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Cross-cultural and Acquisitional Aspects of Interlanguage Pragmatics

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Lee, Mun Woo. 2013. Cross-cultural and acquisitional aspects of interlanguage pragmatics. *Discourse and Cognition* 20:2, 193-212. This study aims to examine the characteristics and the source of Korean English L2 learners' interlanguage pragmatics focusing on request. Based upon nine request strategy types that reflected various contexts according to the social distance and dominance, 48 advanced level of Korean English L2 learners and 14 native speakers of English were required to answer 18 English elicitation items in Discourse Completion Test (DCT, Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984). Subsequently, Korean English L2 learners performed Korean DCT. The findings presented that Korean English L2 learners were not hindered by their L2 grammatical competence and produced as many sentences as native English speakers did. However, there were some aspects that they showed conspicuous differences from their counter group. By and large, the Korean group overused direct and explicit request strategies regardless of the formality of the context and preferred suggestion formulas which native speakers of English did not really put to use. In addition, it was noteworthy that these differences were based upon their L1 pragmatics. Therefore, the present study asserts that L1 pragmatics transferability can be a critical factor in the development and acquisition of interlanguage pragmatics. (Hanyang University)

Key words: Interlanguage pragmatics, L2 grammatical competence, L1 pragmatic transferability, Discourse Completion Test

1. Introduction

Pragmatics refers to the study of language usages based upon contextual differences (Fitch and Sanders 2005; Haugh 2009). It is an important part of

one's linguistic competence especially when it comes to second language learning. For second language learners, "saying things appropriately in a given social context" requires more than L2 grammar (Haugh 2009). In order to avoid communication breakdown, second language learners should be able to understand sentence meaning (locutionary), underlying intention of the sentence (illocutionary), and the result of utterances (perlocutionary) (Fasold 1990; Grundy 2000). Unfortunately, however, it takes quite amount of time to develop this native speaker like pragmatic competence so that second language learners often make use of their own strategies in L2 while they are still in their "interlanguage pragmatics" stage.

By Kasper and Dahl's (1991) definition, interlanguage pragmatics means "nonnative speakers' comprehension and production of speech acts, and how that L2-related knowledge is acquired" (216). As Kasper (1992) and Bardovi-Harlig (1999) commonly point out, however, the focus of interlanguage pragmatics has been onto the cross-cultural comparisons of pragmatics usages without taking deep consideration of how learners' pragmatic competence is developed and acquired. In this respect of development and acquisition of pragmatics, Bardovi-Harlig (1999) re-defines interlanguage pragmatics as "the study of how L2-related speech act knowledge is acquired" (678), and asserts that there are generic characteristics in L2 pragmatics development which cannot be caught on by those descriptive cross-cultural studies.

Considering such two phases of interlanguage pragmatics as comparative phase and acquisitional phase, this study compares the pragmatic strategies of native speakers of English and Korean English L2 learners and delves into L1 pragmatic transferability of Korean English L2 learners focusing on request. The reason why request is chosen among many other pragmatic categories is that it is universal speech act that involves various kinds of contextual cues such as social distance and dominance between speaker and hearer (Achiba 2003). In other words, request is good for investigating how Korean English L2 learners activate "a set of social, cultural, situational and personal factors" (Fitch and Sanders 2005) as well as English grammar in more in-depth way.

Thus, two research questions of the present study are as follows: (1) How are Korean English L2 learners' English request pragmatic strategies different from those of native speakers of English? (2) Are Korean English L2 learners dependent upon Korean (L1) pragmatic strategies when they produce English (L2) request sentences? The first question demonstrates cross-cultural

comparative view, while the second question reflects interlanguage pragmatics in terms of SLA paradigm (Kasper and Schmidt 1996).

2. Interlanguage Pragmatics: L2 Grammatical Competence vs. L1 Pragmatic Transferability

As aforementioned, most studies regarding interlanguage pragmatics have been conducted “comparatively,” focusing on the different pragmatic usages between L1 language users and second language learners who have different linguistic background (Kasper 1992). For example, Scarcella (1979) compares English L1 speakers and Japanese L2 learners of English and finds out that the low-level learners heavily relied on imperatives while higher-level learners consider the relationship between the speaker and hearer carefully and restrict imperatives only to equal familiars and subordinates. Cohen and Olshtain (1993) study 15 advanced-level of English learners (11 native speakers of Hebrew and 4 near-native speakers of Hebrew) and find out that despite the participants’ advanced-level of English, they use simple declaratives for English request when they are supposed to use conditionals.

Both Scarcella (1979) and Cohen and Olshtain’s (1993) studies deal with L2 learners’ proficiency level importantly along with the respect of cross-sectional comparison. According to the results of the studies, it seems that the learners’ different levels of proficiency affect their L2 pragmatic usages (or level). Then, a question can be asked regarding this relationship: is interlanguage pragmatic competence established upon L2 proficiency level, or more specifically, their grammatical competence¹⁾? This is a very crucial question because it can be directly related to L1 pragmatic transferability. If L2 learners’ pragmatic competence goes with their L2 grammatical competence, low-level L2 learners will rely on their L1 pragmatic strategies more than high-level L2 learners. And if this is the case, the degree of L1 pragmatic transferability would gradually decrease as L2 learners grammatical competence comes near native-like proficiency.

Interestingly enough, however, previous studies indicate that it might not be reasonable speculation. Several scholars argue that L2 learners’ interlanguage

1) By grammatical competence, the definition of Bardovi-Harlig (1999) is selected in this study: a linguistic grammar, including phonology, morphology, syntax, semantics, or the lexicon of the developing languages (686).

pragmatics is strongly affected by their L2 grammatical competence, commonly pointing out that L1 pragmatic strategies are not transferred as much as we expect since L2 learners' low proficiency prevents them from being used in L2 pragmatic strategies (Cohen and Olshtain 1981; Blum-Kulka 1982; Maeshiba, Yoshinaga, Kasper, and Ross 1996). Carrell and Konneker (1981) and Jalilifar (2009) also maintains that communication failure in making request in English are often caused by non-native speakers of English not because they lack in knowledge on request itself but because they have very restricted linguistic options to express themselves.

From these studies, two points are worth to be mentioned. First, L2 learners' grammatical competence should be the prerequisite for the development and acquisition of interlanguage pragmatics. Second, though the results of those studies displayed that L2 learners' lack of L2 grammatical competence hinders L2 pragmatic transferability, it does not necessarily apply to all L2 learners. The participants in above mentioned studies were all low to intermediate level L2 learners so that the grammatical factor might have worked more crucially for their interlanguage pragmatics. However, advanced level L2 learners who are equipped with proper level of L2 grammar might rely on the pre-existing pragmatic knowledge in their L1 system. Or, since they already have the prerequisite for the development and acquisition of interlanguage pragmatics, they might show very similar pragmatic patterns with native speakers of L2. These hypotheses can be proved only by looking into advanced level of L2 learners' interlanguage pragmatics especially in comparison with native speakers of L2. That is why the present study particularly focuses on advanced level of Korean English L2 learners and native speakers of English.

3. Methodology

3.1. Participants

There were two groups of participants in the present study. The first group was 48 advanced level of Korean English L2 learners who went to a major university in Seoul. All 48 participants majored in English Education and got Grade 1 in Korean Scholastic Aptitude Test. For leveling the variables, six participants who have lived in abroad were excluded from the beginning. Among 48 participants 33 were female, whereas 15 were male. Their average

age was 22.8.

The other group was 14 native speakers of English. Eleven of the participants were foreign faculty who taught College English at two different universities in Seoul, and the rest of the participants were exchange students from the United States. The exchange students majored in Psychology, International Relations, and Education. Five of the foreign faculty members and all three exchange students were females, while six were males. Although the exchange students have stayed in South Korea at most for 4 months on average, English professors have lived in South Korea for about 7.5 years on average. The average age of the participants was 38.4.

3.2. Data Collection and Analysis

Data collection method was grounded in Discourse Completion Test (DCT) to elicit the participants' pragmatic usages. Eighteen written DCT items were devised by the researcher based upon Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984). Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984) made an English request DCT, considering two important factors: social distance and dominance. Social distance shows the solidarity between the speaker and the hearer; dominance demonstrates the power relationship between the speaker and the hearer. The former is indicated with +/-, and [+Social Distance] shows informal contexts of request, whereas [-Social Distance] demonstrates formal contexts of request. The latter is indicated with =/ <H/ <S, which means equal power relation, hearer-oriented (or hearer-dominated), and speaker-oriented (or speaker-dominated) respectively. The 18 test items can be categorized by these two factors as shown in <Table 1>. There are nine items in each category of social distance, six items in each category of dominance.

<Table 1> Questions Categorized by Social Distance and Dominance

↻	Social Distance ↻	Dominance ↻	Questions ↻
(A)↻	+ [Informal]↻	<S [Speaker-oriented]↻	6, 11, 15↻
(B)↻	- [Formal]↻	<S [Speaker-oriented]↻	2, 12, 18↻
(C)↻	+ [Informal]↻	= [Speaker=Hearer]↻	1, 8, 13↻
(D)↻	- [Formal]↻	= [Speaker=Hearer]↻	4, 9, 16↻
(E)↻	+ [Informal]↻	<H [Hearer-oriented]↻	3, 14, 17↻
(F)↻	- [Formal]↻	<H [Hearer-oriented]↻	5, 7, 10↻

The coding scheme for the collected data analysis was based on the nine categories of The Cross Cultural Speech Act Realization Project (CCSARP), done by Blum-Kulka, House, and Kasper (1989). They divided English request strategy types into three levels based on the directness level: the most direct and explicit level, the conventionally indirect level, and nonconventional indirect level. Subsequently, they classified three subcategories in each level. The nine categories of the CCSARP are presented in <Table 2>.

<Table 2> Request Strategy Types and Examples

Directness Level	Request Strategy Types	Examples
The most direct and explicit level	Mood derivable	Clean up this mess, please.
	Explicit performatives	I'm asking you not to park the car here.
	Hedged performative	I would like you to give your lecture a week earlier.
The conventionally indirect level	4. Locution derivable	4. Madam, you'll have to move your car.
	5. Scope stating	5. I really wish you's stop bothering me.
	6. Language specific suggestory formula	6. So, why don't you come and clean up the mess you made last night?
Nonconventional indirect level	7. Reference to preparatory conditions	7. Would you mind moving your car?
	8. Strong hints	8. You've left this kitchen in a right mess.
	9. Mild hints	9. I'm a nun (in response to the persistent boy).

(Examples are from Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984)

To answer the research question 2, 48 Korean English L2 learners were asked to fill out the Korean DCT (Appendix 2) first in mid-April, 2013 and to work on the English DCT (Appendix 1) one week later. Fourteen native speakers of English were asked to answer only the English DCT from early April to late May, 2013. The tests for Korean English L2 learners were conducted individually and each test took approximately 20 minutes. The researcher administered the test in person by standing or sitting across the participant. The Korean DCT and the English DCT share the same structure as shown in Table 1. The English DCT was developed first based on Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984), and then, it was translated into Korean by the researcher.

4. Results and Discussions

4.1. The Differences in Pragmatics Usages: Korean English L2 Learners vs. Native Speakers of English

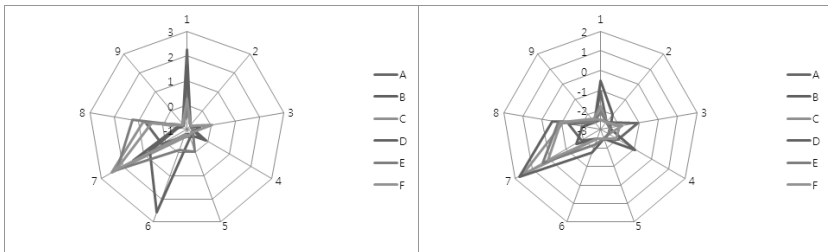
Even though there were 18 test items in total, each participant answered some of the items by using more than one request strategy types. For instance, one of the participants in the native speakers of English group answered “Mark, this place was a disaster yesterday. Would you mind cleaning up after yourself?” to question number 8. In this case, the first part (*this place was a disaster yesterday*) falls into a category of 8. Strong hints, while the second part (*Would you mind cleaning up after yourself?*) can be sorted out as 7. Reference to preparatory conditions. As a result, Korean English L2 learners group produced 1138 English request sentences, whereas native speakers of English group came up with 338 English request sentences based upon this analysis. Interestingly enough, the average rate of sentences produced by each Korean English L2 learner and native English speaker was very similar as in 23.7 (sd=30.1) versus 24.1 (sd=9.6). This proved that L2 grammatical competence of the Korean participants did not work as a barrier to produce as many sentences as their counter party.

The overall distribution of the nine request strategy types also demonstrated noticeable differences (<Table 3>). The alphabets from A to F refer to the possible combination of two factors, social distance and dominance, as shown in <Table 1>. In addition, the numbers from 1 to 9 refer to the request strategy types presented in <Table 2>.

<Table 3> Request Strategy Types by Korean English L2 Learners vs. Native English Speakers

		1 ^o	2 ^o	3 ^o	4 ^o	5 ^o	6 ^o	7 ^o	8 ^o	9 ^o
Korean English L2 Learners ^o	A ^o	91 ^o	0 ^o	0 ^o	12 ^o	3 ^o	2 ^o	29 ^o	45 ^o	1 ^o
	B ^o	71 ^o	0 ^o	0 ^o	21 ^o	0 ^o	0 ^o	69 ^o	6 ^o	0 ^o
	C ^o	25 ^o	0 ^o	3 ^o	0 ^o	2 ^o	4 ^o	99 ^o	48 ^o	0 ^o
	D ^o	2 ^o	0 ^o	1 ^o	0 ^o	5 ^o	101 ^o	46 ^o	5 ^o	0 ^o
	E ^o	25 ^o	0 ^o	0 ^o	3 ^o	22 ^o	20 ^o	92 ^o	61 ^o	0 ^o
	F ^o	31 ^o	0 ^o	25 ^o	0 ^o	2 ^o	0 ^o	93 ^o	37 ^o	1 ^o
Native English Speakers ^o	A ^o	14 ^o	0 ^o	14 ^o	5 ^o	0 ^o	0 ^o	6 ^o	11 ^o	0 ^o
	B ^o	19 ^o	5 ^o	0 ^o	15 ^o	0 ^o	0 ^o	9 ^o	4 ^o	0 ^o
	C ^o	7 ^o	0 ^o	6 ^o	0 ^o	0 ^o	0 ^o	39 ^o	14 ^o	1 ^o
	D ^o	0 ^o	0 ^o	0 ^o	0 ^o	0 ^o	7 ^o	41 ^o	19 ^o	0 ^o
	E ^o	4 ^o	0 ^o	0 ^o	0 ^o	0 ^o	3 ^o	28 ^o	16 ^o	0 ^o
	F ^o	0 ^o	0 ^o	5 ^o	4 ^o	0 ^o	0 ^o	25 ^o	15 ^o	2 ^o

Subsequently, in order to look into the request strategy type distributional patterns of each group more closely under the standardized norm, these data were transformed into standard score, or z-score. Both of the figures in <Figure 1> depicts the usages of each request strategy type in accordance with contextual variation. While left one shows the distributional patterns of Korean English L2 learners, right one displays that of native speakers of English.



<Figure 1> Request Strategy Type Distribution (Korean English L1 Learners vs. Native Speakers of English)

Notably, the general patterns of request strategy type distribution in both groups looked similar with a heavy focus on 7. Reference to preparatory conditions. However, there were several points that were worth to be

mentioned. First, in informal and speaker-oriented context (A), both groups used 1. Mood derivable and 8. Strong hints frequently. However, only native speakers of English group utilized 3. Hedged performative like *I was (just) wondering if you could pay back \$50 I lent you*. Although performative got mitigated due to the hedge expression, 3. Hedged performative was still in the category of the most direct and explicit level of request strategy type. And since the given context was “informal and speaker-oriented,” the use of this direct and explicit strategy seemed quite reasonable. The fact that none of the Korean English L2 learners used this request strategy type showed that they perceived “hedged performative” as “hedge itself,” rather than “hedged ‘performative.’”

Second, Korean English L2 learners made use of 1. Mood derivable far more frequently than native English speakers in informal and speaker-and-hearer-equal context. Furthermore, the usage of 1. Mood derivable was limited to question #8. John asks his roommate, James, to clean up the living room which James left in a mess yesterday. Although the other questions (question #1 and question #13²⁾) were all based upon the relationship in between “friends,” Korean English L2 learners did not use 1. Mood derivable at all. The reason seemed to lie on the situation instead of the relationship. Unlike question #1 and #13 which the speaker asked something to the hearer, question #8 was more like blaming upon the hearer’s behavior (*James, clean up the living room*). In other words, question #1 and #13 entailed the speaker’s responsibility in some degree, whereas question #8 was free from that responsibility. Korean English L2 speakers’ perceptions on this situational differences might have influenced the overuse of 1. Mood derivable only in question #8.

Third, most distinctively, 6. Language specific suggestory formula was utilized still more often by Korean English L2 learners than by native English speakers in formal and speaker-and-hearer-equal context. Furthermore, the number of the tokens in this category far outnumbered the other categories in Korean English L2 learners’ request strategy types distribution (N=101). This was very contradictory to the fact that native English speakers used 7. Reference to preparatory condition the most frequently. The biggest difference

2) Question #1: Linda forgets to bring her pencil. She asks to borrow a pencil from her classmate, John.
Question #13: Michael asks his classmate, Hannah, to help him with his mathematics homework.

between category #6 and #7 was the inclusion/exclusion of the speaker. That is, the Korean group focused on the concept of “we” or “together” when they requested the hearer to have a cup of coffee (question #4), to develop a lesson plan (question #9), or to prepare the presentation (question #16). However, the English group paid more attention to “the other party” who they were asking for something. That was why the latter did not come up with sentences like *How about developing a lesson plan together?* or *Why don't we have a cup of coffee?*

Fourth, in informal hearer-oriented context, only Korean English L2 speakers used 5. Scope stating. No native speaker of English asked a favor to the hearer by using an expression of “I want.” In contrast, Korean English L2 learners produced sentences such as *I want you to take me to Wendy's* or *I want to buy a new cloth for the party*. Considering that the hearer had power to decide to take an action or not in the given contexts, this speaker-oriented “I want” expression seemed quite inappropriate. It seemed that the Korean group focused more on “informality” rather than hearer-orientation. Interestingly enough, all the given contexts were based upon the family relationship: son-father (question #3), daughter-mother (question # 14), and younger sister-older sister (question # 17), and Korean English L2 learners seemed to interpret these contexts “very comfortable ones” which they could express what they thought relatively freely.

Finally, it was very noticeable that native English speakers did not use 1. Mood derivable at all in formal hearer-oriented context, while Korean English L2 learners came up with quite amount of sentences that fell into this category. And this 1. Mood derivable was used mostly in question #10. A photographer asks Angelina Jolie to stare at his camera. Although it was classified into formal situation owing to far social distance between the photographer and the actress, Korean English learners used the most direct and explicit level of request strategy type. This was probably because they interpreted the contextual cue “on the red carpet” very seriously and pictured the typical image of it crowded with many photographers. It seemed that they thought “urgency” came first over to social distance or speaker-hearer-orientation. Thus, *Hey, Angelina, look at this camera!* or *Jolie! Smile for the camera!* were understandable answers to question # 10.

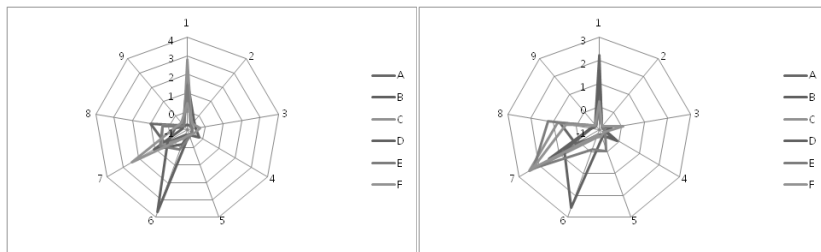
4.2. L1 Pragmatic Transferability

Then, where are these cross-cultural differences come from? Notably, Korean English L2 learners' L1 can offer a great deal of explanations upon this issue. In order to compare their English request strategy types with Korean ones, 994 Korean request sentences were analyzed and categorized into 9 types grounded in the contextual differences. Like in English request sentences, most of the questions were answered with more than one sentence. However, the total number of the elicited sentences in Korean request strategy types was less than that of English request strategy types, and the average rate of sentences produced in Korean (M=20.7, sd=28.9) was also smaller than that in English (M=23.7, sd=30.1). The overall distributions of English request strategy types versus Korean request strategy types are shown in the following table.

<Table 4> English Request Strategy Types vs. Korean Request Strategy Types

		1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9
English Request	A	91	0	0	12	3	2	29	45	1
	B	71	0	0	21	0	0	69	6	0
	C	25	0	3	0	2	4	99	48	0
	D	28	0	10	0	5	101	46	5	0
	E	25	0	0	3	22	20	92	61	0
	F	31	0	25	0	2	0	93	37	1
Korean Request	A	72	2	0	0	0	0	32	49	1
	B	70	10	6	14	0	15	51	0	0
	C	102	3	0	0	0	5	38	31	0
	D	0	0	0	0	0	127	27	11	0
	E	62	0	0	0	3	24	41	30	0
	F	34	5	12	3	0	4	92	12	6

Additionally, these data were changed into z-score so as to investigate the distributional differences in English and Korean request strategy types statistically. As in Figure 1 which describes the usages of each request strategy type in line with contextual variation, <Figure 2> demonstrates English and Korean request strategy types produced by Korean English L2 learners.



<Figure 2> Request Strategy Type Distribution (English vs. Korean)

Even though the overall patterns of English and Korean request strategy types looked somewhat different except the serious weight on 6, Korean English L2 learners' L1 pragmatic usages shed light upon their difference from native English speakers. First, unlike the English group that used 3. Hedged performative, the Korean group did not use it at all in informal speaker-oriented context. Korean English L2 learners seemed to perceive the given contexts³⁾ as direct and explicit ones which did not generate the use of mitigation devices such as hedge. Interestingly enough, this was also the case of their L1 pragmatic usages. Korean English L2 learners did not produce any sentence that fell into the category of 3. Hedged performative in terms of Korean request strategy types. This proved that their perceptions on English request strategy types with an emphasis on the "performative" function were in line with their perceptions on Korean request strategy types. And since they acquired their L1 first, their choices of not using hedge in the given context seemed to be dependant upon their L1 pragmatics.

Second, in informal speaker-and-hearer-equal context, the Korean group made use of 1. Mood derivable far more than the English group especially only in question #8 possibly because of the lack of responsibility of the speaker in the given context. Notably, 1. Mood derivable was far often used in Korean request pragmatics with a very conspicuous number of tokens (N=102) than in English request pragmatics, but the usages were not only restricted to question #8. For instance, Korean English L2 learners produced expressions like *Con, na yenphil com pillyecwe.*⁴⁾ (*John, lend me a pencil.*) or *Ho.yel.a, na*

3) Question #6: Cathy made her room messy. Her mother asks Cathy to clean up her room.

Question #11: Matt's older brother asks Matt to return his MP3 player.

Question #15: Erin lent \$50 to her friend, Anne. Today, Erin calls Anne and asks her to pay back the money.

swuhakswukcey com towacwe. (Hoyel, help me with this mathematics homework) in question #1 and #13 respectively. However, more than 95% of 1. Mood derivable usages was from question #8 (i.e. *Kesil com chiwela. (James, clean up the living room)*), which supported a strong influence of pre-existing Korean pragmatics on English request strategy type usages.

Third, the critical overuse of request strategy type 6. Language specific suggestory formula in formal and speaker-and-hearer-equal context displayed a strong connection in between English pragmatics and Korean one. As shown in Figure 2, Korean English L2 learners used 6. Language specific suggestory formula as a main request strategy type in Korean as well as in English. They particularly used Korean expression “*kath.i (together)*” a lot when they made sentences for the given contexts (i.e. *Cinhuyssi, kath.i khephi han can halekapsita. (Jinhee, let’s have a cup of coffee together.) Isensayngnim, kyoan kath.i cwunpihanun key ettayyo?(Mr. Lee, why don’t we prepare the lesson plan together?)* or *Senghwunssi, phuleyceyntheyisyen kath.i cwunpihanun key ettayyo?(Sung-hoon, what about preparing the presentation together?)*). It supported the aforementioned interpretation that Korean English L2 learners focused on the concept of “us,” which seemed to have been affected by their L1 pragmatics.

Fourth, in terms of 5. Scope stating in informal hearer-oriented context, only Korean English L2 learners used it possibly because of the informality between the speaker and the hearer. In fact, this was the only category that did not show the close relationship between English pragmatic usages and Korean ones. Korean English L2 learners who used quite amount of 5. Scope stating in English request strategy types rarely used it in Korean request strategy types. This might work as a counter evidence for L2 pragmatic transferability that was supported by the previous cases. However, considering “authenticity” of the actual Korean discourse, this result was quite understandable. The Korean expression equivalent to English “I want~”⁵⁾ did not occur very often especially in a spoken discourse. Though the test was a written format, the questions were based upon spoken discourses that could occur in everyday conversations. Hence, the result should be interpreted as a reflection of the unique characteristic of Korean discourse rather than a counter evidence to L1

4) Korean romanization is based upon Yale Transcription.

5) [Nanun/Cenun]-hako siphsupnita/siph.e.yo/siphunteyyo.

pragmatic transferability.

Finally, the overuse of 1. Mood derivable in formal hearer-oriented context occurred only with Korean English L2 learners mainly because of question #10. It was remarkable that 1. Mood derivable in Korean request strategy types also showed up mostly in question #10 (i.e. *Payyongcwunssi, i khameylalul poseyyo!* (*Mr. Bae Yong-Joon, look at this camera!*)). Interestingly enough, the Korean expressions using this 1. Mood derivable were very natural, despite the formal hearer-oriented contextual cue. Therefore, it seemed reasonable Korean English L2 learners transferred their Korean request strategy type to their L2 pragmatics.

5. Conclusion

The present study delved into Korean English L2 learners' pragmatic usages with two research questions: (1) How are Korean English L2 learners' English request pragmatic strategies different from those of native speakers of English? (2) Are Korean English L2 learners dependent upon Korean (L1) pragmatic strategies when they produce English (L2) request sentences? Based upon Blum-Kulka, House, and Kasper's (1989) CCSARP framework, 48 Korean English L2 learners and 14 native speakers of English were tested with 18 English DCT items, and the former group was tested with 18 Korean DCT items as well. The results indicated that there were cross-cultural differences especially with DCT question #1, 3, 5, 6, and the origins of those differences could be counted on their L1 pragmatic usages.

Considering the fact that the Korean participants in this study were all advanced level of English learners, the present study can shed light upon the issue of L1 pragmatic transferability. From the considerable amount of elicited English sentences by Korean English L2 learners, it could be argued that L2 grammatical competence was the base for L2 pragmatic competence (Carrell and Konneker 1981; Cohen and Olshtain 1981; Blum-Kulka 1982; Maeshiba et al. 1996; Jalilifar 2009). Unless they had had a certain level of English grammatical competence, they would not have been able to produce as many sentences as native speakers of English. In addition, the traditional comparison between the Korean group and the English group confirmed the characteristics of interlanguage pragmatics (Kasper and Dahl 1991). Although the Korean participants were advanced level learners of English, they were still in the

process of developing their pragmatic competence heading toward the native speakers' of English one.

Meanwhile, the comparison between English request strategy types and Korean request strategy types, both produced by the Korean group, showed the influence of Korean onto their interlanguage pragmatic competence acquisition (Bardovi-Harlig 1999). Four out of five main cross-cultural pragmatic differences shared the request strategy types with their Korean equivalents. Thus, it might be suggested that L1 pragmatics can contribute to the acquisition of interlanguage pragmatics. This is not to say that L1 is the only source for L2 pragmatic development but to emphasize the role of L1 pragmatics which has long been underestimated with respect to L2 pragmatic acquisition and development. More studies are expected to deal with interlanguage pragmatics both in cross-cultural and acquisitional ways to provide us with a more balanced point of view onto this issue.

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2013년 7월 1일부터 8월 6일까지 심사위원이 심사하고

2013년 8월 7일 편집위원 회의에서 게재 결정된 것임.

Appendix 1
Discourse Completion Test (English)

1. *At the school*

Linda forgets to bring her pencil. She asks to borrow a pencil from her classmate, John.

Linda: _____

2. *On the street*

A policeman asks a driver to move her car.

Policeman: _____

3. *In the car*

Jack is hungry. He asks his father to take him to Wendy's for lunch.

Jack: _____

4. *At the office*

Kate wants to have a break. She asks her colleague, Susan, to have a cup of coffee with her.

Kate: _____

5. *In the classroom*

Brad could not finish his final paper. He asks his professor for an extension for finishing his final paper.

Brad: _____

6. *In Cathy's room*

Cathy made her room messy. Her mother asks Cathy to clean up her room.

Cathy's mother: _____

7. *In the conference room*

The mayor asks the guest speaker to finish his speech 15 minutes earlier.

The mayor: _____

8. *In the living room*

John asks his roommate, James, to clean up the living room which James left in a mess yesterday.

John: _____

9. *In a teacher's room*

Larry is an English teacher. He asks another teacher, Peter, to develop a lesson plan together.

Larry: _____

10. *On the red carpet*

A photographer asks Angelina Jolie to stare at his camera.

The Photographer: _____

11. *In Matt's room*

Matt's older brother asks Matt to return his MP3 player.

Matt's older brother: _____

12. *In the office*

A boss asks an employee to copy the document.

The boss: _____

13. *In the classroom*

Michael asks his classmate, Hannah, to help him with his mathematics homework.

Michael: _____

14. *At home*

Sarah is invited to Mary's birthday party. She asks her mother to buy her a new cloth for the party.

Sarah: _____

15. *On the phone*

Erin lent \$50 to her friend, Anne. Today, Erin calls Anne and asks her to pay back the money.

Erin: _____

16. *In the office*

Gerald asks his coworker, Bill, to prepare the presentation together.

Gerald: _____

17. *In Sharon's room*

Brenda lost her eraser. She asks to borrow an eraser from her older sister, Sharon.

Brenda: _____

18. *In the classroom*

A teacher asks a student to open the window.

The teacher: _____

Appendix 2
답화 완성 테스트 (Korean)

1. 교실에서
주희가 학교에 연필을 가지고 오는 것을 잊어버렸습니다. 주희는 같은 반 친구인 존에게 연필을 빌리려고 합니다.
주희: _____
2. 길가에서
경찰관이 한 운전자에게 그녀의 차를 옮겨달라고 말합니다.
경찰관: _____
3. 차 안에서
한규는 배가 고픈다. 한규는 아버지에게 점심을 먹으러 Wendy's에 가자고 합니다.
한규: _____
4. 사무실에서
소라는 쉬는 시간을 가지고 싶습니다. 소라는 동료인 진희에게 커피 한 잔 하러 가자고 합니다.
소라: _____
5. 교실에서
진형이는 기말과제를 끝마치지 못했습니다. 진형이는 교수님께 자신의 기말과제를 마칠 수 있도록 기간을 연장해 달라고 합니다.
진형: _____
6. 연경이의 방
연경이는 방을 엉망으로 만들었습니다. 연경이의 어머니께서 방을 보시더니, 연경이에게 방을 치우라고 말씀하십니다.
연경이 어머니: _____
7. 회의실에서
시장님께서 초청연사에게 연설을 15분 일찍 마쳐달라고 말씀하십니다.
시장님: _____
8. 거실에서
은혁이의 룸메이트인 동규는 어젯밤에 거실을 엉망으로 만들었습니다. 은혁이는 동규에게 거실을 치워달라고 말합니다.
은혁: _____
9. 교무실에서
김선생님은 같은 영어선생님인 이선생님에게 함께 교안을 작성하자고 말합니다.

- 김선생님: _____
10. 레드카펫 위에서
사진 기자가 배용준에게 자신의 카메라를 보아달라고 말합니다.
사진 기자: _____
11. 태성이의 방에서
태성이의 형이 태성이의 방에와서 빌려주었던 MP3를 돌려달라고 말합니다.
태성이 형: _____
12. 직장 상사가 부하직원에서 문서를 복사하라고 말합니다.
상사: _____
13. 두진은 같은 반 친구인 호열이에게 수학숙제를 도와달라고 부탁드립니다.
두진: _____
14. 영미는 유선이의 생일파티에 초대받았습니다. 영미는 어머니께 파티에
입고 갈 새 옷을 사달라고 말합니다.
영미: _____
15. 수진은 현정이에게 5만원을 빌려줬습니다. 수진은 현정이에게 전
화를 해서 5만원을 갚으라고 말합니다.
수진: _____
16. 준현이는 직장동료인 성훈이에게 프레젠테이션을 같이 준비하자고 말
합니다.
준현: _____
17. 윤서는 지우개를 잃어버렸습니다. 윤서는 언니 진서에게 지우개를 빌
려달라고 말합니다.
윤서: _____
18. 선생님이 한 학생에게 창문을 열라고 말합니다.
선생님: _____