed in the following paragraphs.

The first reason which caused the EFL learners' difficulties in interlanguage pragmatics might be the cultural differences. Cultural differences are considered as one of the major causes that give rise to pragmatic failures (Hinkel, 1999). Cultural differences in everyday conversation refer to the differences in rules and habits in communication among people with different cultural backgrounds (Yin, 2009). Customs are shaped and formed by the beliefs and values of people in particular communities. People grew up in certain communities and they are so accustomed to particular ways of doing things that it is hard for them to accept different behaviors for achieving the same goal. It is not exaggerate to say that language is the relfection of culture and culture is the soul of language. Lotman et al. (1978) claim that no language can exist which is not steeped in the context of culture; and no culture can exist unless it is at its center, the structure of natural language. Between English and Chinese, the cultural differences can be seen in many aspects, including conducting speech acts, addressing and taboos (Yin, 2009). Cultural differences may be resulted from historical

allusions, regional and natural environments, religious beliefs, and modes of cognitive thinking (He, 2011).

In the interview, the students mentioned that appropriateness was the problem that most of them met. They felt that they do not know *"what the acceptable degree of politeness and directness is"* (I3, I8, I9, I19, I20) and *"how to use correct expressions to describe emotions"* (I1, I2, I5, I17), and they also thought that it was not easy for them to *"follow the habits and customs in the western countries"* (I15, I18, I21). Many students (I3, I4, I10, I11, I15, I17, I18, I20, I23, I24) reported that cultural barriers stopped them from understanding the implicature in English because *"speakers of different languages had their own habit in using the language"*. Some interviewees (I2, I9, I14, I17, I19) also reported that they could only understand the surface meanings in the section of understanding implicature, and it was related to their *"thinking habit"* (I2) or they could not *"find any relationship between the surface meaning and what the speaker really wanted to express"* (I9, I14, I17, I19). In the section of performing routines, some students reported that *"English was not their mother tongue"* and they were just familiar with the situations that they *"learnt in their textbooks"* or *"met in their daily life"* (I10, I16, I19, I24), and they worried that they would cause embarrassment when they performed routines (I2, I3, I14, I15, I22).

To illustrate the cultural difference between Chinese and English, Item 19 in implicature is taken as an example.

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

Jane: "Is the rent high?"

Mike: "Is the Pope Catholic?"

   By this Mike means_____

a)   The rent is high.

b)   The rent isn't very high.

c)   He doesn't want to talk about the rent.

d)   The apartment is owned by the church.

In this item, "*Is the Pope Catholic?*" is a quite typical expression for English speaking countries. This expression is closely related to their religious beliefs. However, it is quite difficult for the Chinese students to understand it since they do not have the same religion. Thus, it is not hard to understand that they cannot find the correct answer a).

The second reason is the students' low language proficiency. As shown in the scores in TEM 4 of 2014, the mean score for all the participants in the present study was 49.44 with a total of 100. The previous studies (Yamanaka, 2003; Garcia, 2004; Rover, 2006; Liu, 2006b, 2012; Naoko, 2013; Yang & Ma, 2015) and the present study have revealed that the level of language proficiency is strongly related to the ILP competence. All of those studies (Yamanaka, 2003; Garcia, 2004; Rover, 2006; Liu, 2006b, 2012; Naoko, 2013; Yang & Ma, 2015) found that the students with high language proficiency were with high ILP competence, and the students with low language proficiency were with low ILP competence. This may help to explain why the EFL learners' ILP competence was at the medium level in the present study. The language proficiency level in the Guizhou Province and the interview data reveal that many of the EFL learners were with poor grammar and small vocabulary, which would

limit the students' ability in understanding, comprehending, and expressing with English, and hence their ILP competence was influenced.

In the interview, the students thought that low ability in organizing sentences was another problem which troubled them. The interviewees with low ability in organizing sentences were unconfident in expressing themselves with English. These students considered that their "*English grammar*" was poor and they were afraid that they would cause "*embarrassment*" or "*misunderstanding*" in communicating with native speakers in English (I3, I15). In addition, low ability in understanding the expressions in the items was a problem for some students in the ILP competence test, and they mentioned that "*new words*" (I1) or "*complicated sentences*" (I15) were obstacles for them.

For example, some students met new words in the ILP competence test, and they asked for the meaning of 'recovery' and 'compliment' in the speech acts section, 'co-worker', 'buffet', 'artificial' and 'appetizing' in the implicature section, and 'expense' in the routines section. The grammatical difficulties for the students could be seen in either making responses in conducting speech acts or understanding the expressions in all the sections. The students wrote response as "*I can't join in your activity for a group*" (S155) for Situation 29 in the speech acts section.

The third factor which may explain the EFL learners' ILP competence level is pragmatic input. The development of ILP competence may be influenced two key factors related to input, one is the availability of input and the other is the salience of

relevant linguistic features in the input (Bardovi-Harlig & Dörnyei, 1998). However, both factors in the input are not adequate for the Chinese EFL learners because of the following reasons.

As Liu (2004) points out that exposure to the target language is closely related to the EFL learners' ILP competence. According to the investigation by the interviews of the present study, only Guizhou University provides a few students the opportunity as exchange students in America among the four universities, "*I have got a chance to study in America as an exchange student and learnt a lot about American culture during the time staying there*"(I5, I22), and those students showed their confidence in the ILP competence test, "*I don't feel difficult in finishing the ILP competence test since the situations are quite familiar for me*" (I5), while the other three universities could not support the students to go to English speaking countries because of their present conditions, "*We have no chance to study aboard*" (I6, I7, I12, I15, I18, I20, I22).

Teaching pragmatics is one way to remedy the inadequacy of direct exposure to the target culture. However, investigation in this study exposed that the English teachers seldom, if ever, taught pragmatic knowledge in class. It is learnt from the interview that three universities did not even have 'pragmatics' as a course in the present research. According to Ellis (1994), the development of pragmatic competence relies on providing language learners with sufficient and appropriate input. For the majority of EFL learners, pragmatic input comes mainly through the teachers' lecture and instructional materials (Hill, 1997). Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford (1996) and Kasper

(1997) argue that status-appropriate input is usually limited in or absent from the status-unequal encounters in classroom instructions, thus, it can be inferred that learners do not acquire sufficient L2 pragmatic knowledge because the target language they encounter in the classroom circumstances is simply lack of a sufficient range and emphasis of appropriate examples.

In the interview, among all the 24 interviewees, eight of them reported that they had never learnt pragmatics (I1, I2, I3, I6, I7, I8, I14, I21). Thirteen reported that they had learnt a little (.I4, I5, I9, I10, I11, I16, I17, I18, I19, I20, I22, I23, I24). Three of them reported that they had learnt it before (I12, I13, I15). For those who had no idea about pragmatics reported that they did not have the course "*pragmatics*" and they just knew "*pragmatics is a part of linguistics*" (I1, I3, I8). The interviewees who reported that they knew a little about pragmatics mentioned "*when we did exercises, the teacher mentioned pragmatics to us*" (I4, I5, I11, I16), and they "*learnt it as a chapter in the course 'Applied linguistics'*" (I9, I10, I17, I18, I19), or "*the teachers mentioned pragmatic knowledge in other courses, so we get some general ideas*" (I20, I22, I23, I24). For the interviewees who reported that they had learnt pragmatics, they mentioned "*this course was conducted for a term*" (I12, I15) and "we are *familiar with speech acts*" (I13).

In China, though classroom teaching offers some opportunities for learning pragmatic knowledge, and communicative instruction is receiving rising attention, both ways are still problematic in the Chinese EFL classroom. First, most university EFL

teachers in China are NNSs of English. They do not have NS intuitions (Rose, 1994a) and cannot be direct models for the learners (Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford, 1996). The EFL teachers are reluctant to teach pragmatics because they are not sure about the appropriate expressions. Second, insufficient teaching materials in pragmatics also slow down the move towards teaching pragmatics. The EFL teachers have difficulties in selecting the appropriate materials for teaching pragmatics due to the lack of NS's intuition. Although evidence of speech acts in textbooks is abundant it is learnt from the interview that they have been given very little attention. Therefore, Rose (1994a) states that "if pragmatic competence is to be dealt with successfully in EFL settings, methods and materials must be developed which do not assume or depend on the NS intuitions of the teachers (p.155)".

Besides, being lack of instructional methods is another reason to prevent the EFL teachers from teaching pragmatics in class. Two kinds of activities have been encouraged for pragmatic knowledge instruction, one is activities aiming at raising EFL learners' pragmatic awareness, and the other is activities aiming at offering opportunities for communicative practice (Kasper, 1997). Rose (1994a) emphasizes the importance of raising pragmatic consciousness in EFL teaching and argues that if the learners' pragmatic consciousness is raised, it will be easy for them to notice pragmatic features of the input and this may accelerate the acquisition of pragmatic knowledge. He also states that the EFL learners can benefit from pragmatic consciousness-raising only if they are provided with ample supplies of authentic input. In addition, to practice

EFL learners' pragmatic abilities, student-centered interaction is required. Activities engaging EFL learners in different social roles and speech events, such as simulation, role play, and drama, could provide them opportunities to practice the wide range of pragmatic and sociolinguistic abilities (Kasper, 1997). However, as a matter of fact, the two types of activities were seldom conducted in the classrooms according to what the students mentioned in the interview.

The fourth factor is related to the requirements of the teaching syllabus in China. Although pragmatic knowledge is included in the teaching requirements since 2007, not enough attention has been paid to it and pragmatic knowledge needs to be incorporated into tests. Chinese students are used to taking tests and consider passing tests as the motivation of their study, but up to now, no established tests of this kind are available (Li & Zou, 2015). Though some studies (Hudson, et al., 1995; Yamashita, 1996a; Yoshitake, 1997; Rover, 2005; Liu, 2006a, Duan, 2012) have examined the possibilities of ILP competence tests, at this time, the instruments have been applied for research purposes only, and no decisions have been made for pedagogical purposes. If comprehensive ILP competence tests had been developed and adopted by schools and universities, EFL learners would be more motivated to improve their ILP competence.

Because of all the above reasons, it is understandable that the Chinese EFL learners' ILP competence in English was not high. Taking all the factors into consideration, attempts need to be made in the near future to help the Chinese EFL learners improve their ILP competence.

4.3 Summary of the Chapter

In this chapter, the EFL learners' ILP competence was reported and discussed. The results showed that the EFL learners' ILP competence was at the medium level in conducting speech acts, understanding implicature and performing routines. In the end of the chapter, four possible reasons were discussed to explain the Chinese EFL learners' ILP competence level. The following three chapters will be the results and discussion about the variations of the EFL learners' ILP competence in relation to different variables.
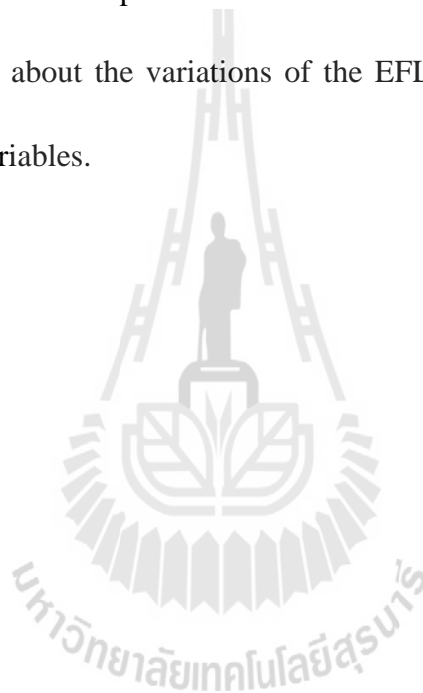
CHAPTER 5

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION II:

VARIATIONS IN EFL LEARNERS' ILP COMPETENCE

ACCORDING TO NATIONALITY

This chapter focuses on the variations of the Chinese EFL learners' ILP competence according to nationality in response to the second research question "Do the English majors' ILP competence levels vary significantly according to nationality? If they do, what are the patterns of variation?". One-way ANOVA and Post-hoc Scheffe test were applied to calculate the quantitative data. First, the variations according to nationality were analyzed in each category and at the overall level. Second, the differences in each aspect of the rating rubrics of WDCT and in each item of MDCT are reported with examples. Finally, discussion on the variations is conducted.

5.1 Variations of EFL Learners' ILP Competence According to Nationality in Each Category and at the Overall Level

This section reports the variations of EFL learners' ILP competence according to nationality in each category and at the overall level. The results of one-way ANOVA and the Post-hoc Scheffe tests are presented, including the number of students in each value, the mean scores, the standard deviations, the significance levels

and the variation patterns. It can be seen from the following table that the students' ILP

competence was at the medium level and varied significantly according to nationality,

the Han students' ILP competence level was significantly higher than that of the

minority students (p<.05), and the mean score at the overall level was 61.47 for the Han

and 49.62 for the minorities.

Table 5.1 Variations of EFL Learners' ILP Competence in Each Category and at
the Overall Level According to Nationality

	Han (n=194)		Minority (n=196)		Sig. Level	Variation Pattern
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.		
Speech acts	62.96	3.59	59.89	5.40	P<.05	Han>Minority
Implicature	62.19	22.29	45.82	27.80	P<.05	Han>Minority
Routines	59.25	18.43	43.14	27.51	P<.05	Han>Minority
Overall	61.47	13.52	49.62	19.60	P<.05	Han>Minority

Note: Low level: 0.00-33.33, Medium level: 33.34-66.67, High level: 66.68-100.00

In the following sections, the variations of the students' performance in all

the four aspects of the rating rubrics in conducting speech acts and the differences in

understanding implicature and performing routines in each item according to

nationality will be analyzed and reported.

5.2 Variations of EFL Learners' ILP Competence in the Four Aspects of Conducting Speech Acts According to Nationality

In this section, first, the mean scores and the standard deviations for each

aspect in different nationality groups were calculated and compared with one-way

ANOVA and the Post-hoc Scheffe test. Second, the variations in each aspect in

conducting speech acts according to nationality were illustrated with examples.

The mean scores and the standard deviations of each nationality group in the four aspects, i.e., correct speech act, typical expressions, amount of speech and information, and levels of formality, directness and politeness are illustrated in Table 5.2. It shows that in the ability of conducting speech acts, significant difference existed in each aspect of the rating rubrics according to nationality. The Han students achieved significant higher scores in all aspects than the minority students with the significant level of p<.05. Among the four aspects of the rating rubrics of the WDCT, both of the two groups got the highest scores in eliciting correct speech acts, and the lowest scores in giving typical expressions.

Table 5.2 Variation of EFL Learners' ILP Competence in Each Aspect of Conducting Speech Acts According to Nationality

Aspect	Han (n=194)		Minority (n=196)		Sig. Level	Variation Pattern
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.		
Correct speech act	67.97	3.66	64.91	5.48	P<.05	Han>Minority
Typical expressions	60.88	3.59	57.82	3.44	P<.05	Han>Minority
Amount of speech and information	61.43	3.64	58.31	5.42	P<.05	Han>Minority
Levels of formality, directness and politeness	61.54	3.58	58.50	3.49	P<.05	Han>Minority

Note: Low level: 0.00-33.33, Medium level: 33.34-66.67, High level: 66.68-100.00

The following example shows the differences between the Han and the minority students in conducting speech acts from a different angle. To illustrate such differences, Situation 11 is provided as an example.

> Situation 11: Your friend told you that his/her good friend had not talked to him/her for a long time, and he/she does not know the reason and does not know what to do. He/she wants your advice.

In this situation, the speech act "advice" should be elicited. Among the 194 Han students, 74.72% of them wrote sentences began with "*you should……, why not……, you can……, how about……, maybe you could……*" to elicit "advice". The students got five points in the aspect of correct speech acts by using such kind of sentence structures. For example, S16 (Han) wrote "*I think that you can try to ask him/her for the reason why he/she hasn't talk to you*". In S16's response, although one grammatical mistake was found "*hasn't talk*", the score in the aspect of correct speech act was still five points since this mistake would not influence the expressing of advice. However, if the grammatical and spelling mistakes were serious enough to influence the understanding, the scores in the aspect of correct speech act would be lower even though the above sentence structures were applied. For example, S206 (Han) responded as "*In my opinion, you maybe can try have saying to him/her*". The score for this response in the aspect of correct speech act was four because the correct speech act was still elicited, but there were too many mistakes which might cause confusing. Comparatively, only 45.24% of the 196 minority students wrote sentences with the above structures, while 50.33% of them wrote down the responses with imperative sentences in giving advices, and some students did not write correct sentences. For example, S5 (Minority) wrote "*Go to talk to her*", the score for S5 in this aspect was three points since this response could be understood as either advice or order. The expected speech act was not clearly elicited. S36 (Minority) wrote "*Try to ask him to the point*", the score for S36 in this aspect was only two points because the meaning was not clear, although it seemed like an advice.

In the aspect of typical expressions, the Han students and the minority students also showed some differences. For situation 11, among the 194 Han students, 17.43% used the pattern "comfort + advice + prediction", 28.98% used the pattern "comfort + advice + explanation", 41.56% of them used the pattern "advice + explanation", and only a few just gave advice directly or responded with non-typical expressions. However, the students in the minority group did not use the exact same patterns as the students in the Han group. Among the 196 minority students, 24.32% used the "comfort + advice + explanation" pattern, 32.11% used the "advice + explanation" pattern, 36.66% used the "advice" pattern, and a few could not conduct the correct speech act.

The two American raters agreed that the patterns "comfort + advice + explanation" and "comfort + advice + prediction" could be the most satisfied, if the sentences were with good coherence and no serious grammatical or spelling mistakes could be found, five points would be given. For the pattern "comfort + advice + explanation", example can be as "*Don't worry, I think you should talk with your friend, maybe he/she has met something unhappy* (S245, Han)". An example for the pattern "comfort + advice + prediction" can be as what S263 (Han) wrote "*It's so common between friends. You should find a chance to talk to him about this, and I think the problem will be solved*". In the Han group, most students adopted the "advice + explanation" pattern, which was considered as almost appropriate and four points could be obtained in the aspect of typical expressions. For instance, S274 (Han) responded as

"*Why not go to talk to him/her? I think he/she must have been busy*". The pattern "advice" was considered as generally appropriate and was adopted by most of the minority students. An example can be seen in S302 (Minority)'s response: "*Meet him/her and talk to him/her*", and the score for such a response could obtain two points. For the above patterns, if there were minor grammatical or spelling mistakes, but not as serious as unreadable, one point would be taken away. For the students who could not respond with expected expressions in the correct speech act, as mentioned by S330 (Minority) "*Mind you own business*", could only get one point.

When talking about amount of speech and information, the patterns mentioned in the typical expressions in the above paragraphs should be taken into consideration again since the amount of speech and information was somewhat related to the strategies used in the patterns. The appropriate amount of speech and information should be neither too much nor too little. Comparatively speaking, the Han students applied the patterns containing more information more often than the minority students, while the Han students used the patterns with less information less frequently than the minorities. Thus, the mean score of the Han students in the aspect of amount of speech and information was higher than that of the minorities. In addition, the minority students preferred to use repeated information, which also made their scores lower. For instance, S51 (Minority) wrote "*Don't worry, don't be upset. I think you should talk with your friend and you must connect your friend and ask for the reason*". For this response, both "comfort" and "advice" were provided, but the information was very repetitive, "*don't*

worry" and "*don't be upset*" showed almost the same meaning, "*you should talk with your friend*" and "*you must connect your friend and ask for the reason*" were also quite repetitive. According to the two American raters, the amount of speech was more than necessary and the amount of information was generally appropriate. The score for this response was three in this aspect. If not that repetitive, as the raters mentioned, the score could be four.

The last aspect of the rating rubrics of WDCT was levels of formality, directness and politeness. For level of formality, the minority students were generally less capable of using the appropriate words and verb forms. In addition, the minority students were more direct and impolite than the Han students. The frequencies of using imperative structures and the structure as "*you must*", "*You have to*", which were considered as not appropriate in levels of directness and politeness were 44.13% for the minority students and 13.56% for the Han students in this situation. The following example can better illustrate some of the responses of the minority students. For instance, S52 (Minority) wrote "*Relaxing, dear, trust him/her, and you must communicate with him/her initiatively and finding out the reasons. Best wishes for you*". For this response, "*trust him/her*", "*initiatively*", and "*best wishes for you*" were all considered as inappropriate word choices. "*Relaxing*", "*finding*" were inappropriate verb forms. For this response, by using imperative structure and "*you must*" structure, the response seemed to be a little rude, too direct and not polite enough. The score for this response in the aspect of levels of formality, directness and politeness was only two points.

5.3 Variation of EFL Learners' ILP Competence in Understanding Implicature in Each Item According to Nationality

In the aspect of understanding implicature at the individual level, significant differences existed between the Han and the minority students. After the calculation with One-way ANOVA and post-hoc scheffe test, 14 items were found to show significant differences between the Han and minority students. The following table presents the percentages of the students' choices and the variation for each item according to nationality.

Table 5.3 Variation of EFL Learners' ILP Competence in Understanding

Implicature in Each Item According to Nationality

Item	Choice	Han No.	Han (%)	Minority No.	Minority (%)	p<.05	Variation pattern
1	A	31	15.98	41	20.92	P=.185	N.S.
	＊B	83	42.78	71	36.22		
	C	35	18.04	41	20.92		
	D	45	23.20	43	21.94		
2	＊A	143	73.71	109	55.61	P=.000	Han>Minority
	B	12	6.19	33	16.84		
	C	21	10.82	24	12.24		
	D	18	9.28	30	15.31		
3	＊A	99	51.03	94	47.96	P=.544	N.S.
	B	20	10.31	47	23.98		
	C	40	20.62	23	11.73		
	D	53	27.32	16	8.16		
4	A	31	15.98	33	16.84	P=.312	N.S.
	＊B	101	52.06	92	46.94		
	C	22	11.34	36	18.37		
	D	40	20.62	35	17.86		
5	A	27	13.92	46	23.47	P=.000	Han>Minority
	B	35	18.04	48	24.49		
	C	18	9.28	28	14.29		
	＊D	114	58.76	74	37.76		

Table 5.3 Variation of EFL Learners' ILP Competence in Understanding

Implicature in Each Item According to Nationality (Cont.)

Item	Choice	Han No.	Han (%)	Minority No.	Minority (%)	p<.05	Variation pattern
6	A	5	2.58	33	16.84	P=.000	Han>Minority
	B	24	12.37	18	9.18		
	＊C	155	79.90	109	55.61		
	D	10	5.15	35	17.86		
7	＊A	119	61.34	72	36.73	P=.000	Han>Minority
	B	36	18.56	33	16.84		
	C	25	12.89	47	23.98		
	D	14	7.22	44	22.45		
8	A	40	20.62	51	26.02	P=.003	Han>Minority
	＊B	78	40.21	51	26.02		
	C	51	26.29	33	16.84		
	D	25	12.89	61	31.12		
9	＊A	143	73.71	118	60.20	P=.005	Han>Minority
	B	17	8.76	24	12.24		
	C	16	8.25	30	15.31		
	D	18	9.28	24	12.24		
10	＊A	100	51.55	82	41.84	P=.055	N.S.
	B	20	10.31	47	23.98		
	C	30	15.46	43	21.94		
	D	44	22.68	22	11.22		
11	＊A	139	71.65	99	50.51	P=.000	Han>Minority
	B	16	8.25	30	15.31		
	C	22	11.34	40	20.41		
	D	17	8.76	27	13.78		
12	A	19	9.79	19	9.69	P=.000	Han>Minority
	B	17	8.76	28	14.29		
	＊C	157	80.93	103	52.55		
	D	1	0.52	46	23.47		
13	A	13	6.70	38	19.39	P=.000	Han>Minority
	＊B	149	76.80	85	43.37		
	C	14	7.22	37	18.88		
	D	18	9.28	36	18.37		
14	A	30	15.46	11	5.61	P=.000	Han>Minority
	＊B	155	79.90	107	54.59		
	C	4	2.06	45	22.96		
	D	5	2.58	33	16.84		

Table 5.3 Variation of EFL Learners' ILP Competence in Understanding

Implicature in Each Item According to Nationality (Cont.)

Item	Choice	Han No.	Han (%)	Minority No.	Minority (%)	p<.05	Variation pattern
15	A	6	3.09	37	18.88	P=.000	Han>Minority
	B	30	15.46	22	11.22		
	C	5	2.58	33	16.84		
	＊D	153	78.87	104	53.06		
16	A	45	23.20	18	9.18	P=.003	Han>Minority
	B	28	14.43	30	15.31		
	C	5	2.58	60	30.61		
	＊D	116	59.79	88	44.90		
17	A	7	3.61	71	36.22	P=.187	N.S.
	B	68	35.05	7	3.57		
	C	32	16.49	43	21.94		
	＊D	87	44.85	75	38.27		
18	A	26	13.40	44	22.45	P=.847	N.S.
	＊B	88	45.36	87	44.39		
	C	59	30.41	9	4.59		
	D	21	10.82	56	28.57		
19	＊A	94	48.45	75	38.27	P=.042	Han>Minority
	B	12	6.19	66	33.67		
	C	47	24.23	28	14.29		
	D	41	21.13	27	13.78		
20	A	15	7.73	26	13.27	P=.000	Han>Minority
	B	5	2.58	45	22.96		
	C	30	15.46	24	12.24		
	＊D	144	74.23	101	51.53		

Note: The choice with "＊" in each item is the key.

"N.S." means there is no significant difference.

From Table 5.3, details of the Han and minority students' choices of each item are presented. It is shown that differences not only existed in the frequencies of their choices in the correct answers, but also in the frequencies of their choices in the distractors. To illustrate the differences, Item 8 is taken as an example. In Item 8, two professors were talking about a student's essay.

Jose: "How do you like Derek's essay?"

Tanya: "I think it is well-typed."

By this Tanya means_____

a) She likes Derek's essay..

b) She doesn't like Derek's essay.

c) She doesn't really remember Derek's essay.

d) She likes it if students hand in their work type-written.

The above item was an example in formulaic implicature, in which indirect criticism with a focus on a minor, irrelevant aspect was conducted. The item also broke the quantity maxim in Grice's principles. The speaker Jose wanted to know the quality of Derek's essay, but Tanya responded with the typing of this essay. In this item, Tanya expressed her criticism in a very indirect way. The correct answer was b) *She doesn't like Derek's essay*. 40.21% percent of the Han students got the correct answer and 26.02% of the minority students chose it. However, 31.12% of the minority students chose answer d) *She likes it if students hand in their work type-written,* which took the highest portion among all the four choices of the minority students. For distractor d) in this item, it explained the meaning of the response "*I think it is well-typed*" on the surface. This kind of understanding was quite in accordance with the way that the minority people express themselves, which is more straightforward. Thus, their wrong choice might be influenced by the pragmatic transfer from their own culture. However, the Han people are more influenced by the Taoism, which emphasizes the harmony of the society. The Han people seldom express their dislikes directly, and they prefer to compliment with each other. For Item 8, it is not very difficult for them to find the correct answer.

Another example is Item 20, for which more than half of both the Han and minority students got the correct answer. The percentage for the Han was 74.23% and that was 51.53% for the minorities.

> Diana: "The boss has left a lot of work for us."
>
> Jason: "Don't worry, John is a machine."
>
> By this Jason means _____
>
> a) John is cool.
>
> b) John is busy.
>
> c) John is stupid.
>
> d) John works very hard.

This item is an idiosyncratic implicature, in which the quality maxim was violated. The correct choice was not very hard for the students to find since people shared a common knowledge of "*machine*", which refers to something working with an instruction. In Chinese, "*machine*" is also used as the metaphor for the people who work hard. Thus, most of the Han and minority students can infer the implicature without much effort.

On the contrary, there were also small percentages of the Han and minority students who found the correct answer in some items. As in Item 18, the percentages of the Han and minority students who got the score were under 50.00%. No significant difference could be found between the two nationality groups.

> Mother: How do you like my painting?
>
> Father: Well, I don't have an eye for beauty. I am afraid.
>
> By this the father means _____
>
> a) I have bad eyesight.

b) I don't like it at all.

c) It's a good painting.

d) I know nothing about painting.

Item 18 is formulaic implicature, in which a criticism was conducted and the focus was put on an irrelevant point. The quantity maxim was violated. In this item, "mother" was asking about the "*painting*", while "father" answered with the condition of his "*eyesight*". The two nationality groups were quite confused in making a choice for this item. For the Han students, influenced by the Chinese culture greatly, they preferred to compliment others, so they were distracted by choice c) the most. For the minority students, who were influenced by their minority culture, they were more direct in expressing their ideas. Thus, it is not strange that they were troubled by distractor d) the most.

Different cultures tend to have very different ways of thinking, rules of speaking, social values, and relative weights of pragmatic principles. The diversity in social value systems and the ways in which ideas are expressed in intercultural communication are not always well interpreted. In this case, misunderstanding of one's intention is inevitable and is much more difficult to cope with, since it involves the speaker's cultural knowledge of the target language. As explored by many scholars (Thomas, 1983; He, 2000), failures in understanding implicature in interlanguage mainly took place when ethnic learners are lacking in the knowledge of the cultural differences or have an inappropriate assessment of other people's views of value, social distance, relative rights and obligation. In the next section, a detailed description of the

variation of each item in performing routines by different nationality groups will be presented and discussed.

5.4 Variation of EFL Learners' ILP Competence in Performing Routines in Each Item According to Nationality

In performing routines, students in different nationality groups showed significant differences in 16 items, and more Han students chose the correct answers than the minority students in all the items. The following table presents the percentage of students in each choice as well as the results of one-way ANOVA and the variation patterns of all the items in the section of performing routines.

Table 5.4 Variation of Students' ILP Competence in Terms of Performing Routines in Each Item According to Nationality

Item	Choice	Han No.	Han (%)	Minority No.	Minority (%)	p<.05	Variation pattern
21	A	23	11.86	46	23.47	p=.419	N.S.
	B	37	19.07	31	15.82		
	*C	98	50.52	91	46.43		
	D	36	18.56	28	14.29		
22	A	11	5.67	37	18.88	p=.000	Han>Minority
	B	23	11.86	27	13.78		
	C	10	5.15	26	13.27		
	*D	150	77.32	106	54.08		
23	A	25	12.89	40	20.41	p=.013	Han>Minority
	B	29	14.95	31	15.82		
	C	13	6.70	20	10.20		
	*D	127	65.46	104	53.06		
24	A	44	22.68	57	29.08	p=.460	N.S.
	B	41	21.13	37	18.88		
	*C	58	29.90	49	25.00		
	D	51	26.29	51	26.02		

Table 5.4 Variation of Students' ILP Competence in Terms of Performing Routines in Each Item According to Nationality (Cont.)

Item	Choice	Han No.	Han (%)	Minority No.	Minority (%)	p<.05	Variation pattern
25	A	22	11.34	26	13.27	p=.000	Han>Minority
	∗B	158	81.44	101	51.53		
	C	5	2.58	42	21.43		
	D	9	4.64	27	13.78		
26	∗A	142	73.20	106	54.08	p=.000	Han>Minority
	B	22	11.34	25	12.76		
	C	10	5.15	46	23.47		
	D	20	10.31	38	19.39		
27	A	47	24.23	42	21.43	p=.122	N.S.
	B	48	24.74	26	13.27		
	C	20	10.31	63	32.14		
	∗D	79	40.72	65	33.16		
28	A	3	1.55	37	18.88	p=.000	Han>Minority
	∗B	156	80.41	103	52.55		
	C	27	13.92	19	9.69		
	D	8	4.12	37	18.88		
29	A	5	2.58	52	26.53	p=.000	Han>Minority
	B	26	13.40	47	23.98		
	C	21	10.82	8	4.08		
	∗D	142	73.20	89	45.41		
30	A	33	17.01	38	19.39	p=.002	Han>Minority
	B	39	20.10	21	10.71		
	C	12	6.19	57	29.08		
	∗D	110	56.70	80	40.82		
31	A	35	18.04	23	11.73	p=.026	Han>Minority
	∗B	107	55.15	86	43.88		
	C	31	15.98	39	19.90		
	D	21	10.82	48	24.49		
32	A	21	10.82	56	28.57	p=.001	Han>Minority
	∗B	86	44.33	55	28.06		
	C	69	35.57	18	9.18		
	D	18	9.28	67	34.18		
33	A	42	21.65	21	10.71	p=.543	N.S.
	∗B	100	51.55	95	48.47		
	C	22	11.34	47	23.98		
	D	30	15.46	33	16.84		

Table 5.4 Variation of Students' ILP Competence in Terms of Performing Routines

in Each Item According to Nationality (Cont.)

Item	Choice	Han No.	Han (%)	Minority No.	Minority (%)	p<.05	Variation pattern
34	A	32	16.49	48	24.49	p=.004	Han>Minority
	B	29	14.95	49	25.00		
	＊C	93	47.94	66	33.67		
	D	40	20.62	33	16.84		
35	＊A	123	63.40	88	44.90	p=.000	Han>Minority
	B	24	12.37	35	17.86		
	C	25	12.89	54	27.55		
	D	22	11.34	19	9.69		
36	A	12	6.19	46	23.47	p=.001	Han>Minority
	＊B	117	60.31	84	42.86		
	C	33	17.01	26	13.27		
	D	32	16.49	40	20.41		
37	A	11	5.67	33	16.84	p=.000	Han>Minority
	＊B	156	80.41	103	52.55		
	C	20	10.31	31	15.82		
	D	7	3.61	29	14.80		
38	＊A	54	27.84	28	14.29	p=.001	Han>Minority
	B	77	39.69	38	19.39		
	C	31	15.98	65	33.16		
	D	32	16.49	65	33.16		
39	＊A	104	53.61	81	41.33	p=.015	Han>Minority
	B	37	19.07	28	14.29		
	C	30	15.46	27	13.78		
	D	23	11.86	60	30.61		
40	A	10	5.15	32	16.33	p=.000	Han>Minority
	B	27	13.92	22	11.22		
	C	8	4.12	33	16.84		
	＊D	149	76.80	109	55.61		

Note: The choice with "＊" in each item is the key.

"N.S." means there is no significant difference.

In order to illustrate the differences between the Han and the minority students more clearly, Item 32 is taken as an example. In Item 32, one speaker would accept the request that the other speaker wanted to sit beside her.

Lisa and Mike are classmates. One day, Lisa is sitting in the classroom, and Mike walks in and wants to sit beside Lisa.

Mike: "Excuse me, do you mind if I sit here?"

Lisa would probably say: "_____"

a) Yes, please.

b) Go ahead.

c) Up to you.

d) No, my friend will sit here.

This item required the students to perform a functional routine, in which the speaker needed to respond to a situation according to the context with a certain speech act included in the response. The responses for functional routines were not fixed, and there could be a variety of responses for the same situation in order to manage the conversation. In Item 32, the speech act "*accepting a request*" should be conducted, and 44.33% Han students and 28.06% minority students chose the correct answer b). 35.57% of the Han students were disturbed by the distractor c), and they thought that this distractor was similar to the correct answer b), and it was hard to distinguish between the two. However, distractor c) did not follow the custom of English since it did not give an opinion whether to allow Mike to sit or not. The reason for the Han students who chose this answer frequently might be because the Han students were not familiar with the culture of English. However, the minority students were largely distracted by answers a) and d), and the percentage of the minority students were 28.57% and that was 34.18% for the selection of answer a) and answer d) respectively. The two distractors were in accordance with the Chinese customs in expressing agreement or

disagreement, but in English, either "*a) yes, please*" or "*d) no, my friend will sit here*" was contradict in itself. Hence it can be inferred that the minority students were more influenced by the Chinese culture.

There are also some items that the students in both the Han and minority groups could understand the implicature well. Item 28 is a situational routine, and the expression for "leaving a message" should be selected. 80.41% of the Han students and 52.55% of the minority students made the correct choice, which means that most students in both nationality groups have learnt such expressions and the distractors did not cause much difficulty.

Claudia calls her college 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.

Claudia would probably say: "_____"

a)   Can you take a note?
b)   Can I leave a message?
c)   Can you tell him something?
d)   Can I give you information?

In contrast, for Item 27, both the Han and minority students did not do well. The percentage of the Han students who could get the correct answer was 40.72%, while it was 33.16% for the minority students. No significant difference existed among the two nationality groups.

On the way to the school cinema, Lisa saw Professor Blake walking to the cinema, too.

Lisa would probably say: "_____"

a) Where are you going?

b) Are you going to the film?

c) How do you do, Professor Blake.

d) Good afternoon, Professor Blake.

This item is a functional routine, in which the speech act "greeting" is expected. The correct choice is d). Distractor c) could be easily excluded since it is the greeting for the people who meet each other for the first time. However, 32.14% of the minority students chose this answer, and it might be due to their generally lower language proficiency than the Han students. Those minority students might not know the differences between c) and d). In addition, many of the Han and minority students chose distractors a) and b), and it could be understood since they were influenced by the Chinese culture. The two expressions are very commonly used for greetings in China.

In this section, the variations of the EFL learners' different performances in performing routines according to nationality were discussed with both quantitative data and examples. In the next section, discussion will be conducted on the differences that the students of different nationality groups in the Guizhou Province had in the ILP competence.

5.5 Discussion on the Variations of EFL Learners' ILP competence According to Nationality

As the results showed that the ILP competence of the Han and minority students was at the medium level, and the Han students' ILP competence was

significantly higher than their minority counterparts. No previous research which compared the ILP competence of the two nationality groups could be found, but some researchers (Tian, 2012; Tian, 2013) investigated the ILP competence of a few minority groups in China. Both reported that the minority students' ILP competence was at the medium level with the mean scores at around 50 points (100 points in total). The ILP competence level of the minority groups in China in the previous studies was in accordance with the present study.

The significant difference between the Han and the minority students can be explained by four factors: the different educational backgrounds in English, low English self-concept of the minority students, negative language transfer and different levels of language proficiency between the Han and the minority students.

The first factor which may explain the significantly lower ILP competence of the minority students than the Han students was their different educational backgrounds in English. For most of the minority students, their first languages were their minority languages. Each minority language is independent and totally different from any others or the official language (Mandarin) of China. Every minority language has its own vocabulary, pronunciation, characters and syntax. Even for the same minority people, their languages could be greatly different since they may live in different villages in the same province.

It was learnt from the interview that the minority students in the present study normally began to learn Mandarin after they entered into primary schools, and

Mandarin was considered as their second language. Furthermore, they only used it in school since their family members seldom spoke it at home. Another problem is that their school teachers were always minorities, too. They could not speak good Mandarin themselves. The interviewees said "*My school teachers cannot speak good Mandarin, so I cannot grasp Mandarin well*" (I4, I6, I7, I10, I16). Those schools were in their villages, which were remote and not developed, so they could not attract those teachers whose first language is Mandarin and with high degrees. Although the purpose of elementary education for those minority students was to gradually use Mandarin instead of bilingual---Mandarin and minority languages, and to grasp the skills for daily communication and to express their ideas and thoughts in Mandarin step by step, it is nearly impossible to reach such a goal since the constraints of the faculty, finances, and environments were obvious, so their elementary education could only help the minority students to acquire a low level of Mandarin.

The minority students began to learn English after they entered middle school, Learning English might be a more serious problem for them. The teachers in the middle schools used Mandarin as a tool for teaching English, and English became their third language. However, Mandarin itself was a problem for them, and many could not even fully understand Mandarin, so they felt it was difficult to learn English and lost their confidence in the third language learning. The interviewees mentioned "*To learn English is too difficult for me, and I even cannot speak good Mandarin*" (I2, I4, I6, I7, I9, I10, I16, I19), and "*I just began to communicate in Mandarin in my daily life after*

I entered into the university" (I12, I13, I24). On the contrary, the Han students had studied English for four years when they finished primary school, and in fact, many of them began to learn English in kindergarten when they were three. Gradually, a big gap formed in learning English in primary schools and even middle school education. The different backgrounds of English learning between the Han and the minority students definitely influenced their ability in communicating in English, thus causing differences in their ILP competence.

The second factor which relates to the comparatively lower ILP competence of the minority learners is their low English self-concept in communicating with English. English self-concept is a mediating variable which may have influence on English learning process (Wang, 2004). Wang (2004) notices that the learners' English self-concept is shaped and formed at the early stage of their English learning process, and heavily influenced by their pronunciation. English self-concept may decide the learners' assessment on their English learning ability as well as their self-confidence, persistence, attitude in learning a foreign language and ability to communicate in English.

After the minority students entered into universities, they had to receive the same education as the Han students. Because of the different educational backgrounds between the Han and the minority students, a great divide developed in the ability to communicate in English. For example, the minority students had the same problems as non-standard pronunciation, which caused the students and the teachers not to

understand each other or the students could not express themselves clearly when communicating in English. The majority of minority students were bilingual, and the two languages would influence them in using English. The difference among the three languages, minority language, Mandarin and English would prevent them from handling English well. Furthermore, after they left the closed villages for the open cities, it was easy for them to form the psychological state of self-contempt, and lose self-confidence when they compared themselves with those Han students who could speak English fluently. Specifically, their poor pronunciation and listening ability which might be influenced by their mother tongue transfer were not obvious in their hometown schools in the past appeared to be extremely apparent. This deficiency always gave them negative motivation in communicating in English. To protect themselves or to hide their weakness in language ability, they refused to speak English in public, dared not to answer questions in class, did not take part in group work with others or even did not join in activities. Therefore, they gave up their opportunity to enhance their communication ability in English. Undoubtedly, the low ILP competence was achieved.

The data in the interview also revealed the low self-concept of the minority students. Among the 12 minority interviewees, eight of them mentioned that they did not think their English was good enough, being afraid to be laughed at and embarrassed, they normally kept quiet in class or when meeting English native speakers. As I9 (minority student) mentioned "*I think my English is poor, and my pronunciation is not standard, so I seldom speak with English.*". I16 (minority student) said "*Many of my*

classmates could speak fluent English and their pronunciation is beautiful, but my

pronunciation is so strange and with accent. I feel nervous when I speak English."

The third factor that relates to the lower ILP competence of the minority students might be the language transfer from their mother tongue and Mandarin. Bialystok (2002) states that bilingualism has clear effects on foreign language learners' development of literacy, and bilingualism might affect learners' intellectual and cognitive development in language. Therefore, bilingualism will probably play an indispensible role in all aspects of language learning if these language-related skills transfer across languages. Although there might be an equal probability for bilingualism in benefiting through transfer or delaying through interference when learning a third language, a lower ability to learn a new language has been found for the learners who grew up bilingually than those who grew up monolingually. August & Hakuta (1997) revealed a lower level of reading competence for the bilingual EFL learners than their peers. Researchers also found that it took young bilingual learners four to seven years to reach grade-level standards in literacy and academic achievement and two to five years to achieve age level in communicative skills of those monolingual EFL learners (Collier, 1987; Cummins, 1991; Hakuta, Butler & Witt, 2000). The above research proved that bilingualism had brought more serious negative transfer in language learning than monolingualism.

In the present study, it can be estimated that the pragmatic transfer was negative for the minority learners in English. Minority languages, Mandarin and

English belong to three different language systems. The comparatively lower ILP competence of the minority students may be caused by the different pragmatic comprehension built up from different pragmatic knowledge, including meanings of words, syntax, typical expressions, and habits in using language in certain situations, and it may be caused by cultural differences as well. Both pragmalinguistic and sociolinguistic differences exist among the three languages. Besides the influence from Mandarin and Chinese culture as the Han learners, the minority learners' ability in using English was also influenced by their mother tongues and their minority cultures, which made it more confusing to learn a new language, and the negative pragmatic transfer (including pragmalinguistic transfer and sociolinguistic transfer) caused by all the differences made the problem even more serious for the minority learners when communicating in English.

Although both the Han and minority students got "*confused*" (I1, I2, I4, I7, I8, I12, I13, I17, I21, I23) in finishing the ILP competence test, it seemed that the minority students had more trouble than the Han students. The interview data could prove this well. Both Han and minority students (I1, I2, I5, I9, I10, I11, I15, I16, I19, I23) said that in conducting speech acts, they may "*be influenced a lot by Chinese*", and they normally "*think what they would say in Chinese first and then translate the utterances into English*". In addition, the minority students also mentioned that it's very hard for them to conduct speech acts, because they should "*be very indirect in communication according to the Chinese culture'*, but they should *"be more direct*

according to their minority culture", and they "*could not decide the degree of directness when they conduct speech acts in English*" (I4, I9, I13, I24). This problem also existed in the sections of understanding implicature and performing routines (I4, I9, I13, I24).

The last factor is the lower language proficiency which led to the minority students' lower ILP competence. Based on the TEM 4 scores in April 2014, the mean score for the Han students was 52.41, while it was 48.50 for the minority students. There was a significant difference between the Han and the minorities with $p<.01$ in the level of language proficiency. The level of language proficiency has been proven by the previous researchers as a variable which may influence the EFL learners' ILP competence. More discussions on the relationship between ILP competence and level of language proficiency will be conducted in chapter seven.

This section discussed the factors that may contribute to the variations between the Han and the minority students in their ILP competence in conducting speech acts, understanding implicature and performing routines. In the next section, the whole chapter will be summarized.

5.6 Summary of the Chapter

In this chapter, the variations of the EFL learners' ILP competence in each category and at the overall level according to nationality were calculated through one-way ANOVA and Post-hoc Scheffe test. After that, the four aspects of appropriateness

in evaluating the ability in conducting speech acts were compared according to this variable. The ILP competence in understanding implicature and performing routines were compared with one-way ANOVA according to the variable in each item. The results showed that the Han students' ILP competence level was significantly higher than the minority students' in all three categories and at the overall level. Furthermore, in the four aspects of appropriateness in conducting speech acts, significant variations were found with Han and minority students, the variation pattern was Han>Minority. In understanding implicature and performing routines, variations were also found with some items according to nationality. Generally, the Han students were better than the minority students in the ILP competence.

The discussion was followed after the results were reported. There were four factors which could explain that the Han EFL learners' ILP competence was higher than the minority students: the different educational backgrounds in English, low English self-concept of the minority students, negative language transfer and low language proficiency. In the next chapter, the results and discussion about the variations of the EFL learners' ILP competence according to gender will be presented.

CHAPTER 6
RESULTS AND DISCUSSION III:
VARIATIONS IN EFL LEARNERS' ILP COMPETENCE
ACCORDING TO GENDER

This Chapter is mainly about the variations of Chinese EFL learners' ILP competence according to gender in response to the third research question "Do the English majors' ILP competence levels vary significantly according to gender? If they do, what are the patterns of variation?". The data of the ILP competence test was analyzed quantitatively first for the purpose of illustrating the differences between male and female students in conducting speech acts, understanding implicature and performing routines. After that, discussion about the results is provided.

6.1 Variations of EFL Learners' ILP Competence According to Gender in Each Category and at the Overall Level

This section focuses on the variations of EFL learners' ILP competence at the category and overall levels according to gender. The one-way ANOVA and the Post-hoc Scheffe tests were applied to calculate the data in this section.

The results show that the ILP competence of the females was significantly higher than the males, and with $p<.01$. Table 6.1 shows the variations between the

different gender groups. It can be seen that the mean score at the overall level of females was 57.52, and that of the males was 52.40. At the category level, the mean scores show that the EFL learners' ILP competence of the two gender groups was at the medium level in all categories. The students' ILP competence in conducting speech acts and performing routines varied significantly by gender, with the females' ILP competence being higher than their male counterparts. However, significant difference was not found in understanding implicature according to this variable.

Table 6.1 Variations of EFL Learners' ILP Competence in Each Category and at the Overall Level According to Gender

	Male (n=155)		Female (n=235)		Sig. Level	Variation Pattern
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.		
Speech acts	59.80	5.75	62.37	3.76	P<.05	Female>Male
Implicature	52.10	29.38	55.19	24.37	N.S.	N.S.
Routines	45.32	27.98	55.00	21.60	P<.05	Female>Male
Overall	52.40	20.18	57.52	15.83	P<.05	Female>Male

Note: "N.S." means "No Significance"

Low level: 0.00-33.33, Medium level: 33.34-66.67, High level: 66.68-100.00

In the next section, the differences between the males and females in conducting speech acts will be described in each aspect of the rating rubrics with details.

6.2 Variations of EFL Learners' ILP Competence in the Four Aspects of Conducting Speech Acts According to Gender

This section mainly reports the variations of the EFL learners' ILP competence in the four aspects of the rating rubrics, i.e. correct speech act, typical expressions, amount of speech and information, and levels of formality, directness and

politeness, in conducting speech acts according to gender. The data were analyzed quantitatively, and the mean scores in different gender groups were calculated and compared. After that, examples are presented to draw a more vivid picture about the performance of the EFL learners in conducting speech acts with the two gender groups.

More specifically, the differences of the EFL learners' ILP competence in correct speech acts, typical expressions, amount of speech and information, and levels of formality, directness and politeness in conducting speech acts according to gender are reported in Table 6.2. The females achieved a higher score in each aspect than the males, and significant differences could be found with p<.05 in all aspects. The mean scores show that both the male and female students' ability in the four aspects of conducting speech acts was all at the medium level.

Table 6.2 Variation of EFL Learners' ILP Competence in Each Aspect of
Conducting Speech Acts According to Gender

Aspect	Male (n=155)		Female (n=235)		Sig.	Variation
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Level	Pattern
Correct speech act	64.98	5.82	67.97	3.91	P<.05	Female>Male
Typical expressions	57.67	5.76	60.44	3.77	P<.05	Female>Male
Amount of speech and information	58.27	5.76	60.91	3.86	P<.05	Female>Male
Levels of formality, directness and politeness	58.26	5.77	60.17	3.74	P<.05	Female>Male

Note: Low level: 0.00-33.33, Medium level: 33.34-66.67, High level: 66.68-100.00

Situation 25 is taken as an example to show the different performances between male and female students in this part.

Situation 25: You lose your temper with your friend, but later you feel very sorry.

You apologize.

This situation expected for the speech act "apology" to be elicited. Almost all the students in both male and female groups could use sentence structures as "*I'm sorry*", "*I apologize......*", "*...... express my apologies......*" to show the correct speech act. Nevertheless, the problem in the aspect of correct speech act in this situation lied in that more than one speech acts were conducted. This problem existed in both groups. For males, 51.25% conducted more than one speech act. While the percentage of female students who conducted more than one speech act was 43.67%. For example, S81 (male) responded as "*Dear my friend, I apologize to you for my bad temper. I know you must be sad. I lost my identity that day. It is very important for me because I will travel in five days*". For this response, both of the American raters thought that the part "*Dear my friend, I apologize to you for my bad temper. I know you must be sad. I lost my identity that day*" could be "apology", but his last comment was unrelated to this speech act, so the score in this aspect was three points.

In typical expressions, the accepted patterns found in the students' responses were "apology + explanation + asking for forgiveness", "apology + explanation", "apology + future expectation", and "apology". The pattern "apology + explanation + asking for forgiveness" won five points, the patterns "apology + explanation" and "apology + future expectation" were considered as almost appropriate, and the score for such patterns was four points. The pattern "apology" was generally appropriate, and the score achieved by using this pattern was three. The pattern "apology + explanation + asking for forgiveness" was used by 22.89% of the male students and 29.16% of the

female students. The patterns "apology + explanation" and "apology + future expectation" were used by 53.67% of the males and 57.54% of the females. The pattern "apology" was used by 14.21% of the males and 6.55% of the females.

The first pattern "apology + explanation + asking for forgiveness" can be seen in S43's (female) response "*I am terribly sorry that I lost my temper that day. At that time I was really in a bad situation. I hope you can forgive me*". S43 got a score of five since the pattern she used was as expected. The pattern "apology + explanation" was used the most frequently and an example can be seen in S15's (male) response "*I do apologize for my losing temper. I was criticized by my teacher that day and I was in a very bad mood*". S15's response was considered as almost appropriate and he received a score of four points. The pattern "apology + future expectation" was also frequently used by the students. For instance, S64 (female) wrote "*I am extremely sorry for losing my temper with you. I hope we are still good friends in the future*". The score for S64 was also four points with the agreement of the two raters. The pattern "apology" can be seen as what the example "*I am sorry for my bad temper that day*" (S92, female) shows. The score for such pattern was three points. For the students who just wrote something unrelated or something not understandable, their scores were lower than three points. For instance, S109 (female) wrote "*I am really sorry, and I beg your pardon*". The second half of sentence was completely unrelated, and this student only got two points. S132 (male) wrote "*I won't do like this next time*", and his response was a promise instead of an apology. The score he got was one point.

For the amount of speech and information, both too much and too little information were considered as inappropriate. Take situation 25 for example, the amount of speech and information was closely related to the typical expression patterns. The pattern "apology + explanation + asking for forgiveness" contained the most appropriate amount of speech and information, followed by the patterns "apology + explanation" and "apology + future expectation", which contained the almost appropriate amount of speech and information. The above three patterns were applied more frequently by the female students than the male students. Thus, the female students' mean score in this aspect was significantly higher than that of the male students. However, it did not mean that the more speech and information contained in the response, the higher score the students could get. For example, S148 (male) got only two points by writing "*my dear, I am apologize to that lose your temper. I am honestly. You can forgiven me. I hope you can attach me as soon as possible*". This student wrote a long response, but the appropriate speech and information was very little, and most of the expressions were unclear or even unrelated.

The last aspect was levels of formality, directness and politeness. The three parts of this aspect are closely related and cannot be discussed separately. For formality, females were more careful about word choices, phrasing and verb forms. In addition, female students were generally more indirect and polite than the male students. For example, female students used a number of intensifiers to intensify the degree of apology, such as "*really*", "*terribly*", "*extremely*", "*very*" and so on. These intensifiers

happened 178 times (75.74%) in the responses of the females and 98 times (63.23%) in those of the males in situation 25. What's more, females (57.67%) used the syntactic structures such as "*I hope……*", "*I think……*", "*I suppose……*" than the males (34.24%) more frequently to soften the degree of imposition. Politeness markers such as "*please*" can also be found with a higher frequency (57.77%) in the females' responses, but with a lower frequency (36.12%) in the males' responses. Models such as "*could*", "*maybe*" were also used more frequently by females (57.56%) than males (32.33%) to mitigate the imposition.

An example of females' responses in this situation can be seen in S70's (female) expressions "*I am terribly sorry for losing my temper with you. I was really in a bad mood that day. Please don't be angry with me. I hope you could forgive me*". The score of this response in the aspect of levels of formality, directness and politeness was five points since the formality was very appropriate, the speech was very indirect and polite. Comparatively, an example of the males' typical responses can be shown by S153's (male) response "*sorry. I couldn't control my temper at that time*". For males, their responses were normally briefer, and less indirect and polite. This response in the aspect of levels of formality, directness and politeness got a score of three.

The differences of EFL learners' ILP competence according to gender did not only exist in their ability of conducting speech acts, but also in their abilities in understanding implicature and performing routines. In the following sections, numbers and examples will be given in order to show more vivid pictures in understanding implicature and performing routines about the variations according to gender.

6.3 Variation of EFL Learners' ILP Competence in Understanding Implicature in Each Item According to Gender

In the aspect of understanding implicature, male and female students showed their different abilities at the item level. It can be seen from the following table that female students' scores were significantly higher than their male counterparts in four items. Furthermore, their choices in the distractors also showed the characteristics in understanding implicature of each gender.

Table 6.3 Variation of EFL Learners' ILP Competence in Terms of Understanding Implicature in Each Item According to Gender

Item	Choice	Male No.	Male (%)	Female No.	Female (%)	$p<.05$	Variation Pattern
1	A	43	27.74	29	12.34	p=.704	N.S.
	＊B	63	40.65	91	38.72		
	C	22	14.19	54	22.98		
	D	27	17.42	61	25.96		
2	＊A	103	66.45	149	63.40	P=.538	N.S.
	B	11	7.10	34	14.47		
	C	36	23.23	9	3.83		
	D	5	3.23	43	18.30		
3	＊A	76	49.03	117	49.79	P=.884	N.S.
	B	14	9.03	53	22.55		
	C	18	11.61	45	19.15		
	D	47	30.32	22	9.36		
4	A	7	4.52	57	24.26	P=.273	N.S.
	＊B	82	52.90	111	47.23		
	C	55	35.48	3	1.28		
	D	11	7.10	64	27.23		
5	A	13	8.39	60	25.53	P=.791	N.S.
	B	20	12.90	63	26.81		
	C	46	29.68	0	0.00		
	＊D	76	49.03	112	47.66		
6	A	9	5.81	29	12.34	P=.004	Female>Male
	B	13	8.39	29	12.34		
	＊C	92	59.35	172	73.19		

Table 6.3 Variation of EFL Learners' ILP Competence in Terms of Understanding

Implicature in Each Item According to Gender (Cont.)

Item	Choice	Male No.	Male (%)	Female No.	Female (%)	p<.05	Variation Pattern
	D	41	26.45	4	1.70		
7	＊A	67	43.23	124	52.77	P=.065	N.S.
	B	39	25.16	30	12.77		
	C	9	5.81	63	26.81		
	D	30	19.35	28	11.91		
8	A	23	14.84	68	28.94	P=.247	N.S.
	＊B	46	29.68	83	35.32		
	C	31	20.00	53	22.55		
	D	55	35.48	31	13.19		
9	＊A	108	69.68	153	65.11	P=.348	N.S.
	B	7	4.52	34	14.47		
	C	29	18.71	17	7.23		
	D	11	7.10	31	13.19		
10	＊A	80	51.61	102	43.40	P=.112	N.S.
	B	46	29.68	21	8.94		
	C	10	6.45	63	26.81		
	D	19	12.26	47	20.00		
11	＊A	95	61.29	143	60.85	P=.931	N.S.
	B	17	10.97	29	12.34		
	C	23	14.84	39	16.60		
	D	20	12.90	24	10.21		
12	A	36	23.23	2	0.85	P=.040	Female>Male
	B	10	6.45	35	14.89		
	＊C	94	60.65	166	70.64		
	D	15	9.68	32	13.62		
13	A	13	8.39	38	16.17	P=.205	N.S.
	＊B	87	56.13	147	62.55		
	C	22	14.19	29	12.34		
	D	33	21.29	21	8.94		
14	A	39	25.16	2	0.85	P=.363	N.S.
	＊B	100	64.52	162	68.94		
	C	10	6.45	39	16.60		
	D	6	3.87	32	13.62		
15	A	34	21.94	9	3.83	P=.180	N.S.
	B	16	10.32	36	15.32		
	C	9	5.81	29	12.34		

Table 6.3 Variation of EFL Learners' ILP Competence in Terms of Understanding Implicature in Each Item According to Gender (Cont.)

Item	Choice	Male No.	Male (%)	Female No.	Female (%)	p<.05	Variation Pattern
	＊D	96	61.94	161	68.51		
16	A	12	7.74	51	21.70	P=.000	Female>Male
	B	55	35.48	3	1.28		
	C	27	17.42	38	16.17		
	＊D	61	39.35	143	60.85		
17	A	33	21.29	45	19.15	P=.357	N.S.
	B	30	19.35	45	19.15		
	C	32	20.65	43	18.30		
	＊D	60	38.71	102	43.40		
18	A	11	7.10	59	25.11	P=.121	N.S.
	＊B	77	49.68	98	41.70		
	C	15	9.68	53	22.55		
	D	52	33.55	25	10.64		
19	＊A	64	41.29	105	44.68	P=.508	N.S.
	B	19	12.26	59	25.11		
	C	47	30.32	28	11.91		
	D	25	16.13	43	18.30		
20	A	37	23.87	4	1.70	P=.045	Female>Male
	B	20	12.90	30	12.77		
	C	10	6.45	44	18.72		
	＊D	88	56.77	157	66.81		

Note: The choice with "＊" in each item is the key.
"N.S." means there is no significant difference.

In order to provide a better picture of the difference between male and female students in understanding implicature, Item 16 is taken as an example. In Item 16, two persons were talking about a man.

Mary: "I really dislike the man you introduced to me."

Lisa: "Still, he's your new boss."

By this Lisa means _____

a) You should be obedient to your boss.

b) You should change your job.

c)   You shouldn't like your new boss.

d)   You should get along well with your new boss.

Item 16 is an example of idiosyncratic implicature, and such implicature violated a Grice's maxim, and to understand the implicature, the students were forced to infer the meaning beyond the literal meaning of the utterances. In Item 16, the quantity maxim is violated, in which there was a mention of the identity of the person in their conversation, but what the speaker really wanted to express was not mentioned. The students needed to infer the implicature based on the context as well as their background knowledge. In this item, 39.35% male students and 60.85% female students chose the correct answer. For the distractors, 35.48% male students chose answer b) and 21.70% female students chose answer a), and the two choices took the highest percentages in the distractors for male and female students respectively. The correct answer for this item "*You should get along well with your new boss*" was to persuade Mary to accept her boss and get on with him/her in a harmonious way. The distractor a) could also show this purpose. It was not hard to understand the female students' choices, since they were more polite (Lakoff, 1975) and emphasized more of the importance of social rapport (Hudson, 2000), because females would pay more attention to politeness and face, and they would be more considerate. While the males were less tolerant compared with the females, they thought if the boss was not good, they could change their job as what answer b) showed.

In understanding implicature, the two gender groups showed high ability in some items. In Item 11, the percentages of male and female students got the correct answer were 61.29% and 60.85% respectively.

> Jason: "Is it raining now?"
>
> Steven: "Is it raining? Look at my coat; it's soaked."
>
> By this Steven means_____
>
> a) He got caught in the rain.
>
> b) He is washing his clothes.
>
> c) He left his coat outside.
>
> d) He wants to close the window

In this item, an idiosyncratic implicature should be conducted with the violation of the quantity maxim. From what Steven said, it was not hard to relate "*the coat was soaked*" to the question "*Is it raining now*". The relevance theory could well explain this. The understanding of this implicature did not show any difference according to gender. Most of the students could understand that the rain caused the coat to be soaking. The logic shared by the males and females were the same.

However, for some items, less than half of both the male and female students made the correct choice. For instance, only 40.65% of male students and 38.72% of female students made the correct choice in Item 1, and no significant difference can be found between them.

> Jane notices that her co-worker, Sam, is dirty all over, has holes in his pants, and has scratches on his face and hands.
>
> Jane: "What happened to you?"
>
> Sam: "I rode my bike to work."
>
> By this Sam means_____
>
> a) He enjoys biking.

b) He hurt himself biking.

c) It's hard to get to work without a car.

d) The bike was broken on the way.

Item 1 is also an idiosyncratic implicature, in which the quantity maxim was violated. Jane was asking about the dirt, holes and scratches, but Sam answered with the transportation tool. In this item, the male students were troubled the most by distractor a), while their female counterparts were confused greatly with distractors c) *It's hard to get to work without a car* and d) *The bike was broken on the way*. It shows that females were more considerate and worried than males.

Differences did not only exist in the EFL learners' performances in understanding implicature, but also in performing routines between males and females. Details of the variations in performing routines according to gender will be provided in the next section.

6.4 Variation of EFL Learners' ILP Competence in Performing Routines in Each Item According to Gender

In this section, frequencies of the choices in each item were calculated and the one-way ANOVA was conducted in order to find out the variations between males and females in performing routines. Among all the 20 items, ten of them were found to be significantly different in the scores between males and females, and females' scores were significantly higher than their male counterparts. The following table shows the detailed information in terms of the frequency of each choice, the one-way ANOVA result, the p-value and the variation pattern for each item in relation to gender.

Table 6.4 Variation of EFL Learners' ILP Competence in Terms of Performing

Routines in Each Item According to Gender

Item	Choice	Male No.	Male (%)	Female No.	Female (%)	p<.05	Variation pattern
21	A	18	11.61	51	21.70	p=.421	N.S.
	B	32	20.65	36	15.32		
	＊C	79	50.97	110	46.81		
	D	26	16.77	38	16.17		
22	A	4	2.58	44	18.72	p=.301	N.S.
	B	31	20.00	19	8.09		
	C	23	14.84	13	5.53		
	＊D	97	62.58	159	67.66		
23	A	41	26.45	24	10.21	p=.023	Female>Male
	B	26	16.77	34	14.47		
	C	7	4.52	26	11.06		
	＊D	81	52.26	150	63.83		
24	A	66	42.58	35	14.89	p=.325	N.S.
	B	22	14.19	56	23.83		
	＊C	48	30.97	59	25.11		
	D	19	12.26	83	35.32		
25	A	46	29.68	2	0.85	p=.129	N.S.
	＊B	96	61.94	163	69.36		
	C	8	5.16	39	16.60		
	D	5	3.23	31	13.19		
26	＊A	87	56.13	161	68.51	p=.013	Female>Male
	B	12	7.74	35	14.89		
	C	34	21.94	22	9.36		
	D	22	14.19	36	15.32		
27	A	57	36.77	32	13.62	p=.078	N.S.
	B	41	26.45	33	14.04		
	C	8	5.16	75	31.91		
	＊D	49	31.61	95	40.43		
28	A	27	17.42	13	5.53	p=.054	N.S.
	＊B	92	59.35	167	71.06		
	C	12	7.74	34	14.47		
	D	24	15.48	21	8.94		
29	A	23	14.84	34	14.47	p=.569	N.S.
	B	37	23.87	36	15.32		
	C	7	4.52	22	9.36		
	＊D	88	56.77	143	60.85		

Table 6.4 Variation of EFL Learners' ILP Competence in Terms of Performing

Routines in Each Item According to Gender (Cont.)

Item	Choice	Male No.	Male (%)	Female No.	Female (%)	p<.05	Variation pattern
30	A	33	21.29	38	16.17	p=.353	N.S.
	B	31	20.00	29	12.34		
	C	11	7.10	58	24.68		
	*D	80	51.61	110	46.81		
31	A	28	18.06	30	12.77	p=.005	Female>Male
	*B	63	40.65	130	55.32		
	C	33	21.29	37	15.74		
	D	31	20.00	38	16.17		
32	A	41	26.45	36	15.32	p=.000	Female>Male
	*B	39	25.16	102	43.40		
	C	24	15.48	53	22.55		
	D	51	32.90	44	18.72		
33	A	25	16.13	38	16.17	p=.000	Female>Male
	*B	58	37.42	137	58.30		
	C	23	14.84	46	19.57		
	D	49	31.61	14	5.96		
34	A	39	25.16	41	17.45	p=.152	N.S.
	B	23	14.84	55	23.40		
	*C	70	45.16	89	37.87		
	D	23	14.84	50	21.28		
35	*A	66	42.58	145	61.70	p=.000	Female>Male
	B	23	14.84	36	15.32		
	C	35	22.58	44	18.72		
	D	31	20.00	10	4.26		
36	A	39	25.16	19	8.09	p=.000	Female>Male
	*B	59	38.06	142	60.43		
	C	28	18.06	31	13.19		
	D	29	18.71	43	18.30		
37	A	23	14.84	21	8.94	p=.021	Female>Male
	*B	92	59.35	167	71.06		
	C	28	18.06	23	9.79		
	D	12	7.74	24	10.21		
38	*A	25	16.13	57	24.26	p=.054	N.S.
	B	59	38.06	56	23.83		
	C	34	21.94	62	26.38		
	D	37	23.87	60	25.53		

Table 6.4 Variation of EFL Learners' ILP Competence in Terms of Performing

Routines in Each Item According to Gender (Cont.)

Item	Choice	Male No.	Male (%)	Female No.	Female (%)	p<.05	Variation pattern
39	＊A	53	34.19	132	56.17	p=.000	Female>Male
	B	28	18.06	37	15.74		
	C	30	19.35	27	11.49		
	D	44	28.39	39	16.60		
40	A	16	10.32	26	11.06	p=.012	Female>Male
	B	24	15.48	25	10.64		
	C	24	15.48	17	7.23		
	＊D	91	58.71	167	71.06		

Note: The choice with "＊" in each item is the key.

"N.S." means there is no significant difference.

To illustrate the differences between the two gender groups more clearly, Item 13 is provided as an example. In Item 13, two schoolmates were talking about an exam.

Tom is talking to his schoolmate, David.

Tom: "How did you do in the exam, David?"

David: "I barely passed. I made a hopeless mess of it. I don't know why I did so badly."

Tom would probably say: _____

a) It's not your fault.

b) Just try to forget about it.

c) Oh, I shouldn't ask you about it.

d) Hey, how about having a big dinner together?

Item 13 was a functional routine, and 37.42% male and 58.30% female students chose the correct answer b). For this item, there was no definite response in the situation, which required the students to select a suitable one among the four choices

to comfort David about his exam. Obviously, all the four choices in this item aimed to show comfort, but answer b) was considered as the best because it followed the habit of the native speakers of English. The male students were troubled the most by answer d) "*Hey, how about having a big dinner together?*", and 31.61% chose this answer. This showed the way that the males tried to comfort others, which was in accordance of the Chinese culture for males. While the female students were distracted by answers a) and c), and the two distractors showed that the females were more considerate about others and the two expressions are also in accordance with the Chinese culture.

Both of the two gender groups did well in Item 2, and the percentage of the male students who got the correct answer was 62.58%, and it was 67.66% for the female students. There was no significant difference between the two gender groups.

> At a bus stop
>
> Man: "Excuse me, do you know which bus to catch for London Road, please?"
>
> Woman: "Sorry, I've no idea."
>
> The man would probably say: "_____"
>
> a) Oh!
>
> b) Really?
>
> c) Forget it.
>
> d) Thank you.

This item is a functional routine, and the speech act "gratitude" should be conducted after "inquiry". Most students in both groups knew the correct speech act and chose the correct answer in both groups. However, the item that confused the students was that the "*woman*" had "*no idea*". It is very interesting that the males were

distracted the most by distractors b) and c), while the females were troubled the most

by distractor a). It might be due to the fact that females prefer to show their surprise or

disappointment with some interjections, such as "*Oh*', but males seldom do that.

In contrast, both the male and female students could not perform the routine

well in Item 18. The percentage of the male students who got the correct answer in this

item was 16.13%, and the percentage of the female students who got the correct answer

was 24.26%. No significant difference could be found between males and females.

Tim is ordering food at a restaurant where you can sit down or take the food home
with you.

The waitress would probably say: "_____"

a) Take away?

b) For home or here?

c) For here or go?

d) For going or staying?

This item is a situational routine and the expression was not flexible, and it

troubled both the male and female students greatly. The percentage of students in either

gender group who chose each of the three distractors was higher than the percentage of

students who got the correct answer. The reason for the low score in this item was

mentioned in the interview by a few students. In China, such a situation also happened

frequently in the students' daily life, but, the shop assistants always asked them whether

to eat in the restaurant or take away, and the students were deeply impressed by such

expressions. Thus, the students preferred to choose any of the three distractors instead

of the correct one, which only asked them whether to take away the food.

Generally speaking, for different gender groups, EFL learners had different performances in terms of conducting speech acts, understanding implicature and performing routines. In the next section, the variations in the ILP competence according to gender will be discussed and explained.

6.5 Discussion on the Variations of EFL Learners' ILP competence According to Gender

The sections above showed that the ILP competence of the male and the female students was at the medium level, and female students' ILP competence was significantly higher than their male counterparts at the overall level and in two categories: speech acts and routines. Significant differences also existed in the four aspects of appropriateness in conducting speech acts as well as in some individual items in understanding implicature and performing routines. The results were in line with Wang (2006) and Li (2012) who also found that females' overall ILP competence was significantly higher than the males. However, no significant difference was found in understanding implicature at the category level between males and females.

It is not easy to interpret the difference of the ILP competence between males and females. Researchers have different interpretations about this kind of difference. For the present study, it is hypothesized that the gender difference in the ILP competence can be explained from the following three aspects: perception and attitude, sociolinguistics, and level of language proficiency.

The first possible interpretation may be the difference of the perceptions and attitudes toward the English language learning between males and females. As Mori & Gobel (2006) point out, female students hold higher self-perception in English whereas males hold higher self-perception in math and sports. That is, females show more positive attitudes toward learning a foreign language than their male counterparts. Thus, females tend to be more active and motivated in communicating with others in English and improving their ILP competence for more effective communication. The data in the interview also confirmed this. The female students showed higher perceptions and a more positive attitude in English learning than the male students. For example, I15 (female) mentioned "*I worked very hard in my study. I listen to BBC or VOA news every day, and I love to watch English movies*". I20 (female) said "*I am very fond of English, and I cherish all the chances that I can communicate with the native speakers. I really think I have made rapid progress in my speaking of English after I entered into university*". However, the male students held a sharply lower self-perception and more negative attitude in learning English. As what I11 (male) mentioned in the interview "*I do not like English. I try to finish the assignments of my teachers and pass the examinations*". I18 (male) thought "*English is a tool, and I don't want to spend a lot of time on it*".

The second factor which may explain the difference between males and females in the ILP competence might be related to the knowledge of sociolinguistics. Early research (Burstall, 1975; Eisenstein, 1982; Boyle, 1987; Spolsky, 1989; Bacon &

FInnemann, 1992) has proven that female learners are more capable than male learners in using appropriate forms in language. Two apparently contradictory principles were identified: 1) male learners use more frequently non-standard forms in stable sociolinguistic stratification than female learners; 2) female learners use more frequently the incoming forms in the linguistic changes than male learners (Labov, 1991). Therefore, females are usually sensitive to the standardness of language use and they also tend to be more capable of adapting to linguistic change. Both principles suggest that female learners might be better at foreign language learning than male learners. Thus, they are more open to accept linguistic forms in a new language and it is more likely for them to rid themselves of interlanguage forms deviating from target language norms (Ellis, 2008).

In addition, females usually emphasize more on the normalization of language use (Wang, 1995). Females tend to be more polite (Lakoff, 1975) and they hope to improve their social position through appropriate language use (Romaine, 1994; Wardhaugh，2014). Females always pay more attention to the importance of rapport in social relationship (Hudson, 2000), which may influence females' attitude toward politeness and face in communication. Hence, females build up the pragmatic awareness and improve their pragmatic competence more rapidly than males.

In the interview, the male students mentioned "*I think it is enough for me to express the main idea to others in English*" (I3, I11, I18) and "*I seldom pay attention to the forms of the language, it's too difficult for me*" (I12, I18, I20, I22). However, it

seems that the females emphasized the standardness of English when they communicated with others as they said "*when I communicate in English, I try to use the correct forms of the language*" (I1, I6, I13, I17) and "*when I realize I use the wrong form, I will correct it immediately*" (I5, I7). Furthermore, the females also mentioned that they always put themselves in others' shoes in communication, so they were "*very careful when they conduct the face threatening speech acts*" (I9, I18).

Another possible explanation could be the difference of language ability between males and females. In the gender based literature, females are regaeded as better language learners than males (Chavez, 2001), and they are more motivated to seek for opportunities to involve themselves in practice and analysis of second language input (Salahshour, Sharifi & NedaSalahshour, 2012). It has been claimed that females are better in academic achievement due to their desire for high grades and social approval of academic success (Oxford & Nyikos, 1989). Females are claimed as better learners in L2 learning environments (Lee, 2012). In the present study, the mean score of the TEM 4 of the female students was apparently higher than that of the male students. The mean score for female students was 51.52 and that was 46.29 for the males with the significant level of $p<.05$. As discussed in the previous chapters, the level of language proficiency has been proven by a number of researchers as one factor which is positively related to the ILP competence. The significantly higher language level in English of the females than the males could contribute to the reason why they were better in the ILP competence.

In the present study, however, a significant difference was not found in the ability of understanding implicature according to gender, but females' mean score was still higher than males in this part. Previous studies (Hasan & Susanto, 2012; Arifuddin, 2014) also showed a higher ability of females than males in understanding implicature with some qualitative data. The difference of mean scores of understanding implicature between males and females may be related to their preference in language use. Females tend to produce indirect speech and males are prone to produce direct speech in their verbal communication (Mckelvie, 2000; Mulac, Bradac & Gibbons, 2001). Accordingly, it is assumed that 1) females may be less possible in failing to understand implicature of short conversations than males and 2) language learners' schema and familiarity with the contexts of indirect speech is needed to infer implicature from short conversations (Arifuddin, 2014). In the present study, the numbers of participants of females and males were not in balance because of the objective conditions, and the total number of female students was much larger than males in the schools of foreign languages in all universities in the Guizhou province, this might be the reason why no significant difference in the ability of understanding implicature could be found according to gender.

Based on the results of the present study together with previous ones, it can be concluded that gender could be a factor that may influence the EFL learners' ILP competence. Therefore, the potential for gender to affect the EFL learners' ILP competence cannot be ignored. The results about the EFL learners' ILP competence in

relation to gender are not conclusive. Further research in this area is still definitely necessary.

6.6 Summary of the Chapter

In this chapter, the variations of the EFL learners' ILP competence according to gender were reported and discussed. Results showed that the females' ILP competence was significantly higher than the males' at the overall level and in two categories: conducting speech acts and performing routines. More specifically, the female students also performed better in the four aspects of the rating rubrics in conducting speech acts as well as in some items in understanding implicature and performing routines. The variations between the male and female students were explained from three aspects: perception and attitude, sociolinguistics, and level of language proficiency. In the next chapter, results about the variations on the ILP competence according to level of language proficiency will be reported and discussed.

CHAPTER 7

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION IV:

VARIATIONS IN EFL LEARNERS' ILP COMPETENCE

ACCORDING TO LEVEL OF LANGUAGE

PROFICIENCY

In order to understand the variations in ILP competence according to the level of language proficiency and answer the fourth research question "Do the English majors' ILP competence levels vary significantly according to level of language proficiency? If they do, what are the patterns of variation?", detailed analysis was conducted with quantitative data. The mean scores were compared in order to determine whether there existed significant differences among the different language proficiency groups in terms of conducting speech acts, understanding implicature and performing routines. After that, the results of the calculation in each aspect of the rating rubrics in conducting speech acts and in each item of understanding implicature and performing routines are reported with detailed examples. Finally, discussion follows to explain the differences among the language level groups in the ILP competence test.

7.1 Variations of EFL Learners' ILP Competence According to Level of Language Proficiency in Each Category and at the Overall Level

This section reports the variations of EFL learners' ILP competence according to the level of language proficiency in each category and at the overall level. The number of students in each value, the mean scores, the standard deviations, the significance levels and the variation patterns are reported in the following table. The results show that the variation according to the level of language proficiency did exist. In the present study, the students' level of language proficiency was classified into three categories based on their TEM 4 scores in April 2014. More specifically, the top one-third involved the students who got the scores ranged from 68 to100, the middle one-third included the students who got scores spanned 34 to 67, and the bottom one-third were the students who got 0 to 33 points on the TEM 4 test.

At the category level, the results of the one-way ANOVA and the Post-hoc Scheffe test reveal that significant differences were found in the three sections, i.e. conducting speech acts, understanding implicature and performing routines, according to the level of language proficiency. The students with a high level of language proficiency were with the highest scores in the ILP competence test, and the students with a low level of language proficiency were with the lowest scores in the ILP competence test. The mean scores for the high level of language proficiency group, the medium level of language proficiency group, and the low level of language proficiency group were 64.06, 61.60 and 59.07, respectively, in terms of conducting speech acts, 67.42, 55.81 and 38.65,

respectively, in terms of understanding implicature, and 64.42, 53.12 and 35.92, respectively, in terms of performing routines. The overall mean scores were 65.30 for the high level of language proficiency group, 56.84 for the medium level of language proficiency group, and 44.55 for the low level of language proficiency group.

Table 7.1 Variations of EFL Learners' ILP Competence in Each Category and at the Overall level according to Level of Language Proficiency

	High (n=194)		Medium(n=130)		Low(n=130)		Sig. Level	Variation Pattern
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.		
Speech Acts	64.06	3.36	61.60	4.03	59.07	5.27	P<.05	High>Medium>Low
Implicature	67.42	16.53	55.81	23.14	38.65	29.72	P<.05	High>Medium>Low
Routines	64.42	15.65	53.12	21.40	35.92	27.04	P<.05	High>Medium>Low
Overall	65.30	10.57	56.84	15.34	44.55	19.75	P<.05	High>Medium>Low

Note: Low level: 0.00-33.33, Medium level: 33.34-66.67, High level: 66.68-100.00

In the following sections, more detailed information about the differences according to the level of language proficiency will be provided in each aspect of the rating rubrics in conducting speech acts and in each item of understanding implicature and performing routines with both numbers and examples.

7.2 Variations of EFL Learners' ILP Competence in the Four Aspects of Conducting Speech Acts According to Level of Language Proficiency

In this section, the variations of the four rating aspects in conducting speech acts in WDCT according to the level of language proficiency were analyzed

quantitatively with one-way ANOVA and Post-hoc Scheffe test. The results of the calculation are reported first and then examples are given to illustrate the variations.

For the four aspects of the rating rubrics in WDCT, the mean scores of the EFL learners' ILP competence in conducting speech acts are compared in Table 7.2 according to level of language proficiency. The mean scores in the three levels of language proficiency groups were not high, but significant differences could be found in all the aspects among the groups, and the variation pattern was High>Medium>Low. Comparatively speaking, the three groups achieved the highest scores in the aspect of correct speech acts, and the high and medium levels of language proficiency groups got the lowest scores in the aspect of typical expressions, while the low level of language proficiency group got the lowest score in the aspect of amount of speech and information. More information of the mean scores and standard deviations in the four aspects for every language proficiency group can be seen in the following table.

Table 7.2 Variation of EFL Learners' ILP Competence in Each Aspect of
Conducting Speech Acts According to Level of Language Proficiency

Aspect	High (n=130)		Medium (n=130)		Low(n=130)		Sig. Level	Variation Pattern
	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.	Mean	S.D.		
Correct speech act	69.10	3.37	66.51	4.15	63.69	5.40	P<.05	High>Medium>Low
Typical expressions	61.95	3.35	59.57	4.06	58.49	5.30	P<.05	High>Medium>Low
Amount of speech and information	62.64	3.38	60.01	4.05	56.93	5.23	P<.05	High>Medium>Low
Levels of formality, directness and politeness	62.55	3.35	60.32	4.10	57.17	5.34	P<.05	High>Medium>Low

Note: Low level: 0.00-33.33, Medium level: 33.34-66.67, High level: 66.68-100.00

To illustrate how different the students on the three levels in language proficiency performed in the situations of speech acts. Situation 26 is taken as an example.

Situation 26: Your roommate plays music very loudly, so you can't go to sleep. You ask him/her to turn down the music.

In this situation, the speech act "request" is expected. To conduct this speech act, most students used the syntactic structures such as "*can you……*", "*could you……*", "*could you please……*", "*would you mind……*", "*would you like to……*", "*please……*", "*I would appreciate if……*". However, some students did not respond with the correct speech act, and "complaint" was conducted instead. The percentages of students who conducted the wrong speech act were different in the three language proficiency groups. No student in the high-level language proficiency group conducted the wrong speech act. In contrast, 6.02% of students in the medium-level language proficiency group conducted the speech act "complaint", and 18.55% of students in the low-level language proficiency group conducted the speech act "complaint".

For example, S164 (low-level language proficiency) wrote "*I have to make complaints. However, if someone is playing music very loudly while you are sleeping, you will know what I feel now*". In this example, S164 completely misinterpreted this situation, she did not request the roommate to turn down the music, but she complained about the loud music. This response could not fulfill the communicating purpose at all. The score she achieved was one point. Another example is shown by S153 (medium-level language proficiency), who wrote "*I don't want to complain but I can't stand your*

playing music. Would you like to turn down the music?". In this response, the second

sentence "*Would you like to turn down the music?*" was "request", and the first sentence

"*I don't want to complain but I can't stand your playing music*" was "complaint". In

this response, although "complaint" was included, the communicative purpose was

fulfilled. The score for this response in the aspect of correct speech act was three points.

Finally, for the aspect of correct speech act, an example of a five-point response is as

follows: "*Excuse me, could you please turn down the music a little bit? It's a little loud*

for me to go to sleep. Thank you" (S362, high-level language proficiency).

In the aspect of typical expressions, six patterns were found in all the 390

participants in situation 26. They were "apology + request + explanation + gratitude",

"apology + request + explanation", "request + explanation + gratitude", "request +

explanation", "request + complaint", "request", "complaint". The first pattern was

considered as very appropriate in the aspect of typical expressions. Twenty-five percent

of the students in the high-level language proficiency group, 8.56% students in the

medium-level language proficiency group and 2.12% students in the low-level

language proficiency group used this pattern. The patterns "apology + request +

explanation" and "request + explanation + gratitude" were considered as almost

appropriate, the percentage of students who used the two patterns were 42.36% in the

high-level language proficiency group, 28.29% in the medium-level language

proficiency group, and 17.67% in the low-level language proficiency group. The

patterns "request + explanation" and "request + complaint" were considered as

generally appropriate, 34.22% students in the high-level language proficiency group, 58.43% in the medium-level language proficiency group, and 57.56% in the low-level language proficiency group used this pattern. The pattern "request" was evaluated as acceptable. No student in the high-level language proficiency group used this pattern. The percentage of students who used this pattern in the medium-level language proficiency group and low-level language proficiency group were 5.34% and 16.21% respectively. The last pattern "complaint" was thought as not appropriate at all. The students who used this pattern in the high, medium and low levels of language proficiency groups were 0.00%, 2.21% and 8.67% respectively.

Examples for each pattern are shown in this paragraph. The pattern "apology + request + explanation + gratitude" can be seen in S13's (high-level language proficiency) response, "*I am sorry to interrupt you, but could you please turn down the music? It's a little bit late. Thank you*". The score for typical expressions was five points. The pattern "apology + request + explanation" or "apology + explanation + request" is as what S31 (high-level language proficiency) wrote "*Sorry, it's time to sleep. Could you turn down the music?*" The score for this response was four points. The pattern "request + explanation + gratitude" was also frequently used. For example, "*Would you mind turning down the music? It's a little bit too loud for me to go to sleep. Thank you.*" (S103, medium-level language proficiency). The score for this response was four points. The pattern "request + explanation" and "request + complaint" were used by the biggest number of students in both medium- and low-level language proficiency groups. An

Example of the pattern "request + explanation" can be seen as the follows: S208 (medium-level language proficiency) "*would you mind turning down the music? I feel so tired that I want to go to sleep*". The score for this response was three points. The example of the pattern "complaint + request" can be seen in S284's (low-level language proficiency) response "*I can't bear your loud music, and please turn down it*". The score of this response in the aspect of typical expressions was three points. The response with the pattern "request" is as what S289 (low-level language proficiency) wrote "*Can you turn down the music*". The score was two points. The last pattern was "complaint", which was not the expected speech act at all, and the score for this pattern was one point only. For instance, S320 (low-level language proficiency) wrote "*The music is too loud to go to sleep. It bothers me a lot*".

For the aspect of amount of speech and information, the appropriate amount of speech and information was highly valued. The speech and information should be related to the speech act that was expected to be elicited, so the speech and information which was related to another speech act than the expected was not rated with high scores. The patterns used in the responses of the EFL learners could show the amount of speech and information to some extent. The pattern "apology + request + explanation + gratitude" was considered to be with very appropriate amount of speech and information, and such response was very complete. For situation 26, the patterns "apology + request + explanation" and "request + explanation + gratitude" were thought of as almost appropriate, and the patterns "request + explanation" and "request +

complaint" were considered as generally appropriate. The pattern "request" was acceptable. However, any repetition of the speech or information for the above patterns was inappropriate, and one point would be taken away. For example, S385 (medium-level language proficiency) wrote "*I would be very appreciated if you could turn down your music, and I am really tired. Thank you very much*". In this response, the pattern was "request + explanation + gratitude", the score should be four points based on the rating criterion mentioned in the previous sentences, but "*I would be very appreciated*" and "*Thank you very much*" were repetitive, they shared the same function of gratitude. Thus, one point was taken away, and the score for this response in the aspect of amount of speech and information was three points. The pattern "complaint" was not appropriate at all, so however much speech and information was contained in the response, only one point would be given.

The last aspect was levels of formality, directness and politeness. For formality, the students with higher-level language proficiency were more capable in word choices, phrasing, and choices of verb forms. In addition, they were more cautious with face threatening expressions. Thus, in situation 26, in order to show their indirectness and politeness, they used words as "*please*", "*could*", "*would*", "*might*", sentence structures as "*could you please……*", "*Do you mind……*", and gratitude strategy by saying "*thank you*", "*appreciate*" more frequently than students with lower-level language proficiency. The percentages of the students who used the above words and expressions in the high-, medium- and low- levels of language proficiency groups were 77.34%, 60.90% and 35.21% respectively.

For example, S264 (high-level language proficiency) wrote "*Excuse me, do you mind turning down the music? It might be a little late. Thank you*". The formality of this response was very appropriate, and the response was indirect and very polite, especially with the use of "*excuse me*", "*do you mind……*", "*might*", "*thank you*" to show the indirectness and politeness. The score of this response in the aspect of levels of formality, directness and politeness was five points. Another example was S242's (medium-level language proficiency) response, in which she wrote "*Please turn down the music. I really can't go to sleep. Thank you*". The expression to request the roommate to turn down the music "*Please turn down the music.*" was more direct and impolite than "*Excuse me, do you mind turning down the music*" (S264), and the explanation "*I really can't go to sleep*" (S242) showed a stronger degree of unhappiness than "*It might be a little late*" (S264). The use of word "*really*" seemed to be not a good word choice as mentioned by the American raters. Thus, the score for this response in the aspect of levels of formality, directness and politeness was three points. The next example was the response conducted by S187 (low-level language proficiency), she wrote "*Ok, can you giving up playing music at this time*". The formality of this response was not very appropriate, "*giving up*" did not fulfill the purpose of communication of this situation, in which request was required for turning down the music instead of turning off the music. In addition, a grammatical mistake also existed in the structure "*Can you giving up……*". However, by saying "*can you……*", the indirectness and politeness was shown, but not as appropriate as in S264's and S187's responses. The score for this response was two points.

In the next section, the variations of the EFL learners will be reported in the aspect of understanding implicature at the item level according to level of language proficiency.

7.3 Variation of EFL Learners' ILP Competence in Understanding Implicature in Each Item According to Level of Language Proficiency

In the section of understanding implicature, the students with different levels of language proficiency showed significant variations in 17 items. The variation pattern was "high>medium>low" for 15 items and "high>low, medium>low" for two items. Table 7.3 presents the percentages of the students' choices, the results of One-way ANOVA, and the variation pattern of each item according to level of language proficiency.

Table 7.3 Variation of EFL Learners' ILP Competence in Terms of Understanding Implicature in Each Item According to Level of Language Proficiency

Item	Choice	High No.	High (%)	Medium No.	Medium (%)	Low No.	Low (%)	p<.01	Variation Pattern
1	A	7	5.38	16	12.31	49	37.69		
	*B	67	51.54	50	38.46	37	28.46	p=.000	High>medium>low
	C	40	30.77	35	26.92	1	0.77		
	D	16	12.31	29	22.31	43	33.08		
2	*A	102	78.46	90	69.23	60	46.15		
	B	17	13.08	24	18.46	4	3.08	p=.000	High>medium>low
	C	7	5.38	9	6.92	29	22.31		
	D	4	3.08	7	5.38	37	28.46		
3	*A	88	67.69	64	49.23	41	31.54		
	B	25	19.23	29	22.31	13	10.00	p=.000	High>medium>low
	C	6	4.62	17	13.08	40	30.77		
	D	11	8.46	20	15.38	38	29.23		

Table 7.3 Variation of EFL Learners' ILP Competence in Terms of Understanding Implicature in Each Item According to Level of Language Proficiency (Cont.)

Item	Choice	High No.	High (%)	Medium No.	Medium (%)	Low No.	Low (%)	p<.01	Variation Pattern
4	A	16	12.31	25	19.23	23	17.69	p=.982	N.S.
	*B	64	49.23	65	50.00	64	49.23		
	C	30	23.08	11	8.46	17	13.08		
	D	20	15.38	29	22.31	26	20.00		
5	A	20	15.38	24	18.46	29	22.31	p=.041	High>medium>low
	B	11	8.46	13	10.00	59	45.38		
	C	28	21.54	28	21.54	10	7.69		
	*D	71	54.62	65	50.00	52	40.00		
6	A	1	0.77	9	6.92	28	21.54	p=.000	High>medium>low
	B	2	1.54	8	6.15	32	24.62		
	*C	116	89.23	86	66.15	62	47.69		
	D	11	8.46	27	20.77	7	5.38		
7	*A	81	62.31	68	52.31	42	32.31	p=.000	High>medium>low
	B	16	12.31	22	16.92	31	23.85		
	C	13	10.00	18	13.85	41	31.54		
	D	20	15.38	22	16.92	16	12.31		
8	A	37	28.46	44	33.85	10	7.69	p=.000	High>medium>low
	*B	62	47.69	39	30.00	28	21.54		
	C	11	8.46	15	11.54	58	44.62		
	D	20	15.38	32	24.62	34	26.15		
9	*A	107	82.31	88	67.69	66	50.77	p=.000	High>medium>low
	B	3	2.31	10	7.69	28	21.54		
	C	9	6.92	15	11.54	22	16.92		
	D	11	8.46	17	13.08	14	10.77		
10	*A	65	50.00	66	50.77	51	39.23	p=.093	N.S.
	B	37	28.46	35	26.92	5	3.85		
	C	11	8.46	14	10.77	48	36.92		
	D	17	13.08	15	11.54	34	26.15		
11	*A	104	80.00	95	73.08	39	30.00	p=.000	High>medium>low
	B	10	7.69	12	9.23	24	18.46		
	C	13	10.00	16	12.31	33	25.38		
	D	3	2.31	7	5.38	34	26.15		
12	A	13	10.00	16	12.31	9	6.92	p=.000	High>medium>low
	B	4	3.08	11	8.46	30	23.08		
	*C	109	83.85	95	73.08	56	43.08		

Table 7.3 Variation of EFL Learners' ILP Competence in Terms of Understanding

Implicature in Each Item According to Level of Language Proficiency

(Cont.)

Item	Choice	High No.	High (%)	Medium No.	Medium (%)	Low No.	Low (%)	p<.01	Variation Pattern
	D	4	3.08	8	6.15	35	26.92		
13	A	1	0.77	6	4.62	44	33.85	p=.000	High>medium>low
	＊B	110	84.62	83	63.85	41	31.54		
	C	2	1.54	11	8.46	38	29.23		
	D	17	13.08	30	23.08	7	5.38		
14	A	12	9.23	21	16.15	8	6.15	p=.000	High>medium>low
	＊B	112	86.15	93	71.54	57	43.85		
	C	2	1.54	6	4.62	41	31.54		
	D	4	3.08	10	7.69	24	18.46		
15	A	4	3.08	12	9.23	27	20.77	p=.000	High>medium>low
	B	11	8.46	23	17.69	18	13.85		
	C	2	1.54	8	6.15	28	21.54		
	＊D	114	87.69	87	66.92	56	43.08		
16	A	24	18.46	19	14.62	20	15.38	p=.034	High>low medium>low
	B	22	16.92	15	11.54	21	16.15		
	C	14	10.77	19	14.62	32	24.62		
	＊D	70	53.85	77	59.23	57	43.85		
17	A	2	1.54	8	6.15	68	52.31	p=.032	High>low medium>low
	B	40	30.77	27	20.77	8	6.15		
	C	28	21.54	35	26.92	12	9.23		
	＊D	60	46.15	60	46.15	42	32.31		
18	A	26	20.00	21	16.15	23	17.69	p=.070	N.S.
	＊B	57	43.85	68	52.31	50	38.46		
	C	12	9.23	17	13.08	39	30.00		
	D	35	26.92	24	18.46	18	13.85		
19	＊A	75	57.69	55	42.31	39	30.00	p=.000	High>medium>low
	B	21	16.15	27	20.77	30	23.08		
	C	29	22.31	32	24.62	14	10.77		
	D	5	3.85	16	12.31	47	36.15		
20	A	5	3.85	17	13.08	19	14.62	p=.000	High>medium>low
	B	12	9.23	25	19.23	13	10.00		
	C	4	3.08	9	6.92	41	31.54		
	＊D	109	83.85	79	60.77	57	43.85		

Note: The choice with "＊" in each item is the key.

"N.S." means there is no significant difference.

In the above table, it can be seen that students with different language proficiency levels understood the implicature in English quite differently. Not only significant differences were found in some items, but also in the selection of the distractors. Take Item 19 for example, in this item, two friends were talking about the rent of a house.

Jane: "Is the rent high?"

Mike: "Is the Pope Catholic?"

By this Mike means_____

e)   The rent is high.

f)   The rent isn't very high.

g)   He doesn't want to talk about the rent.

h)   The apartment is owned by the church.

Item 19 was a typical example of formulaic implicature, which followed a routinized schema. "*The Pope Question*" is very representative in English, which means that something would certainly happen. It is easier for the learners to understand the implicature who knew this pattern, but quite impossible for those who did not know it. Thus, it was not strange that 57.69% of the students in the high language proficiency group, 42.31% of the students in the medium language proficiency group and only 30.00% of the students in the low language proficiency group got the correct answer. In addition, the percentage of the students in the low language proficiency group who chose answer d) "*The apartment is owned by the church*" was as high as 36.15%, it might be because those students did not know this pattern and it was even hard for them to infer the implicature by the context of the conversation due to their low language ability.

For some items, a high percentage of all the students in the different language proficiency groups got the correct answer, such as Item 9, in which the percentages of the students who got the correct answer in the high, medium and low levels of language proficiency groups were 82.31%, 67.69% and 50.77% respectively.

Andy: "Where is my fish?"

Emma: "The cat looks happy."

By this Emma means _____

a) The cat has eaten the fish.

b) She just concentrates on the cat.

c) The cat is playing with the fish.

d) She doesn't know where the fish is.

Item 9 is an idiosyncratic implicature, in which the relation maxim in Cricean principles is violated. The first speaker Andy was asking about "*fish*", but the second speaker Emma answered with "*cat*". On the surface, it seems that there is no relation between "*fish*" and "*cat*", however, there exists a common knowledge that cats and fish are natural enemy and cats eat fish. The knowledge is shared not only by the English native speakers and Chinese but also shared among the students in different levels of language proficiency groups. Thus, it is not hard for all the three groups to find the correct choice.

However, for Item 17, all the three levels of language proficiency groups did not understand the implicature well. The percentages of students who got the score in the high, medium and low language proficiency groups were 46.15%, 46.15% and 32.31% respectively.

Father: Bob is really mischievous, isn't he?

Mother: Children will be children.

By this the mother means _____

a) No, he is quiet.

b) Let's forgive him.

c) Let's teach him to be quiet.

d) Yes, he is very mischievous.

In this item, the students in the high and medium levels of language proficiency were distracted by b) and c) the most, while 52% of the students in the low level of language proficiency chose a). It can be inferred that most students with low language proficiency misinterpreted the meaning completely. As for the distractors b), c) and d), it is hard for all the students to decide which one should be the best since the students were influenced by the Chinese culture, in which Taoism is emphasized. People are taught to be tolerant, and all the three choices could reflect it. In the next section, their differences in each item will be analyzed in terms of performing routines with the quantitative data and the analysis of examples.

7.4 Variation of EFL Learners' ILP Competence in Performing Routines in Each Item According to Level of Language Proficiency

In the section of performing routines, students with different levels of language proficiency achieved different scores. Students with high language proficiency got the highest scores and students with low language proficiency got the lowest scores in all the items. Significant differences existed among the students in the

different language proficiency groups with 15 items. The following table presents more

details about this.

Table 7.4 Variation of EFL Learners' ILP Competence in Terms of Performing

Routines in Each Item According to Level of Language Proficiency

Item	Choice	High No.	High (%)	Medium No.	Medium (%)	Low No.	Low (%)	p<.01	Variation pattern
1	A	14	10.77	23	17.69	32	24.62	p=.626	N.S.
	B	33	25.38	20	15.38	15	11.54		
	*C	67	51.54	61	46.92	61	46.92		
	D	16	12.31	26	20.00	22	16.92		
2	A	2	1.54	7	5.38	39	30.00	p=.000	High>Medium>Low
	B	5	3.85	11	8.46	34	26.15		
	C	15	11.54	18	13.85	3	2.31		
	*D	108	83.08	94	72.31	54	41.54		
3	A	13	10.00	22	16.92	30	23.08	p=.000	High>Medium>Low
	B	14	10.77	26	20.00	20	15.38		
	C	2	1.54	2	1.54	29	22.31		
	*D	101	77.69	80	61.54	50	38.46		
4	A	41	31.54	39	30.00	21	16.15	P=.827	N.S.
	B	33	25.38	30	23.08	15	11.54		
	*C	36	27.69	37	28.46	34	26.15		
	D	22	16.92	24	18.46	56	43.08		
5	A	7	5.38	12	9.23	29	22.31	p=.000	High>Medium>Low
	*B	111	85.38	93	71.54	55	42.31		
	C	8	6.15	15	11.54	23	17.69		
	D	6	4.62	10	7.69	22	16.92		
6	*A	113	86.92	79	60.77	56	43.08	p=.000	High>Medium>Low
	B	2	1.54	6	4.62	39	30.00		
	C	5	3.85	19	14.62	32	24.62		
	D	10	7.69	26	20.00	22	16.92		
7	A	25	19.23	33	25.38	31	23.85	p=.073	N.S.
	B	23	17.69	26	20.00	25	19.23		
	C	24	18.46	22	16.92	37	28.46		
	*D	58	44.62	49	37.69	37	28.46		
8	A	9	6.92	13	10.00	18	13.85	p=.000	High>Medium>Low
	*B	107	82.31	100	76.92	52	40.00		
	C	10	7.69	11	8.46	25	19.23		
	D	4	3.08	6	4.62	35	26.92		

Table 7.4 Variation of EFL Learners' ILP Competence in Terms of Performing

Routines in Each Item According to Level of Language Proficiency

(Cont.)

Item	Choice	High No.	High (%)	Medium No.	Medium (%)	Low No.	Low (%)	p<.01	Variation pattern
9	A	11	8.46	18	13.85	28	21.54	p=.000	High>Medium>Low
	B	13	10.00	19	14.62	41	31.54		
	C	9	6.92	5	3.85	15	11.54		
	＊D	97	74.62	88	67.69	46	35.38		
10	A	26	20.00	29	22.31	16	12.31	p=.024	High>Medium>Low
	B	25	19.23	26	20.00	9	6.92		
	C	5	3.85	12	9.23	52	40.00		
	＊D	74	56.92	63	48.46	53	40.77		
11	A	11	8.46	34	26.15	13	10.00	p=.000	High>Medium>Low
	＊B	101	77.69	50	38.46	42	32.31		
	C	10	7.69	22	16.92	38	29.23		
	D	8	6.15	24	18.46	37	28.46		
12	A	23	17.69	28	21.54	26	20.00	p=.001	High>Medium>Low
	＊B	60	46.15	49	37.69	32	24.62		
	C	21	16.15	25	19.23	31	23.85		
	D	26	20.00	28	21.54	41	31.54		
13	A	26	20.00	24	18.46	13	10.00	P=.014	High>Medium>Low
	＊B	70	53.85	73	56.15	52	40.00		
	C	24	18.46	20	15.38	25	19.23		
	D	10	7.69	13	10.00	40	30.77		
14	A	22	16.92	27	20.77	31	23.85	p=.267	N.S.
	B	25	19.23	28	21.54	25	19.23		
	＊C	60	46.15	49	37.69	50	38.46		
	D	23	17.69	26	20.00	24	18.46		
15	＊A	89	68.46	78	60.00	44	33.85	p=.000	High>Medium>Low
	B	16	12.31	21	16.15	22	16.92		
	C	10	7.69	16	12.31	53	40.77		
	D	15	11.54	15	11.54	11	8.46		
16	A	19	14.62	21	16.15	18	13.85	p=.000	High>Medium>Low
	＊B	81	62.31	75	57.69	45	34.62		
	C	16	12.31	17	13.08	26	20.00		
	D	14	10.77	17	13.08	41	31.54		
17	A	6	4.62	19	14.62	19	14.62	p=.000	High>Medium>Low
	＊B	115	88.46	85	65.38	59	45.38		
	C	7	5.38	13	10.00	31	23.85		

Table 7.4 Variation of EFL Learners' ILP Competence in Terms of Performing Routines in Each Item According to Level of Language Proficiency (Cont.)

Item	Choice	High No.	High (%)	Medium No.	Medium (%)	Low No.	Low (%)	p<.01	Variation pattern
	D	2	1.54	13	10.00	21	16.15		
18	＊A	31	23.85	30	23.08	21	16.15	p=.223	N.S.
	B	44	33.85	51	39.23	20	15.38		
	C	20	15.38	27	20.77	49	37.69		
	D	35	26.92	22	16.92	40	30.77		
19	＊A	79	60.77	66	50.77	40	30.77	p=.000	High>Medium>Low
	B	18	13.85	23	17.69	24	18.46		
	C	16	12.31	19	14.62	22	16.92		
	D	17	13.08	22	16.92	44	33.85		
20	A	3	2.31	12	9.23	27	20.77	p=.000	High>Medium>Low
	B	5	3.85	14	10.77	30	23.08		
	C	5	3.85	20	15.38	16	12.31		
	＊D	117	90.00	84	64.62	57	43.85		

Note: The choice with "＊" in each item is the key.

"N.S." means there is no significant difference.

In Table 7.4, the percentage of each choice, the one-way ANOVA result and the variation pattern according to level of language proficiency are presented. Item 5 is provided as an example to illustrate the variations of the different language proficiency groups. In Item 5, Betty was congratulating Peng on his/her award in a race, and Peng would respond to the congratulation.

Betty is a foreign student in China. She has met Peng.

Betty: "I was told that you won the 100-meter race in a national sports meeting last week. Congratulations!"

Peng would probably say: "_____"

a) Just lucky.

b) Thank you.

c) I can't say I did well.

d) I could have done better if it hadn't been so cold.

Item 5 was a situational routine, in which many of the context factors are invariable. In the English speaking countries, people show appreciations for congratulations, so the correct answer was b). 85.38% students in the high level of language proficiency group, 71.54% students in medium level of language proficiency group and 42.31% students in the low level of language proficiency group chose the correct answer. The choice of the correct answer for situational routines was largely depended on the background knowledge of the culture that the students grasped in the target language. If the students did not know the culture, it was almost impossible for them to find the correct answer. The three distractors were in accordance with the Chinese culture, and the frequencies of the selection of them almost reached a balance within each language proficiency group. The Chinese people tended to show their modesty when they were congratulated by others. The frequency of the students who selected each of the three distractors was the highest in the low level of language proficiency group and the lowest in the high level of language proficiency group, which means the students with low level of language proficiency were influenced by the Chinese culture the most and the students with high level of language proficiency were influenced the least.

In performing routines according to the level of language proficiency, there was no item in which the students in all the three language proficiency groups could do well (with a percentage of 50.00% or higher students got the correct choice). However,

some items did exist in which the students in all the three language proficiency groups achieved low percentages in the correct choice. Item 4 is taken as an example.

> Ted is inviting his friend to a little party which will be held at his house tomorrow night.
>
> Ted: "I'm having a little party tomorrow night at my place."
>
> How would Ted probably continue: "_____"
>
> a) Are you there?
> b) Why aren't you showing?
> c) Do you think you could come?
> d) How would you think about it?

This item is a functional routine in which the speech act "invitation" should be conducted. The correct choice is c), and only 27.69% in the high level of language proficiency level group, 28.46% in the medium level of language proficiency group and 26.15% in the low level of language proficiency group chose it. No significant difference was found among the three groups. The students in the high and medium levels of language proficiency groups were puzzled the most by distractors a) and b), while the students in the low language proficiency group were confused by distractor d) the most and the percentage reached 43.08%. In fact, distractor d) was asking about an opinion instead of conducting an invitation, so 43.08% of the students with the low language proficiency got completely confused in this situation. From this item, it is also learnt that the majority of the students did not know how to conduct an appropriate invitation, and more training is needed in this aspect.

7.5 Discussion on the Variations of EFL Learners' ILP Competence According to Level of Language Proficiency

In the present study, it was found that the EFL learners' ILP competence was strongly related to level of language proficiency. There was significant difference in the ILP competence level among the three language proficiency groups and the variation pattern was high>medium>low. The results were in accordance with some previous research (Hoffman-Hicks, 1992; Yamanaka, 2003; Garcia, 2004; Rover, 2006; Xu, Case & Yu, 2009; Liu, 2012; Naoko, 2013), but different from some other researchers (Liu, 2004; Takahashi, 2005; Tian, 2013) who found that there was no correlation between level of language proficiency and the ILP competence.

The difference of the EFL learners' ILP competence in relation to level of language proficiency may be explained by the following four factors: motivation, out-of-classroom learning, cognitive style, and general low language proficiency of the participants.

Motivation is one factor which may explain the relationship between the ILP competence and level of language proficiency. Motivation is defined by Ellis (2008) as the effort decided by learners' need and desire in learning that EFL learners put into L2. Effort, desire and attitude towards L2 learning are included in motivation (Ellis, 2008). Good learners who have experienced success in language learning are more motivated to learn (Ushioda, 2008; Yule, 1996). The EFL learners who were with higher language

proficiency would spend more time and effort in improving their ability in all aspects of language learning, pragmatic ability was with no exception. Schmidt & Frota (1986), Niezgoda & Rover (2001) and Shao, et al. (2011) report that motivation is positively related to EFL learners' pragmatic competence. Manolopoulo-Sergi (2004) argues convincingly that it is possible for motivation to influence the way in which language learners input or integrate intake into the interlanguage systems, and then process output. Since language learners with lower language proficiency are with lower ILP competence, they are possible to attend only to the surface characteristics of the L2 pragmatics input and hence produce the output in a way which could only deliver information, while the learners with higher language proficiency are possible to process L2 pragmatic input in a deeper and more elaborated manner and thus express their ideas more appropriately and effectively in L2 communication. In the present study, students with higher language proficiency also got higher scores in the ILP competence test, and this could possibly be explained by their differences of motivation in learning interlanguage pragmatics.

The students with different level of language proficiency showed their different motivations in L2 learning and L2 communication in the interview. I3 (high level of language proficiency) said "*I really want to learn English well. I think pragmatics is very important in language learning and I feel proud when I can use good English to communicate with native speakers*". I23 (high level of language proficiency) also mentioned that "*when I was even in high school, English was my favorite subject,*

so I spend a lot of time on it and became an English major student". Students in the

medium level of language proficiency mentioned that "*I work hard to pass the*

examinations" (I7, I8) and "*my motivation in learning English is not so high, I may not*

use English in my job in the future, so I just fulfill the requirements of the teachers" (I2,

I17, I21). On the contrary, students in the low language proficiency had different

opinions. For example, I11 said "*I don't like English. English was not my choice as a*

major, but failed in the college entrance exam for another major, so I was transferred

to be English major". I19 mentioned "*to be frank, my interest is not in English, and to*

learn English is to make my parents happy".

The second factor which may explain the relationship between language

proficiency and ILP competence is out-of-classroom learning. In the interview, most of

the students with high level of language proficiency (I1, I3, I9, I10) reported that they

spend a large amount of time with English learning after class. They watched English

movies frequently, read English novels, read news in English online and made friends

with English native speakers. They found that the out-of-classroom learning helped

them much more in interlanguage pragmatics than the textbooks and the classroom

teaching and learning did. Those students also reported that they were greatly benefited

from those out-of-classroom learning methods and resources. They learnt routines and

typical expressions in English from movies and reading materials. They also immerged

themselves with the native speakers through communication, which helped them to

understand their culture and understand the implicature in English. On the contrary, the

students with low level of language proficiency (I12, I14, I15, I19, I20) reported that they seldom watched English movies or read English novels, and even less did they read news in English or have contact with native speakers. The reason was that they could not understand the reading materials or the talk of the native speakers, and this was due to their small vocabulary and poor grammar, and they thought that it was even not easy for them to absorb the knowledge that they learnt in class. Those students with low level of language proficiency also reported that what they learnt in class was far less than enough to communicate with native speakers as well as to finish the ILP competence test in the present study.

From the interview, it can be concluded that the learners with high level of language proficiency had more interest and time in out-of-classroom leaning, which was considered as a better way to improve ILP competence; while the learners with low level of language proficiency could only have enough time and energy to cope with the in-classroom tasks which might not be very beneficial for them to accumulate knowledge in English pragmatics. From what has been discussed above, it could be concluded that out-of-classroom learning might be a factor which relates to the relationship between level of language proficiency and ILP competence.

The third factor which could explain the difference of ILP competence according to level of language proficiency might be related to cognitive linguistics. Ellis (2008) claims that language learners are prone to make strategic use of their L1 in the process of understanding and producing utterances in their L2. Eysenck (2001)

states that cognitive psychology includes the main internal psychological processes involved in making sense of environment and deciding appropriate actions. McLaughlin's (1990) information-processing model can explain well how a new language is understood and produced. According to McLaughlin (1983; 1990), the representation of knowledge is heavily influenced by how it is processed. Language learners' ability to process information is limited by either the nature of tasks or their own information-processing capacity. It is almost unlikely for them to attend to all the available information in the input. For the purpose of maximizing their information processing ability, language learners routinize their skills. Therefore, routinization could help learners reduce the burden on their information-processing capacity. It occurs when learners have the chance to practice controlled processes (a temporary activation of nodes in a sequence, which is under attentional control of the subject). Routinization results in quantitative changes in interlanguage. An increasing number of information chunks are made through practice for automatic processing (the activation of certain nodes in memory every time when the appropriate input is present).

As Rover (2014) indicates that the information-processing capacity of the higher language proficiency learners are stronger than that of the lower language proficiency learners. He argues that for interlanguge pragmatics, it is likely that transfer of strategies could be successful since the speech act strategies might be the same in a variety of speech communities. However, it might be more difficult to transfer forms from a different language. Knowledge of basic conventional indirectness and devices

indicating illocutionary force would go a long way to produce comprehensible and appropriate speech, and it is likely that this knowledge or devices are greater in learners with higher L2 proficiency (Rover, 2014). More proficient learners would perform better in ILP competence is nothing surprising because proficiency from a processing point of view includes the degree of automatized and efficient processing. Thus, it is easier for higher language proficiency learners to make utterance planning. I23 (high level of language proficiency) mentioned "*When I conducted the speech acts in the ILP competence test, I didn't spend a lot of time organizing my language*" and "*I can organize the utterances in English directly*" (I6, I9, I10, I24). However, I11 (low level of language proficiency) took much longer time in finishing the section of speech acts, and he mentioned that "*In conducting speech acts, I thought about what I should say in Chinese, then I translate the utterances into English, and fin*ally I check the sentence structures".

The last factor which is related to the relation between the ILP competence and level of language proficiency might be the general low language proficiency of the English majors in the Guizhou Province. As mentioned in the beginning of this section, some researchers (Liu, 2004; Takahashi, 2005; Tian, 2013) found that there was no correlation between language proficiency and the ILP competence. The reason for this finding might be that the learners' language proficiency had reached a level where vocabulary, grammar and syntax would prevent them from understanding the texts (Liu, 2004; Rover, 2005). Chen (2007) concludes that the development of pragmatic

competence depends on linguistic competence, but this method could only be applied to the learners whose general linguistic competence is not high.

In the present study, the mean score of TEM 4 for all the participants was 49.44 and only 15.90% of them passed, while the mean score of the test in 2014 for the English majors of all the comprehensive universities in China was 62.47 and 65.10% test takers passed. The great distance of the language level between the participants in the present study in the Guizhou Province and the English majors in the whole country shows that the level of language proficiency of the 390 students was really low in general. Their level of language proficiency had not reached a level that understanding text would not be difficult for them. The data in the interview also confirmed this as some of the interviewees mentioned that to understand and comprehend the items was still difficult for them, and a few of them reported that there were even new words and unfamiliar expressions for them. Accordingly, in the present study, it was reasonable that level of language proficiency would have influence on the EFL learners' ILP competence.

From the above discussion, it can be concluded that the level of language proficiency was a factor which was strongly related to ILP competence in the present study. Although some previous researchers achieved different findings, it might be because the participants were influenced by other variables, such as the length of residence in a target language country, the exposure to the target culture, the exposure

to specialized courses and so on. Since the relationship between the level of language proficiency and ILP competence is still quite controversial, further research is needed.

7.6 Summary of the Chapter

In this chapter, the Chinese EFL learners' variations according to the level of language proficiency were analyzed and discussed. As a result, significant differences were found in each category according to this variable with a significant level p< .05. In addition, the EFL learners' ILP competence in the four aspects of appropriateness in conducting speech acts was found to be with significant differences according to the level of language proficiency. The variations were also significant at the individual level in understanding implicature and performing routines with some items. The students with higher level of language proficiency were with higher ability in ILP competence than the students with lower level of language proficiency. After the variations were reported according to the level of language proficiency, discussion for the findings was conducted. The results can be explained by the following four factors: motivation, out-of-classroom learning, cognitive style, and general low language proficiency of the participants.

The next chapter is the conclusion of the whole study, which includes the summary of the findings, pedagogical implications, limitations of the present study, and suggestions for future research.

CHAPTER 8

CONCLUSION

In this chapter, the research findings are summarized first. After that, the implications to teaching and learning are provided. Finally, the limitations of the present study are described and suggestions for future research are given.

8.1 Summary of the Findings

The present study aimed to investigate the EFL learners' ILP competence in the Guizhou Province, China. Three hundred and ninety English majors from four universities participated in the present study. The data were analyzed both quantitatively and qualitatively to answer four research questions. The findings of the research questions are summarized in the following paragraphs.

Research question one aimed at exploring the EFL learners' ILP competence level. By calcalating the mean scores through SPSS 21.0, it is concluded that the Chinese EFL learners' ILP competence was at the medium level. The EFL learners' ILP competemce was the highest in conducting speech acts and the lowest in performing routines.

To answer research questions two to four, the variations of the EFL learners' ILP competence were worked out according to three variables: nationality, gender and

level of language proficiency by one-way ANOVA, Post-hoc Scheffe test and one-way ANOVA. The results revealed that the EFL learners' ILP competence were significantly different according to nationality, gender and level of language proficiency. That is, the Han learners' scores were higher than the minority students. Female students were higher in their ILP competence than the male students. In relation to level of language proficiency, the ILP competence of students with higher language proficiency was higher than the students with lower langauge proficiency. The variation pattern according to level of language proficiency was high>medium>low.

The present study enriches the literature of interlanguge pragmatics research. Based on all the findings mentioned above, there are some pedagogical implications from the present study and they will be discussed in the next section.

8.2 Pedagogical Implications

From the results of the present study, it can be seen that the Chinese EFL learners' ILP competence was not high, and group differences were obvious with nationality, gender and level of language proficiency. According to the findings, the implications for interlanguage pragmatics teaching and learning are summarized.

Firstly, it was found that the Chinese EFL learners' ILP competence was at the medium level. The investigation with the interviews revealed that most EFL teachers seldom taught pragmatic knowledge in class. For most Chinese teachers of English, they tend to give lectures in class, so the learners seldom have an opportunity

to communicate with English (Liu, 2012). Although all the universities in the present study provide courses in spoken English which are instructed by native-speaker teachers, these courses are only available for two years, and two hours a week because of the limited number of native-speaker teachers. To improve the EFL learners' ILP competence, the learners' pragmatics awareness should be raised. First, more opportunities allowing EFL learners to use English in communicative events should be provided by the EFL teachers, which requires the EFL teachers to design more activities in classroom circumstances, including short conversations, role play and so on. Second, more appropriate examples should be provided by the EFL teachers. The teachers should be selective in the materials for the ones which can be representative of the standard language use. Third, the EFL learners' inappropriate use of language should be pointed out and corrected immediately by their teachers. This requires the EFL teachers to be equipped with appropriate use of language, so the teachers should improve themselves in their ability of using the English language in all the possible ways.

More specifically, when teaching appropriateness of the four aspects in the rating rubrics in conducting speech acts, typical expressions and amount of speech and information are comparatively tough because of the complexity of the patterns and strategies. Thus, EFL teachers should emphasize the difference of the patterns, expressions and strategies between the mother tongue and the new language. In the process of teaching, EFL teachers should develop the situations in practice as authentic

as possible in order for language learners notice the patterns and deepen their impressions. If possible, opportunities in communicating with native speakers should be created for practicing speech acts.

In teaching implicature, English culture and learners' native culture need to be put into instruction so as to provide the learners with a very clear picture of the differences between the two cultures. The interviewees also mentioned that sometimes they could only understand the surface meaning and they did not know what the speakers really wanted to express in the situations, or they understood the implicature according to the Chinese culture and politeness principles. The students got quite confused in understanding implicature. Thus, in order to make a more accurate comparison, the Chinese teachers for English and the native English-speaking teachers should discuss the differences of the cultures together and draw a clear picture for the students.

In teaching routines, it is suggested to build up a corpus with a collection of English routines. The teaching could be conducted by following the classification of routines in the corpus. The classification could be based on the two big categories: situational routines and functional routines, and then further divided into several smaller categories. After inputting the knowledge of each smaller category, practice is necessary for the learners. Role play or short dialogues could be the form of such practice.

Secondly, since cultural barriers had often been mentioned in the interviews with the students, more knowledge about western cultures should be introduced to the

students in class. As far as the present researcher investigates, most universities have had courses in British and American cultures or Western cultures. However, the teaching content in these courses are too general and only the cultures in the aspects of holidays, food, costumes, family life and so on are introduced, but nothing related to language use is taught. It is hoped that the EFL teachers would merge certain uses of language into their teaching. In this way they can help the EFL learners build up the consciousness to pay attention to the appropriate use of language in whatever courses they teach.

Thirdly, pragmatics was not a course in most of universities in the Guizhou Province, China, on the undergraduate level of education. Although the importance of the appropriate use of English has been emphasized in the teaching requirements (2007), it has not attracted enough attention. It is strongly suggested that pragmatics can be added as an independent course for high-grade English majors since they have been equipped with the basic skills in using English. The teaching materials should also be decided by specialists as they have done for other courses since most EFL teachers do not have the NS intuitions for appropriate language use and they are reluctant to teach this knowledge.

Fourthly, significant differences existed between the Han and the minority students, and the Han learners' ILP competence was significantly higher than the minority learners'. The teachers should pay special attention to the minority students. To improve the minority students' ILP competence, their English self-concept should

be raised. On the one hand, the EFL teachers should encourage the minority students to communicate in English. On the other hand, the EFL teachers should help the minority students to improve their pronunciation. Only if the self-concept is raised, can the minority students build up self-confidence, positive attitude, and persistence in practicing English in communication and improving their ILP competence.

Fifthly, significant differences can be found between the male and the female students in their ILP competence. Males and females are born with language learning differences. Females are more cooperative, abide by the norms and accept the forms of a new language. The best way to improve the ILP competence of the males is to train them. Pragmatic training is necessary for the males. Some previous researchers also proved that pragmatics was teachable (Bouton, 1994; Lyster, 1994; Morrow, 1995; Silva, 2003; Takahashi, 2010; Takimoto, 2012; Derakhshan & Eslami, 2015). Certain strategies in conducting pragmatic behaviors can be listed and used to train the male students since they are not as sensible as females in acquiring a new language, so conscious training might be useful.

Finally, students with higher language proficiency were higher in ILP competence than those with lower language proficiency. The students with higher language proficiency reported that they employed a lot of out-of-classroom methods in improving their ILP competence, which formed a virtuous circle for their language learning. High language ability facilitates the improvement of ILP competence, and the high ILP competence promotes the progress in their language ability. The students with

lower language proficiency were reluctant to learn due to their limited vocabulary and poor grammar. To improve the low language proficiency students' ILP competence, the EFL teachers should encourage the students to enlarge their vocabulary and enhance their grammar by recommending some materials and learning methods in English. Only when the students have enough accumulation of basic vocabulary and grammar, can they have more interest in involving themselves in more out-of-classroom learning and courage in communicating with native English speakers, and as a result, their ILP competence will be improved.

Despite all the endeavors the present study made, there were some limitations that need to be pointed out. In the next section, the limitations of the present study will be presented.

8.3 Limitations of the Study

The limitations for the present study are discussed from three aspects: the designing of the ILP competence test, the rating of the ILP competence test and the selection of the participants.

First, in the design of the ILP competence test, the fundamental concern in constructing items is whether they indeed are representative of real-world language use or not, and the items constructed with the test designer's intuition may or may not be an accurate reflection of reality (Wolfson & Judd, 1983). The present research gained the items in speech acts by eliciting situations from 100 English major students, and 33

native speakers of English were invited to decide the possibility of the situation. A combination of the items from the previous studies and situations appeared in textbooks were conducted and the students' mistakes were designed as distractors for MDCT according to teachers' experience. It is hoped that the authenticity of the items could be guaranteed. However, the authenticity of the present study was built up with a limited number of language learners, native speakers and teachers, thus the situations and distractors could only be approximately authentic.

The present research concentrated on ten speech acts, 20 items of understanding implicature, and 20 items of performing routines. As a matter of fact, more speech acts do exist in daily life (Austin, 1962) and more situations for implicature and routines could be found. Although the test applied in the present study was carefully designed and developed, and a high reliability and validity were shown, the testing scope was still not wide enough to cover all the ILP knowledge.

In addition, only two testing methods were included in the present study: WDCT and MDCT, no testing methods which require oral production was investigated. According to the previous studies, at least six methods in testing ILP competence have been found, and the present research could not apply all the research methods to triangulate the findings.

Second, there were some limitations of the rating in the test. Because of the heavy burden in rating WDCT for all participants, only two raters were recruited. It would be more reliable if more raters could be recruited. Besides, although training was

conducted before the raters gave scores to the WDCT, the training was not systematic enough since only some examples were provided for the raters. In the future research, the strategies for conducting each speech act should be listed and rating criterion for the use of the strategy types should be provided in the training.

Third, the participants in the present study were all Chinese EFL learners from the same grade in the same province. The language proficiency levels of the participants were based on their TEM 4 scores in April 2014. The participants had similar backgrounds in English learning and had taken similar courses, and the comparative homogeneity of the participants might have influenced the results of the present study.

Furthermore, limited by the objective conditions in the Guizhou Province, most English majors were female, so it was hard to reach a balance of male and female participants. Although the present research included all the male English major students in the third year from the four universities, there were still 80 more females than males.

The above paragraphs summarized the limitations of the present research, and based on the limitations, some suggestions for future research will be presented in the next section.

8.4 Suggestions for Future Research

The present study has investigated the Chinese EFL learners' ILP competence in the Guizhou Province, China. Since no research could cover the whole

research scope in the area of interlanguge pragmatics and control all the possible variables, some suggestions for future research are presented in the following paragraphs.

First, the present research covered ten speech acts, 20 situations of implicature and 20 situations of routines in the ILP competence test. For future research, it is necessary to investigate other speech acts and other situations in implicature and routines before statements of general test of ILP knowledge can be properly made.

Second, to have a solid grounding of items in everyday use, when developing the ILP competence test, more students from different majors and universities could be invited to help with brainstorming of the situations in each speech act, and then more scenarios could be obtained. Or as a choice, an analysis of corpora on spoken language might be included.

Third, the present research included two testing methods only: WDCT and MDCT. For future studies, it is necessary to investigate other methods for obtaining the data with verbal and visual production, in which the tone, intonation, and gesture can be captured and analyzed and more authentic data can be collected. It would also be interesting to investigate the same type of ILP knowledge by comparing different testing methods.

Fourth, language competence was evaluated by the TEM 4 scores in China, which means the results might only be reliable in the Chinese context. In the future study, more international language comprehensive tests could be included, such as

TOFEL and IELTS, to test the participants' general language proficiency, and it is hoped that the ILP competence test could be applied in a wider scope of EFL learners.

Fifth, the participants of the present study were from the same major, the same grade and the same province. It would be ideal to involve students from a wider range of educational levels in the study, for example, select students from junior high schools, high schools, or even select postgraduate students. Other options to consider might be to select students from different majors, different provinces, different universities with specialties, such as financial universities, medical universities and so on, and EFL learners from different countries can also be included. Further investigation is worth conducting with different participants as well.

Last but not the least, the ILP competence test has been proven to be with high reliability and validity in the Guizhou Province, China, but it does not mean this test can be used in any other contexts. The reliability and validity of the ILP competence test should be reexamined and necessary revision should be conducted when it is applied in different contexts.

8.5 Summary of the Chapter

This chapter is the conclusion for the whole study. Conducted in a data-based, systematic and non-judgmental descriptive manner, this study investigated the Chinese university EFL learners' ILP competence level. In this chapter, the findings of the present study were summarized first, and then the pedagogical implications were

described, followed by the presentation of the limitations of the present study and suggestions for future research.

The present research has made some contributions in the interlanguage pragmatics research as no previous research has been found to investigate the ILP competence in the Guizhou Province, China. Another contribution was that nationality was found to be a factor which may affect the EFL learners' ILP competence, this variable has never been investigated before. In addition, the present study has also provided some evidence for the relationship between gender and the ILP competence as well as the level of language proficiency and ILP competence. More importantly, based on the findings of the present study, the researcher has proposed some crucial pedagogical implications for interlanguage pragmatics teaching and learning, which will be helpful for the improvement of ILP competence of EFL learners.
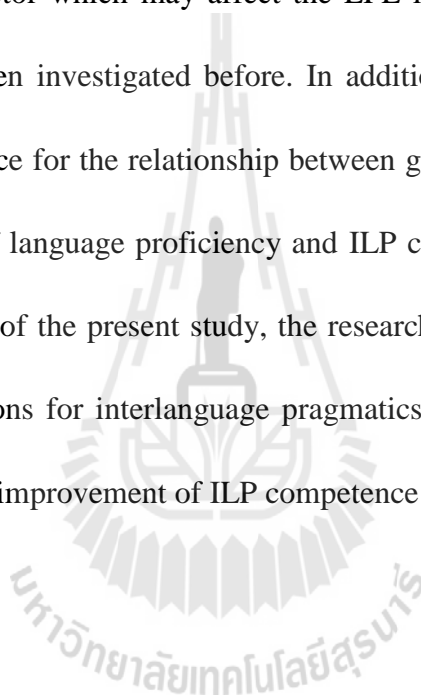
REFERENCES
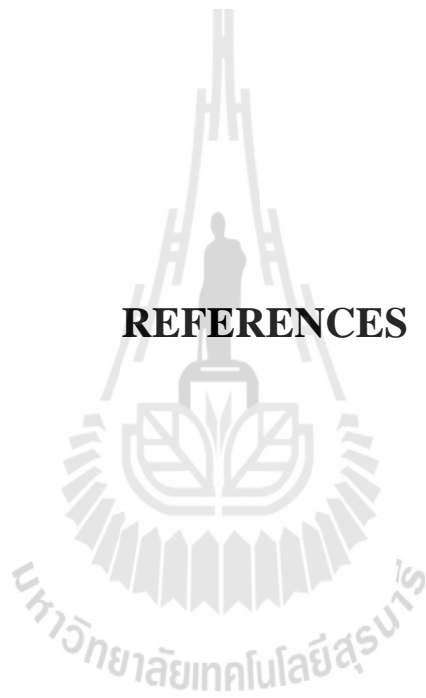
REFERENCES

Ahn, R. C. (2005). Five measures of interlanguage pragmatics in KEL learners. (Doctoral dissertation, University of Hawaii).

Aijmer, K. (1996). *Conversational routines in English*. London: Longman.

Aijmer, K. (2014). *Conversational routines in English: Convention and creativity*. London: Routledge.

Akerman, J. (2015). Infelicitous Cancellation: The Explicit Cancellability Test for Conversational Implicature Revisited. *Australasian Journal of Philosophy*, *93*(3), 465-474.

Alcón-Soler, E. (2015). Pragmatic learning and study abroad: Effects of instruction and length of stay. *System*, *48*, 62-74.

American Psychological Association. (1985). *Standards for educational and psychological testing*. Washington, DC: American Psychological Association.

American Educational Research Association, American Psychological Association & National Council on Measurement in Education. (1999). *Standards for educational and psychological testing*. Washington, DC: American Educational Research Association.

Anastasi, A., & Urbina, S. (1997). *Psychological testing* (7th ed.). Prentice Hall, New Jersey.

Arghamiri, A., & Sadighi, F. (2013). The impact of metalinguistic knowledge and proficiency level on pragmatic competence of Iranian EFL learners. *IJLLALW*, *4* (1), 181-192.

Arifuddin, A. (2014). Ranking of Causes of Failure to Infer Implicature in TOEFL-like Based on Gender. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, *4*(7), 1334-1343.

August, D., & Hakuta, K. (Eds.). (1997). *Improving schooling for language minority children: A research agenda*. Washington, DC: National Academy Press

Austin, J. L. (1962). How to do things with words. New York: Oxford University Press.

Bachman, L. F. (1989). The development and use of criterion –referenced tests of language proficiency in language program evaluation in Johnson, R. K. (Eds.), *The second language curriculum* (pp. 242-258). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Bachman, L. F. (1990). *Fundamental considerations in language testing*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Bachman, L. F., & Palmer, A. S. (1996). *Language testing in practice*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Bacon, S., & Finnemann, M. D. (1992). Sex differences in self‒reported beliefs about foreign language learning and authentic oral and written input. *Language Learning*, *42*(4), 471-495.

Bardovi-Harlig, K., & Dörnvei, Z. (1998). Do language learners recognize pragmatic violations? Pragmatic versus grammatical awareness in instructed L2 learning. *TESOL Quarterly*, *32*(2), 233-259.

Bardovi-Harlig, K., & Hartford, B. S. (1996). Input in an institutional setting. *Studies in second language acquisition*, *18*(2), 171-188.

Bardovi-Harlig, K., & Hartford, B. S. (Eds.). (2016). *Interlanguage pragmatics: Exploring institutional talk*. London: Routledge.

Bardovi-Harlig, K., Mossman, S., & Vellenga, H. E. (2015). Developing Corpus‐Based Materials to Teach Pragmatic Routines. *TESOL Journal*, *6*(3), 499-526.

Beebe, L. M., & Cummings, M. C. (1985). Speech act performance: A function of the data collection procedure. *Paper presented at the TESOL Convention*, New York.

Beebe, L. M., & Cummings, M. C. (1996). Natural speech act data versus written questionnaire data: How data collection method affects speech act performance. In Gass, S. M., & Neu, J. (Eds.), *Speech acts across cultures: challenges to communication in a second language* (pp. 65-86). Berlin: Mouton de Gruyer.

Belz, J. A. (2007). The role of computer mediation in the instruction and development of L2 pragmatic competence. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, *27*, 45-75.

Belz, J. A., & Vyatkina, N. (2005). Learner corpus analysis and the development of L2 pragmatic competence in networked inter-cultural language study: The case of German modal particles. *Canadian Modern Language Review/La Revue Canadienne Des Langues Vivantes*, *62*(1), 17-48.

Bergman, M., & Kasper, G. (1993). Perception and performance in native and nonnative apology. In Kapser, G., & Blum-Kulka, S. (Eds.), *Interlanguage pragmatics* (pp. 82-107). New York: Oxford University Press.

Bialystok, E. (1993) Symbolic representation and attentional control in pragmatic competence. In Kasper, G., & Blum-Kulka, S. (Eds.), *lnterlanguage pragmatics* (43-57). New York: Oxford University Press.

Bialystok, E. (2002). Acquisition of literacy in bilingual children: A framework for research. *Language Learning*, *52*(1), 159-199.

Bialystok, E., & Sharwood-Smith, M. (1985). Interlanguage is not a stage of mind: An evaluation of the construct for second language acquisition. *Applied Linguistics*, *6*(2), 101-117.

Billmyer, K. A. (1990a). The effect of formal instruction on the development of sociolinguistic competence: The performance of compliments. (Doctoral dissertation, University of Pennsylvania Philadelphia).

Billmyer, K. (1990b). "I Really Like Your Lifestyle": ESL Learners Learning How To Compliment. *Penn Working Papers in Educational Linguistics*. *6*, 31-48.

Billmyer, K., & Varghese, M. (2000). Investigating instrument-based pragmatic variability: Effects of enhancing discourse completion tests. *Applied Linguistics*, *21*(4), 517-552.

Blessing, L. T., & Chakrabarti, A. (2009). *DRM, a design research methodology*. London: Springer.

Blum-Kulka, S. (1982). The study of translation in view of new developments in discourse analysis: Indirect speech acts. *Poetics Today*, *2*(4), 89-95.

Blum-Kulka, S. (1983). Interpreting and performing speech acts in a second language: A cross-cultural study of Hebrew and English. *Sociolinguistics and language acquisition,* 3655.

Blum-Kulka, S. (1992). Learning to say what you mean in a second language: Learned slowly when not deliberately taught. *Journal of Pragmatics*, *3*, 29-59.

Blum-Kulka, S., House, J., & Kasper, G. (1989). Investigating cross-cultural pragmatics: An introduction. In Blum-Kulka, S., House, J., & Kasper, G. (Eds.) *Cross-cultural pragmatics: Requests and Apologies* (1-36). Norwood, NJ: Ablex Publishing Corporation.

Blum-Kulka, S., & Olshtain, E. (1986). Too many words: Length of utterance and pragmatic failure. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *8*(2), 165-179.

Bond, T. G., & Fox, C. M. (2001). *Applying the Rasch model: Fundamental measurement in the human sciences*. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates Publishers.

Bouton, L. F. (1988). A cross-cultural study of ability to interpret implicature in English. *World Englishes*, *7*(2), 183-196.

Bouton, L. F. (1994) Conversational implicature in the second language: Learned slowly when not deliberately taught. *Journal of Pragmatics*, *22*(2), 157-167.

Bouton, L. F. (1999). The Amenability of Implicature to Focused Classroom Instruction. *Paper presented at TESOL*, New York.

Boyle, J. P. (1987). Sex Differences in Listening Vocabulary. *Language Learning*, *37*(2), 273-284.

Broota, K. D. (1989). *Experimental design in behavioural research*. New Delhi: New Age International.

Brown, J. D. (1996). *Testing in language programs*. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Brown, J. D. (2001). Six types of pragmatics tests in two different contexts. In Rose, K., & Kasper, G. (Eds.), *Pragmatics in language teaching* (pp. 301-325). New York: Cambridge University Press.

Brown, J. D. (2008). Raters, functions, item types and the dependability of L2 pragmatics tests. In Alcón Soler, E., & Martínez-Flor, A. (Eds.), *Investigating pragmatics in foreign language learning, teaching and testing* (pp. 224-248). Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Brown, J. D., & Hudson, T. (1998). The alternatives in language assessment. *TESOL Quarterly*, *32*(4), 653-675.

Brown, P., & Levinson, S. (1978), "universals in Language Usage: Politeness Phenomenon", in Goody, E. N. (Eds.) (1978), *Questions and politeness: Strategies in social interaction*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Brown, P., & Levinson, S. (1987). *Politeness: Some universals in language usage*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Burke, J., & Larry, C. (2010). *Educational Research: Quantitative, qualitative, and mixed approaches* (4th ed.). New York: Sage.

Burstall, C. (1975). Factors Affecting Foreign-Language Learning: A Consideration of Some Recent Research Findings. *Language Teaching*, *8*, 5-25.

Canale, M. (1983). From Communication to Communicative Language Pedagogy. In Richards, J.C. & R.W. Schmidt (Eds.) *Language and communication* (pp. 231-256). London: Longman Group Ltd.

Canale, M., & Swain, M. (1980). Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing. *Applied Linguistics*, *1*(1), 1-47.

Chavez, M. (2001). *Gender in the language classroom*. Boston: Heinle and Heinle.

Chen, B. G. (2007). A study of the correlation between language ability and pragmatic competence of college EFL learners (大学生英语语用能力和语言能力的调查与对比分析). *Journal of Yili Normal University*, *3*, 115-117.

Chen, Y. S. (2016). The effect of learner–learner interactions on a multiple-choice discourse completion task. *Learning, Culture and Social Interaction*, *3*, 1-13.

Cher, L. L. (2015). Compliments and Compliment Responses of Singapore Chinese University Students. *Global Chinese*, *1*(1), 169-201.

Chomsky, N. (1965). *Aspects of the theory of syntax*. Cambridge: MIT Press.

Clark, H. H. (1979). Responding to indirect speech acts. *Cognitive Psychology, 11*(4), 430–477.

Clark, J. L. (1978). Interview testing research at educational testing service. Princeton, NJ: Educational Testing Service.

Cohen, A. D. (1996). Developing the ability to perform speech acts. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *18*, 253-267.

Cohen, A. D. (1997). Developing pragmatic ability: Insight from the accelerated study of Japanese. In Cook, H. M., Hijirida, K., & Tahara, M. (Eds.), *New trends and issues in teaching Japanese language and culture (Technical report)* (pp. 133-159). Honolulu: University of Hawaii, Second Language Teaching and Curriculum Center.

Cohen, A. D., & Olshtain, E. (1981). Devloping a measure of sociocultural competence: The case of apology. *Language Learning*, *31*(1), 113-134.

Cohen, A. D., & Olshtain, E. (1993). The production of speech acts by EFL learners. *TESOL Quarterly*, *27*(1), 33–56.

Cohen, A. D., & Olshtain, E. (1994). Researching the production of second language speech acts. In: Tarone, E., Gass, S., & Cohen, A. (Eds.), *Research methodology in second-language acquisition* (pp. 143-156). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Cohen, A. D., Olshtain, E., & Rosentain, D.. (1986). Advanced EFL apologies: What remains to be learned. *International Journal of Sociology of Language*, *62*, 51-74.

Cohen, A. D., & Olshtain, E. (1994). Researching the production of second language speech acts. In Tarone, E. T., Gass, S. M., & Cohen, A. D. (Eds.), *Research methodology in second language acquisition* (143-156). NJ: L. Erlbaum,.

Cole, P., & Morgan, J. (Eds.) (1975). *Syntax and semantics 3: Speech acts*. New York: Academic Press.

Collier, V. (1987). Age and rate of acquisition of second language for academic purposes. *TESOL Quarterly, 21,* 617–641.

Correl, J. B. (1968). The psychology of language testing. In Davies (Eds.), *Language testing symposium: A Psycholinguistc perspective* (pp. 46-69). New York: Oxford University Press.

Correl, J. B. (1979). Psychometric approaches to the study of language abilities. In Fillmore, C. J., kempler, D., & Wang, S-Y. (Eds.), *Individual differences in language ability and language behavior* (pp. 13-51). New York: Academic Press.

Coulmas, F. (1981). *Conversational routine*. New York: Mouton.

Cover, J. G. (2010). *The creation of narrative in tabletop role-playing games*. New York: McFarland.

Craighead, W. E., & Nemeroff, C. B. (Eds.). (2002). *The Corsini encyclopedia of psychology and behavioral science* (Vol. 1). New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Cronbach, L. J. (1951). Coefficient alpha and the internal structure of tests. *Psychometrika*. *16*(3), 297-334.

Crystal, D. (2003). *A dictionary of linguistics and phonetics*. Oxford: Basil Blackwell.

Cummins, J. (1991). Interdependence of first- and second-language proficiency in bilingual children. In Bialystok, E. (Eds.), *Language processing in bilingual children* (pp. 70–89). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Davies, A. (Eds.). (1999). *Dictionary of language testing* (Vol.7). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Derakhshan, A., & Eslami, Z. (2015). The effect of consciousness-raising instruction on the pragmatic development of apology and request. *The Electronic Journal of English as a Second Language*, *18*(4), 1-24.

Duan, L. L. (2012). The study of reliability and validity of pragmatic competence testing measures. *Foreign Languages Studies*: *4*, 84-96.

Dulay, H., & Burt, M. (1974). Natural sequences in child SLA. *Language Learning*: *24*, 37-53.

Ebel, R. L. (1964). The social consequences of educational testing. In *proceedings of the 1963 invitational conference on testing problems.* Princeton, NJ: Educational Testing Service: 130-143.

Edmonson, W., House, J., Kasper, G., & Stemmer, B. (1984). Learning the pragmatics of discourse. *Applied Linguistics*, *5*(2), 113-127.

Ehrman, M. E., & Oxford, R. L. (1995). Cognition plus: Correlates of language learning success. *The Modern Language Journal*, *79*(1), 67-89.

Eisenstein, M. (1982). A study of social variation in adult second language acquisition. *Language Learning, 32*(2), 367-391.

Eisenstein, M., & Bodman, J. (1993). Expressing gratitude in American English. *Interlanguage Pragmatics*, 6481.

Ellis, R. (1992). Learning to communicate in the language classroom: A study of two learners' requests. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *14*, 1-23.

Ellis, R. (1994). *Understanding second language acquisition*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Ellis, R. (1999). *The study of second language acquisition*. Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Language and Education Press.

Ellis, R. (2008). *The study of second language acquisition*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Eysenck, M. W. (2001). *Principles of cognitive psychology*. Hove: Psychology Press.

Faerch, C., & Kasper, G. (1989). Internal and external modification in interlanguage request realization. In Blum-Kulka, S., House, J., & Kasper, G. (Eds.) *Cross-cultural pragmatics* (pp. 221-247). Norwood, NJ: Ablex.

Fauzul, A. (2013). The assessment tool of L2 learners' pragmatic competence: Written discourse completion test (WDCT). *IPEDR, 68*(19), 113-117.

Fiksdal, S. (1989). Framing uncomfortable moments in cross-cultural gatekeeping interviews. In Gass, S., Madden, C., Preston, D., & Selinker, L. (Eds.), V*ariation in Second Language Acquisition: Discourse and pragmatics* (pp. 190-207)*.* Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Foxcroft, C., Paterson, H., Le Roux, N., & Herbst, D. (2004). Psychological assessment in South Africa: A needs analysis. *The test usage patterns and needs of psychological assessment practitioners*. Pretoria: Human Sciences Research Council.

Fraenkel, J. R., Wallen, N. E., & Hyun, H. H. (1993). *How to design and evaluate research in education*. NY: McGraw-Hill.

Fraser, B., Rintell, E., & Walters, J. (1980). An approach to conducting research on the acquisition of pragmatic competence in a second language. In Larsen-Freeman (Eds.), *Discourse analysis in second language research* (pp. 123-150). Rowley, Mass: Newbury House.

Fouser, R. (1997). Pragmatic transfer in highly advanced learners: Some preliminary findings. Dublin: Centre for Language and Communication Studies Occasional Papers. No. 50.

Garcia, P. (2004). Pragmatic comprehension of high and low level language learners. *TESL-EJ*, *8*(2): 1-15.

Garrett, H. E. (1937). *Statistics in psychology and education*. Oxford: Longmans, Green.

Gass, S. (1984). A review of interlanguage syntax: Language transfer and language universals. *Language Learning*, *34*(2), 115-132.

Genesee, F., & Upshur, J. A. (1996). *Classroom-based evaluation in second language education*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Goffman, E. (1959). *The presentation of self in everyday life*. New York: Doubleday.

Goffman, E. (1967). *Interaction rituals*. New York: Garden City.

Golato, A. (2003), Studying compliment responses: A comparison of recordings of DCTs and naturally occurring talk. *Applied Linguistics*, *24*(1), 90-121.

Grice, H. P. (1975). Logic and conversation. In Cole P., & Morgan J. L. (Eds), *Syntax and Semantics: Speech acts* (pp. 41-58). New York: Academic Press.

Grice, H. P. (1989). *Studies in the way of words*. Cambridge: Harvard University Press.

Groves, R. (1996). How do we know what we think they think is really what they think? In Schwarz, N., & Sudman, S. (Eds.), *Answering questions: Methodology for determining cognitive and communicative processes in survey research* (pp. 389-402). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Gwet, K. L. (2012). *Handbook of Inter-Rater Reliability: The Definitive Guide to Measuring the Extent of Agreement Among Multiple Raters*. Gaithersburg: Advanced Analytics Press.

Hakuta, K., Butler, Y. G., & Witt, D. (2000). How long does it take English learners to attain proficiency? The University of California Linguistic Minority Research Institute. Policy Report 2000-1. Available: http://www.stanford.edu/~hakuta/Docs/HowLong.pdf

Harnett, D. L., & Murphy, J. L. (1975). *Introductory statistical analysis*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

Hasan, A., & Susanto, S. (2012). Gender-based Failure to Infer Implicatures from Pre-TOEFL Listening. *International Journal of Learning and Development*, *2*(6), Pages-62.

He, G. (2011). Influences of Cultural Differences between the Chinese and the Western on Translation. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, *2*(2), 483-485.

He, W., Peng, Y., & Yu, H. (2007). *English Pragmatics: A Course book*. Beijing: Higher Education Press.

He, Z. R. (1988). 《语用学概论》 *A survey of pragmatics*. Changsha: Journal Educational Publishing House.

He, Z. R. (2003). *Notes on pragmatics*. Nanjing: Nanjing Normal University Press.

He, Z. R., & Chen, X. R. (2004). 《当代语用学》 *Contemporary pragmatics.* Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.

He, Z. R., & Yan, Z. (1986). 中国学生在英语交际中的语用失误一汉英语用差异调查 (An investigation on pragmatic failures of Chinese EFL learners) *Foreign Language Teaching and Research. 3*, 52-57.

He, Z. X. (2000). *A New Introduction to pragmatics*. Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Languages Education Press.

Heigham, J., & Croker, R. A. (Eds.). (2009). *Qualitative research in applied linguistics*. UK: Palgrave Macmillan.

Heim, I. (1992). Presupposition projection and the semantics of attitude verbs. *Journal of Semantics. 9*, 183-221.

Hill, T. (1997). The development of pragmatic competence in an EFL context. (Doctoral dissertation, the Temple University).

Hinkel, E. (1997). Appropriateness of Advice: DCT and Multiple Choice Data. *Applied Linguistics*, *18*(1), 1-26.

Hinkel, E. (1999). *Culture in second language teaching and learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Hoffman-Hicks (1992). Linguistic and Pragmatic Competence: Their Relationship in the Overall Competence of the Language Learner. *Pragmatics and Language Learning*, *3*, 66-80.

Hong, G. (1991). 英语语用能力调查及其对外语教学的启示 (An investigation on English pragmatic competence). *Foreign Language Teaching and Research. 4*, 56-60.

Hopkins, C. D., & Antes, R. L. (1985). *Classroom measurement & evaluation.* Itasca, IL: FE Peacock

Houck, N., & Gass, S. (1996). *The pragmatics of disagreement*. In Sociolinguistics Colloquium, *TESOL*, Chicago, IL: March.

House, J. (1989). Politemess in English and German: the functions of please and bitte. In Blum-Lulka, S., House, J., & Kasper, G. (Eds.), *Cross-cultural pragmatics.* Norwood (pp. 96-119). NJ: Ablex.

House, J. (1996). Developing pragmatic fluency in English as a foreign language: Routines and metapragmatic awareness. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *18*(2), 225-252.

House, J. (2013). Developing pragmatic competence in English as a lingua franca: Using discourse markers to express (inter) subjectivity and connectivity. *Journal of Pragmatics, 59*, 57-67.

House, J., & Kasper, G. (1987). Interlanguage pragmatics: Requesting in a foreign language. In Lorscher, W. & Schulze, R. (Eds): *Perspectives on language in performance* (1250-1288). Festschirift for Werner Hullen. Tabingen: Narr.

Huang, Y. (2007). *Pragmatics*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Huang, Y. (2012). *The Oxford dictionary of pragmatics*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Hudson, R. A. (2000). *Sociolinguistics*. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.

Hudson, T. (2001a). Indicators for cross-cultural pragmatic instruction: some quantitative tools. In Rose, K., & Kasper, G. (Eds.), *Pragmatics in language teaching* (pp. 283-300). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Hudson, T. (2001b). Self-assessment methods in cross-cultural pragmatics. In T. Hudson & J. D. Brown (Eds.): *A Focus on language test development* (pp. 57-74). Honolulu, HI: University of Hawaii Press.

Hudson, T., Detmer, E., & Brown, J. D. (1992). *A framework for testing cross-cultural pragmatics* (Vol. 2). Hawaii: Natl Foreign Lg Resource Ctr.

Hudson, T., Detmer, E., & Brown, J. D. (1995). *Developing prototypic measures of cross-cultural pragmatics*. (Technical Report 7). Honolulu, HI: University of Hawaii, Second Language Teaching and Curriculum Center.

Hymes, D. H. (1972). On Communicative Competence. in Pride, J. B., & Holmes, J.(Eds.), *Soiolinguistics* (pp. 122-156). New York: Penguin.

Ikoma, T. (1993). Sorry for giving me a ride: the use of apologetic expressions to show gratitude in Japanese (Master's dissertation, University of Hawaii).

Intaraprasert, C. (2000). Language learning strategies employed by engineering students learning English at the tertiary level in Thailand. (Doctoral dissertation, University of Leeds).

Jernigan, J. E. (2007). Instruction and developing second language pragmatic competence: An investigation into the efficacy of output. (Doctoral dissertation, Florida State University).

Ji, P. Y., & Jiang, J. (2010). 对大学英语语用能力培养的再思考 (A Reconsideration on Pragmatic Competence in College English Education). *Foreign Language World*, *6*, 33-41.

Jiang, Z. H. (2009). A probe into the assessment of Chinese college students' pragmatic competence. *Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation.* Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Languages Studies.

Johnston, B., Kasper, G., & Ross, S. (1998). Effect of rejoinders in production questionnaires. *Applied Linguistics, 19*(2), 157–182.

Judd, E. L. (1999). Some issues in the teaching of pragmatic competence. *Culture in second language teaching and learning*, 152-166.

Jung, J. Y. (2005). Issues in acquisitional pragmatics. *Teachers College, Columbia University Working Papers in TESOL & Applied Linguistics*, *2*(3).

Kasper, G. (1981). *Pragmatic aspects in interlanguage.* Tubingen: Narr.

Kasper, G. (1984). Pragmatic comprehension in learner-native speaker discourse. *Language Learning, 34*(4), 1-20.

Kasper, G. (1989). Variation in interlanguage speech act realization. In Gass, S., Madden, C., Preston, D., & Selinker, L. (Eds.), *Variation in second language acquisition: Discourse and pragmatics* (pp. 37-58). Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Kasper, G. (1992). Pragmatic Transfer. *Second Language Research. 8*(3), 201-231.

Kasper, G. (1995). Routine and indirection in interlanguage pragmatics. In Bouton, L. (Eds.), *Pragmatics and language learning* (pp. 144-167). Urbana-Champaign: Division of English as an International Language, University of Illinois.

Kasper, G. (1996). Introduction: Interlanguage pragmatics in SLA. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *18*(2), 145-148.

Kasper, G. (1997). Can pragmatic competence be taught? *NetWork*, *6*, 105-119.

Kasper, G. (1998). Interlanguage Pragmatics. In Byrnes, H. (Eds.), *Learning foreign and second lauguages: Perspectives in Research and Scholarship* (pp. 232-256). New York: The Modern Language Association of America.

Kasper, G. (2000). Four perspectives on L2 pragmatic development. Plenary Address, *Annual Meeting of the American Association of Applied Linguistics*, Vancouver, British Columbia.

Kasper, G., & Blum-Kulka, S. (1993). *lnterlanguage pragmatics*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Kasper, G., & Dahl, M. (1991). Research methods in interlanguage pragmatics. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *13*(2), 215-247.

Kasper, G., & Rose, K. R. (1999). Pragmatics and SLA. *Annual review of applied linguistics*, *19*, 81-104.

Kasper, G., & Rose, K. R. (2001). Pragmatics in language teaching. In Kasper, G. (Eds.), *Pragmatics in language teaching* (pp. 1-10). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Kasper, G., & Rose, K. R. (2002). *Pragmatic development in a second language. Malden*. MA: Blackwell Publishing.

Kasper, G., & Rover, C. (2005). Pragmatics in second language learning. In Hinkel, E. (Eds.), *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning* (pp. 317-334). Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Kasper, G., & Schmidt, R. (1996). Developmental issues in interlanguage pragmatics. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *18*(02), 149-169.

Kereks, J. (1992). *Development in nonnative speakers' use and perception of assertiveness and supportiveness in mixed sex conversations*. Honolulu, HI: University of Hawaii at Manoa, Department of English as a Second Language.

Kitao, K. (1990). A study of Japanese and American perceptions of politeness in requests. *Doshida Studies in English*, *50*, 178-210.

Koike, D. A., & Pearson, L. (2005). The effect of instruction and feedback in the development of pragmatic competence. *System*, *33*(3), 481-501.

Kothari, C. R. (2004). *Research methodology: Methods and techniques*. New Delhi: New Age International.

Labov, W. (1991). The intersection of sex and social class in the course of linguistic change. *Language variation and linguistic change*, *2*, 203-231.

Lakoff, G. (1975). *Hedges: a study in meaning criteria and the logic of fuzzy concepts*. New York: Springer Netherlands.

Larsen-Freeman, D., & Long, M. H. (2000). *An introduction to second acquisition*. Beijing: Foreign Language Teaching and Research Press.

Lee, W. T. (2012). An Analysis of Taiwanese University EFL Learners. *Journal of Lan Yang, 11*, 67-77.

Leech, G. (1983). *Principles of pragmatics*. London: Longman.

Levinson, S. C. (1983), *Pragmatics*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Levinson, S. C. (2001). *Pragmatics*. In International Encyclopedia of Social and Behavioral Sciences: Vol. 17 (pp. 11948-11954). Oxford: Pergamon.

Levy, P. S., & Lemeshow, S. (2013). *Sampling of populations: methods and applications*. New York: John Wiley & Sons.

Li, X., & Lin, L. (2015). A Pragmatic Study on the Speech Act of Refusal by Chinese EFL Learners. *Languages and International Studies*, *13*, 23.

Liddicoat, A. J., & Crozet, C. (2001). Acquiring French interactional norms through instruction. In Rose, K. R., & Kasper, G. (Eds.), *Pragmatics in language teaching* (pp. 125-144). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Li, H. K. (2010). 少数民族地区师范院校学生语用能力的调查报告 (A survey on pragmatic competence of normal college students in the minority areas). *Journal of Lanzhou Institute of Education*, *26*(3), 68-72, 124.

Li, Q. H., & Zou, R. (2015). 二语语用测试研究 30 年 (A review on the ILP competence testing). *Journal of PLA University of Foreign Languages*, *38*(4), 43-50.

Li, W. J., & Chen, Y. S. (2016). Politeness and Effectiveness of English Email Requests: Taiwanese Professors' Perspectives. In Email Discourse Among Chinese Using English as a Lingua Franca (pp. 91-111). Singapore: Springer.

Li, X. P. (2012). 性别差异与英语专业学生语用能力发展的相关性研究 (A correlational study of interlanguage pragmatic competence development on gender difference of English majors). *Journal of Suzhou University*, *27*(8), 121-123.

Li, Y., & Jiang, Z. H. (2014). 新时期英语专业学生语用能力调查报告及启示(An Investigation of English Majors' ILP Competence). *Foreign Language Education*, *35*(5), 68-71.

Linacre, J. M. (1997). Guidelines for rating scales. In Midwest Objective Measurement Seminar. Chicago: MESA Research Note (Vol. 2).

Linacre, J. M. (1999). Investigating rating scale category unity. *Journal of Outcome Measurement*, *3*, 103-122.

Linacre, J. M. (2003). *A user's guide to FACETS: Rasch-model computer programs.* Chicago: MESA Press.

Linacre, J. M. (2014). *A User's Guide to FACETS: Rasch-Model computer programs*. Available: http://www.winsteps.com/a/facets-manual.pdf.

Linacre, J. M., & Wright, B. D. (1999). *A user's guide to FACETS: Rasch measurement computer programs. Chicago*: MESA Press.

Linacre, J. M., & Wright, B. D. (2000). *WINSTEPS: Multiple-choice, rating scale, and partial credit Rasch analysis. Computer software*. Chicago: MESA Press.

Liu, J. D. (2004). Measuring interlanguage pragmatic knowledge of Chinese EFL learners (Doctoral dissertation, City University of Hong Kong).

Liu, J. D. (2006a). *Measuring interlanguage pragmatic knowledge of EFL learners*. New York: Peter Lang Publishing.

Liu, J. D. (2006b). Assessing EFL learners' interlanguage pragmatic knowledge: Implications for testers and teachers. *Reflections on English Language Teaching*, *5*(1), 1-22.

Liu, J. D. (2007). Developing a pragmatics test for Chinese EFL learners. *Language Testing*, *24*(3), 391-415.

Liu, J. D. (2012). Chinese EFL learners' English proficiency and their pragmatic competence development. *Foreign Languages in China*, *9*(1), 64-70.

Liu, J., & Huang, S. X. (2013). 场独立与依赖性认知风格与语际语用能力的相关性研究 (A Study of Correlation between Field Dependence/Independence Cognitive Style and Interlanguage Pragmatic Competence). *Foreign Languages in China. 10*(51), 42-46.

Liu, J., & Xie, L. (2014). Examining rater effects in a WDCT pragmatics test. *Iranian Journal of Language Testing*, *4*(1), 50-65.

Liu, Y., (2015). 中国英语学习者语用能力发展模式实证研究 (An Empirical Study on the Development Pattern of Chinese EFL Learners' Pragmatic Competence). *Foreign Language Research*, *182*(1), 114-119.

Lotman, Y. M., Uspensky, B. A., & Mihaychuk, G. (1978). On the semiotic mechanism of culture. *New Literary History*, 211-232. Maryland: The Johns Hopkins University Press.

Lyster, R. (1994). The effect of functional-analytic teaching on aspects of French immersion students' sociolinguistic competence. *Applied Linguistics*, *15*(3), 263-287.

Ma, T. (2010). The interlanguage pragmatic competence of English majors and its development in ethnic universities---A case study of Beijing ethnic university (Doctoral dissertation, Shanghai International Studies University).

Madsen, H. S. (1983). *Techniques in testing*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Mahmoodi, M. H. (2013). The interface between linguistic and pragmatic competence: The case of disagreement, scolding, requests, and complaints. *Journal of English Language Teaching and Learning*, *4*(10), 1-26.

Major, R. C. (1994). Current trends in Interlanguage Phonology. *First and Second Language Phonology*, 181-204.

Manolopoulo-Sergi, E. (2004). Motivation within the information processing model of foreign language learning. *System*, *32*, 427-442.

Matsumura, S. (2003). Modelling the relationships among interlanguage pragmatic development, L2 proficiency, and exposure to L2. *Applied Linguistics, 24*(4), 465-491.

McCarthy, M., McCarten, J., & Sandiford, H. J. (2005). *Touchstone 1*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Mckelvie, B. (2000). The effect of hyper feminity on communication pattern in dating couples. *Dissertation Abstract International, 60*, 63-75.

McLaughlin, B. (1983). Second language acquisition in childhood. Vol.2, School-age children. Hillsdake, N.J: Lawrence Erlbaum.

McLaughlin, B. (1990). Restructuring. *Applied linguistics, 11*(2), 113-128.

Mehrens, W. A., & Lehmann, I. J. (1978). *Measurement and evaluation in education and psychology: A Qualitative approach*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Messick, S. (1988). The once and future issues of validity: assessing the meaning and consequences of measurement. In Wainer, H., & Braun, H.I., (Eds.), *Test validity* (pp. 33–65). Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.

Messick, S. A. (1989). Validity. In Linn, R.L. (Eds.) *Educational measurement (3rd ed.)* (pp. 27-66). New York: American Councial on Education/Macmillan Publishing Company.

Messick, S. A. (1996). Validity and washback in language testing. *Language Testing 13*(3), 241–256.

Mori, S., & Gobel, P. (2006). Motivation and gender in the Japanese EFL classroom. *System*, *34*(2), 194-210.

Morrow, C. K. (1995). *The pragmatic effects of instruction on ESL learner's production of complaint and refusal speech acts*. UMI Dissertation Services.

Mulac, S., Bradac, J., & Gibbons, V. C. (2001). Empirical support for the gender-as-a-culture hypothesis: An intercultural analysis of male/female language differences. *Human Communication Research 27*, 121-152.

Muthusamy, P., & Farashaiyan, A. (2016). Situational Variations in Request and Apology Realization Strategies among International Postgraduate Students at Malaysian Universities. *English Language Teaching*, *9*(3), 181-186.

Myford, C. M., & Wolfe, E. W. (2003). Detecting and measuring rater effects using many-facet Rasch measurement: part I. *Journal of Applied Measurement*, *4*(4), 386-422.

Naoko, T. (2013). Production of routines in L2 English: Effect of proficiency and study-abroad experience. *System*, *41*(1), 109-121.

Niezgoda, K., & Rover, C. (2001). Pragmatic and grammatical awareness in Rose, K. R., & Kasper, G. (Eds.), *Pragmatics in Language Teaching* (pp. 63-79). Stuttgart: Ernst Klett Sprachen.

Nemati, M., Rezaee, A. A., & Mahdi H. M. (2014). Assessing Pragmatics through MDCTs: A Case of Iranian EFL Learners. *Iranian Journal of Applied Language Studies*, *6*(2), 43-66.

Niezgoda, K., & Rover, C. (2001). Pragmatic and grammatical awareness: A function of the learning environment. *Pragmatics in Language Teaching*, 31, 63-79.

Nishihara, S. (1999). Kenkyu no gaino. In Shimpro 'Nihongo' Dai 2-han (Eds.) *Video Shigi ni-yoru Gengo Koudou Ishiki Chousa Houkokusho: Bunseki hen* (*Study of consciousness toward linguistic behaviors of Japanese by video stimulation: Book of analysis*) (pp. 1-14). Tokyo: National Language Research Institute. Ministry of Education of Japan, Scientific Research Grant No. 09NP0701.

Nunan, D. (1989). *Understanding language classroom: A guide for teacher-initiated action.* London: Hall International.

Nunan, D. (1992). *Research methods in language learning*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Oller, J. W. (1979). *Language tests at school: A pragmatic approach.* London: Longman.

Olshtain, E. (1983). Sociocultural competence and language transfer: The case of apology. In Gass, S, & Selinker, L. (Eds.), *Language transfer in language learning*. Rowley, Mass: Newbury House.

Olshtain, E., & Weinbach, L. (1987). Complaints: A study of speech act behavior among native and nonnative speakers of Hebrew. In Verschueren, J., & Bertucceslli-Papi, M. (Eds.), *The pragmatic perspective: Selected papers from the 1985 international pragmatics conference*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins, 195-208.

Ostrom, T., & Gannon, K. (1996). Exemplar generation: Assessing how respondents give meaning to rating scales. In Schwarz, N., & Sudman, S. (Eds.), *Answering questions: Methodology for determining cognitive and communicative processes in survey research* (pp. 293-318). San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Oxford, R., & Nyikos, M. (1989). Variables affecting choice of language learning strategies by university students. *The Modern Language journal*, 73, 291-300.

Palmer, A. S., Groot, P. J. M., & Trosper, G. A. (1981). (Eds.) *The construct validation of tests of communicative competence*. Washington, DC: TESOL.

Penelope, E., & Sally, M. (2003). *Language and gender*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Piquero, A. R., MacIntosh, R., & Hickman, M. (2001). Applying Rasch modeling to the validity of a control balance scale. *Journal of Criminal Justice*, *29*(6), 493-505.

Pollitt, A., & Hutchinson, C. (1987). Calibrating graded assessments: Rasch partial credit analysis of performance in writing. *Language Testing*, *4*(1), 72-92.

Pürschel, H., Doktor, W., Jaritz, P., von Rosenberg, I., & Schmid-Schönbein, G. (1994). Natürliches Deutsch [Natural German]. In *Dokkyo-Universität-Forschungsbericht Germanistik 31*, March, 3–188.

Qin, Z. X. (2015). 少数民族学生三语习得研究 (Third language acquisition for minorities). *Guizhou Ethnic Studies*, *36*(7), 196-199.

Richards, C. J., & Bohlke, D. (2012). *Four Corners 3*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Richards, C. J., Hull, J., & Proctor, S. (2005). *Interlanguage 1*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Richards, C. J., Hull, J., & Proctor, S. (2005). *Interlanguage 2*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Rintell, E., & Mitchell, C. (1989). Studying requests and apologies. In Blum-Kulka (Eds.) *Cross-cultural pragmatics: requests and apologies* (pp. 155-189). Norwood, N.J: Ablex.

Rover, C. (2001). Web-based language testing: Opportunities and challenges. *Language Learning and Technology, 5*(2), 84–94.

Rover, C. (2004). Difficulty and practicality in tests of interlanguage pragmatics. In Boxer, D., & Cohen, A. (Eds.), *Studying speaking to inform language learning*, (pp. 283–301). Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Rover, C. (2005). *Testing ESL pragmatics*. New York: Peter Lang

Rover, C. (2006). Validation of a web-based test of ESL pragmalinguistics. *Language Testing*, *23*(2), 229-256.

Rover, C. (2007). DIF in the assessment of second language pragmatics. *Language Assessment Quarterly*, *4*(2), 165-189.

Rover, C. (2008). Rater, item, and candidate effects in discourse completion tests: A FACETS approach. In Martinez-Flor, A., & Alcon, E. (Eds.), *Investigating pragmatics in foreign language learning, teaching, and testing* (pp. 249-266). Clevedon: Multilingual Matters.

Rover, C. (2010a). Effects of native language in a test of ESL pragmatics: A DIF approach. In Kasper, G., Nguyen, H. Yoshimi, D. R., & Yoshioka, J. (Eds.), *Pragmatics and language learning* (pp. 187-212). Honolulu, HI: National Foreign Language Resource Center.

Rover, C. (2010b). Testing implicature under operational conditions (Unpublished manuscript, University of Melbourne).

Rover, C. (2014). *Testing ESL pragmatics*. New York: Peter Lang.

Romaine, S. (1994). *Language in society*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Rose, K. R. (1992). Speech acts and questionnaires: The effect of Hearer response. *Journal of Pragmatics. 17*(1), 49-62.

Rose, K. R. (1994a). Pragmatic consciousness-raising in an EFL context. In Bouton, L., & Kachru, Y. (Eds.), *Pragmatics and language learning*, monograph series. Urbana-Champaign: Division of English as an International Language, University of Illinois, Urbana-Champaign. *5*, 52-63.

Rose, K. R. (1994b). On the validity of discourse completion tests in non-western contexts. *Applied Linguistics*, *15*(1), 1-14.

Rose, K. R. (2000). An exploratory cross-sectional study of interlanguage pragmatic development. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *22*(1), 27-67.

Rose, K. R., & Ng, K. C. (2001). Inductive and deductive teaching of compliments and compliment responses. In Rose, K. R., & Kasper, G. (Eds.), *Pragmatics in language teaching* (pp. 145-170). New York: Cambridge University Press.

Rose, K. R., & Ono, R. (1995). Eliciting speech act data in Japanese: the effect of questionnaire type. *Language Learning, 45*(2), 191–223.

Salahshour, F., Sharifi, M., & NedaSalahshour, S. (2012). The relationship between language learning strategy use, language proficiency level and learner gender. *Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *70*, 634-643.

Sawyer, M. (1992). The development of pragmatics in Japanese as a second language: The sentence-final particle *ne*. In Kasper, G. (Eds.), *Pragmatics of Japanese as a native and foreign language (Technical report 3)* (pp. 83-125). Honolulu: University of Hawaii at Manoa, Second Language Teaching & Curriculum Center.

Scarcella, R. (1979). On speaking politely in a second language. *International Journal of the Sociology of Language*, *27*, 59-76.

Scarcella, R., & Brunak, J. (1981). On speaking politely in a second language. International. *Journal of the Sociology of Language*, *27*, 59–75.

Schmidt, R., & Frota, S. (1986). Developing basic conversational ability in a second language: A case study of an adult learner of Portuguese. *Talking to learn: Conversation in second language acquisition*, 237-326.

Schreier, M. (2012). *Qualitative content analysis in practice.* New York: Sage Publications.

Searle, J. R. (1969). *Speech acts: An essay in the philosophy of language* (Vol. 626). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Searle, J. R. (1975). Indirect speech acts. Available: http://www.cs.uu.nl/docs/vakken/musy/searle_indirect.pdf.

Seliger, H. W., & Shohamy, E. (1989). *Second language research methods*. New York: Oxford University Press.

Selinker, L. (1972). Interlanguage. *IRAL*, *10*(3), 209-231.

Selinker, L. (2016). Some Unresolved Issues in an ELT New Media Age: Towards Building an Interlanguage Semantics. *Working Papers in TESOL and Applied Linguistics*, 11 (2011).

Seiwald, R. (2011). *The Importance of Face in"Politeness Theory"*. Munich: GRIN Verlag,

Shao, L. J. Zhao, Y. R., & Sun, Q. Y.　(2011). 学习动机及文化认同与语用能力发展的相关性 (Correlation between the English Learner's Learning Motivation，Cultural Identity and the Development of the Learners' Pragmatic Competence). *Hebei Normal University of Science ＆ Technology (Social Sciences)*, *10*(2), 88-91.

Shinpro 'Nihongo' Dai 2-han (1999a). *Video Shigi ni-yoru Gengo Koudou Ishiki Chousa Houkokusho: Bunseki hen* (*Study of consciousness toward linguistic behaviors of Japanese by video stimulation: Book of analysis*). Tokyo: National Language Research Institute. Ministry of Education of Japan, Scientific Research Grant No. 09NP0701.

Shinpro 'Nihongo' Dai 2-han (1999b). *Video Shigi ni-yoru Gengo Koudou Ishiki Chousa Houkokusho: Bunseki hen* (*Study of consciousness toward linguistic behaviors of Japanese by video stimulation: Book of data*). Tokyo: National Language Research Institute. Ministry of Education of Japan, Scientific Research Grant No. 09NP0701. [d3].

Shirinbakhsh, S., Eslami Rasekh, A., & Tavakoli, M. (2015). The effect of input-based practice on the accurate and speedy performance of EFL refusals: The role of proficiency and lexical access ability in focus. *International Journal of Research Studies in Language Learning*, *5*(3), 51-66.

Si, L. H. (2001). 过渡语，语用能力与文化教学 (Interlanguage, pragmatic competence and culture learning). *Foreign Language Research*, *2*(105), 101-106.

Silva, A. J. B. D. (2003). The effects of instruction on pragmatic development: Teaching polite refusals in English. *Second Language Studies*, *22*(1), 55-106.

Soo, J. Y. (2013). Measuring syntactic complexity in L2 pragmatic production: Investigating relationships among pragmatics, grammar, and proficiency. *System*, *42*, 270-287.

Sperber, D., & Wilson, D. (1986), *Relevance: Communication and cognition*, Oxford: Blackwell.

Sperber, D., & Wilson, D. (2002). Pragmatics, Modularity and Mind-reading. *Mind & Language, 17*(1-2), 3-23.

Spolsky, B. (1989). Communicative competence, language proficiency, and beyond. *Applied Linguistics*, *10*(2), 138-156.

Subong, P. E. (2005). *Statistics for research*. Sampaloc, Manila: Rex Book Store, Inc.

Sunderland, J. (2000). *Issues of language and gender in second and foreign language education*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Tabatabaei, S., & Farnia, M. (2015). Learner's English Proficiency and their Pragmatic Competence of Refusal Speech Acts. *Beyond Words*, *3*(1), 53-77.

Taguchi, N. (2013). Rather Variation in the Assessment of Speech Acts. *Pragmatics*, *21*(3), 453-471.

Taguchi, N. (2013). Production of routines in L2 English: Effect of proficiency and study-abroad experience. *System*, *41*(1), 109-121.

Takahashi, S. (1992). Transferability of indirect request strategies. *University of Hawaii Working Paper in ESL*, *11*(1), 69-124.

Takahashi, S. (1995). Pragmatic transferability of Ll indirect request strategies perceived by Japanese learners of English (Doctoral dissertation, University of Hawaii at Manoa).

Takahashi, S. (1996). Pragmatic transferability. S*tudies in Second Language Acquisition*, *18*(2), 189-223.

Takahashi, S. (2005). Pragmalinguistic Awareness: Is it related to motivation and proficiency? *Applied Linguistics*, *26*(1), 90-120.

Takahashi, S. (2010). Assessing Learnability in second language pragmatics. A. Trosborg (Eds.), *Handbook of pragmatics* (pp. 391-421). VII, Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.

Takahashi, T., & Beebe, L.M. (1987). The development of pragmatic competence by Japanese learners of English. *JALT Journal*, *8*(2), 131-55.

Takahashi, T. & Beebe, L. M. (1993). Cross-linguistic influence in the speech act of correction. In G. Kasper & S. Blum-Kulka (Eds.), *Interlanguage pragmatics* (pp. 138-157). New York: Oxford University Press.

Takimoto, M. (2008). The effects of deductive and inductive instruction on the development of language learners' pragmatic competence. *The Modern Language Journal*, *92*(3), 369-386.

Takimoto, M. (2012). Metapragmatic discussion in interlanguage pragmatics. *Journal of Pragmatics*, *44*, 1240–1253.

Tanaka, N. (1988). Politeness: Some problems for Japanese speakers of English. *Journal of the Japan Association of Language Teachers*, *9*(2), 81-102.

Tateyama, Y. (2001). Explicit instruction and JFL learner's use of interactional discourse markers. In K. R. Rose and G. Kasper (Eds.), *Pragmatics in language teaching* (pp. 200-222). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

The Higher Education Department of the Ministry of Education. (2007). *College English curriculum requirements*. Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press.

The people's Republic of China National Bureau of Statistics. (2011). *Report of the 6th census of population.* Available:

http://baike.baidu.com/link?url=m2MYAyE3Ps5QWdkPJahj252oDaG

WrLhCTF7hA2FgiiHOKjgy0UWoFFC4gmh1SIwceogy-_2kuJpZXiJfXb-trq.

Thomas, J. (1983). Cross-cultural pragmatic failure. *Applied Linguistics*, *4*(2), 91-112.

Thomas, J. (1995). *Meaning in interaction: An introduction to pragmatics*. New York: Longman.

Thompson, E. (1991). Foreign accents revisited: The English pronunciation of Russian immigrants. *Language Learning*, *41*(2), 177-204.

Tian, Y. L. (2012). 青海地区少数民族大学生跨文化语用能力研究 (An Investigation of the Pragmatic Competence in Three Minority Nationalities). *Guizhou Ethnic Studies*, *33*(143), 185-190.

Tian, Y. P. (2013). 三个少数民族的语用能力调查 (A Study of Cross-culture Pragmatic Skills of the Minority College Students in Qinghai). *Journal of Qinghai Nationalities University*, *39*(2), 144-147.

Tremblay, P. F., & Gardner, R. C. (1995). Expanding the motivation construct in language learning. *The ModernLanguage Journal*, *79*(4), 505-518.

Trosborg, A. (1987). Apology strategies in natives/non-natives. *Journal of Pragmatics, 11*(2), 147-167.

Trosborg, A. (1995). *Interlanguage pragmatics: Requests, complaints, and apologies*. Berlin: Mouton.

Unerhill, N. (1987). *Testing spoken language: a handbook of oral testing techniques*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Ushioda, E. (2008). *Motivation and good language learners.* Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Usó-Juan, E., & Martínez-Flor, A. (2015). Assessing EFL learners' performance of the conventional expressions of complaining and apologising. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, *173*, 53-60.

Wang, C. M. (2004). Self-concept, English pronunciation and EFL learning. *Foreign Language Teaching and research. 1*, 56-63.

Wang, D. C. (1995). A study on neurolinguistics. *Foreign languages, 2*, 1-7.

Wang, X. M. (2006). How sexual difference affects EFL learners' linguistic and pragmatic competence. *Foreign Language and Literature Studies. 87*, 29-33.

Wannaruk, A. (2004). Say "No": A cross cultural comparison of Thais and Americans refusals. In *English language studies forum. 1*, 1-22.

Wannaruk, A. (2008). Pragmatic transfer in Thai EFL refusals. *RELC Journal*, *39*(3), 318-337.

Wardhaugh, R., & Fuller, J. M. (2014). *An introduction to sociolinguistics*. New Jersey: John Wiley & Sons.

Weizman, E. (1993). Interlanguage requestive hints. In Kasper, G., & Blum-Kulka, S. (Eds.), *Interlanguage pragmatics* (pp. 122-137). New York: Oxford University Press.

Wen, Q. F. (2000). *Language learning strategies*. Shanghai: Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press.

WikiProject Statistics. (2008).   Available:

http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Validity_(statistics).

Wildner-Bassert, M. (1984). *Improving pragmatic aspects of learners' interlanguage.* Tubingen: Gunter Narr.

Wildner-Bassert, M. (1994). Intercultural pragmatics and proficiency: 'polite' noises for cultural appropriateness. *IRAL XXXII*, *1*, 3-17.

Wilson, L. W. (2013). *What every teacher needs to know about assessment*. London: Routledge.

Wolfson, N. (1988). The bulge: A theory of speech behavior and social distance. In J. Fine (Eds.), *Second language research* (pp. 21-38). Norwood, NJ: Ablex.

Wolfson, N., & Judd, E. (1983). *Sociolinguistics and Language Acquisition*. Rowley, Mass: Newbury House.

Wolfson, N., Marmor, T., & Jones, S. (1989). Problems in the comparison of speech acts across cultures. *Cross-cultural pragmatics: Requests and apologies*, *17496*.

Wray, A. (1999). Formulaic language in learners and native speakers. *Language Teaching*, *32*(4), 213-231.

Wray, A. (2000). Formulaic sequences in second language teaching: Principle and practice. *Applied Linguistics*, *21*(4), 463-489.

Wright, B. D., & Masters, G. N. (1982). *Rating scale analysis. Rasch measurement*. Chicago: MESA Press.

Xiao, F. (2015). Proficiency effect on L2 pragmatic competence. *Studies in Second Language Learning and Teaching*, *5*(4), 557-581.

Xu, W., Case, R. E., & Wang, Y. (2009). Pragmatic and grammatical competence, length of residence, and overall L2 proficiency. *System*, *37*(2), 205-216.

Yamanaka, J. E. (2003). Effects of proficiency and length of residence on the pragmatic comprehension of Japanese ESL learners. *Second Language Studies*, *22*(1), 107-175.

Yamashita, S. O. (1996a). Comparing six cross-cultural pragmatics measures. (Doctoral dissertation, Temple University).

Yamashita, S. O. (1996b) *Six measures of JSL pragmatics*. (Technical Report 14). Honolulu, HI: University of Hawaii, Second Language Teaching and Curriculum Center.

Yang, Q. (2006). An Investigation of the Non-English Majors' Pragmatic Competence. *(*MA dissertation, Shangdong Normal University).

Yang, Y., & Ma, Y. (2015). 少数民族大学生英语请求言语行为能力发展研究 (The development of minority students' ILP competence in the speech act of request). *Journal of South-Central University for Nationalities (Humanities and Social Sciences, 35* (3), 177-180.

Yang, Q. (2015). An Investigation of the Non-English Majors' Pragmatic Competence. *Journal of Language Teaching and Research*, *6*(6), 1289-1296.

Yin, L. (2009). Cultural differences of politeness in English and Chinese. *Asian Social Science, 5*(6), 154-156.

Yoshitake, S. S. (1997). Measuring interlanguage pragmatic competence of Japanese students of English as a foreign language: a multi-test framework evaluation. (Doctoral dissertation, Columbia Pacific University).

Yue, X. B. (2015). 运用支架式教学法缓解英语交际焦虑. (Application of Scaffolding Instruction in releasing Communication Anxiety). *Journal of the Chinese Society of Education, 1*, 14-17

Yule, G. (1996). *Pragmatics.* New York: Oxford University Press.

Zaidi, Z. F. (2010). Gender difference in human brain: A review. *The Open Anatomy Journal*, 2, 37-55.

Zhao, J. (2008). 少数民族学生跨文化交际中语用能力的调查与研究 (An investigation of minority students' interlanguage pragmatic competence). *Journal of Southwest University for Nationalities (Humanities and Social Science)*, *12*, 14-16.

Zhang, D. Y. (2012). 大学英语专业毕业生就业现状及对策分析 (Employment Situation of English Major Graduates and Countermeasure Analysis). *Journal of HuBei TV University*, *32* (9), 50-52.

Zhu, X. (2007). 高校英语专业毕业生就业走向及应策 (The Strategies to Cope with Employment for University English-Major Undergraduates). *Journal of Neijiang Technology*, *1*(13), 65.

APPENDIX A

Questionnaire for Frequently Used Speech Acts

Instruction: Speech acts are frequently used in our daily life. The listed are the speech acts we may use. Now, please spend some time recalling the types of speech acts you have met in your daily life, and then select the most frequently used ten speech acts by giving a "√" in the bracket before each speech act.

1. ( ) advice

2. ( ) gratitude

3. ( ) order

4. ( ) inquiry

5. ( ) request

6. ( ) offer

7. ( ) command

8. ( ) greeting

9. ( ) promise

10. ( ) refusal

11. ( ) threat

12. ( ) apology

13. ( ) blame

14. ( ) congratulation
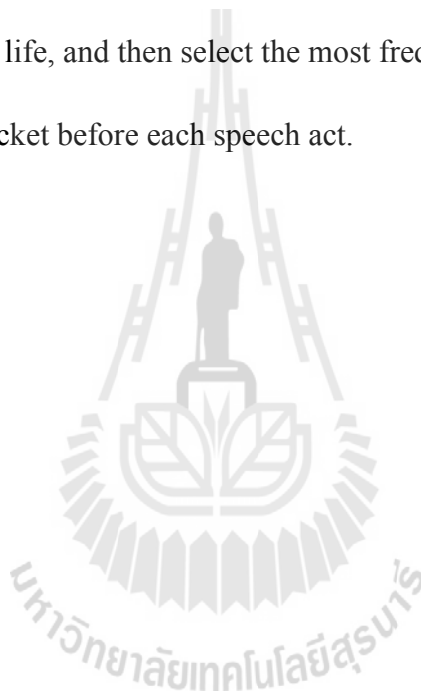
15. ( ) compliment

16. ( ) compliment response

17. ( ) claim

18. ( ) warning

19. ( ) persuasion

20. ( ) criticism
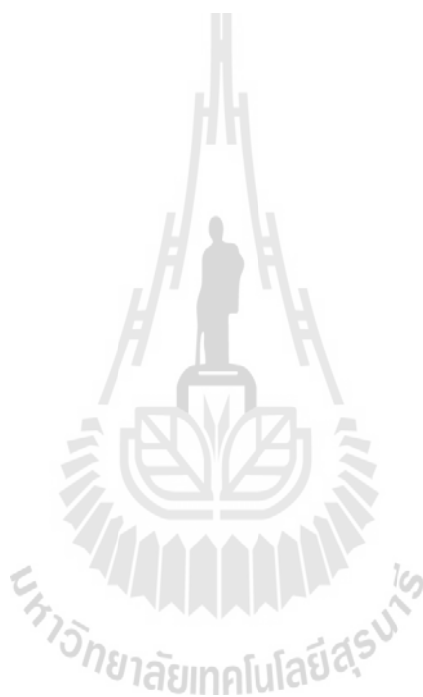
APPENDIX B

Exemplar Generation Questionnaire

Name:_____ (in Chinese)   Student No._____

Instruction: Speech acts are frequently used in our daily communication. The speech acts we usually conduct are: advice, gratitude, greeting, congratulation, apology, request, compliment, inquiry, refusal and compliment response. Now, please spend some time recalling what has happened to you in the recent past. Please recall one situation for each speech act listed and briefly describe the situations in the blanks provided below. *You can use either English or Chinese*.

在日常交流中，我们会常常使用一些言语行为，例如：建议，感激，打招呼，祝贺，道歉，请求，恭维，询问，拒绝和恭维应答。现在，请花一点时间回顾你最近在生活中遇到的情形，并简要地在每种言语行为下的横线上描述一个相关的情形。*你可以用英语写，也可以用汉语*。

1. advice 建议

Example: My friend asked me whether she should take more selective courses last night, she has got 20-hour classes per week already, she couldn't make a decision and wanted to get my advice.

例如： 我朋友昨晚问我她要不要上选修课，她现在每周已经有20节课了，她拿不定主义，想听听我的建议。

Now, please briefly describe one situation of *advice* you recall in the blanks provided below.

现在请写出你能回想起的一个有关*"建议"*的情景。

Situation:

_____

_____

_____

_____

2. gratitude 感激

Example: I caught a high fever last week, my roommates sent me to the hospital at night, it was very dark and frightening and they stayed with me all night in the hospital. I showed my thanks to them.

例如： 我上个礼拜发高烧了，我的几个室友晚上送我到了医务室，晚上又黑又害怕，他们一直陪我在医院呆了一晚上。我谢谢了他们。

Now, please briefly describe one situation of *gratitude* you recall in the blanks provided below.

现在请写出你能回想起的一个有关"感激"的情景。

Situation:

_____

_____

_____

3. greeting 打招呼

Example: One day, I met my foreign teacher on the campus, and I haven't seen him for a long time. I walked ahead and greeted him.

例如： 一天，我在学校遇到的我的外教，我很久没看到他了，我上前去打了个招呼。

Now, please briefly describe one situation of *greeting* you recall in the blanks provided below.

现在请写出你能回想起的一个有关*"打招呼"*的情景。

Situation:

_____

_____

_____

_____

4. congratulation 祝贺

Example: In the last role play competition in the college of foreign languages, the players in my class won the second prize, I congratulated them.

例如： 我们班在上次全院的小品比赛中获得了二等奖，我对参加比赛的同学表示了祝贺。

Now, please briefly describe one situation of *congratulation* you recall in the blanks provided below.

现在请写出你能回想起的一个有关*"祝贺"*的情景。

Situation:

_____

_____

_____

_____

5. apology 道歉

Example: Yesterday, I borrowed a magazine from my classmate. While I was reading, I accidentally spilled some ink on the cover of the magazine. I apologized to him when I returned the magazine to him.

例如：　　昨天，我向同学借了本杂志看，我看的时候不小心把墨水洒在封面上了。换杂志的时候，我向同学说了对不起。

Now, please briefly describe one situation of *apology* you recall in the blanks provided below.

现在请写出你能回想起的一个有关*"道歉"*的情景。

Situation:

_____

_____

_____

6. request 请求

Example: One day evening, when I was reading in my dorm, my roommate, Wang, turned on his radio and the sound was very loud. I could not concentrate on my reading, so I asked him to turn the radio down.

例如： 有天晚上，我在寝室里看书。同屋的王同学把收音机声音开得很大，我无法集中注意力，所以，我请他把收音机声音开小点。

Now, please briefly describe one situation of *request* you recall in the blanks provided below.

现在请写出你能回想起的一个有关*"请求"*的情景。

Situation:

_____

_____

_____

_____

7. compliment 恭维

Example: One day, I came across one of my teachers, Ms Zhang, who was taking her son for a walk. I did not know that she had a child, and I walked ahead and praised her son.

例如： 有天我在路上遇到了我的一个老师，她带着她的儿子在散步。我原先不知道她有孩子，我上前去赞扬了她儿子一番。

Now, please briefly describe one situation of *compliment* you recall in the blanks provided below.

现在请写出你能回想起的一个有关 *"恭维"* 的情景。

Situation:

_____

_____

_____

_____

8. inquiry 询问

Example: Last week, I had an appointment with an interviewer for a part-time job in the downtown, but I lost my way, I asked the passersby for the direction.

例如： 上个星期我去市区应聘工作，但是我找不到路，我向路人询问。

Now, please briefly describe one situation of *inquiry* you recall in the blanks provided below.

现在请写出你能回想起的一个有关 *"询问"* 的情景。

Situation:

_____

_____

_____

_____

9. refusal 拒绝

Example: My friend asked me to go to dinner together yesterday, but I had a lot of homework to do, so I refused him.

例如： 昨天我朋友邀请我共进晚餐，但我还有很多作业要做，所以我只好拒绝了他。

Now, please briefly describe one situation of *refusal* you recall in the blanks provided below.

现在请写出你能回想起的一个有关*"拒绝"*的情景。

Situation:

_____

_____

_____

_____

10. compliment response恭维应答

Example: I bought a new laptop computer this term, my roommates saw it and they thought it was a new model and they praised it. I responded to their compliment.

例如： 我这学期买了一台新的笔记本电脑，我的室友们赞扬了它，说它是最新款的，我回应了他们的赞扬。

Now, please briefly describe one situation of *compliment response* you recall in the blanks provided below.

现在请写出你能回想起的一个有关*"恭维应答"*的情景。

Situation:

_____

_____

_____

_____

APPENDIX C

Liklihood Investigation Questionnaire

Name:_____ Nationality:_____

Instruction: The following are situations for ten speech acts: advice, gratitude, greeting, congratulation, apology, request, compliment, inquiry, refusal and compliment response. Please tell the probability of these situations in your daily life by circling a figure.

For example:

Situation 1: One day evening, when I was reading in my dorm, my roommate, Wang, turned on his radio and the sound was very loud. I could not concentrate on my reading, so I asked him to turn the radio down.

Impossible ① 2 3 4 5 Most likely

Situation 2: My friend asked me whether she should take more selective courses last night, she has already got 20-hour classes per week, she couldn't make a decision and wanted to get my advice.

Impossible 1 2 3 4 ⑤ Most likely

Now, tell how likely the following situations will happen in our daily life (not necessarily happened on yourself).

Advice

1. My roommate breaks up with her boyfriend who has companied her for 5 years. Her boyfriend falls in love with another girl, and she hopes me to give her advices.

    Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

2. My friend wants to go travelling in the coming holiday, but she does not know where to go, so she wants my advices.

    Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

3. I am not ready for the final examination. I ask my teacher how to prepare for it.

    Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

4. I will start the new life in the university, and I ask my friend for her advices on how to deal with the university life.

    Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

5. My friend tells me she wants to buy a pair of shoes, but she does not know which pair to buy, so she asks me for advices.

    Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

6. My friend receives invitations for two parties which would be held at the same time, but he does not know which one to take part in, so he needs my advices.

    Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

7. Xiao Ling wants to attend a lecture this afternoon, but he has a lot of homework to do, and he does not know what to do, so he asks me for my advices.

    Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

8. My friend is not good at learning English, he asks me for my advices on how to learn it well.

<div align="center">Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely</div>

9. My friend does not know whether she should take a part-time job, and she wants my advices.

<div align="center">Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely</div>

10. My friend tells me that her good friend hasn't talked to her for a long time, and she doesn't know the reason and doesn't know what to do. She wants my advices.

<div align="center">Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely</div>

11. My friend will take part in an activity, but she doesn't know what to wear, so she needs my advices.

<div align="center">Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely</div>

12. My roommate asks me whether she should take part in a speech competition, and she has already had too much pressure on her study, so she couldn't make a decision and needs my advice.

<div align="center">Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely</div>

13. My friend sees someone steal a cell phone, but she doesn't know whether to tell the owner or not, so she needs my advices.

<div align="center">Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely</div>

14. Our roller skating team plan to hold a party for the New Year, and the group leader wants us to give some advices.

<div align="center">Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely</div>

15. My friend is in blue because he has so many things to do, and he is nervous and

asks me how to relax himself.

Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

16. My friend could not make a decision whether to go back home to visit her family

or go travelling with her classmates in the National holiday, so she asks me for my

advices.

Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

17. My friend wants to buy some dress online, but he doesn't know how to choose

things online, so he wants me to give him some advices.

Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

18. My friend plans to take the entrance examination for a master degree, but he

doesn't know which university to choose, so he needs my advices.

Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

Gratitude

1. I lose my books in the library, and a student finds them and sends them back to

me. I thanks him.

Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

2. My friend sends a New Year card to me, and I am so excited and thank him.

Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

3. I get a headache, and the doctor doesn't allow me to touch the cold water, so my

   roommate helps me wash my clothes. I thank her.

   <div align="center">Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely</div>

4. I find a good book in the library and I want to take some notes, but I forget my

   pen. A student lends me one and I show my thanks to her.

   <div align="center">Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely</div>

5. In the May holiday, it is very crowded in the bus and I couldn't get on the bus.

   Someone gives me a free ride and I show my thanks to him.

   <div align="center">Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely</div>

6. My friends celebrate my birthday for me, and they prepare the cake and sing

   songs. I am deeply moved, so I thank them.

   <div align="center">Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely</div>

7. I experience a dilemma when I take an exam. My pen falls down to the ground

   and it is broken. The student sits beside me lends one to me, and I thank her.

   <div align="center">Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely</div>

8. I miss some classes because I am ill. My friend takes the notes for me and helps

   me to catch up, and I show my thanks to them.

   <div align="center">Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely</div>

9. I lose my purse in the shop. The shop owner keeps it for me and returns it back to

   me later. I thank him.

   <div align="center">Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely</div>

10. I feel very nervous before the final examination. My friends come to encourage

me and help me relaxed, and finally, I pass it and thank my friends.

Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

11. I take part in a singing competition and win the second prize. However, I am very

nervous before that and my friends help me a lot, so I show my thanks to them.

Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

12. On the Mother's day, I show my thanks to my mum.

Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

13. My friend treats me to a big meal, and I thank him.

Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

14. I am seriously stomachache on the bus, and a girl stands up and lets me take her

seat. I thank her.

Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

15. I am sick, and my roommate brings the food for me. I thank her.

Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

16. My mother buys a beautiful dress for me, and I thank her.

Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

17. I thank my friends who come to visit my grandma who is ill in the hospital.

Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

18. When I am sad, my friends comfort me and help me relaxed, and I show my

thanks to them.

Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

19. In summer holiday, I go to a new city for travel. My friend, who is born there, takes me to go cite seeing. I thank him.

<div align="center">Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely</div>

20. My parents buy a laptop computer for me, and I really need it for my study. I thank them.

<div align="center">Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely</div>

21. My friend brings me some special food in her hometown, and I show my thanks to him.

<div align="center">Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely</div>

22. My sister helps me to do my PPT, and I thank her.

<div align="center">Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely</div>

23. I have some difficulties with my study, and my friends help me a lot. I thank them.

<div align="center">Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely</div>

<div align="center">Greeting</div>

1. When I meet my new classmates in college for the first time. I say hello to everyone.

<div align="center">Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely</div>

2. When I am going downstairs, I meet a guy who lives close to me. We smile to each other and I greet him.

<div align="center">Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely</div>

3. When I am hanging around, I encounter my best friend. I am very excited and walk ahead to say hello to her.

Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

4. I meet my friend in a shopping mall, and I greet him.

Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

5. It is my first time to visit my friend's family. When seeing her parents, I greet them.

Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

6. I meet a friend who I haven't seen for many years. I come to him and greet him.

Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

7. One day, I meet my high school classmate on her graduation ceremony, and I walk to him and say hello to him.

Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

8. In the evening, I meet my classmate in the canteen, and I greet him and then we eat together.

Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

9. I meet a friend who I haven't seen for 2 years. In the past, we didn't get along well, but I still greet her.

Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

10. I meet my foreign teacher in a shop, and I feel very nervous. I smile and greet him.

Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

11. When I go back to my hometown, I meet my primary school teacher. I am very

excited and walk ahead to greet her.

Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

12. Before the final exam, I meet my classmate on the campus, and I greet him.

Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

13. I meet my foreign friends in a school activity, and I greet her.

Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

14. I meet a foreign student in our university, but she doesn't know me. I want to

communicate with her and I greet her.

Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

15. I go to the railway station to meet my best friend. When I see her, I go to her and

greet her.

Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

16. I meet my college in a supermarket, and we have not seen each other for quite a

long time. Then I go to her and greet her.

Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

Congratulation

1. My best friend is awarded the first prize in the swimming competition. I

congratulate him.

Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

2. Our English teacher gives birth to a baby, and I congratulate her.

   Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

3. My sister wins a scholarship, and I congratulate her.

   Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

4. My brother gets married, and I congratulate him.

   Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

5. My father passes an exam, and I congratulate him.

   Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

6. My sister receives a high score in the exam, and I congratulate her.

   Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

7. My friend's birthday is coming, and I show my congratulation to him.

   Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

8. My classmate takes part in the school speech contest and wins a good place, and I

   congratulate her.

   Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

9. My friend succeeds in losing weight, and I congratulate her.

   Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

10. My good friend makes a girlfriend recently, and I congratulate him.

    Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

11. Xiao Ling comes back to school after a serious illness after staying in hospital for

    two weeks. I congratulate her for her recovery.

    Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

12. My friend receives a job offer, and I congratulate her.

Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

13. My best friend gets a chance to be a teaching assistant in my university, and I

congratulate him.

Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

14. My brother gets his driving license which is not easy for people, so I congratulate

him.

Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

15. My brother passes a very difficult exam, and I congratulate him.

Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

16. My friend gains the chance to study abroad. I feel very happy and congratulate her.

Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

17. My roommate finds her Mr. Right, and I congratulate her.

Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

18. My friend passes the entrance exam for working for a master degree, and I

congratulate her.

Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

Apology

1. I lose my friend's book, and I apologize to him.

Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

2. When I am moving a table for my friend, I open her diary accidentally, and I apologize to her.

Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

3. I ask my roommate to practice oral English with me, but suddenly realize I have some other things to do first, so I apologize to my friend.

Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

4. I break my friend's cup, and I apologize to her.

Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

5. I borrow a book from my classmate. While I am reading, a page of it falls off. I apologize to him when I return the book.

Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

6. My brother spills some water on my bed. He deals with it immediately and apologize to me.

Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

7. I should meet my friend on Friday, but my teacher asks me to do some work on that day, so I have to cancel that appointment and apologize for that.

Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

8. I borrow my roommate's hat, but I lose it, so I say sorry to her.

Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

9. I do my homework carelessly, and my teacher gets very angry. I want to apologize

for that.

Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

10. I argue with my best friend, and I want to apologize to her.

Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

11. I forget to visit one of my friends and keep her waiting for the whole afternoon. I

want to apologize to her.

Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

12. I borrow a pen from my roommate, but I break it. I apologize for that.

Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

13. I say something bad to my partner, so I apologize to her when I see her again.

Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

14. My roommate asks me to buy dinner for her when I go back, but I forget it, so I

apologize to her.

Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

15. I am late for a meeting with my friends, so I apologize for this.

Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

16. I lose my temper with my friend, but later I feel so regretted and I apologize for

this.

Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

17. I couldn't take part in my best friend's birthday party because of some reason, and I apologize for that.

<div align="center">Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely</div>

18. I stamp on someone's shoes, and I apologize to him.

<div align="center">Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely</div>

19. I fail in an exam and make my mum angry, and I apologize to her.

<div align="center">Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely</div>

20. I suspect that my roommate steals my new pen, but I find it later. I am so sorry about that and apologize to him.

<div align="center">Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely</div>

<div align="center">Request</div>

1. In the evening, I am ill in the dorm, and I ask my roommate to buy some food for me.

<div align="center">Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely</div>

2. When I am in the dorm one night, my roommate talks very loudly, and I ask him to speak with a lower voice.

<div align="center">Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely</div>

3. When I am studying in the library, it rains. Then I call my friend and ask her to bring an umbrella for me.

<div align="center">Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely</div>

4. When I am shopping with my friend, I realize I have no money with me. Then I ask my friend whether he could lend me some money.

<p align="center">Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely</p>

5. When I am eating outside, but it becomes very cold. Then I ask my friend to bring a coat for me.

<p align="center">Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely</p>

6. I want to return a book to the library, but I don't know how to do it, so I ask my friend to return the book for me.

<p align="center">Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely</p>

7. My roommate plays the music very loudly, so I can't go to sleep. Then I ask her to turn down the music.

<p align="center">Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely</p>

8. My cell phone is stolen on my way home, so I ask a passerby whether I could use his cell phone to make a phone call.

<p align="center">Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely</p>

9. When I have classes, I find I have no pen, and then I ask the student who sits behind me to lend me one.

<p align="center">Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely</p>

10. The grammar teacher asks me to read a book, but I don't have the book, so I ask my friend to make a copy for me.

<p align="center">Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely</p>

11. There is a boy in our dorm who seldom cleans himself and smells bad, and I asks him to wash his clothes.

Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

12. When I am shopping with my friend, I am very hungry. Then I ask my friend to go back earlier to eat.

Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

13. I fall down on the ground when I have P.E. class, and I can't stand up by myself, so I ask my classmate for help.

Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

14. When I am on the bus, a man is smoking. It is very crowded on the bus, and I ask the man not to smoke.

Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

15. A friend of mine comes to my university to visit me, and I should arrive at the bus station to meet him, but I have a class at that time, so I ask my roommate to meet him.

Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

16. I am ill and couldn't go to class, so I ask my roommate to ask for a leave for me.

Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

17. When we are having class, it is very cold, so I ask my classmate who sits beside the window to close the window.

Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

Compliment

1. A 60-year old teacher wears a red coat. I compliment him on his youth.

    Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

2. My teacher publishes a book, and I say how wonderful it is without reading.

    Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

3. My relative gives birth to a new baby, and I compliment the appearance of her

    baby.

    Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

4. I see Lily wear a new dress, and I compliment her dress.

    Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

5. My mother wears a new skirt and makes up, and I compliment her appearance.

    Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

6. When I see my friend drawing, I compliment his drawing.

    Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

7. I meet my neighbor, who is very poor in the past, but now he becomes rich, and I

    compliment his success.

    Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

8. I hear my neighbor singing, and I compliment her nice voice.

    Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

9. My friend buys a new bike, and I compliment her bike.

    Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

10. I get a part-time job which is selling furniture. When some customer comes, I

compliment him.

Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

11. My brother just enters into a famous university. When my relative comes to my

home, they compliment him.

Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

12. My roommate wins an award in a sports meeting, and I compliment him for this.

Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

13. My sister gets married recently, and when I see her husband, I compliment him.

Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

14. My roommate wins a scholarship, and I compliment her for this.

Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

15. When you visit your cousin, he/she is practicing the piano, and you compliment

him/her on his/her progress.

Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

16. My friend practices a lot to lose weight. When I see her, I compliment her for

being slim.

Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

Inquiry

1. My friend looks depressed, so I ask her what happened.

    Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

2. I go to a new city for the first time, and I ask a passerby the direction.

    Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

3. I find a part-time job. It is the first day for me to work for the company, and I ask

    my colleges about the rules.

    Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

4. I go to the new library to search for information, and I ask the manager how to

    borrow a book.

    Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

5. I go to apply for my passport, but I don't know how to fill in the application form,

    so I ask the staff.

    Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

6. I go to the playground to play basketball, but I don't know where the court is, so I

    ask someone for the direction.

    Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

7. I couldn't find my book, so I ask my roommates whether they see it.

    Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

8. When I first arrive at my university, I don't know how to get to the dormitory, so I

    ask the old students for help.

    Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

9. I forget to take my watch with me, and I ask my classmate about the time.

    Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

10. It is my first day in my university, and I ask some old students how to get to the

    canteen.

    Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

11. In an interview of a part-time job, I ask the manager about the salary.

    Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

12. My head is serious painful, and I ask the doctor about my illness.

    Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

13. I want to join in a party, but I don't know what I should prepare, so I ask my

    friend about this.

    Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

14. It is my first time to take a plane, and I don't know how to pass the security check,

    so I inquire the staff.

    Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

15. I want to buy a new bag, so I ask the shop assistant about the price.

    Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

16. There is a speech competition. I want to take part in it, and I ask the holder how to register.

<div align="center">Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely</div>

17. I don't know how to watch movies online, so I inquire my friend.

<div align="center">Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely</div>

18. At the beginning of the new term, I don't know how to register my courses online, so I inquire my teacher.

<div align="center">Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely</div>

19. I plan to go back to my hometown by train, and I ask the ticket seller whether there are tickets to my hometown left.

<div align="center">Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely</div>

<div align="center">Refusal</div>

1. My friend s me to have dinner with him, but I have a family gathering, so I refuse him.

<div align="center">Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely</div>

2. My classmate asks me to go to the airport to meet someone, but I don't want to go, so I refuse him.

<div align="center">Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely</div>

3. A foreigner holds a party and invites me to take part in, but I refuse him because I have a lot of homework.

<div align="center">Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely</div>

4. My friend invites me to go to KTV, but I refuse her.

<div align="center">Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely</div>

5. During summer holiday, my friend asks me to travel with him, but I have some other things to do, so I refuse him.

<div align="center">Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely</div>

6. My roommate asks me to take her parcel back to her, but I refuse.

<div align="center">Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely</div>

7. A stranger offers me a free ride, but I refuse.

<div align="center">Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely</div>

8. My friend wants to borrow some money from me, but I refuse.

<div align="center">Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely</div>

9. My classmate invites me to do group work together, but I refuse her.

<div align="center">Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely</div>

10. My friend invites me to go to a film, but my mum is ill, so I refuse him.

<div align="center">Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely</div>

11. My parents ask me to go shopping with them, but I refuse them.

<div align="center">Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely</div>

12. My teacher asks me whether I could do a part-time job at the weekend, but I refuse her.

<div align="center">Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely</div>

13. At the railway station, a porter asks me whether I need help, and I refuse him.

<div align="center">Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely</div>

14. My friend asks me to play basketball, but I refuse him.

<p align="center">Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely</p>

15. My friend asks me to go shopping together, but I refuse.

<p align="center">Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely</p>

<p align="center">Compliment response</p>

1. I get a high score in an exam, and my friend says that I am so outstanding, and I respond to their compliments.

<p align="center">Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely</p>

2. My mother compliments my new dress, and I respond to her compliment.

<p align="center">Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely</p>

3. I write an English article, and my friend compliments my writing. I respond to his compliment.

<p align="center">Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely</p>

4. I have my hair cut, and my friends tell me that it is beautiful. I respond to her compliment.

<p align="center">Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely</p>

5. My friends haven't seen me for a long time, and when they see me, they say that I keep a very good figure. I respond to their compliment.

<p align="center">Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely</p>

6. A boy says that I am beautiful, and I respond to his compliment.

<p align="center">Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely</p>

7. This term, I try my best to express myself in front of my class, and my classmates praise my courage. I respond to this.

Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

8. This term I plan to improve my oral English, and I join a club to practice every day. One day when I speak in English, my friend praises my good English, and I respond to her compliment.

Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

9. One day, I buy a new bag. When my friend sees it, he compliments it. I respond to his compliment.

Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

10. I take some pictures when travelling with my classmates and my classmates say all the pictures are beautiful. I respond to their compliment.

Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

11. I win a speech competition, and my friend praises me for my success. I respond to his compliment.

Impossible 1 2 3 4 5 Most likely

APPENDIX D

Interlanguage Pragmatic Competence Test

Name:_____(in Chinese)   Student No:_____

Part 1 Instruction: Read each of the following situations. After each situation write what you would say in a normal conversation.

Situation 1:
Your friend receives invitations for two parties which will be held at the same time, but he/she doesn't know which one to go to, so he/she needs your advice.
You say:

_____
_____
_____

Situation 2:
Your friend sends a New Year card to you, so you are very pleased and you want to thank him/her.
You say:

_____
_____
_____

Situation 3:
It is your first visit to your friend's family. When meeting his/her parents, you greet them.
You say:

_____
_____
_____

Situation 4:

Your best friend is awarded the first prize in a swimming competition. You congratulate him/her.

You say:

_____
_____
_____

Situation 5:

You break your friend's cup, and you apologize to him/her.

You say:

_____
_____
_____

Situation 6:

When you have a class, you find you haven't got a pen, so you ask the student who sits behind you to lend you one.

You say:

_____
_____
_____

Situation 7:

You hear your neighbor singing, and you compliment him/her on his/her nice voice.

You say:

_____
_____
_____

Situation 8:

You get a part-time job. It is the first day for you at the company, so you ask your colleagues about the regulations.

You say:

_____
_____
_____

Situation 9:

Your roommate asks you to take a parcel back for him/her to the dormitory, but you refuse.

You say:

_____

_____

_____

Situation 10:

You take some pictures when travelling with your classmates and your classmates say that all the pictures are very good. You respond to their compliments.

You say:

_____

_____

_____

Situation 11:

Your friend tells you that his/her good friend has not talked to him/her for a long time, and he/she does not know the reason and does not know what to do. He/she wants your advice.

You say:

_____

_____

_____

Situation 12:

You miss some classes because you are sick. Your friend takes notes for you and helps you to catch up, and you show thanks to him/her.

You say:

_____

_____

_____

Situation 13:

You go to the railway station to meet your best friend. When you see him/her, you greet him/her.

You say:

_____

_____

_____

Situation 14:

Your friend comes back to school after being in hospital for two weeks. You congratulate him/her on his/her recovery.

You say:

_____

_____

_____

Situation 15:

You should meet your friend on Friday, but your teacher asks you to do some work on that day, so you have to cancel the appointment. You apologize to your friend.

You say:

_____

_____

_____

Situation 16:

You are ill one day and can't go to class, so you ask your roommate to get leave of absence for you.

You say:

_____

_____

_____

Situation 17:

When you visit your cousin, he/she is practicing the piano, and you compliment him/her on his/her progress.

You say:

_____

_____

_____

Situation 18:

You go to a sports center to play badminton, but you do not know where the court is, so you ask someone for directions.

You say:

_____

_____

_____

Situation 19:

A stranger offers you a ride downtown, but you refuse.

You say:

_____

_____

_____

Situation 20:

You join a club to improve your English. One day when you speak in English, your friend praises your good English, so you respond to his/her compliment.

You say:

_____

_____

_____

Situation 21:

Your roommate asks you whether he/she should take part in a speech competition, but he/she already has too much work to do, so he/she can't make a decision and needs your advice.

You say:

_____

_____

_____

Situation 22:

You lose your wallet/purse in a shop, and the shop owner keeps it for you and returns it to you when you go back for it. You thank him/her.

You say:

_____

_____

_____

Situation 23:

You meet a foreign student at your university who you have not met before. You want to communicate with him/her, so you greet him/her.

You say:

_____

_____

_____

Situation 24:

Your friend is accepted to study at a university for a master's degree, so you congratulate him/her.

You say:

_____

_____

_____

Situation 25:

You lose your temper with your friend, but later you feel sorry. You apologize.

You say:

_____

_____

_____

Situation 26:

Your roommate plays music very loudly, so you can't go to sleep. You ask him/her to turn down the music.

You say:

_____

_____

_____

Situation 27:

Your relative gives birth to a new baby, so you compliment her on the appearance of her baby.

You say:

_____

_____

_____

Situation 28:

You are sick, so you go to the hospital to see a doctor. After an examination, you ask the doctor about your illness.

You say:

_____

_____

_____

Situation 29:

Your classmate invites you to join their group in an activity, but you refuse.

You say:

_____

_____

_____

Situation 30:

You have had your hair cut, so your friends tell you that it makes you more handsome/beautiful. You respond to his/her compliment.

You say:

_____

_____

_____

Part 2 Instruction: Read each of the following situations and decide which one is the BEST choice in the situation. Then put your answers on the ANSWER SHEET by circling the corresponding letters.

Implicature

1. Jane notices that her co-worker, Sam, is dirty all over, has holes on his pants, and has scratches on his face and hands.

    Jane: "What happened to you?"

    Sam: "I rode my bike to work."

    By this Sam means_____

    a) He enjoys biking.
    b) He hurt himself biking.
    c) It's hard to get to work without a car.
    d) The bike was broken on the way.

2. 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."

    By this Sarah means_____

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

3. Toby and Mary are trying a new buffet restaurant in town. Toby is eating something but Mary cannot decide what to eat next.
    Mary: "How do you like that?"
    Tody: "Well, let's just say it's colorful."
    By this Tody means_____
    a) He does not like his food much.
    b) He wants Mary to try something colorful.
    c) He thinks food should not contain artificial colors.
    d) He thinks it is important for food to look appetizing.

4. Two friends are discussing an English course.
    Angela: "Were you satisfied with that course you took?"
    Bob: "I didn't think much of it."
    By this Bob means_____
    a) He was satisfied.
    b) He was dissatisfied.
    c) He had thought a little about it.
    d) He hadn't actually begun to think about it.

5. Max and Julie are jogging together.
    Max: "Can we slow down a bit? I'm all out of breath."
    Julie: "I'm sure glad I don't smoke."
    By this Julie means_____
    a) She doesn't want to slow down.
    b) She doesn't like the way Max smells.
    c) She is happy that she does not smoke.
    d) She thinks Max is out of breath because he is a smoker.

6. Aileen: "Do you enjoy majoring in mathematics?"
    George: "Enjoy? If I could choose again, I would study biology."
    By this George means_____
    a) He likes mathematics.
    b) He majored in biology in college.
    c) He doesn't like mathematics at all.
    d) He wants to change his major.

7. Maria and Frank are working on a class project together but they won't be able to finish it by the deadline.

    Maria: "Do you think Dr. Gibson will give us a low grade if we hand it in late?"

    Frank: "Do fish swim?"

    By this Frank means _____

    a) He thinks they will get a low grade.
    b) He did not understand Maria's question.
    c) He thinks their grade will not be affected.
    d) He thinks they should change the topic of their project.

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

    Jose: "How do you like Derek's essay?"

    Tanya: "I think it is well-typed."

    By this Tanya means_____

    a) She likes Derek's essay..
    b) She doesn't like Derek's essay.
    c) She doesn't really remember Derek's essay.
    d) She likes it if students hand in their work type-written.

9. Andy: "Where is my fish?"

    Emma: "The cat looks happy."

    By this Emma means _____

    a) The cat has eaten the fish.
    b) She just concentrates on the cat.
    c) The cat is playing with the fish.
    d) She doesn't know where the fish is.

10. Eric and Jenny don't get along well with each other. One day they are talking about the exam.

    Eric: "They say it's the cleverest students who fail in their exams."

    Jenny: "You should be O.K. then."

    By this Jenny means_____

    a) You are not clever.
    b) Sure you passed the exam.
    c) You are wrong in saying so.
    d) You're clever. I'm sure you didn't fail the exam.

11. Jason: "Is it raining now?"
    Steven: "Is it raining? Look at my coat; it's soaked."
    By this Steven means_____
    a) He got caught in the rain.
    b) He is washing his clothes.
    c) He left his coat outside.
    d) He wants to close the window

12. Ann: "Will Sally be at the meeting this afternoon?"
    John: "Her car broke down."
    By this John means _____
    a) Sally will take a bus.
    b) Sally will come to the meeting.
    c) Sally won't come to the meeting.
    d) Sally will be at the meeting on time.

13. Aunt: "How did Jimmy do in his history examination?"
    Mother: "Oh, they asked him things that happened before the poor boy was born."
    By this the his mother means_____
    a) He passed it.
    b) He did it badly.
    c) He did it very well.
    d) He did it just so-so.

14. John: "Hey, Sally, let's play marbles."
    Mother: "How are you getting on with your homework, John?"
    By this the mother means_____
    a) Sally is busy.
    b) He has to do his homework.
    c) He can play marbles with Sally.
    d) She will play marbles with John.

15. Betty: "What did you think of the lecture?"
    Cindy: "Well, I thought the lecture was long."
    By this Cindy means_____
    a) She likes long lectures.
    b) She does not understand the lecture.
    c) The lecture was interesting.
    d) The lecture was not interesting.

16. Mary: "I really dislike the man you introduced to me."
    Lisa: "Still, he's your new boss."
    By this Lisa means _____
    a) You should be obedient to your boss.
    b) You should change your job.
    c) You shouldn't like your new boss.
    d) You should get along well with your new boss.

17. Father: Bob is really mischievous, isn't he?
    Mother: Children will be children.
    By this the mother means _____
    a) No, he is quiet.
    b) Let's forgive him.
    c) Let's teach him to be quiet.
    d) Yes, he is very mischievous.

18. Mother: How do you like my painting?
    Father: Well, I don't have an eye for beauty. I am afraid.
    By this the father means _____
    a) I have bad eyesight.
    b) I don't like it at all.
    c) It's a good painting.
    d) I know nothing about painting.

19. Mike is trying to find an apartment in New York City. He just looked at a place
    and is telling his friend Jane about it.
    Jane: "Is the rent high?"
    Mike: "Is the Pope Catholic?"
    By this Mike means_____
    a) The rent is high.
    b) The rent isn't very high.
    c) He doesn't want to talk about the rent.
    d) The apartment is owned by the church.

20. Diana: "The boss has left a lot of work for us."
    Jason: "Don't worry, John is a machine."
    By this Jason means _____
    a) John is cool.
    b) John is busy.
    c) John is stupid.
    d) John works very hard.
    e)

Routines

21. One day, when a lady bumped into Jim,
    The lady said: "I am terribly sorry."
    Jim would probably say: "_____"
    a)   No bother.
    b)   It's nothing.
    c)   That's all right.
    d)   Don't mention it.

22. At a bus stop
    Man: "Excuse me, do you know which bus to catch for London Road, please?"
    Woman: "Sorry, I've no idea."
    The man would probably say: " _____"
    a)   Oh!
    b)   Really?
    c)   Forget it.
    d)   Thank you.

23. In a factory, Rose, the guide, is interpreting for a group of foreign guests. When
    they have finished visiting one workshop, she wants the group to follow her to the
    next workshop.
    Rose would probably say: "_____"
    a)   Come here!
    b)   Follow me!
    c)   Move on!
    d)   This way, please.

24. Ted is inviting his friend to a little party which will be held at his house tomorrow
    night.
    Ted: "I'm having a little party tomorrow night at my place."
    How would Ted probably continue: "_____"
    a)   Are you there?
    b)   Why aren't you showing?
    c)   Do you think you could come?
    d)   How would you think about it?

25. Betty is a foreign student in China. She has met Peng.
    Betty: "I was told that you won the 100-meter race in a national sports meeting
    last week. Congratulations!"
    Peng would probably say: "_____"
    a)   Just lucky.
    b)   Thank you.
    c)   I can't say I did well.

    d)   I could have done better if it hadn't been so cold.

26. Suppose you're a shop assistant and a customer comes up to you.
    You would probably say: "＿＿＿＿＿＿＿"
    a)   Can I help you?
    b)   I'd be glad to serve you.
    c)   You are welcome, what do you want?
    d)   Would you like to buy something?

27. On the way to the school cinema, Lisa saw Professor Blake walking to the cinema, too.
    Lisa would probably say: "＿＿＿＿＿＿＿"
    a)   Where are you going?
    b)   Are you going to the film?
    c)   How do you do, Professor Blake.
    d)   Good afternoon, Professor Blake.

28. Claudia calls her college 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.
    Claudia would probably say: "＿＿＿＿＿＿＿"
    a)   Can you take a note?
    b)   Can I leave a message?
    c)   Can you tell him something?
    d)   Can I give you information?

29. Jack phones Peter's office.
    Jack: "Hello, I'd like to speak to Peter, please."
    Peter would probably say: "＿＿＿＿＿＿＿"
    a)   That is Peter.
    b)   This is me.
    c)   It's me here.
    d)   This is Peter speaking.

30. Mr. Green's secretary, Miss Kent, went to the airport to meet Mr. Barnes for her boss.
    Miss Kent would probably say: "＿＿＿＿＿＿＿"
    a)   Are you Mr. Barnes?
    b)   You are Mr. Barnes, aren't you?
    c)   Excuse me, would you be Mr. Barnes?
    d)   Excuse me, would you please tell me if you are Mr. Barnes?

31. Tom is having dinner with his friends, and suddenly his phone rings.
    Tom would probably say to his friends: "_____"
    a) Sorry.
    b) Excuse me.
    c) Wait a minute.
    d) You eat first, and I will answer the phone.

32. Lisa and Mike are classmates. One day, Lisa is sitting in the classroom, and Mike walks in and wants to sit beside Lisa.
    Mike: "Excuse me, do you mind if I sit here?"
    Lisa would probably say: "_____"
    a) Yes, please.
    b) Go ahead.
    c) Up to you.
    d) No, my friend will sit here.

33. Tom is talking to his school-mate, David.
    Tom: "How did you do in the exam, David?"
    David: "I barely passed. I made a hopeless mess of it. I don't know why I did so badly."
    Tom would probably say: _____
    a) It's not your fault.
    b) Just try to forget about it.
    c) Oh, I shouldn't ask you about it.
    d) Hey, how about having a big dinner together?

34. Jane is at the beach and wants to know what time it is. She sees a man with a watch.
    Jane would probably say: "_____"
    a) Excuse me, how late is it?
    b) Excuse me, can you say the time?
    c) Excuse me, do you have the time?
    d) Excuse me, what does your watch show?

35. Sam is having dinner at a friend's home. His friend offers him more food but he couldn't possibly eat another bite.
    Sam would probably say: "_____"
    a) No, thanks, I'm full.
    b) No, thanks, I've eaten.
    c) No, thanks, I've done.
    d) No, thanks, I've finished.

36. Cathy works as a secretary in the international Computer Engineering Corporation. One day she worked very late. Her boss said to her: "Thanks a lot. That's a great help."

Cathy would probably say:_____

a) Forget it.
b) You're welcome.
c) Oh, it's nothing.
d) Don't mention it.

37. In a hotel dining room

A foreign guest tells the waitress what he wants for dinner, but the waitress does not hear him clearly.

The waitress would probably say: "_____"

a) Repeat?
b) Pardon?
c) What?
d) Again?

38. Tim is ordering food at a restaurant where you can sit down or take the food home with you.

The waitress would probably say: "_____"

a) Take away?
b) For home or here?
c) For here or to go?
d) For going or staying?

39. In London, you want to go to Heathrow Airport by taxi.

You would probably say to the taxi driver: "_____"

a) Heathrow airport. Please.
b) Would you please take me to Heathrow airport?
c) Excuse me, would you mind taking me to Heathrow airport?
d) Excuse me, could you possibly take me to Heathrow airport?

40. One of your friends gives you a gift

Your friend: Here is a little something for you. I hope you like it.
You would probably say: "_____"

a) Oh. I have got one already.
b) No, no, I really can't accept it.
c) Oh, you really shouldn't have gone to the expense.
d) That's very nice of you. Oh, that's just what I want. Thanks a lot.

ANSWER SHEET

Name: _____ (in Chinese)   Student No: _____

Part 2: Please put your answers on the ANSWER SHEET by circling the corresponding letters.

Implicature

1. a) b) c) d)   11. a) b) c) d)
2. a) b) c) d)   12. a) b) c) d)
3. a) b) c) d)   13. a) b) c) d)
4. a) b) c) d)   14. a) b) c) d)
5. a) b) c) d)   15. a) b) c) d)
6. a) b) c) d)   16. a) b) c) d)
7. a) b) c) d)   17. a) b) c) d)
8. a) b) c) d)   18. a) b) c) d)
9. a) b) c) d)   19. a) b) c) d)
10. a) b) c) d)   20. a) b) c) d)

Routines

1. a) b) c) d)   11. a) b) c) d)
2. a) b) c) d)   12. a) b) c) d)
3. a) b) c) d)   13. a) b) c) d)
4. a) b) c) d)   14. a) b) c) d)
5. a) b) c) d)   15. a) b) c) d)
6. a) b) c) d)   16. a) b) c) d)
7. a) b) c) d)   17. a) b) c) d)
8. a) b) c) d)   18. a) b) c) d)
9. a) b) c) d)   19. a) b) c) d)
10. a) b) c) d)   20. a) b) c) d)

APPENDIX E

Research Instruments Validation

Reliability and validity of the ILP competence test was quite important for the present research. It was the quality of the research instruments. Only if the reliability and validity of the ILP competence test were guaranteed could the present research be finished. This appendix reported the results of the reliability and validity of the ILP competence test as well as the pilot study of the semi-structured interview.

E.1 Pilot study of the ILP Competence Test

To ensure the reliability and validity of the ILP competence test, a pilot study was conducted. The aim of the pilot study is to try out the research approach for identifying potential problems that may influence the quality of the results. In the pilot study, the instrument as planned was tried out, and this process included data processing, data analyzing, drawing conclusions, and requesting feedback from the participants (Blessing & Chakrabarti, 2009). Some changes were made after the pilot study, including adjusting the amount of items, rewriting or replacing the ineffective items in the ILP competence test, adjusting the time length for the test, revising the questions in an interview and so on.

The pilot study of the present research examined the reliability and validity of the testing items as well as the probability of question items, question sequences,

timing, and recording of the interview. There were two formats in the testing, WDCT and MDCT. For WDCT, test takers' reliability, the raters' reliability, item difficulty and discrimination, criteria reliability, and construct validity were calculated by Facets 3.71.4. For MDCT, the difficulty and discrimination of items were calculated by Item Analysis software and Delta Sigma software, and the reliability was calculated by SPSS.21.0. The next sections are about the procedures in conducting the pilot study, results obtained in the pilot study and revisions made after the pilot study.

E.1.1 Participants

The participants in the pilot study of the ILP competence test were 60 students in the foreign languages college in Guizhou University, China. They were selected from two intact classes of English majors in the third year based on the convenience sampling method. Among them, all the Han and ethnic minorities, males and females, and the high, medium, and low language proficiency levels were included. In the second phase of the ILP competence test pilot study, the participants of the main study were included in order to guarantee the reliability and validity of the test. For the interview, ten participants of ILP competence test were selected randomly in the pilot study. The participants who took part in the pilot study in the interview were excluded in the main study.

E.1.2 The Pilot Study of WDCT

In the present study, WDCT was used to test the EFL learners' ability in conducting speech acts. There were altogether 30 items in this part. All the students

could finish them within 90 minutes. The reliability and validity were analyzed on the base of MFRM and calculated with Facets 3.71.4.

The 60 participants in the pilot study were required to finish this part in the classroom circumstances. No discussion was allowed. The researcher introduced the purpose and guideline of the test in advance. The language required was English. All the students could finish this part within 90 minutes. The students' responses were scored by two American teachers, and both of them work in the foreign languages college of Guizhou University and got master degrees of Arts. The data were analyzed on the base of many-facet Rasch model (MFRM) with the help of Facets 3.71.4. The MFRM and FACETS software were applied in the present study to calculate the reliability and validity of the WDCT. The raters' reliability, the item difficulty and discrimination power, criteria reliability and construct validity were calculated.

The results with the pilot study show that the WDCT had high reliability. In detail, the examinees' abilities were significantly different, although one examinee was overfitting, the percentage 1.7% was still acceptable. The two raters were consistent and there was no significant difference in their severity/leniency. The items difficulty was significantly different. The rating scale statistics shows a good construct validity of WDCT since no overfitting or misfitting was found and the measure was monotonically increasing. In a word, with the high reliability and construct validity, the WDCT part can be used in the main study to evaluate the examinees' ILP competence.

E.1.3 The Pilot Study of MDCT

In the present study, MDCT was used to test the EFL learners' ability in understanding implicature and performing routines. The MDCT was administered to the participants immediately after they finished the WDCT. All the students could finish the 40 items within 30 minutes, and 20 for implicature and 20 for routines. The reliability of the MDCT was calculated by split half procedure with SPSS (21.0) and the validity was worked out with item analysis software and Delta Sigma software by calculating each item's difficulty level and discrimination power as well as the two indexes of all the distractors.

There are both external reliability and internal reliability. Most researchers (Yamashita, 1996a, 1996b; Yoshitake, 1997; Hudson, 2001a, 2001b; Liu, 2004; Rover, 2006, 2010a; Duan, 2012) test the internal reliability in the field of pragmatics. There are two methods in examining external reliability, and they are test-retest method and the equivalent forms method (Fraenkel, et al., 1993). The test-retest method "involves administering the same test twice to the same group after a certain time interval has clasped" (Fraenkel, et al., 1993, p.147). The equivalent forms method "requires two different but equivalent (also called alternative or parallel) forms of an instrument administered to the same group during the same time period" (Fraenkel, et al., 1993, p.148).

It is likely to combine the test-retest and equivalent-form methods by giving two different forms of the same test with a time interval between the two

administrations. To examine the external reliability, the same group would be tested twice. In addition, there are three methods in examining the test internal reliability, and they are split-half procedure, Kuder-Richardson Approaches (KR21), and alpha coefficient (Fraenkel, et al., 1993). Split-half procedure involves scoring two halves (usually odd items versus even items) of a test separately for each test taker and then calculating a correlation coefficient for the two groups of scores. The coefficient indicates the extent to which the two halves of a test provide the same results, and hence describes the internal consistency of a test (Fraenkel, et al., 1993). KR21 is the most frequently applied method for determining test internal consistency (Fraenkel, et al., 1993). Only three pieces of information are needed for it: the number of items in a test, the mean, and the standard deviation. However, KR21 can be only used in a test when all items are assumed to be of equal difficulty (Fraenkel, et al., 1993). The last method for calculating test internal consistency is alpha coefficient. This coefficient is used when the items in a test are not scored right versus wrong as in some tests where more than one answer is possible (Fraenkel, et al., 1993).

Conducting external reliability requires taking two tests with a time interval for at least two weeks (Fraenkel, et al., 1993), and Davies (1999) argues that in order to minimize the learning effect upon participants' true scores, the time interval between the administrations is usually controlled within two weeks. For the contradiction mentioned above, and for most researchers focus on internal reliability for pragmatics testing research, the present study planned to test the students once only, and internal

reliability was calculated. The MDCT items in the present research are not with the equal difficulty level for each item, so KR21 is not suitable. There is only one answer for each item, thus alpha coefficient is not adopted. Split-half method was applied to examine the internal coefficient. After calculating with the help of SPSS (21.0), the reliability of the MDCT for implicature was .816 and .808 for routines, which is much higher than the acceptable level .70, so the MDCTs were reliable. Except reliability, validity is also very important. In the following paragraphs, the validity of MDCT in the pilot study will be reported.

The validity of MDCT was calculated by item analysis software first. After calculation, the item analysis software decided whether the items were acceptable or not. For those which were not acceptable, the researcher discarded and replaced them.

In the pilot study, after the calculation by the Item Analysis software, 15 items were acceptable in the section of understanding implicature, and five items needed to be discarded. In the section of performing routines, two items needed to be discarded since they were too difficult or with too low discrimination power.

After the first phase of pilot study of MDCT, only 33 items were kept. The other seven were revised or rewritten. Two American teachers were invited to check the content validity. Altogether 40 items were piloted with 60 English majors in Guizhou University, and the students who took the first phase of pilot study before the revision were excluded. All the items in implicature section and routines section were with acceptable difficulty level and discrimination power after rewritten or replaced. The

difficulty level of each item was between .20 to .80 (.20 and .80 were included), and the power of discrimination was all above .20 (.20 was included).

According to item analysis theory, the items with a difficulty level between .20-.80 are acceptable. The index which is lower than .20 is considered as too difficult and above .80 is regarded as too easy (http://carleton.ca/edc/wp-content/uploads/Item-Analysis.pdf). The discrimination power for each item was expected to be above .20 (Mehrens & Lehmann, 1978). For all the distractors, the lowest requirement is more students in the low group should choose them than the ones in the up group ((Mehrens & Lehmann, 1978).

For obtaining more information for the validity of each distractor, further analysis was conducted by Delta Sigma software to confirm the above results and calculate the difficulty level and discrimination power of the distractors. As a result, altogether 38 items among the 40 were kept. 23 among them were with low difficulty level but good discrimination, and 15 were with medium difficulty level and good discrimination.

In the implicature section, Item 6 needed to be improved because it was very easy, and Item 11 should be replaced because it was very easy and with low discrimination power. There were five distractors needed to be revised or rewritten.

In the routines section, two distractors were not acceptable because their discrimination power was too low. In addition, distractor d) in Item 28 was not

functional since no one in either top or low group in the section of routines chose it. Thus, further revisions were still necessary.

The teachers' group were invited again to revise all the items and distractors which did not reach the standard. After a few times of trials with the English majors in Guizhou University, all the items and distractors were with acceptable reliability and validity. All the 40 items can be kept. 13 items in implicature and 12 in routines were with low difficulty but good discrimination, and seven in implicature and eight in routines were with medium difficulty and good discrimination. There was no hard items in the category "Items should be kept", but the MDCT part was still kept without adding any hard items since the pilot study was conducted in Guizhou University, in which the students are considered as the best in the whole province, and the ILP competence test was also conducted in other universities in the same province.

Generally speaking, based on the results presented above, the MDCT in either implicature or routines was both reliable and valid in the pilot study. Thus, it was applied to examine the reliability and validity for the 390 participants in the main study.

E.2 Reliability and Validity of the ILP Competence Test

The ILP competence test was conducted in order to check the reliability and validity of WDCT in the main study. It was necessary to check them with the participants in the main study because of the following reason. The subjects of the pilot study were from Guizhou University, which is one of the universities in 211 Project

universities (a project of 106 national key universities and colleges in the 21st century initiated in 1995 by the Education Ministry of China). The percentage of the English majors who passed TEM 4 in April 2014 in Guizhou University was higher than 50%. While the subjects in the main study were somewhat different from the first phase of the pilot study, and the percentage of the subjects from other universities, including Guizhou Minzu University, Qiannan Normal University of Nationalities and Zunyi Normal University who passed TEM 4 was only around 5%. There existed a great difference of the language proficiency between the subjects in the pilot study and the main study. The following sections described in detail the results of the reliability and validity of the ILP competence test.

E.2.1 The Reliability and Validity of WDCT

In WDCT, altogether ten speech acts and 30 situations were included. The reliability and validity of WDCT were calculated under the MFRM and with FACETS (3.17.1) in four aspects, i.e. examinee ability, rater leniency/severity, item difficulty, and score distribution. The results of the reliability and validity of WDCT are presented in the following paragraphs.

Figure E.1 is the general description of the ability of the examinees, the leniency/severity of the raters and the difficulty of items. There are five columns in the map. The first column displays the linear, equal-interval logit scale upon which all facets in the analysis are positioned, creating a single frame of reference for comparisons within and between the facets. The second column displays the

examinees' performance measures. Examinee performance measures are single number

summaries on the logit scale of each examinee's tendency to receive high or low ratings

across raters. The examinees are ordered from higher performing to lower performing.

It can be seen that the examinees' performing are ranged from +1.0 logits to -1.0 logits.

The third column displays the raters' leniency/severity measures. The raters are ordered

in terms of the level of leniency/severity when evaluating the examinees. The more

severe rater appears at the top of the column and the more lenient rater appears at the

bottom of the column. In figure E.1, it can be seen that the examinees' performance

ranged from +1.0 logits to -1.0 logits in the first and second columns. In the third

column, it shows that the two raters were almost on the same level of severity/leniency

at about 0.0 logit. The items' difficulties were arranged from +1.0 logits to -1.0 logits.

The fifth column displays that the examinees' scores ranged from 4 to 19 points.

```
+------------------------------------------------------+
|Measr|+examinees    |-raters  |-items    |Scale|
-----+--------------+---------+----------+-----
   1 +              +         +          +(19)
                                          ---
                                          15

                                          ---
     *.                                   14
     *.                        **         ---
     *.                        *****
     *****.                     ****      13
     *********.                 ****
*  0 *  *********.  * R1   R2 * ******** * --- *
     ******.                   ******     12
     ******.                   ***        ---
     ****                      *          11
     *                         *          ---
     *.                                   10
     .                                    ---
     .                                     9
                                          ---
                                           8
  -1 +              +         +          + (4)
-----+--------------+---------+----------+-----
|Measr| * = 8        |-raters  | * = 1    |Scale|
+------------------------------------------------------+
```

Figure E.1 Facet Map for WDCT in the ILP Competence Test

1) Examinees

Table E.1 illustrates the information provided on examinees. Examinees are identified in column 1, and in column 2 an estimate of their ability (measure) was provided in logits. Errors of these estimates are presented in column 3 and column 4 presents information on the extent to which the model was functional in estimating the observed scores for the examinees across all the items on the test. This is expressed in terms of the degree of match, or fit, between the expectations of the model and the actual data for that examinee on each item. The acceptable range of infit MnSq (mean square) is mean $\pm$ 2 deviations, and the acceptable ZStd (Z standard score) is between +2.0 to -2.0 (Linacre, 2003). Values less than the minimum of the range indicate that the observed data are closer to their expected ratings than the model expects (i.e., overfit). Values greater than the maximum of the range indicate the observed data are farther than the model predicts (i.e., misfit) (Myford & Wolfe, 2003).

In Table E.1, it can be seen that the examinees' ability measures spanned +.53 logits to -.65 logits. The Infit MnSq spanned 1.79 to .44 with a mean of 1.00 and a standard deviation of .20 and the Infit ZStd spanned +3.5 to -3.7. Table E.1 illustrates that four examinees (S17, S15, S19 and S18) were misfit, since their infit MnSq (mean square) was higher than the maximum (mean + 2 deviations), and three examinees (S53, S40 and S34) were overfit and their infit MnSq was lower than the minimum (mean - 2 deviations) (Linacre, 2003). The percentage (1.8%) of examinees who were misfit or overfit is still acceptable (< 2.0%) (Pollitt & Huchinson, 1987). At the bottom of Table

E.1, the reliability of separation index was 3.47 (>2.00) and the separation reliability
was .92 (>.70), which indicates that there was a significant difference among the
examinees' ability. The fixed Chi-square was 5236.1 with d.f. 389 and the significance
level was .00 (<.01). This further confirms that there existed a significant difference
among the examinees.

Table E.1 Facets Result in WDCT for Examinees' Ability

Examinee	Measure	SE	Fit	
			Infit MnSq	Infit ZStd
S17	.20	.07	1.79	3.5
S15	.20	.07	1.53	2.5
S19	-.34	.06	1.52	2.5
S18	.01	.06	1.53	2.5
S246	-.23	.06	1.37	1.8
S306	-.27	.06	1.36	1.8
S113	-.13	.06	1.38	1.9
S366	-.26	.06	1.34	1.7
S11	-.25	.06	1.38	1.9
S231	-.03	.06	1.36	1.7
S291	-.03	.06	1.36	1.7
S351	-.03	.06	1.36	1.7
S126	-.20	.06	1.33	1.6
S37	-.43	.06	1.30	1.6
S2	-.18	.06	1.31	1.5
S1	-.15	.06	1.30	1.5
S179	.08	.07	1.34	1.7
S239	.08	.07	1.34	1.7
S299	.08	.07	1.34	1.7
S202	.13	.07	1.34	1.6
S262	.13	.07	1.34	1.6
S322	.13	.07	1.34	1.6
S251	-.19	.06	1.33	1.6
S311	-.19	.06	1.33	1.6
S371	-.19	.06	1.33	1.6
S12	-.03	.06	1.27	1.3
S166	.18	.07	1.29	1.4
S226	.18	.07	1.29	1.4
S286	.18	.07	1.29	1.4
S346	.18	.07	1.29	1.4
S382	.20	.07	1.29	1.4
S254	.03	.06	1.28	1.4
S314	.03	.06	1.28	1.4
S374	.03	.06	1.28	1.4
S10	-.04	.06	1.26	1.3
S157	-.48	.06	1.24	1.3
S379	-.25	.06	1.28	1.4
S124	.06	.07	1.24	1.2
S184	.06	.07	1.24	1.2
S244	.06	.07	1.24	1.2
S304	.06	.07	1.24	1.2
S364	.06	.07	1.24	1.2
S16	.05	.06	1.27	1.3
S217	-.51	.06	1.24	1.3
S277	-.51	.06	1.24	1.3

S337	-.51	.06	1.24	1.3
S97	-.49	.06	1.24	1.3
S112	.04	.06	1.25	1.3
S129	.12	.07	1.27	1.3
S189	.12	.07	1.27	1.3
S249	.12	.07	1.27	1.3
S309	.12	.07	1.27	1.3
S369	.12	.07	1.27	1.3
S14	.01	.06	1.26	1.3
S22	.00	.06	1.25	1.2
S9	.11	.07	1.25	1.2
S200	.32	.07	1.23	1.2
S260	.32	.07	1.23	1.2
S320	.32	.07	1.23	1.2
S380	.32	.07	1.23	1.2
S30	-.17	.06	1.22	1.1
S142	.09	.07	1.23	1.1
S131	-.17	.06	1.22	1.1
S24	.21	.07	1.20	1
S359	.10	.07	1.21	1.1
S4	.15	.07	1.18	.9
S215	-.18	.06	1.20	1
S275	-.18	.06	1.20	1
S335	-.18	.06	1.20	1
S138	.35	.07	1.19	1
S258	.35	.07	1.19	1
S318	.35	.07	1.19	1
S378	.35	.07	1.19	1
S326	-.06	.06	1.19	1
S386	-.10	.06	1.18	.9
S171	-.08	.06	1.13	.7
S119	.00	.06	1.16	.8
S362	-.60	.06	1.16	.9
S69	.15	.07	1.15	.8
S111	-.04	.06	1.12	.6
S20	.07	.07	1.15	.8
S196	.15	.07	1.14	.7
S256	.15	.07	1.14	.7
S316	.15	.07	1.14	.7
S376	.15	.07	1.14	.7
S140	.27	.07	1.14	.7
S340	.09	.07	1.14	.7
S136	.12	.07	1.14	.7
S110	-.08	.06	1.13	.7
S161	-.03	.06	1.13	.7
S221	-.03	.06	1.13	.7
S281	-.03	.06	1.13	.7
S341	-.03	.06	1.13	.7
S79	-.23	.06	1.13	.7
S390	-.25	.06	1.13	.7
S13	-.04	.06	1.11	.6
S199	-.28	.06	1.13	.7
S259	-.28	.06	1.13	.7
S319	-.28	.06	1.13	.7
S155	-.16	.06	1.13	.7
S234	-.07	.06	1.12	.7
S294	-.07	.06	1.12	.7
S167	.13	.07	1.12	.6
S287	.13	.07	1.12	.6
S347	.13	.07	1.12	.6
S134	.06	.07	1.12	.6
S194	.06	.07	1.12	.6
S270	-.28	.06	1.12	.6
S330	-.28	.06	1.12	.6

S186	-.33	.06	1.05	.3
S188	.03	.06	1.11	.6
S248	.03	.06	1.11	.6
S308	.03	.06	1.11	.6
S368	.03	.06	1.11	.6
S127	-.19	.06	1.10	.6
S187	-.19	.06	1.10	.6
S247	-.19	.06	1.10	.6
S307	-.19	.06	1.10	.6
S367	-.19	.06	1.10	.6
S185	-.24	.06	1.11	.6
S245	-.24	.06	1.11	.6
S305	-.24	.06	1.11	.6
S365	-.24	.06	1.11	.6
S86	-.08	.06	1.11	.6
S164	.05	.06	1.11	.6
S224	.05	.06	1.11	.6
S284	.05	.06	1.11	.6
S344	.05	.06	1.11	.6
S192	-.10	.06	1.09	.5
S252	-.10	.06	1.09	.5
S312	-.10	.06	1.09	.5
S372	-.10	.06	1.09	.5
S153	-.17	.06	1.10	.5
S213	-.17	.06	1.10	.5
S273	-.17	.06	1.10	.5
S333	-.17	.06	1.10	.5
S139	-.25	.06	1.10	.5
S220	.10	.07	1.08	.5
S280	.10	.07	1.08	.5
S75	.28	.07	1.08	.5
S212	.12	.07	1.08	.4
S272	.12	.07	1.08	.4
S332	.12	.07	1.08	.4
S170	-.09	.06	1.08	.4
S230	-.09	.06	1.08	.4
S290	-.09	.06	1.08	.4
S350	-.09	.06	1.08	.4
S159	-.09	.06	1.08	.4
S219	-.09	.06	1.08	.4
S279	-.09	.06	1.08	.4
S339	-.09	.06	1.08	.4
S354	-.14	.06	1.08	.4
S183	.43	.07	1.06	.3
S243	.43	.07	1.06	.3
S303	.43	.07	1.06	.3
S363	.43	.07	1.06	.3
S137	.41	.07	1.07	.4
S100	.08	.07	1.06	.3
S204	.17	.07	1.05	.3
S264	.17	.07	1.05	.3
S324	.17	.07	1.05	.3
S384	.17	.07	1.05	.3
S3	.17	.07	1.04	.2
S174	-.04	.06	1.05	.3
S31	-.11	.06	1.01	.1
S165	.22	.07	1.04	.2
S225	.22	.07	1.04	.2
S285	.22	.07	1.04	.2
S345	.22	.07	1.04	.2
S191	-.21	.06	1.04	.2
S92	.08	.07	1.04	.2
S76	.12	.07	1.04	.2
S182	-.63	.06	1.04	.2

S242	-.63	.06	1.04	.2
S302	-.63	.06	1.04	.2
S33	-.07	.06	1.01	.1
S107	.06	.07	1.03	.2
S87	-.18	.06	1.03	.2
S227	.15	.07	1.02	.1
S7	-.12	.06	0.99	0
S214	.11	.07	1.02	.1
S274	.11	.07	1.02	.1
S334	.11	.07	1.02	.1
S177	.13	.07	1.00	0
S237	.13	.07	1.00	0
S297	.13	.07	1.00	0
S64	.05	.06	.99	0
S150	-.26	.06	1.01	.1
S216	-.20	.06	.99	0
S276	-.20	.06	.99	0
S336	-.20	.06	.99	0
S46	.11	.07	1.00	0
S132	-.14	.06	.98	0
S59	.07	.07	.98	0
S74	-.02	.06	1.01	0
S62	-.42	.06	.99	0
S123	.32	.07	.98	0
S357	.16	.07	.98	0
S206	-.11	.06	.99	0
S146	-.12	.06	1.01	.1
S348	-.27	.06	.99	0
S39	.03	.06	.97	-.1
S197	.46	.07	1.01	.1
S257	.46	.07	1.01	.1
S317	.46	.07	1.01	.1
S377	.46	.07	1.01	.1
S106	.07	.07	.99	0
S51	-.02	.06	.96	-.1
S48	-.26	.06	.97	0
S78	.20	.07	.97	-.1
S108	-.26	.06	.96	-.1
S198	.29	.07	.97	0
S133	.25	.07	.95	-.1
S193	.25	.07	.95	-.1
S253	.25	.07	.95	-.1
S313	.25	.07	.95	-.1
S373	.25	.07	.95	-.1
S95	-.12	.06	.96	-.1
S122	-.59	.06	.96	-.1
S158	.21	.07	.95	-.2
S218	.21	.07	.95	-.2
S278	.21	.07	.95	-.2
S338	.21	.07	.95	-.2
S67	-.20	.06	.95	-.2
S77	.32	.07	.98	0
S26	-.02	.06	.95	-.2
S43	-.38	.06	.95	-.2
S210	-.23	.06	.96	-.1
S203	.20	.07	.96	-.1
S263	.20	.07	.96	-.1
S323	.20	.07	.96	-.1
S383	.20	.07	.96	-.1
S130	.06	.07	.94	-.2
S190	.06	.07	.94	-.2
S250	.06	.07	.94	-.2
S310	.06	.07	.94	-.2
S266	-.08	.06	.96	-.1

S389	-.12	.06	.99	0
S99	-.11	.06	.94	-.2
S228	-.31	.06	.94	-.2
S288	-.31	.06	.94	-.2
S66	-.14	.06	.93	-.2
S207	-.33	.06	.94	-.2
S267	-.33	.06	.94	-.2
S327	-.33	.06	.94	-.2
S387	-.33	.06	.94	-.2
S72	-.09	.06	.93	-.3
S178	.18	.07	.93	-.3
S238	.18	.07	.93	-.3
S298	.18	.07	.93	-.3
S358	.18	.07	.93	-.3
S93	-.13	.06	.93	-.3
S181	-.65	.06	.92	-.4
S241	-.65	.06	.92	-.4
S301	-.65	.06	.92	-.4
S23	-.01	.06	.93	-.3
S349	.03	.06	.94	-.2
S356	.31	.07	.91	-.4
S71	-.23	.06	.91	-.4
S104	-.07	.06	.94	-.2
S168	-.28	.06	.92	-.3
S172	.00	.06	.91	-.4
S143	.09	.07	.92	-.3
S370	.10	.07	.90	-.5
S209	-.15	.06	.94	-.2
S269	-.15	.06	.94	-.2
S329	-.15	.06	.94	-.2
S27	-.12	.06	.89	-.5
S73	.20	.07	.88	-.5
S35	-.09	.06	.88	-.5
S156	-.18	.06	.89	-.5
S125	-.25	.06	.89	-.5
S114	-.08	.06	.88	-.6
S117	.08	.07	.88	-.6
S82	.05	.07	.88	-.6
S6	-.08	.06	.88	-.6
S32	.03	.06	.88	-.6
S70	.02	.06	.87	-.6
S211	.29	.06	.88	-.6
S271	-.29	.06	.88	-.6
S331	-.29	.06	.88	-.6
S105	.16	.07	.88	-.6
S96	-.16	.06	.86	-.7
S116	.36	.07	.86	-.7
S145	-.21	.06	.86	-.7
S205	-.21	.06	.86	-.7
S265	-.21	.06	.86	-.7
S325	-.21	.06	.86	-.7
S385	-.21	.06	.86	-.7
S25	-.08	.06	.86	-.7
S47	-.02	.06	.86	-.7
S169	.04	.06	.87	-.6
S229	.04	.06	.87	-.6
S121	-.61	.06	.86	-.8
S162	-.02	.06	.86	-.7
S222	-.02	.06	.86	-.7
S282	-.02	.06	.86	-.7
S342	-.02	.06	.86	-.7
S361	-.62	.06	.85	-.9
S28	.01	.06	.85	-.8
S5	-.19	.06	.84	-.8

S176	.36	.07	.84	-.8
S236	.36	.07	.84	-.8
S296	.36	.07	.84	-.8
S289	.05	.06	.85	-.7
S293	-.39	.06	.83	-.9
S353	-.39	.06	.83	-.9
S160	.03	.06	.86	-.7
S45	.16	.07	.83	-.9
S44	-.01	.06	.83	-.9
S195	.53	.07	.82	-.9
S255	.53	.07	.82	-.9
S315	.53	.07	.82	-.9
S375	.53	.07	.82	-.9
S101	.01	.06	.83	-.9
S135	.47	.07	.82	-.9
S144	.20	.07	.81	-1
S148	.09	.07	.81	-1
S63	.30	.07	.81	-1
S152	.17	.07	.80	-1
S151	-.27	.06	.80	-1.1
S38	.13	.07	.80	-1
S120	.01	.06	.82	-.9
S163	-.46	.06	.80	-1.1
S103	-.46	.06	.79	-1.2
S36	-.05	.06	.80	-1.1
S80	.12	.07	.79	-1.1
S109	-.04	.06	.79	-1.1
S57	.08	.07	.78	-1.1
S118	.20	.07	.78	-1.1
S83	-.01	.06	.79	-1.1
S98	.12	.07	.78	-1.2
S223	-.48	.06	.77	-1.3
S283	-.48	.06	.77	-1.3
S343	-.48	.06	.77	-1.3
S8	.08	.07	.76	-1.3
S90	-.26	.06	.77	-1.3
S84	.09	.07	.75	-1.3
S68	.08	.07	.75	-1.4
S49	.02	.06	.74	-1.4
S102	-.01	.06	.75	-1.4
S141	.12	.07	.75	-1.3
S85	.18	.06	.73	-1.5
S175	-.03	.06	.77	-1.2
S235	-.03	.06	.77	-1.2
S295	-.03	.06	.77	-1.2
S355	-.03	.06	.77	-1.2
S52	-.12	.06	.73	-1.5
S89	.21	.07	.74	-1.4
S81	.12	.07	.74	-1.4
S55	.39	.07	.73	-1.5
S29	.15	.07	.72	-1.5
S147	-.28	.06	.73	-1.5
S128	.02	.06	.72	-1.5
S54	-.06	.06	.71	-1.6
S292	-.24	.06	.70	-1.7
S352	-.24	.06	.70	-1.7
S56	.27	.07	.70	-1.7
S58	.13	.07	.70	-1.7
S50	-.08	.06	.70	-1.7
S88	.05	.07	.69	-1.7
S208	.05	.07	.69	-1.7
S268	.05	.07	.69	-1.7
S328	.05	.07	.69	-1.7
S388	.05	.07	.69	-1.7

S201	.01	.06	.70	-1.7
S261	.01	.06	.70	-1.7
S321	.01	.06	.70	-1.7
S381	.01	.06	.70	-1.7
S94	.23	.07	.71	-1.7
S21	-.02	.06	.69	-1.7
S173	-.36	.06	.68	-1.9
S233	-.36	.06	.68	-1.9
S91	-.30	.06	.69	-1.8
S60	.21	.07	.69	-1.7
S232	-.23	.06	.68	-1.9
S61	-.42	.06	.69	-1.9
S42	.03	.06	.66	-1.9
S154	.09	.07	.67	-1.9
S180	-.06	.06	.67	-1.9
S240	-.06	.06	.67	-1.9
S300	-.06	.06	.67	-1.9
S360	-.06	.06	.67	-1.9
S41	.04	.06	.66	-2
S115	.00	.06	.69	-1.8
S65	-.24	.06	.67	-1.9
S149	-.20	.06	.65	-2
S53	-.32	.06	.61	-2.4
S40	-.05	.06	.60	-2.4
S34	.33	.07	.44	-3.7
Mean	-.02	.06	1.00	.0
SD	.23	.00	.20	1.1

Model, Sample: Separation 3.47 Reliability .92.

Model, Fixed (all same) chi-square: 5236.1 d.f.: 389 Significance (probability): .00

Note: The students are arranged from the most capable to the least capable.

2) Raters

Table E.2 displays more detailed information of the two raters. Raters are identified in column 1 and an estimate of their leniency/severity in column 2. Errors of these estimates are presented in column 3 and the fit statistics are provided in column 4, which in this case indicate the relative consistency of the raters. Lack of consistency is a problem and such raters need to be retrained or excluded.

In Table E.2, it can be found that Rater 1 was more severe than Rater 2 and the difference was .02 logits. No raters were identified as misfitting since the Infit MnSq was within the mean $\pm$ 2 deviations and the Infit ZStd was within $\pm$ 2.0. Both raters were self-consistent. In the case of raters, a low reliability is desirable since ideally the different raters should be equally lenient/severe. At the bottom of this table, it shows

that the separation index was 1.47 (<2.00), the reliability of separation was .68 (<.70), the chi-square was 3.2 with a d.f. of 1, and the chi-square significance was .08 (>.05), which indicates that the leniency/severity of the two raters were not significantly different.

Table E.2 Facets Result in WDCT for the Raters' Severity/Leniency

Rater	Measure	SE	Fit	
			Infit MnSq	Infit ZStd
R1	.01	.00	1.06	1.8
R2	-.01	.00	.94	-2.0
Mean	.00	.00	1.00	-.1
SD	.01	.00	.08	2.8

Model, Sample: Separation 1.47 Reliability .68

Model, Fixed (all same) chi-square: 3.2 d.f.: 1 significance (probability): .08

Note: The raters are arranged from severe to lenient.

1) Items

Table E.3 shows the estimated difficulty of the items. Items are identified in column 1. Measure is given in column 2, and items without minus are more difficult and items with minus are less difficult. Errors of these measure estimates are provided in column 3. In column 4, the fit statistics are given. These are the averages of the extent to which the actual scores of particular examinees are predicted by the model. Items which show greater variation than expected are misfitting (mean + 2 deviations) and those which show smaller variation than expected are overfitting (mean − 2 deviations).

In Table E.3, the range of difficulty spanned .28 to -.45 logits. In column 4, no items were found to be misfitting or overfitting, and their Infit MNSq was within mean $\pm$ 2 deviations and Infit Zstd was within $\pm$ 2.0. At the bottom of the table, the separation index 9.03 (>2.00) and the reliability of separation .90 (>.70) are shown,

which means the items' difficulty level was significantly different. The chi-square was

3.2 with a d.f. of 1 and the chi-square significance .00 (< .01) further confirms this.

Table E.3 Facets Result in WDCT for Item Difficulty

Item	Measure	SE	Fit	
			Infit MnSq	Infit ZStd
I7	.15	.02	1.11	2
I9	.28	.02	1.10	1.9
I4	-.02	.02	1.09	1.6
I14	-.08	.02	1.10	1.8
I3	-.06	.02	1.10	1.8
I21	.15	.02	1.09	1.8
I11	-.01	.02	1.06	1.2
I19	.11	.02	1.06	1.1
I16	.01	.02	1.07	1.3
I28	.27	.02	1.07	1.4
I6	-.07	.02	1.07	1.2
I8	.20	.02	1.01	.3
I29	.20	.02	1.04	.7
I30	.18	.02	1.03	.5
I24	-.02	.02	.97	-.5
I20	.07	.02	.97	-.6
I10	.10	.02	.96	-.6
I18	.04	.02	.96	-.7
I15	-.16	.02	.95	-.8
I26	-.16	.02	.95	-.9
I22	.10	.02	.95	-.9
I27	-.27	.02	.94	-1
I1	-.10	.02	.92	-1.4
I13	-.04	.02	.91	-1.7
I12	-.04	.02	.91	-1.8
I23	-.18	.02	.90	-1.9
I2	-.07	.02	.90	-1.9
I17	-.08	.02	.90	-2
I5	-.04	.02	.91	-1.7
I25	-.45	.02	.92	-1.5
Mean	.00	.02	1.00	.0
SD	.16	.00	.17	1.4

Model, Sample: Separation 9.03 Reliability .90

Model, Fixed (all same) chi-square: 2332.1 d.f.: .29 significance (probability): .00

Note: The items are arranged from the most difficult to the least difficult.

2) Rating Scale

Table E.4 shows the rating scale statistics. Column 1 displays information relating

to the data, including the categories, observed use of each category (counts used),

percentage of the used responses (%), and cumulative percentage of responses in this

category (cum %).

Information relating to the validity of the categorization is listed in column 2, including the average of the measures that are modeled to generate the observations in this category (average measure) and the unweighted mean-square for observations in this category (outfit mean square). A minimum requirement for the rating scale is that the thresholds are monotonically increasing (Piquero, MacIntosh, & Hichman, 2001). The Infit MnSq was not reported because it approximates the Outfit MnSq when the data are stratified by category (Linacre, 2014). This can be reflected by the average measures which are an empirical indicator of the context in which the category is used. Since high categories are intended to reflect higher measures, the average measures are expected to advance (Linacre, 1997).

The logit values of the average measures for the scales from 4 to 19 ranged from -.75 to .38, which were monotonically increasing. The outfit mean-square index is also a useful indicator of rating scale functionality. For each rating scale category, Facets computes the average examinee ability measure (i.e., the observed measure) and an expected examinee ability measure (i.e., the examinee ability measure the model would predict for that rating category if the data were to fit the model). When the observed and expected examinee ability are close, the outfit MnSq index for the rating category will be near the expected value of 1.0. The greater the discrepancy between the observed and expected measures, the larger outfit MnSq index will be. For a given rating category, an outfit MnSq index greater than 2.0 suggests that a rating in that category for one or more examinees may not be contributing to meaningful

measurement of the variable (Linacre, 1999). In Table E.4, every outfit MnSq index was around 1.0 and no one is greater than 2.0, which suggests that the rating scales were functioning as intended.

Another pertinent rating scale 'characteristics' includes thresholds, or step calibration, and category fit statistics (Wright et al., 1982; Bond & Fox, 2001). If there is a central tendency in rating, the distance between each rating scale will be large. The ideal distance for each two rating scales is 1.0 logits and it cannot be bigger than 4.0 logits (Linacre, 1999). In Table E.4, the distance between each two rating scales was no bigger than 4.0 logits, which suggests that there was no central tendency in the rating.

Table E.4 Rating Scale Statistics

	Data			Fit		Step Calibration		
Category score	Counts Used	%	Cum. %	Avge Meas	Exp. Meas	Outfit MnSq	Measure	S.E.
4	25	0	0	-.75	-.52	.6		
5	88	0	0	-.70	-.47	.6	-1.75	.20
6	197	1	1	-.41	-.40	1.0	-1.24	.10
7	417	2	3	-.31	-.34	1.0	-1.12	.06
8	749	3	6	-.20	-.28	1.2	-.89	.04
9	1228	5	12	-.19	-.21	1.1	-.74	.03
10	2239	10	21	-.17	-.15	1.0	-.78	.02
11	3246	14	35	-.12	-.09	.8	-.49	.02
12	4030	17	52	-.04	-.03	1.0	-.28	.01
13	3802	16	68	.03	.02	1.0	.05	.01
14	3539	15	84	.10	.08	.9	.12	.02
15	2223	10	93	.15	.14	1.0	.58	.02
16	1059	5	98	.20	.20	1.0	.91	.03
17	442	2	100	.20	.26	1.1	1.10	.04
18	107	0	100	.25	.32	1.1	1.71	.09
19	9	0	100	.38	.38	1.0	2.83	.33

Generally speaking, after the above calculation, the WDCT section which tested the EFL learners' ability in conducting speech acts in the ILP competence test was with high reliability and validity. In detail, the WDCT could distinguish the examinees' ability well, the raters were self-consistent in scoring and the

leniency/severity of them was not significantly different, the items were not with the same difficulty level and the distribution of scores was reasonable. In a word, the WDCT can be applied to test the EFL learners' ILP competence as functionally as expected in the Chinese context.

E.2.2 The Reliability and Validity of MDCT

The reliability of the MDCT was calculated by split-half method, and the reliability of the items was .880 for the implicature section and .894 for the routines section, both of which were higher than the acceptable reliability coefficient .70. Thus, the reliabilities of implicature and routines sections were guaranteed in the main study. Except the reliability, the validity was also needed to be guaranteed since it is the most important quality of test interpretation or use (American Psychological Association, 1985).

In Table E.5, the validity of the implicature section was reported. The item difficulty level and discrimination power were calculated by Item Analysis software, and all the items were with acceptable difficulty level and discrimination power. The details of each item in the section of understanding implicature can be seen in the following table.

Table E.5 Results of Item Analysis for Understanding Implicature

Item number	High N= 130	Low N=130	R	Level of Difficulty	Power of Discrimination	Remark
1	78	34	112	0.4	0.3	acceptable
2	119	25	144	0.6	0.7	acceptable
3	97	36	133	0.5	0.5	acceptable
4	81	44	125	0.5	0.3	acceptable
5	82	41	123	0.5	0.3	acceptable
6	126	19	145	0.6	0.8	acceptable
7	101	28	129	0.5	0.6	acceptable
8	66	19	85	0.3	0.4	acceptable

9	125	20	145	0.6	0.8	acceptable
10	87	32	119	0.5	0.4	acceptable
11	114	18	132	0.5	0.7	acceptable
12	125	12	137	0.5	0.9	acceptable
13	124	13	137	0.5	0.9	acceptable
14	128	10	138	0.5	0.9	acceptable
15	127	15	142	0.5	0.9	acceptable
16	90	32	122	0.5	0.4	acceptable
17	73	38	111	0.4	0.3	acceptable
18	83	40	123	0.5	0.3	acceptable
19	82	24	106	0.4	0.4	acceptable
20	118	16	134	0.5	0.8	acceptable

In Table E.6, the validity of the 20 items in the section of performing routines is reported. The results show that all the items in this section were with acceptable difficulty level and discrimination power. More details can be seen in the following table.

Table E.6 Results of Item Analysis for Performing Routines

Item number	High N=130	Low N=130	R	Level of Difficulty	Power of Discrimination	Remark
21	84	45	129	0.5	0.3	acceptable
22	124	19	143	0.6	0.8	acceptable
23	114	21	135	0.5	0.7	acceptable
24	57	24	81	0.3	0.3	acceptable
25	128	19	147	0.6	0.8	acceptable
26	121	18	139	0.5	0.8	acceptable
27	64	22	86	0.3	0.3	acceptable
28	123	20	143	0.6	0.8	acceptable
29	115	24	139	0.5	0.7	acceptable
30	94	44	138	0.5	0.4	acceptable
31	97	34	131	0.5	0.5	acceptable
32	69	36	105	0.4	0.3	acceptable
33	92	40	132	0.5	0.4	acceptable
34	74	44	118	0.5	0.2	acceptable
35	99	31	130	0.5	0.5	acceptable
36	105	26	131	0.5	0.6	acceptable
37	127	21	148	0.6	0.8	acceptable
38	47	7	54	0.2	0.3	acceptable
39	99	20	119	0.5	0.6	acceptable
40	125	17	142	0.5	0.8	acceptable

In addition, the difficulty level and discrimination power of all the MDCT items were confirmed and the two indexes of all the distractors were calculated by Delta Sigma software. In this software, the students in the high ILP competence level group were the top 27%, the students in the low ILP competence level were the bottom 27%, and the middle 36% of students were grouped into the medium ILP competence level according to their scores in the ILP competence test. Table E.7 shows a general picture of the distribution of the items in understanding implicature and performing routines sections according to their difficulty level and discrimination power.

Table E.7 Distribution of Items in Implicature and Routines

Items should be kept	Items in Implicature	Total	Items in Routines	Total
1. P=easy D=good	2,6,9,11,12,13,14,15,20	9	22,25,26,28,37,40	6
2. P=medium D=good	3,4,5,7,10,16,17,18,19	9	21,23,29,30,31,33,35, 36,39	9
3. P=medium D=fair	---	0	34	1
4. P=difficult D=good	1,8	2	27	1
5. P=difficult D=fair	---	0	24,32,38	3

In Table E.7, it is shown that most items in understanding implicature and performing routines sections were with medium difficulty level. There were also easy items and difficult items in each section. Among them, four items were with fair discrimination power and all the rest were with good discrimination power. In the following two tables, the details of the items in understanding implicature and performing routines sections will be presented in terms of difficulty level and discrimination power.

Table E.8 Difficulty level and Discrimination Power of Distractors in

Understanding Implicature

Item	Choice	High	Medium	Low	P	r	Conclusion (Classical test theory)
1	A	11	33	28	.186	.162	D=low
	＊B	65	65	24	.395	.390	---
	C	10	37	29	.186	.181	D=low
	D	15	35	38	.252	.219	D=fair
2	＊A	98	142	12	.646	.819	---
	B	6	20	19	.119	.124	D=low
	C	8	16	21	.138	.124	D=low
	D	5	23	20	.119	.143	D=low
3	＊A	84	80	29	.495	.524	---
	B	12	28	27	.185	.143	D=low
	C	8	25	30	.181	.210	D=fair
	D	14	30	25	.186	.105	D=low
4	A	12	27	25	.176	.124	D=low
	＊B	67	95	31	.495	.343	---
	C	8	20	30	.181	.210	D=fair
	D	11	25	39	.238	.267	D=fair
5	A	14	28	31	.214	.162	D=low
	B	7	30	46	.252	.371	D=good
	C	8	13	25	.157	.162	D=low
	＊D	67	94	27	.482	.381	---
6	A	6	16	16	.105	.095	D=low
	B	8	16	18	.124	.095	D=low
	＊C	104	155	5	.677	.943	---
	D	5	20	20	.119	.143	D=low
7	＊A	86	85	20	.505	.629	---
	B	9	26	34	.205	.238	D=fair
	C	13	33	26	.186	.124	D=low
	D	13	25	20	.157	.067	D=low
8	A	10	33	48	.276	.362	D=good
	＊B	57	59	13	.331	.419	---
	C	18	31	35	.252	.162	D=low
	D	17	31	38	.262	.200	D=fair
9	＊A	103	144	14	.669	.848	---
	B	9	15	17	.124	.076	D=low
	C	10	17	19	.138	.086	D=low
	D	6	19	17	.110	.105	D=low
10	＊A	72	83	27	.467	.429	---
	B	13	25	29	.200	.152	D=low
	C	11	22	40	.243	.276	D=fair

	D	11	25	30	.195	.181	D=low
11	＊A	94	137	7	.610	.829	---
	B	11	17	18	.138	.067	D=low
	C	15	24	23	.181	.080	D=low
	D	10	16	18	.133	.076	D=low
12	A	8	14	16	.114	.076	D=low
	B	4	19	22	.124	.171	D=low
	＊C	104	156	0	.667	.990	---
	D	9	20	18	.129	.086	D=low
13	A	10	22	19	.138	.086	D=low
	＊B	103	128	3	.600	.952	---
	C	6	20	25	.148	.181	D=low
	D	9	27	18	.129	.086	D=low
14	A	8	17	16	.114	.076	D=low
	＊B	104	158	0	.672	.990	---
	C	11	18	20	.148	.086	D=low
	D	5	16	17	.105	.114	D=low
15	A	6	18	19	.119	.124	D=low
	B	10	22	20	.143	.095	D=low
	C	8	14	16	.114	.076	D=low
	＊D	105	151	1	.659	.990	---
16	A	15	25	23	.181	.076	D=low
	B	10	19	29	.186	.181	D=low
	C	6	26	33	.186	.257	D=fair
	＊D	79	111	14	.523	.619	---
17	A	6	30	42	.229	.343	D=good
	B	13	29	33	.219	.190	D=low
	C	10	26	39	.233	.276	D=fair
	＊D	64	67	31	.415	.314	---
18	A	14	27	29	.205	.143	D=low
	＊B	70	75	30	.449	.381	---
	C	10	30	28	.181	.171	D=low
	D	12	29	36	.229	.229	D=fair
19	＊A	66	88	15	.433	.486	---
	B	17	32	29	.219	.114	D=low
	C	12	27	36	.229	.229	D=fair
	D	17	22	29	.219	.114	D=low
20	A	6	15	20	.124	.133	D=low
	B	7	21	22	.138	.143	D=low
	C	6	20	28	.162	.267	D=fair
	＊D	98	144	3	.628	.905	---

Note: The choice with "＊" in each item is the key.

In Table E.8, it can be seen that all the distractors of the 20 items in the section of understanding implicature were with acceptable difficulty level and discrimination power. Among them, only three distractors were with good discrimination power, 11 of them were with fair discrimination power, and 46 of them were with low discrimination power.

Table E.9 presents more details of the items in the section of performing routines. The difficulty level and discrimination power of all the items and their distractors were calculated and presented.

Table E.9 Difficulty level and Discrimination Power of Distractors in Performing Routines

Item	Choice	High	Medium	Low	P	r	Conclusion (Classical test theory)
21	A	14	28	27	.195	.124	D=low
	B	10	29	29	.186	.181	D=low
	*C	73	80	36	.485	.352	---
	D	12	22	30	.200	.171	D=low
22	A	8	18	22	.143	.133	D=low
	B	10	23	17	.129	.067	D=low
	C	5	14	17	.105	.114	D=low
	*D	100	156	0	.656	.952	---
23	A	5	27	33	.181	.267	D=fair
	B	10	22	28	.181	.171	D=low
	C	8	12	13	.100	.048	D=low
	*D	97	128	6	.592	.867	---
24	A	10	44	47	.271	.352	D=good
	B	20	26	32	.248	.114	D=low
	*C	45	39	23	.274	.209	---
	D	18	39	45	.300	.257	D=fair
25	A	10	20	18	.133	.076	D=low
	*B	105	153	1	.664	.990	---
	C	8	17	22	.143	.133	D=low
	D	7	16	13	.095	.057	D=low
26	*A	100	147	1	.636	.943	---
	B	7	19	21	.133	.133	D=low

	C	11	21	24	.167	.124	D=low
	D	6	22	30	.171	.229	D=fair
27	A	9	36	44	.252	.333	D=good
	B	15	29	30	.214	.143	D=low
	C	13	39	31	.210	.171	D=low
	*D	54	73	17	.369	.352	---
28	A	8	15	17	.119	.086	D=low
	*B	102	155	2	.664	.952	---
	C	10	19	17	.129	.067	D=low
	D	6	19	20	.124	.133	D=low
29	A	8	22	27	.167	.181	D=low
	B	9	28	36	.214	.257	D=fair
	C	5	10	14	.090	.086	D=low
	*D	94	126	11	.592	.790	---
30	A	8	27	36	.210	.267	D=fair
	B	11	22	27	.181	.152	D=low
	C	12	30	27	.186	.143	D=low
	*D	80	81	29	.487	.486	---
31	A	9	23	26	.167	.162	D=low
	*B	84	85	24	.495	.571	---
	C	17	27	26	.205	.086	D=low
	D	12	27	30	.200	.171	D=low
32	A	5	30	42	.224	.352	D=good
	*B	58	52	31	.362	.257	---
	C	17	28	32	.233	.143	D=low
	D	11	41	43	.257	.305	D=good
33	A	10	27	26	.171	.152	D=low
	*B	77	86	32	.500	.429	---
	C	9	31	29	.181	.190	D=low
	D	13	27	23	.171	.095	D=low
34	A	17	30	33	.238	.152	D=low
	B	11	35	32	.205	.200	D=fair
	*C	62	61	36	.408	.248	---
	D	14	30	29	.205	.143	D=low
35	*A	81	111	19	.541	.590	---
	B	8	26	25	.157	.162	D=low
	C	11	31	37	.229	.248	D=fair
	D	9	13	19	.133	.095	D=low
36	A	13	21	24	.176	.105	D=low
	*B	88	96	17	.515	.676	---
	C	8	23	28	.171	.190	D=low
	D	10	27	35	.214	.238	D=fair
37	A	8	19	17	.119	.086	D=low
	*B	105	153	1	.664	.990	---
	C	11	21	19	.143	.076	D=low

	D	6	14	16	.105	.095	D=low
38	＊A	31	45	6	.210	.238	---
	B	24	47	44	.324	.190	D=low
	C	21	32	43	.305	.210	D=fair
	D	27	30	40	.319	.124	D=low
39	＊A	82	84	19	.474	.600	---
	B	13	27	25	.181	.114	D=low
	C	8	19	30	.181	.210	D=fair
	D	20	33	30	.238	.095	D=low
40	A	7	17	18	.119	.105	D=low
	B	11	20	18	.138	.067	D=low
	C	10	15	16	.124	.057	D=low
	＊D	102	156	0	.662	.971	---

Note: The choice with "＊" in each item is the key.

In Table E.9, it can be seen that all the distractors were as functional as expected. They were with the acceptable difficulty level and discrimination power. Among them, four distractors were with good discrimination power, ten were with fair discrimination power, and 46 of them were with low discrimination power.

In order to draw the whole picture of the validity of the ILP competence test, the construct validity of all 70 items, including three sections and two testing methods, were calculated by the Pearson correlation coefficient.

Table E.10 shows that the correlations among three sections were significant at p<.01. The largest degree of overlap occurred between speech acts and routines sections (r=.96), with speech acts and implicature overlapping the least (r=.76). The high overlapping between the speech acts and routines could be understood since the items in functional routines required the EFL learners to conduct certain speech acts in the given conversations. The high correlations among the three sections mean that the knowledge tested in the three sections could not be separated, and there was inner

relation among them since all of them tested a field of the knowledge in interlanguage pragmatics, and they also mean that the students who got high scores in one section achieved high scores in another, or vice versa.

Table E.10 Correlations among the Categories

	Speech Acts	Implicature	Routines
Speech Acts		.76	.96
Implicature	.76		.84
Routines	.96	.84	

Note: Correlation is significant at the .01level (2-tailed)

In summary, the reliability and validity of WDCT and MDCT were high in the present study. The reliability of the whole test was .913 (>.70) after calculation with Cronbach alpha and the correlations of the three sections were high. It is proved that the ILP competence test can be applied to evaluate the English major students' ILP competence in the Chinese context.
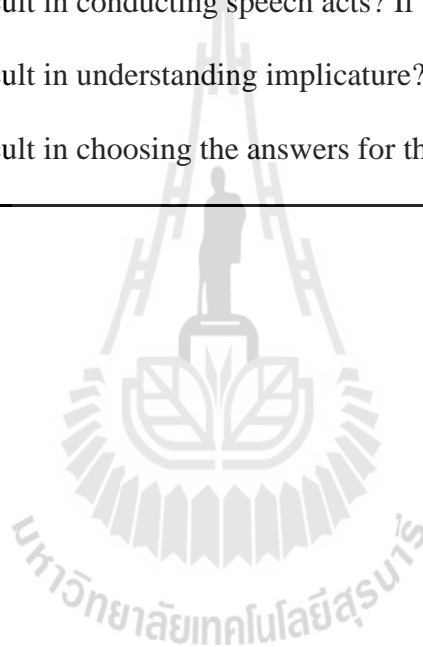
E.3 The Pilot Study of Semi-structured Interview

Ten students who took the ILP competence test were selected for the interview. The purpose of piloting the interview was to see whether or not the interview questions worked properly; whether there was anything wrong with the question items, question sequences, timing, recording or other technical problems that may happen in the actual data collection schema, and whether they were direct and clear enough for the interviewees. To ensure the validity of the interview questions, the teachers group were asked to check the wording and sequence as well as the number and the content of questions before the pilot study. The interviews were conducted in English in the pilot study, but when necessary, the researcher and the interviewees could speak

Chinese. After the pilot study, the researcher revised some of the question items according to the pilot study of the interviews. The final version of the interview questions is illustrated in Table E.11.

Table E.11 Sample of Interview Questions

The Sample of Interview Questions
1. Have you leant pragmatics before?
2. In your opinion, what is pragmatics?
3. Do you have any difficulties in finishing this test?
4. What is the most difficult part for you?
5. Do you feel difficult in conducting speech acts? If yes, what are your difficulties?
6. Do you feel difficult in understanding implicature? If yes, what are your difficulties?
7. Do you feel difficult in choosing the answers for the routines? If yes, what are your difficulties?

APPENDIX F

Categorization of Semi-structured Interview Data

Question 1: Have you leant pragmatics before?

Interviewees who had never learnt pragmatics

I just know it as a part of linguistics. (I1, I3, I8)

From the testing, I think we meet pragmatics when communicate with people every day.
    (I2, I6, I7)

Have no background knowledge about pragmatics. (I14, I21)

Interviewees who had learnt a little about pragmatics

Have not learnt pragmatics, but the teacher mentioned it in exercises. (I4, I5, I11, I16)

*Have learnt a course called "applied linguistics", and "pragmatics" was a chapter in
    it.* (I9, I10, I17, I18, I19)

*The teachers mentioned pragmatic knowledge in other courses, so get some general
    ideas about it, such as speech acts.* (I20, I22, I23, I24)

Interviewees who had learnt pragmatics

The course "pragmatics" was conducted for a term. (I12, I15)

Have learnt "pragmatics", and be familiar with speech acts. (I13)

Question 2: What is pragmatics?

Not clear

Do not know what pragmatics is, and have no clear idea about it. (I21)

Relationship between surface meaning and implied meaning

*Pragmatics is the study of languages in terms of the relationship between the surface
    meaning and the implied meaning of sentences.* (I4)

Application of principles and theories into practice

Pragmatics is the study of the application of language theories into practice. (I11)

Pragmatics is the application of language principles into practice. (I23)

Using language appropriately

Pragmatics concerns about how to use language appropriately. (I2, I12, I14)

Pragmatics is about using appropriate language to express oneself. (I10)

Using language for communications

Pragmatics is about how to use language in our daily life, i.e., how to use language for communications. (I1, I7, I9)

Pragmatics is about how to use language to express oneself in communication. (I5, I6)

Using language in different situations

Pragmatics is the study of the selection of words, collocations and tenses to express the meanings correctly in certain situations. (I3, I8, I13, I16, I24)

Pragmatics is the study of how to improve the ability in using a language in different situations. (I15, I19, I20, I22)

Pragmatics is about how to use language in different situations, and politeness principle is one aspect to be taken into consideration. (I17)

Question 3: What is interlanguage pragmatics?

No idea

The teachers have never mentioned it. (I11)

Interlanguage pragmatics is beyond my knowledge. (I12)

Expressing oneself in L2

Interlanguage pragmatics is about how to use L2 to express oneself, and how to differentiate L1 and L2. (I2)

Interlanguage pragmatics is the study of how to conduct speech acts in L2 by using L2 to express the meanings. (I4)

Using the principles in both L1 and L2 in communications

Interlanguage pragmatics is the study of how people communicate with each other by combining the rules and principles in both L1 and L2. (I1, I5)

Using L2 appropriately

Interlanguage pragmatics is a study which aims to help the L2 learners to use L2 appropriately. (I10, I12)

Interlanguage pragmatics is about how to obey the rules in L2 instead of the rules in the mother tongue. (I14)

L1 influencing L2 in language use

Interlanguage pragmatics is the approach which aims at finding out the influence of L1 on L2. (I6, I7, I9)

Interlanguage pragmatics is the study of how to conduct positive transfer of the mother tongue to the L2. (I20, I23)

Using L2 in different situations

Interlanguage pragmatics is about how to use L2 in different situations, and it means to follow the rules in L2 in language use. (I3, I8, I15, I17)

Interlanguage pragmatics is the study of how to conduct speech acts in different situations in L2. (I16, I18, I19, I22, I24)

Question 4: What is the most difficult part for you?

The most difficult part is conducting speech acts. (I4, I9, I10, I13, I15, I16, I18, I22)

The most difficult part is understanding implicature. ((I5, I6, I7, I8, I12, I21)

The most difficult part is performing routines. (I1, I2, I3, I11, I14, I17, I19, I20, I23, I24)

Question 5: Do you have difficulties in conducting speech acts, if yes, what are your difficulties?

No difficulties

The situations are quite familiar and such kind of things always happen in the daily life. (I4, I6, I7, I10, I11, I13, I16, I22)

We learnt the speech acts from our textbooks. (I14, I24)

Low ability in organizing sentences

Do not know how to organize language in English because my grammar is poor. (I3)

Cannot write correct sentences, so be afraid that misunderstandings will be caused. (I15)

Low confidence in communicating in English

Be unconfident in communicating in English, because the vocabulary is small. (I3)

Be afraid that people will misunderstand and embarrassment will be caused. (I15)

Low ability in expressing oneself appropriately with English

Do not know how to use correct expressions to describe emotions. (I1, I2, I5, I17)

Do not know what the acceptable degree of politeness and directness is. (I3, I8, I9, I19, I20)

Do not know how to follow the habits and customs in the western countries. (I15, I18, I21)

Cultural barriers

Do not know the western cultures. (I9, I15)

There exist different habits in using language between people in China and western countries. (I12)

Chinese and English native speakers have different interpretations for the same situation. (I18, I23)

Question 6: Do you have difficulties in understanding implicature, if yes, what are your difficulties?

No Difficulties

Have got a chance to study in America as an exchange student and learnt a lot about American culture during the time staying there. (I5, I22)

Love western cultures, and read a lot about them in the free time. (I6, I7, I12)

Always communicate with native speakers, so these expressions are not strange. (I8, I13, I21)

Low ability in understanding the expressions in the items
Some words are difficult. (I1)
Some sentences are too complicated. (I15)

Understanding the surface meaning only

Do not have the habit to think the implied meanings and it is related to the thinking style. (I2)

Although the sentences are easy to understand on the surface, do not know what they want to express. (I9, I17)

There is no relationship between the surface meaning and the choices for many items. (I14, I19)

Cultural barriers

The sentences are not complicated on the surface, but for the implicature, we Chinese

understand it in a different way from the English native speakers. (I3, I10, I15, I20)

The native speakers for each language have their own habits in using languages. As

Chinese students, we do not know the habits in using English. (I4, I11, I17)

Do not know some expressions in English because the same expressions do not exist in

Chinese. (I18, I23, I24)

Question 7: Do you have difficulties in performing routines, if yes, what are your

difficulties?

No difficulties

Have done a lot of exercises in the free time for performing routines. (I5, I7, I17)

Have *met most of the situations in my study and the teachers have emphasized a lot for*

routines. (I13, I18, I21)

Choices being too similar

Do not know the different usages among the choices in some items. (I1, I18, I20)

There seems to be more than one way to express oneself in some items, so do not know

how to make a decision. (I8)

Low ability in understanding the expressions in the items

Cannot understand some items because I read very little in English after class. (I11)

Cultural barriers

Do not know the habits of the native speakers in communicating with others, so do not

know whether I can use the right expressions or not. (I6, I9, I12, I23)

Be afraid of making others misunderstand and embarrassed, so keep silent. (I2, I3, I14,

I15, I22)

Have learnt some routines in English from books and teachers, but do not know how to
perform the routines that I have never met. (I10, I16, I19, I24)

Question 8: Why do you think you have difficulties in interlanguage pragmtics?

Low language proficiency

The small vocabulary is the reason to influence the communication with native
speakers. (I4, I10, I12, I20)

The grammar is poor. It is the major reason to stop me from expressing myself in
English. Have no confidence because I cannot organize the sentences to express the
meaning appropriately. (I1, I2, I3, I5, I13)

Mother tongue influence

The reason for the difficulties in interlanguage pragmatics is mother tongue influence.
Always use the mother tongue in communicating with others and do not know what
the differences are. (I8, I9, I11, I23)

Only use English in communication with the manners and habits in Chinese. Make the
native speakers embarrassed. (I2, I3, I4, I9, I12, I21)

Limited accumulation of related knowledge

The knowledge about interlanguage pragmatics comes majorly from the books, and
when needed, feel the knowledge is very limited. (I4, I6, I10, I14, I19)

The knowledge learnt in classroom is not enough to have effective communication in
English. Don't know how to express in English appropriately. (I2, I5, I9, I12, I17,
I20, I23)

Don't know what to say in English in different situations. Be lack of accumulation in
my study. The knowledge about pragmatics is very limited. (I1, I3, I6, I9, I10)

Limited communication with native speakers

N*ot only I but my classmates have little chance to communicate with English native speakers. There are only two hours of office time for each class to communicate with native speaker teachers in my university, so each person could only meet the native speaker teachers once a term except the teaching time.* (I1, I2, I3, I6, I9, I10, I12, I15, I20)

Cultural differences

Cultural differences are the major reason for the difficulties in interlanguage pragmatics. Culture is not easy to be learnt. (I1, I4, I9, I11, I12, I14, I16, I20)

G*reat cultural differences exist between China and western countries. This is why many people can speak fluent English, but cannot perform pragmatic behaviors like native speakers. Cultural differences are an important reason for me to have difficulties in interlanguage pragmatics.* (I2, I8, I13, I21, I22)

I22: *If be asked to respond to the same situations and choose answers in Chinese, it would be quite easy. When they are in English, don't know what to do. Hence the cultural differences are the biggest barrier to achieve high ILP competence.* (I3, I5, I7, I18, I19)

CURRICULUM VITAE

Lan Xu was born in the Guizhou Province, China in October 1980. She started teaching English for Chinese students after she received her bachelor degree in English linguistics and literature in Guizhou University, 2001. She is currently working in the College of Foreign Languages Studies in Guizhou University, China. She received her master degree in English literature and linguistics from Guizhou University in 2006. From 2012 to 2016, she studied for her Ph.D. in English language studies in School of Foreign Languages, Institute of Social Science Technology, Suranaree University of Technology, Thailand. Her research interests involve pragmatics and language testing.