SpringerBriefs in Education

Yuqi Wang

L2 Pragmatic Competence in Chinese EFL Routines

Springer

SpringerBriefs in Education

We are delighted to announce SpringerBriefs in Education, an innovative product type that combines elements of both journals and books. Briefs present concise summaries of cutting-edge research and practical applications in education. Featuring compact volumes of 50 to 125 pages, the SpringerBriefs in Education allow authors to present their ideas and readers to absorb them with a minimal time investment. Briefs are published as part of Springer's eBook Collection. In addition, Briefs are available for individual print and electronic purchase.

SpringerBriefs in Education cover a broad range of educational fields such as: Science Education, Higher Education, Educational Psychology, Assessment & Evaluation, Language Education, Mathematics Education, Educational Technology, Medical Education and Educational Policy.

SpringerBriefs typically offer an outlet for:

- An introduction to a (sub)field in education summarizing and giving an overview of theories, issues, core concepts and/or key literature in a particular field
- A timely report of state-of-the art analytical techniques and instruments in the field of educational research
- A presentation of core educational concepts
- An overview of a testing and evaluation method
- A snapshot of a hot or emerging topic or policy change
- An in-depth case study
- A literature review
- A report/review study of a survey
- An elaborated thesis

Both solicited and unsolicited manuscripts are considered for publication in the SpringerBriefs in Education series. Potential authors are warmly invited to complete and submit the Briefs Author Proposal form. All projects will be submitted to editorial review by editorial advisors.

SpringerBriefs are characterized by expedited production schedules with the aim for publication 8 to 12 weeks after acceptance and fast, global electronic dissemination through our online platform SpringerLink. The standard concise author contracts guarantee that:

- an individual ISBN is assigned to each manuscript
- each manuscript is copyrighted in the name of the author
- the author retains the right to post the pre-publication version on his/her website or that of his/her institution

Yuqi Wang

L2 Pragmatic Competence in Chinese EFL Routines

Springer

Yuqi Wang
School of Foreign Languages
Beihang University
Beijing, China

ISSN 2211-1921 ISSN 2211-193X (electronic)
SpringerBriefs in Education
ISBN 978-981-19-6351-3 ISBN 978-981-19-6352-0 (eBook)
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-19-6352-0

This Springer imprint is published by the registered company Springer Nature Singapore Pte Ltd.
The registered company address is: 152 Beach Road, #21-01/04 Gateway East, Singapore 189721, Singapore

Preface

Routine is a basic component of L2 pragmatic competence constructs, and pragmatic competence of routines is one of the hot issues within L2 pragmatics. The interaction of Prior Context (PC) and Actual Situational Context (ASC) knowledge from the socio-cognitive approach is conceived as pragmatic competence of routines in this study.

The purpose of this study is to investigate the influence of proficiency and study-abroad experience on various aspects of pragmatic competence of routines among Chinese English learners, including both productive and receptive pragmatic competence of routines, as well as learners' cognitive process. There are 143 participants in total, separated into three groups: low proficiency without study abroad experience ($n = 51$), high proficiency without study abroad experience ($n = 59$), and high proficiency with study abroad experience ($n = 33$). Computer-animated elicitation tasks were used to collect oral data. A pilot study with 41 native American speakers was first undertaken to establish the target responses as the benchmark, and multi-dimensional evaluation criteria were then used to assess all participants' pragmatic performances throughout each routine task.

This book follows a similar structure, and the outline is briefly organized below.

The research background description and rationale for the present study are mostly addressed in Chap. 1, followed by the establishment of research objectives and questions. In Chap. 2, the theoretical bases from various perspectives will be reviewed and presented in order to guide this study, including L2 pragmatics, acquisitional theories, and context knowledge theory from the socio-cognitive approach.

In Chap. 3, the relevant empirical literature is reviewed in chronological order, starting from studies focusing on the illustration of definition, distinguishing features, and categorization of routines both within SLA and L2 pragmatics, and then moving on to research on the interaction between English proficiency and study-abroad experience and L2 pragmatic competence of routines. The research methodology is thus addressed in Chap. 4, including participants, instrumentation, data collection methods and procedures, data analysis, as well as verification of inter-rater reliability and ethical issues.

Chap. 5 documents the findings of the overall study, focusing on responses to the research targets in four subsections: contextualized production (initiating and responding) and recognition, alongside decontextualized comprehension and perception. The findings of the trichotomy pattern-based investigation into routine competence will be discussed in Chap. 6, which will begin with the general trend in each task modality, followed by the effect of proficiency and study-abroad experience on each aspect of routine competence, and learners' specific performances. A retrospective review of learners' cognitive processes is also provided.

Chap. 7 ends with a recap of the preceding chapters' findings and a generalization of how the study addresses the research questions, and also discusses the implications and limitations as well as potential directions for future research.

Beijing, China Yuqi Wang

Contents

Chapter 1
Introduction

Abstract This chapter demonstrates the research background for the holistic study (Sect. 1.1), the rationale for the present study (Sect. 1.2), the research objectives that include detailed questions (Sect. 1.3), the significance encompassing both theoretical and practical perspectives (Sect. 1.4).

Keywords Background · Rationale · Objectives · Questions · Significance

1.1 Research Background

The present study is rooted on L2 pragmatic competence of routines (measured as the sum of ASC and PC knowledge), with a particular emphasis on the influence of two key factors (proficiency and study-abroad experience) on these two types of context knowledge. Routines are highly frequent, situationally bound chunks that assist L2 learners' pragmatic performance and have long been viewed as critical tools for L2 learners (Roever, 2012). Routines have received much attention in the field of SLA due to the generalization that many linguistic forms are formulaic in essence (e.g., Conklin & Schmitt, 2008; Jiang & Nekrasova, 2007; Nattinger & DeCarrico, 1992; Schmitt & Carter, 2004; Yorio, 1989). Furthermore, appropriate use of routines by L2 learners is a crucial component of their L2 pragmatic competence (Taguchi, 2013).

However, to date, "significantly less research exists on the learning of routine formulae" (Taguchi & Roever, 2017: 138). When it comes to L2 pragmatic competence of routines, the bulk of research focuses on routine production or pragmatic use of routines, which is currently restricted to one form of task modality, with few simultaneously exploring several types of task modalities. To be more precise, there is still a rising interest among L2 pragmatics researchers to investigate routine recognition (e.g., Roever, 2005, 2012; Roever et al., 2014), comprehension (Bardovi-Harlig, 2014; Taguchi, 2011), and production (e.g., Taguchi, 2013). Recent studies, however, are beginning to restore task modality imbalance with focusing on pragmatic perception of routines and learners' cognitive processes during task completion. (e.g., Bardovi-Harlig, 2009; Bardovi-Harlig & Bastos, 2011).

Further to that, the influencing variables are primarily related to L2 proficiency and study-abroad experiences, but the combination of both variables is relatively scarce

Y. Wang, *L2 Pragmatic Competence in Chinese EFL Routines*,
SpringerBriefs in Education, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-19-6352-0_1

(e.g., Roever, 2012; Taguchi, 2011, 2013). Likewise, theoretical foundations are primarily concerned with pragmatics and second language acquisition, with particular reference to the socio-cognitive approach (Kecskes, 2013, 2015; Kecskes et al., 2018). Additionally, while written or oral discourse completion test (DCT) continues to be the main assessment instrument, it is rare to investigate learners' pragmatic competence of routines utilizing the emerging technology of computer-animated elicitation task. Simultaneously, the appropriateness of routines is exclusively evaluated using the method of holistic scoring, but diverse context information required by various kinds of routine tasks is not processed and evaluated at differentiated levels. Finally, many studies concerning pragmatic competence of routines are undertaken among European or Japanese L2 learners, but few on Chinese learners of English, which require further research and reinforced in this direction.

1.2 Rationale of the Study

The present study aims to address the above-mentioned gaps in the L2 pragmatic literature on routines from many perspectives. To commence, the present study incorporates both quantitative and qualitative research methods "to respond to the call of employing a combination of different research methodologies" (see Ren, 2015: 4). It also aims to add to the empirical findings in the field of L2 pragmatics research by conducting a snapshot-design investigation into the routine performances among Chinese learners of English, which is not limited to learners who take either Japanese or Western languages as their L1 language.

Furthermore, the study attempts to address the scarcity of newly created, computer-animated technologies in pragmatic elicitation tasks, reducing the degree of prompt coaching and increasing authenticity. Moreover, it is intended to investigate both productive and receptive pragmatic competence by a large number of learners in multiple groups at the same time, rather than concentrating strictly on one or two types of routine tasks, in order to shed light on their holistic pragmatic performance across diverse routine task modalities.

Finally, it contributes to L2 pragmatics research from a socio-cognitive perspective by emphasizing pragmatic competence routines as the integration of PC and ASC knowledge and employing multi-dimensional evaluation system rather than the holistic scoring commonly used in earlier L2 pragmatics research.

1.3 Research Objectives and Questions

The study employs a socio-cognitive approach to evaluate the impact of English proficiency and study-abroad experiences on the pragmatic competence of routines among Chinese English learners. To determine learners' overall pragmatic competence of routines, the sum of their prior context (PC) knowledge and actual situational context (ASC) knowledge is examined. Above all, the study compares pragmatic competence of routines among 110 Chinese at-home learners (51 lower-level vs. 59 higher-level) to that of 33 Chinese EFL students with a given length of studying abroad. Besides that, the investigation focuses on both productive and receptive pragmatic competence of routines, consisting of five different task modalities, that is, contextualized production (with initiating and responding utterances involved) and recognition, decontextualized comprehension and perception, as well as the cognitive processes of learners via the retrospective review. With the aforementioned themes in mind, the following research questions are intended to be addressed:

(1) To what extent do proficiency and study-abroad experience influence productive pragmatic competence of routines among Chinese learners of English?
(2) To what extent do proficiency and study-abroad experience affect receptive pragmatic competence of routines among Chinese learners of English?
(3) What are the cognitive processes involved in different routine task modalities among Chinese learners of English?

1.4 Significance of the Study

In practice, our study intends to fill a void in the literature on Chinese learners of English at home and abroad as a whole. Methodologically, quantitative viewpoints can be addressed in this research. Concerning this area, all five targeted sections (pragmatic production, recognition, comprehension, perception, and cognitive process) should be properly evaluated, since they are comparatively rare in previous routine literature and can comprehensively indicate learners' command degree of pragmatic routines. It may therefore be demonstrated if and how proficiency and study-abroad experience seem to have significant impacts on participants' pragmatic competence of routines across each task modality in comparison to earlier studies that only consisted of one or two components.

Technologically, the implementation of a computer-animated tool in conjunction with WJX (an online questionnaire distribution tool, www.wjx.cn) is first being attempted to check Chinese EFL learners' pragmatic performance of routines, ensuring that all verbal responses collected approach naturally-occurring data while avoiding prompt coaching to a large extent. Unlike conventional holistic scoring, the multi-layered evaluation criteria can contribute significantly to the study of learners' pragmatic competence of routines, including but not limited to determining the exclusive appropriateness of target linguistic forms. Aside from quantitative analyses,

qualitative methodologies must also be assessed for their pragmatic competence of routines. Undoubtedly, discourse analysis is essentially required in the present study to investigate the underlying reasons for variations in learners' performances of pragmatic routines. Furthermore, we attempt to extract and summarize a model for pragmatic competence of routines for Chinese EFL learners from multi-dimensional perspectives, including individual, social, cultural and relevant methods or paths. This can have a closer look at the deeper mechanism behind learners' minds and set a relatively systematic model for further explorations. More crucially, it is rather advantageous to incorporate Kecskes' socio-cognitive approach into our study in terms of broadening the theoretical scope and the interplay of multi-dimensional theories into research on routines within L2 pragmatics.

References

Bardovi-Harlig, K. (2009). Conventional expressions as a pragmalinguistic resource: Recognition and production of conventional expressions in L2 pragmatics. *Language Learning, 59*, 755–795.

Bardovi-Harlig, K. (2014). Awareness of meaning of conventional expressions in second-language pragmatics. *Language Awareness, 23*(1–2), 41–56.

Bardovi-Harlig, K., & Bastos, M. T. (2011). Proficiency, length of stay, and intensity of interaction and the acquisition of conventional expressions in L2 pragmatics. *Intercultural Pragmatics, 8*, 347–384.

Conklin, K., & Schmitt, N. (2008). Formulaic sequences: Are they processed more quickly than nonformulaic language by native and nonnative speakers? *Applied Linguistics, 29*, 72–89.

Jiang, N., & Nekrasova, T. M. (2007). The processing of formulaic sequences by second language speakers. *Modern Language Journal, 91*(3), 433–445.

Kecskes, I. (2013). *Intercultural pragmatics.* Oxford University Press.

Kecskes, I. (2015). How does pragmatic competence develop in bilinguals? *International Journal of Multilingualism, 12*(4), 419–434.

Kecskes, I., Obdalova, O., Minakova, L., & Soboleva, A. (2018). A study of the perception of situation-bound utterances as culture-specific pragmatic units by Russian learners of English. *System, 76*, 219–232.

Nattinger, J., & DeCarrico, J. (1992). *Lexical phrases and language teaching.* Oxford University Press.

Ren, W. (2015). *L2 pragmatic development in study abroad contexts.* Peter Lang.

Roever, C. (2005). *Testing ESL pragmatics: Development and validation of a web-based assessment battery*. Peter Lang.

Roever, C. (2012). What learners get for free: Learning of routine formulae in ESL and EFL environments. *ELT Journal, 66*, 10–21.

Roever, C., Fraser, C., & Elder, C. (2014). *Testing ESL sociopragmatics: Development and validation of a web-based test battery*. Peter Lang.

Schmitt, N., & Carter, R. (2004). Formulaic sequences in action. In N. Schmitt (Ed.), *Formulaic sequences: Acquisition, processing and use* (pp. 1–22). Benjamins.

Taguchi, N. (2011). The effect of L2 proficiency and study-abroad experience in pragmatic comprehension. *Language Learning, 61*, 904–939.

Taguchi, N. (2013). Production of routines in L2 English: Effect of proficiency and study-abroad experience. *System, 41*, 109–121.
Taguchi, N., & Roever, C. (2017). *Second language pragmatics*. Oxford University Press.
Yorio, C. (1989). Idiomaticity as an indicator of second language proficiency. In K. Hyltenstam & L. K. Obler (Eds.), *Bilingualism across the lifespan* (pp. 55–72). Cambridge University Press.

Chapter 2
Literature Review

Abstract This chapter is divided into two sections: the first is a general overview of routines in Sect. 2.1, which includes the leading terms, definitions, and classifications in various research fields, and the relevant literature is primarily reviewed in Sect. 2.2 based on different research variables.

Keywords Routines · Terms · Definitions · Classifications · Literature review

2.1 A General Picture of Routines

2.1.1 Definitions and Shared Features of Routines

The definitions of routines are divided into two categories: those obtained from the SLA literature and those derived from L2 pragmatics. Routines, for example, "have received much attention recently in the field of SLA due to the recognition that many linguistic forms are formulaic in nature" (Taguchi, 2013: 109). In Fig. 2.1, 57 different terminological descriptions from the early literature, such as prefabricated routines (Hakuta, 1974), formulae (Coulmas, 1981), phrasal chunks (De Cock, 1998), and formulaic sequences (Schmitt, 2004), have been widely studied and comprehensively depicted. Formulaic sequence, as the dominant term in SLA literature, was commonly defined as "a sequence, continuous or discontinuous, of words or other elements, which is, or appears to be, prefabricated: that is, stored and retrieved whole from memory at the time of use, rather than being subject to generation or analysis by the language grammar" (Wray, 2002: 9).

Routines are also well known for its richness of terminologies within L2 pragmatics (Bardovi-Harlig, 2019), with the dominant labels including conventional expressions (Bardovi-Harlig, 2009, 2014), formula (Bardovi-Harlig, 2012), routine (Bardovi-Harlig, 2019; Roever, 2005, 2012; Taguchi, 2013), and situation-bound utterances (SBUs, Kecskes, 2000a, 2003, 2015; Kecskes et al., 2018). Specifically, conventional expressions in L2 pragmatics, for example, emphasized the social aspect of use, that is, a speech community's preference for a particular string in a particular context (see Bardovi-Harlig, 2009; Bardovi-Harlig & Bastos, 2011). In the field of interlanguage pragmatics, the formula comprised of two major fundamental parts:

Y. Wang, *L2 Pragmatic Competence in Chinese EFL Routines*,
SpringerBriefs in Education, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-19-6352-0_2

Fig. 2.1 Terms used to describe aspects of formulaicity (Wray, 2002: 19)

amalgams – automatic – chunks – clichés – co-ordinate constructions – collocations – complex lexemes – composites – conventionalized forms – F[ixed] E[xpressions] including I[dioms] – fixed expressions – formulaic language – formulaic speech – formulas/formulae – fossilized forms – frozen metaphors – frozen phrases – gambits – gestalt – holistic – holophrases – idiomatic – idioms – irregular – lexical simplex – lexical(ized) phrases – lexicalized sentence stems – listemes – multiword items/units – multiword lexical phenomena – noncompositional – noncomputational – nonproductive – nonpropositional – petrifications – phrasemes – praxons – preassembled speech – precoded conventionalized routines – prefabricated routines and patterns – ready-made expressions – ready-made utterances – recurring utterances – rote – routine formulae – schemata – semipreconstructed phrases that constitute single choices – sentence builders – set phrases – stable and familiar expressions with specialized subsenses – stereotyped phrases – stereotypes – stock utterances – synthetic – unanalyzed chunks of speech – unanalyzed multiword chunks – units

acquisitional and social formulas. SBUs are defined as "highly conventionalized, prefabricated pragmatic units whose occurrence is tied to standardized communicative situations" (Kecskes, 2000a: 606) from a socio-cognitive pragmatic perspective. SBUs had radically distinct functional connotations, compared to their compositional equivalents. The pragmatic functions were not stored in or inferred from these literal linguistic units, necessitating the reception of their situational charge, which was further seen as the prominent characteristic of SBUs. As a result, when learning such expressions, the target information of the L2-dominant norms was crucial, because "SBUs are functional units whose meaning can be explained only as functions of habitual usage" (Kecskes, 2000a: 607).

A large number of terminologies from various domains did not share the same features in all circumstances. Nonetheless, they shared a certain ubiquitous nature, as outlined by Taguchi (2013) and Taguchi and Roever (2017), that is, (1) multiword sequences; (2) fixed syntactic strings with slots for flexibility in usage; (3) phonologically coherent (articulated without hesitation); (4) syntactically irregular; (5) community-wide in use; (6) attached to regular speech events.

In the present study, routines are defined as "those sequences that are used frequently by speakers in certain prescribed social situations" (Bardovi-Harlig, 2009: 757) and are further indicative of recurring utterances whose presence is intimately connected to specific contexts and communication purposes (Bardovi-Harlig, 2012, 2019). Routines can also "convey the illocutionary force of a communicative act based on tacit agreements on their form, meaning, and use in a speech community" (Taguchi & Roever, 2017: 222). Routines are widely available in daily communication as the prevalent linguistic forms in the target community, further supporting our optimal involvement with social pragmatic norms.

Indeed, pragmatic competence is strongly associated with the use of routines due to its distinguishing trait of group identity. Simultaneously, pragmatic competence can be defined in language use in a variety of ways, including lexical selection, small

talk, and formulaic language, to name a few, where routines serve as "one of the main reflections of pragmatic competence" (Kecskes, 2015: 429), are the sole focus of the present study.

2.1.2 *Classification of Routines*

When it comes to pragmatic routine classification, three grouping standards can be used, as shown below: (1) the syntactic structure; (2) the pragmatic function; and (3) the formulaic continuity.

In the SLA domain, some labels incorporate fixed expressions (e.g., *Here you go*), whilst others relate to semi-fixed elements such as slot-and-frame patterns or syntactic strings (i.e., "I was wondering if + {object clause}"). Routines can be divided into two categories throughout the L2 pragmatics literature (Roever, 2005, 2012): situational routines, which specifically denoted these fixed expressions tied to specific situations (e.g., *For here or to go?*) and functional routines, which are generally not situation-bound (i.e., *Do you have the time?*). The socio-cognitive approach (SCA) places routines on a formulaic continuum, with formulaicity rising from left to right. Because of their obligatoriness and predictability in social contexts, SBUs obtain the top two formulaic positions because their usage is significantly impacted by the situation (Kecskes, 2000a, 2000b).

According to Kecskes' (2013) formulaic continuum, the routines in the present study eventually consist of three subcomponents (see the red circle in Fig. 2.2): situation-bound utterances (e.g., *I'm just browsing* and *Thanks for having me*), speech formulas (e.g., *That works for me*), and phrasal verbs (e.g., *I'm looking for*…).

It is worth noting that differing categorization standards will make expressions overlap with each other. For example, the fixed phrase *No problem* can be thought of as either situational routines or SBU. Similarly, the phrasal verb *I'm looking for*… was classified as both a semi-fixed expression and a functional routine. The rest of the elements in the continuum not listed are eliminated from the scope of this study since they cannot convey illocutionary forces or may not be linked to specific communicative functions. As a result, routines, as a covering terminology in this study, include both fixed (e.g., *Nice to meet you*) and semi-fixed expressions (e.g., *I'm searching for…*) syntactically, encapsulating both functional (e.g., *Do you have the time?*) and situational routines (e.g., *For here or to go?*).

Routines are essential in L2-driven learning since they foster socialization int1o target-like social norms and "provide low-level learners with a quick repertoire of

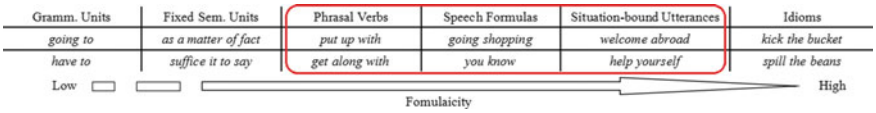

Fig. 2.2 Formulaic continuum (Kecskes, 2013)

target language resources, allowing them to outperform their competence" (Roever et al., 2014: 382). Routines, in contrast to other major elements of the pragmatic construct (Roever, 2011), emerge rather infrequently in L2 pragmatics research. As a result, the following section focuses primarily on a comprehensive review of L2 pragmatic competence of routines.

2.2 Development of L2 Pragmatic Competence of Routines

A revived interest in empirical explorations of routine made the early twenty-first century as a dividing line. Scarcella (1979) was the first to perform a production study using a DCT task with a specific focus on routines in the pragmatics domain. Nattinger and DeCarrico (1992), on the other hand, pursued a conventional research route in terms of non-empirical modality. The active investigation into routines within L2 pragmatics (e.g., Bardovi-Harlig, 2006, 2008, 2010a, 2010b, 2012, 2014, 2016, 2018, 2019; Barron, 2003; Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1986; House 1996; Kasper & Blum-Kulka, 1993; Kecskes, 2000a, 2003, 2007, 2010, 2013, 2015; Kecskes et al., 2018; Scarcella, 1979) "parallels interest in formulas in SLA (i.e., Nattinger & DeCarrico, 1992; Schmidt, 1983; Schmitt & Carter, 2004; Yorio, 1989) more generally, with early studies in the 1970s" (see Bardovi-Harlig, 2009: 757) and a second peak in the recent decades. The common trait deduced from the L2 pragmatics literature is the underuse of routines in particular. Influencing variables like as L2 proficiency, learning environment (at home or abroad), duration of abroad residence, and intensity of interaction have all been proposed to have a dominant role in the acquisition of pragmatic routines (Bardovi-Harlig, 2019).

As a result, this cross-sectional design draws on full-dimensional modalities of pragmatic competence of routines (dependent variables), with English proficiency and study-abroad experience alongside their interaction addressed as independent factors. The literature will be reviewed in order to discover the relationship between each contributing element and L2 pragmatic competence of routines.

2.2.1 Proficiency and Pragmatic Competence of Routines

A comprehensive view of L2 pragmatic studies compared learners' performances on specific pragmatic targets across different proficiency levels using standardized exams or grade levels (e.g., Félix-Brasdefer, 2003, 2007; Rose, 2000; Roever, 2005; Taguchi, 2007, 2009, see Taguchi, 2011b for review). Within the L2 pragmatic discipline, cross-sectional studies have been dedicated to investigating the influence of proficiency in production (e.g., Félix-Brasdefer, 2007), comprehension (e.g., Taguchi, 2008a, 2008b, 2009a), or pragmatic control of processing (Taguchi, 2007). These studies contributed to the contradictory generalizations that higher-level proficiency learners either develop stronger mastery of pragmatic knowledge or do not

consistently achieve more native-like L2 pragmatic norms. These findings follow exactly the same pattern as their equivalents in earlier SLA work.

Within L2 pragmatics, proficiency is the most frequently examined variable (Bardovi-Harlig & Bastos, 2011). A wide range of previously reported studies have yielded mixed conclusions to the fundamental question of the effect of proficiency in L2 pragmatic routines. Previous research has clearly demonstrated a positive association between L2 proficiency and pragmatic practices. In Bardovi-Harlig (2009)'s study of 122 L2 English learners, for example, a mixed-task evaluation of routine recognition combined with a production test (oral DCT) was conducted. Both task outcomes improved dramatically from the lowest to the second-lowest level, illustrating the enormous influence of proficiency, but, surprisingly, routine recognition stagnated.

Production, on the other hand, continued to rise at a moderate rate. Furthermore, learners had worse performances in production of routines than recognition of routines. In particular, two routine expressions in service encounter contexts, *I'm looking for…* (acceptance of salesperson's offer of help) and *I'm just looking around/browsing* (rejection of salesperson's offer of help), are highly identifiable to non-native speakers yet do not produce much. These findings support the notion that various kinds of abilities are necessary for recognizing and producing constitutionally-acceptable routines (Taguchi & Roever, 2017).

Furthermore, studies from Chinese researchers indicating a positive link between L2 proficiency and pragmatic competence of routines corroborate this. Through a multiple-choice discourse completion test, Liu and Huang (2012) explored whether various proficiency levels demonstrated differential pragmatic competence based on routines and other pragmatic targets. Language proficiency was represented by three groups of English learners at various levels. The results revealed that there was a substantial difference between various level groups in terms of routine performance. Li and Bin (2014) used DCTs to conduct a mixed-modality examination into both pragmatic production and recognition of English routines among Chinese EFL learners. The data was collected from 281 English majors at a university in Guangdong Province, China. The findings confirmed that as their proficiency level increased, so did their overall routine competence. It is worth noting, however, that the two modalities (production vs. recognition) did not share the same developmental pattern, as productive pragmatic competence of routines improved greatly while recognition equivalents stagnated. Following the trends in determining the effect of this most widely researched variable, Wang (2020) completed a parallel experiment designed to investigate the effect of English proficiency on pragmatic competence of routines among 227 non-English major participants from different Chinese universities. Instead of routine recognition, the results revealed that English proficiency had a stronger influence on productive competence of routines and their overall pragmatic competence of routines.

Indeed, "the impact of proficiency seems to be more limited for routine formulae" (Roever et al., 2014: 382). Roever (2005, 2012) and Bardovi-Harlig and Bastos (2011) discovered comparable findings that supported the aforementioned generalizations. In Roever's (2005) study, no significant difference was found between

lower-proficiency groups. According to Roever (2012), routine knowledge was still not subject to proficiency and that the effect of abroad residence had outstanding precedence over proficiency. Similarly, Bardovi-Harlig and Bastos (2011) observed that proficiency had no dramatically favorable influence on routine recognition.

The preceding section provided a summary of the role of proficiency in L2 pragmatic routines by exhibiting distinct aspects of proficiency levels, both positive and negative correlation, and various types of pragmatic practices within different levels of L2 proficiency.

2.2.2 Study-Abroad Experience and Pragmatic Competence of Routines

By far, the study-abroad context has yielded "the most empirical findings in pragmatics" (Taguchi, 2018: 127), reflected as two different strands (productive vs. receptive modality and cross-sectional vs. longitudinal design) within L2 pragmatic research. Numerous research examined L2 individuals' performances of different pragmatic aspects from two distinct lines using study-abroad context as exposure to input or a category label (in contrast to at-home context). One approach is to examine the unique feature of study-abroad context in L2 pragmatic development using a single participant group (i.e., Barron, 2003, 2006, 2007; Kinginger, 2008; Schauer, 2004; Xu et al., 2009, see Taguchi, 2011b for review) or both groups (e.g., Ren, 2015; Schauer, 2006, 2008, 2009). With a few exceptions (i.e., Félix-Brasdefer & Hasler-Barker, 2015; Taguchi, 2008a, 2008b), a cross-sectional snapshot approach was adopted by contrasting learners with study-abroad experience and their comparison group in a domestically and formally instructional setting (e.g., Bardovi-Harlig & Dörnyei, 1998; Félix-Brasdefer, 2007; Niezgoda & Roever, 2001; Roever, 2005; Schauer, 2006; Taguchi, 2011b).

Another strand gleaned from these study-abroad explorations rests in the modality: pragmatic production (e.g., Barron, 2003; Schauer, 2004, 2008, 2009), comprehension or perception (i.e., Bardovi-Harlig, 2014; Roever, 2005; Taguchi, 2008b), or both under limited discussion (e.g., Bardovi-Harlig, 2009). These vastly disparate outcomes were represented in the facilitative and superior role over the at-home environment, as well as the uneven and non-linear effect, which was mediated in part by individual, contextual, and interactional variables. Previous cross-sectional and longitudinal research have provided and identified such generalizations about the study-abroad effect.

This section looks at the study-abroad context as a category term and a potential component in routine competence. Previous research has proposed and addressed the fundamental premise of whether study-abroad experience is useful for L2 pragmatic competence of routines, leaving relatively unclear and contradictory evidence in the realm of L2 routine research, as will be demonstrated below.

Above all, the study-abroad setting has a beneficially superior influence on routines. The fact that learners with overseas residency outperform their non-resident counterparts makes intuitive sense given the significant links between routine expressions, social behaviors, and target conventions. Interview data demonstrated that the improvement of competency in utilizing routines while overseas was significantly connected to the learners' qualified participation in the local community (Dörnyei et al., 2004). This might imply that routine learning is mostly determined by cultural assimilation and social networking. Pragmatic recognition of routines is more reliant on recurrent iterations of routines and less on proficiency, where duration of residence abroad has been a tremendously crucial factor. Roever (2012), for instance, conducted a systematic receptive knowledge evaluation with a total of 262 ESL and EFL learners. He discovered that learners who spent only two months in the host community had more formulaic knowledge. A lengthy duration of residence (12–24 months) resulted in a more widespread enhancement of formulas knowledge during recognizing routine items. It was also observed that not all routines could be acquired in the same way, in line with Bardovi-Harlig (2009). The vast majority of EFL learners with no residency were familiar with such items (*Hello* on the phone and *Nice to meet you* for first-time encounters). Other routine expressions, on the other hand, need more time for acquisition and solid development.

Furthermore, previous research has shown that routine comprehension is highly susceptible to study-abroad experiences, although there may be no substantial connection with L2 proficiency. This is due to the pervasiveness of routines, which are used throughout the community and are tied to ordinary speech events. In terms of pragmatic comprehension, few studies to date have directly compared study-abroad and at-home groups of participants (Taguchi, 2011b). His study further supported the study-abroad advantage, wherein 25 native English speakers and a total of 64 Japanese English learners in three groups with varying proficiency levels and study-abroad experience completed a pragmatic listening assessment. It was found that EFL learners who had studied overseas outperformed their counterparts without abroad experience on routine comprehension, demonstrating that study-abroad experience was useful particularly for EFL learners when interpreting routines.

In contrast, counter-evidence revealed that study-abroad context, as a disputable variable, did not always guarantee completely unambiguous pragmatic advantages in comprehension or production of routines. Frequent interactions in the host society may be inadequate for non-native speakers to shift "sociopragmatic norms and conventions concerning appropriateness developed through L1" (Kecskes, 2015: 421). This may be linked to a variety of characteristics including person characteristics (such as agency, willingness, and motivation), context, and interactional environment. Furthermore, "length of study is often confounded with proficiency" (Bardovi-Harlig, 2019: 52) due to a lack of authentic input or inadequate commitment in target study-abroad activities (Halenko, 2018). Kecskes (2000b), for example, tested the capacity of 33 native speakers and 88 non-native speakers to comprehend and produce routines (i.e., *get out of here* or *piece of cake*) in one experiment. This study included three types of written tasks that all respondents in the current task were required to complete: (1) two discourse completion tasks, (2)

a problem-solving test, and (3) a dialog interpretation task. The findings demonstrated that the learners' ability to comprehend the figurative/functional meaning of situation-bound utterances was impaired. They, on the other hand, mainly relied on the literal/compositional meaning of routines. Even learners who had spent more than two years abroad in the local community had a restricted selection of preferred native-like expressions. This may lead the author to conclude that more exposure or duration of residence abroad in the actual abroad community does not guarantee target-like production of routines. To be more specific, despite obtaining a sufficient degree of grammatical and linguistic proficiency, international visiting students sometimes fail to correctly formulate conventional speech acts (Halenko & Jones, 2011). According to Bardovi-Harlig and Bastos (2011), the length of stay, measured in months, had no effect on production of routines.

2.2.3 Interaction of Proficiency and Study-Abroad Experience and Pragmatic Competence of Routines

A large body of research literature that has investigated the combined effect of proficiency and study-abroad experience combined on L2 pragmatic competence (e.g., Bardovi-Harlig & Bastos, 2011; Félix-Brasdefer, 2003, 2007; Geyer, 2007; Roever, 2005; Taguchi, 2011a, 2011b, 2013; Wang, 2022; Wang & Ren, 2022), which is still limited in the literature of L2 pragmatics (Ren, 2022; Taguchi & Roever, 2017). Proficiency bridged the gap between exposure and pragmatic advantages (Taguchi, 2018). According to previous study on L2 pragmatic routines, "development in learners' recognition and production ability for routines is non-linear and related to both exposure and proficiency" (Taguchi & Roever, 2017: 159). However, research on L2 pragmatic routines that has evaluated and analyzed the influence of both components combined on routine competence is still scarce (Bardovi-Harlig & Bastos, 2011; Taguchi, 2011b), providing enough potential for follow-up, in-depth analyses of L2 pragmatic routines. The investigations listed below found inconsistent results regarding the influence of proficiency and study-abroad setting on L2 routine competence.

There is ample evidence that it is the combination of proficiency and study-abroad environment, rather than study-abroad experience alone, that will make a significant contribution to routine production. Taguchi's (2011b) cross-sectional study used a spoken DCT to investigate the impact of general proficiency and study-abroad experience on L2 pragmatic comprehension. Taguchi's (2013) research featured the same participant group but different modalities. It challenged participants to respond to a succession of contextual scenarios in the production task using native-like routine expressions. The combined variable provides substantial pragmatic advantages for high-proficiency participants with a given duration of study-abroad experience outperforming their low-level, no-residence peers, according to the results. On the contrary, study-abroad experience alone does not contribute to native-like

routine production, as indicated by the fact that equal-level groups with and without study-abroad experience received identical ratings.

In addition, 229 ESL and EFL learners took a web-based pragmatics test with 12 items in Roever et al.'s (2014) Poisson regression study. Rather than examine background factors separately and weigh their relative impact on the dependent variables (i.e., recognition of routines), this study was to analyze the effect of several independent variables (e.g., proficiency and length of residence). It was discovered that proficiency was a surprisingly dominant predictor for routine recognition, while the length of residence was a smaller but noticeable predictor for recognition of routines.

Furthermore, Roever (2005) investigated routine comprehension using a 12-item written assignment that entailed inferring meaning from context. He further classified routines into two types: situational routines (fixed expressions tied to specific situations, *For here or to go*) and functional routines (*Do you have the time*). The remarkable impact of study-abroad experience on routine comprehension was discovered, since temporary residence abroad results in striking gains in routine knowledge, and a longer duration contributes to greater improvement. On the contrary, proficiency had no influence, since the lower-proficiency groups did not vary from one another.

In this context, Bardovi-Harlig and Bastos (2011) investigated the combined impacts of proficiency and duration of stay on L2 English learners' competence of identifying and producing routines in a US university. ESL learner levels varied from low-intermediate to low-advanced in four categories. The length of stay had little influence on routine recognition or production, suggesting that simply being abroad does not guarantee a substantial impact on L2 routine competence. Instead of tangible residence in the target language community as a simple catch-all factor, this repeated-measures logistic regression model demonstrated that intensity of interaction ("degree of engagement with the target language" or "the quality of social contact while abroad") accounted most profoundly for pragmatic gains in recognition and production of routines. Proficiency, on the other hand, is even more important in routine production through a spoken DCT. However, in terms of student performance, as measured by the self-reported recognition task, where respondents stated the frequency of the target expressions they had heard, it is not necessarily a distinct advantage.

Elucidating the issue of learner background factors, Taguchi (2013) and Taguchi et al. (2013) both offered support to the positive and constructive linkage between study-abroad experience and routine competence, with another variable initial-level formulaic competence remaining clearly at play. The previous production study included three groups of Japanese English learners and validated the weaker role of proficiency levels. Furthermore, when developing routines using a DCT task, the higher-proficiency group with study-abroad experience consistently outperformed the lower-proficiency group without such experience on productive appropriateness. However, the higher proficiency group without abroad experience did not outperform the lower proficiency group on appropriateness, indicating that exposure is more significant than proficiency with routines. Overall, the "two-variable" study found

that study-abroad experience mediated impacts of proficiency to give maximum pragmatic advances in routine production.

2.3 Summary

From the standpoint of influencing variables, a larger assessment of relevant research on learners' routine competence has been demonstrated. The evidence provided here demonstrates several critical gaps in L2 pragmatic competence of routines that should be promptly filled.

Instrumentally, previous research in L2 pragmatics has been inclined to utilize an oral DCT for naturally occurring data elicitation or collection, although this instrument still raises some suspicions. The computer-animated elicitation task can provide fairly realistic settings in the form of short movies with prompts, providing a one-turn authentic speaker (machine)-hearer (human) interaction that can avoid being "uncoached" (Kecskes, 2013: 114) to a larger extent. Unsurprisingly, the clear assessment criterion is essential for data analysis; nevertheless, earlier research tended to utilize holistic scoring and focused on appropriateness or correctness.

The present study, on the other side, developed an explicit rating band corresponding to formulaic production, derived from Bardovi-Harlig's (2019) elaboration, which was further divided into two fundamental constructions, namely "mastery degree of actual situational context" and "mastery degree of prior contexts". Despite the general agreement that L2 pragmatic competence includes both productive and receptive skills (Ren, 2015), only a few cross-sectional studies have assessed both abilities across three participant groups at the same time.

To the best of our knowledge, L2 pragmatics literature existed primarily in learners' productive pragmatic competence. "Only a few studies investigate learners' receptive pragmatic competence" (Ren, 2018: 126), and even fewer explore both elements (Ren & Li, 2018) alongside the cognitive processes throughout each routine task. Until yet, limited research has investigated how multiple factors interact in determining L2 pragmatic competence of routines across different proficiency groups with or without study abroad experience, as well as in treating abroad residence as learning contexts (see Ren, 2018; Roever et al., 2014 for an exceptional attempt).

Prior research has examined participants "with a European language or Japanese as their first language" (Ren, 2015: 4), but less attention has been paid to Chinese learners of English from the socio-cognitive approach, particularly in terms of prior and actual situational context knowledge. While existing studies have shed light on routine comprehension in L2 pragmatics, the limitations mentioned above reveal that with this domain, there are only a small number of studies that extend their paradigm to the notion of context knowledge into L2 pragmatic routines. Many concerns remain unresolved concerning the process of prior and actual situational context knowledge in meaning inference and usage of routine expressions.

Additionally, it has been discovered that longitudinal design might find more intricate development process of routines. However, "only a few cross-sectional studies

have explored the effect of study abroad in the L2 community on learners' pragmatic production" (Ren, 2018: 122) and other task modalities to date. In fact, while cross-sectional approaches do not allow for direct observations of developmental patterns of learners' pragmatic competence, they do provide insight into development by identifying variations across different sections (Kasper & Rose, 2002). Furthermore, cross-sectional studies may more readily evaluate students who study abroad for a longer period of time at the same time.

With respect to the investigative variables, "the impact of proficiency is less pronounced for routine formulae while not absent" (Taguchi & Roever, 2017: 175). Although the relationship between intercultural competence, pragmatic competence, and social contact is plausible, the connection has not been fully attested in the present literature and thus remains an agenda for future research (Taguchi & Roever, 2017).

Ultimately, far more literature is more skewed towards contrastive differences in routine performances between native speakers and bilingual learners (e.g., Bardovi-Harlig, 2001; Kasper & Rose, 2002), with the use or production of routines being the dominant area (Bardovi-Harlig, 2009), despite the fact that native-speaker norms are harshly criticized. In truth, when it comes to defining pragmatic competence, it is widely acknowledged that "the monolingual native speaker norm, which echoes SLA research from the early 1970s, needs to be viewed with a great deal of caution" (Taguchi & Roever, 2017: 21). Simultaneously, native-speaker norms (also known as preferred ways of saying things, see Pawley & Syder, 1983), an index of pragmatic competence of routines, still play a significant role in determining appropriate production or use of routines, as routines serve as "the heart and soul to make language use native-like" (Kecskes, 2015: 429).

With the aforementioned themes in mind, this study seeks to fill the gaps in the previous literature and address the following research questions:

(1) To what extent do proficiency and study-abroad experience influence productive pragmatic competence of routines among Chinese learners of English?
(2) To what extent do proficiency and study-abroad experience affect receptive pragmatic competence of routines among Chinese learners of English?
(3) What are learners' cognitive processes when completion of productive and receptive pragmatic routine tasks?

References

Bardovi-Harlig, K. (2001). Evaluating the empirical evidence: Grounds for instruction in pragmatics? In K. Rose & G. Kasper (Eds.), *Pragmatics in language teaching* (pp. 13–32). Cambridge University Press.

Bardovi-Harlig, K. (2006). On the role of formulas in the acquisition of L2 pragmatics. *Pragmatics and Language Learning, 11*, 1–28.

Bardovi-Harlig, K. (2008). Recognition and production of formulas in L2 pragmatics. In Z.-H. Han (Ed.), *Understanding second language process* (pp. 205–222). Multilingual Matters.

Bardovi-Harlig, K. (2009). Conventional expressions as a pragmalinguistic resource: Recognition and production of conventional expressions in L2 pragmatics. *Language Learning, 59*, 755–795.
Bardovi-Harlig, K. (2010a). Exploring the pragmatics of interlanguage pragmatics: Definition by design. In A. Trosborg (Ed.), *Handbook of pragmatics: Pragmatics across languages and cultures* (pp. 219–259). Mouton de Gruyter.
Bardovi-Harlig, K. (2010b). Recognition of conventional expressions in L2 pragmatics. *Pragmatics and Language Learning, 12*, 141–162.
Bardovi-Harlig, K. (2012). Formulas, routines, and conventional expressions in pragmatics research. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics, 32*, 206–227.
Bardovi-Harlig, K. (2014). Awareness of meaning of conventional expressions in second-language pragmatics. *Language Awareness, 23*(1–2), 41–56.
Bardovi-Harlig, K. (2016). How formulaic is pragmatics? *Pragmatics and Language Learning, 14*, 325–340.
Bardovi-Harlig, K. (2018). Matching modality in L2 pragmatics research design. *System, 75*, 13–22.
Bardovi-Harlig, K. (2019). Routines in L2 pragmatics research. In N. Taguchi (Ed.), *Handbook of SLA and pragmatics* (pp. 47–62). Routledge.
Bardovi-Harlig, K., & Bastos, M. T. (2011). Proficiency, length of stay, and intensity of interaction and the acquisition of conventional expressions in L2 pragmatics. *Intercultural Pragmatics, 8*, 347–384.
Bardovi-Harlig, K., & Dörnyei, Z. (1998). Do language learners recognise pragmatic violations? Pragmatic versus grammatical awareness in instructed L2 learning. *TESOL Quarterly, 32*, 233–259.
Barron, A. (2003). *Acquisition in interlanguage pragmatics. Learning how to do things with words in a study abroad context*. John Benjamins.
Barron, A. (2006). Learning to say "you" in German: The acquisition of sociolinguistic competence in a study abroad context. In M. A. Dufon & E. Churchill (Eds.), *Language learners in study abroad contexts* (pp. 59–88). Multilingual Matters.
Barron, A. (2007). "Ah no honestly we're okay": Learning to upgrade in a study abroad context. *Intercultural Pragmatics, 4*, 129–166.
Blum-Kulka, S., & Olshtain, E. (1986). Too many words: Length of utterance and pragmatic failure. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 8*, 165–180.
Coulmas, F. (1981). *Conventional routine: Exploration in standardized communication situations and prepatterned speech*. Mouton.
De Cock, S. (1998). A recurrent word combination approach to the study of formulae in the speech of native and non-native speakers of English. *International Journal of Corpus Linguistics, 3*, 59–88.
Dörnyei, Z., Durow, V., & Zahran, K. (2004). Individual differences and their effects on formulaic sequence acquisition. In N. Schmitt (Ed.), *Formulaic sequences* (pp. 87–106). John Benjamins.
Félix-Brasdefer, J. C. (2003). Declining an invitation: A cross-cultural study of pragmatic strategies in American English and Latin American Spanish. *Multilingua, 22*, 225–255.
Félix-Brasdefer, J. C. (2007). Pragmatic development in the Spanish as a FL classroom: A cross-sectional study of learner requests. *Intercultural Pragmatics, 4*(2), 253–286.
Félix-Brasdefer, J. C., & Hasler-Barker, M. (2015). Complimenting in Spanish in a short-term study abroad context. In E. Alcón Soler & L. Yates (Eds.), Pragmatic learning across contexts. Special issue. *System*, *48*, 75–85.
Geyer, N. (2007). Self-qualification in L2 Japanese: An interface of pragmatic, grammatical, and discourse competences. *Language Learning, 57*(3), 337–367.
Hakuta, K. (1974). Prefabricated patterns and the emergence of structure in second language acquisition. *Language Learning, 24*, 287–298.
Halenko, N. (2018). Using computer-assisted language learning (CALL) tools to enhance output practice. In C. Jones (Ed.), *Practice in second language learning* (pp. 137–163). Cambridge University Press.

House, J. (1996). Developing pragmatic fluency in English as a foreign language: Routines and metapragmatic awareness. Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 18, 225-252. (check Query response)

Halenko, N., & Jones, C. (2011). Teaching pragmatic awareness of spoken requests to Chinese EAP learners in the UK: Is explicit instruction effective? *System, 39*(2), 240–250.

Kasper, G., & Blum-Kulka, S. (1993). *Interlanguage pragmatics.* Oxford University Press.

Kasper, G., & Rose, K. (2002). *Pragmatic development in a second language.* Blackwell.

Kecskes, I. (2000a). A cognitive-pragmatic approach to situation-bound utterances. *Journal of Pragmatics, 32*(6), 605–625.

Kecskes, I. (2000b). Conceptual fluency and the use of situation-bound utterances. *Links & Letters, 7*, 145–161.

Kecskes, I. (2003). *Situation-bound utterances in L1 and L2.* Mouton de Gruyter.

Kecskes, I. (2007). Formulaic language in English Lingua Franca. In I. Kecskes & L. Horn (Eds.), *Explorations in pragmatics: Linguistic, cognitive and intercultural aspects* (pp. 191–219). Mouton de Gruyter.

Kecskes, I. (2010). Dual and multilanguage systems. *International Journal of Multilingualism, 7*(2), 91–109.

Kecskes, I. (2013). *Intercultural pragmatics.* Oxford University Press.

Kecskes, I. (2015). How does pragmatic competence develop in bilinguals? *International Journal of Multilingualism, 12*(4), 419–434.

Kecskes, I., Obdalova, O., Minakova, L., & Soboleva, A. (2018). A study of the perception of situation-bound utterances as culture-specific pragmatic units by Russian learners of English. *System, 76*, 219–232.

Kinginger, C. (2008). Language learning in study abroad: Case studies of Americans in France. *Modern Language Journal, 92*, Supplement S1.

Li, Q., & Bin, K. (2014). Development of English pragmatics of Chinese EFL learners: Recognition and production of English routines. *Foreign Language World, 6*, 11–20.

Liu, J., & Huang, W. (2012). Chinese EFL learners' English proficiency and their pragmatic competence development. *Foreign Languages in China, 1*, 64–70.

Nattinger, J., & DeCarrico, J. (1992). *Lexical phrases and language teaching.* Oxford University Press.

Niezgoda, K., & Roever, C. (2001). Pragmatic and grammatical awareness: A function of the learning environment? In K. Rose & G. Kasper (Eds.), *Pragmatics in language teaching* (pp. 63–79). Cambridge University Press.

Pawley, A., & Syder, F. (1983). Two puzzles for linguistic theory: Native-like selection and native-like fluency. In J. Richards & R. Schmidt (Eds.), *Language and communication* (pp. 191–226). Longman.

Ren, W. (2015). *L2 pragmatic development in study abroad contexts.* Peter Lang.

Ren, W. (2018). Developing L2 pragmatic competence in study abroad contexts. In C. Sanz (Ed.), *The Routledge handbook of study abroad research and practice* (pp. 119–133). Routledge.

Ren, W. (2022). *Second language pragmatics.* Cambridge University Press.

Ren, W., & Li, S. (2018). Research focuses and trends in L2 pragmatic acquisition. *Foreign Language Education, 4*, 18–23.

Roever, C. (2005). *Testing ESL pragmatics: Development and validation of a web-based assessment battery*. Peter Lang.

Roever, C. (2011). Testing of second language pragmatics: Past and future. *Language Testing, 28*(4), 463–481.

Roever, C. (2012). What learners get for free: Learning of routine formulae in ESL and EFL environments. *ELT Journal, 66*, 10–21.

Roever, C., Fraser, C., & Elder, C. (2014). *Testing ESL sociopragmatics: Development and validation of a web-based test battery*. Peter Lang.

Rose, K. (2000). An exploratory cross-sectional study of interlanguage pragmatic development. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 22*, 27–67.

Schauer, G. A. (2004). May you speak louder maybe? *EUROSLA Yearbook, 4*, 253–273.
Schauer, G. A. (2006). Pragmatic awareness in ESL and EFL contexts: Contrast and development. *Language Learning, 56*(2), 269–318.
Schauer, G. A. (2008). Getting better in getting what you want: Language learners' pragmatic development in requests during study abroad sojourns. In M. Putz & J. Neff-van Aertselaer (Eds.), *Developing contrastive pragmatics: Interlanguage and cross-cultural perspectives* (pp. 399–426). Mouton de Gruyter.
Schauer, G. A. (2009). *Interlanguage pragmatic development: The study abroad context*. Continuum.
Scarcella, R. (1979). On speaking politely in a second language. In C. A. Yorio, K. Perkins, & J. Schachter (Eds.), *On TESOL'79* (pp. 275–287). TESOL.
Schmitt, N. (2004). *Formulaic sequences.* John Benjamins.
Schmitt, N., & Carter, R. (2004). Formulaic sequences in action. In N. Schmitt (Ed.), *Formulaic sequences: Acquisition, processing and use* (pp. 1–22). Benjamins.
Schmidt, R. (1983). Interaction, acculturation, and the acquisition of communicative competence: A case study of an adult. In N. Wolfson & E. Judd (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics and language acquisition* (pp. 137–174). Newbury House.
Taguchi, N. (2007). Task difficulty in oral speech act production. *Applied Linguistics, 28*, 113–135.
Taguchi, N. (2008a). Pragmatic comprehension in Japanese as a foreign language. *Modern Language Journal, 92*, 558–576.
Taguchi, N. (2008b). The role of learning environment in the development of pragmatic comprehension: A comparison of gains between EFL and ESL learners. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 30*, 423–452.
Taguchi, N. (2009). Comprehension of indirect opinions and refusals in L2 Japanese. In N. Taguchi (Ed.), *Pragmatic competence* (pp. 249–274). Mouton de Gruyter.
Taguchi, N. (2011a). Do proficiency and study-abroad experience affect speech act production? Analysis of appropriateness, accuracy, and fluency. *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching, 49*(4), 265–293.
Taguchi, N. (2011b). The effect of L2 proficiency and study-abroad experience in pragmatic comprehension. *Language Learning, 61*, 904–939.
Taguchi, N. (2013). Production of routines in L2 English: Effect of proficiency and study-abroad experience. *System, 41*, 109–121.
Taguchi, N. (2018). Contexts and pragmatics learning: Problems and opportunities of the study abroad research. *Language Teaching, 51*(1), 124–137.
Taguchi, N., & Roever, C. (2017). *Second language pragmatics.* Oxford University Press.
Taguchi, N., Li, S., & Xiao, F. (2013). Production of formulaic expressions in L2 Chinese: A developmental investigation in a study abroad context. *Chinese as a Second Language Research, 2*, 23–58.
Wang, Y. (2020). The effect of English proficiency and gender on Chinese EFL learners' pragmatic competence of routines. *Linguistic Research, 2*, 169–183.
Wang, Y. (2022). The role of prior and actual situational context in conversational routines produced by Chinese learners of English. *Pragmatics & Society, 13*(4), 587–606.
Wang, Y., & Ren, W. (2022). The effects of proficiency and study-abroad on Chinese EFL learners' refusals. *The Language Learning Journal*. 1–16.
Wray, A. (2002). *Formulaic Language and the Lexicon.* Cambridge University Press.
Xu, W., Case, R. E., & Wang, Y. (2009). Pragmatic and grammatical competence, length of residence, and overall L2 proficiency. *System, 37*, 205–216.
Yorio, C. (1989). Idiomaticity as an indicator of second language proficiency. In K. Hyltenstam & L. K. Obler (Eds.), *Bilingualism across the lifespan* (pp. 55–72). Cambridge University Press.

Chapter 3
Theoretical Foundation

Abstract Within the domain of L2 pragmatics, investigations are often conducted to address a research topic, which then refers to existing theories. The theoretical underpinning for pragmatic competence of routines will be reviewed in this chapter from many angles, including L2 pragmatics, second language acquisition (SLA), and the socio-cognitive approach.

Keywords Pragmatic competence · Routines · Second language acquisition · The socio-cognitive approach

3.1 Second Language Pragmatics

3.1.1 L2 Pragmatics

Selinker (1972) defined the terminology "interlanguage" as a standard SLA term, referring to "the systematic knowledge of an L2, independent of both these learners' L1 and the target language" (Ellis, 2013: 968). Interlanguage pragmatics, a covered interface term synonymous with "second language (L2) pragmatics", primarily refers to "a later-learned language both in a naturalistic environment and instructional settings" (Taguchi & Roever, 2017: 27). It is classified as a branch of SLA by Kasper and Dahl (1991: 216) because it focuses on non-native speakers' "comprehension and production of speech acts, and how their L2-related speech act knowledge is acquired". It is under the purview of pragmatics and SLA. Kasper and Schmidt (1996: 150) defined it as the "study of the development and use of strategies for linguistic action by non-native speakers". Then, Kasper and Rose (2002) developed a dual-aspect model that included research on L2 use (the way non-native learners produce and comprehend in the host environment) and L2 learning (the development of productive and comprehensive abilities in the L2 community). According to Bardovi-Harlig (2010), interlanguage pragmatics applies acquisition research to this blend of structure and use.

To conclude, the fundamental focus of L2 pragmatics is now on two levels: "L2 learners' knowledge and use of language in social interaction" (Taguchi & Roever,

Y. Wang, *L2 Pragmatic Competence in Chinese EFL Routines*,
SpringerBriefs in Education, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-19-6352-0_3

2017: 18), which provided a solid theoretical basis to develop the model for L2 pragmatic competence of routines in the present study.

3.1.2 L2 Pragmatic Competence

Pragmatic competence is widely defined as "the ability to use language effectively in order to achieve a specific purpose and to understand language in context" (Thomas, 1983: 92), with three aspects: (1) "knowledge of linguistic forms and their functional meanings"; (2) "sociocultural knowledge"; and (3) "the ability to use these knowledge bases to create a communicative act in interaction" (Taguchi, 2018: 126). The emphasis of this study, pragmatic knowledge, has been broadly described as "accurate and appropriate comprehension and production of pragmatic meaning" (Taguchi & Roever, 2017: 225).

According to Leech (1983, 2014) and Thomas (1983), L2 pragmatic competence can be further subdivided into two major subsections: sociopragmatic competence and pragmalinguistic competence. Based on Kasper and Roever's (2005: 317–318) definitions, pragmalinguistic competence consists of "the knowledge and ability for use of conventions of means and conventions of form", whereas sociopragmatic competence is defined as "knowledge of the relationships between communicative action and power, social distance, and the imposition associated with a past or future event, knowledge of mutual rights and obligations, taboos, and conversational practices". Both sides of L2 pragmatic competence are strongly intertwined and "pragmalinguistic meanings need to be mapped onto sociopragmatic values to enable culturally appropriate pragmatic performance" (Taguchi & Roever, 2017: 282).

L2 pragmatic competence generally consisted of "both productive pragmatic competence and receptive pragmatic competence" (Ren, 2015: 20) from the standpoint of L2 pragmatic task modality. Productive pragmatic competence is defined as the ability to vary one's language uses appropriately according to the context to achieve a specific purpose (Ishihara, 2006), whereas receptive pragmatic competence includes pragmatic comprehension and pragmatic perception (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001). Specifically, pragmatic comprehension is defined as the ability to interpret meaning as intended (Schauer, 2009), whilst pragmatic perception is described as the ability to discern the appropriateness of utterances in a given situation (Tada, 2005).

A holistic "construct of L2 pragmatics for measurement" (see Roever, 2011: 472–473 for details) includes the production and comprehension of "monologic: extended monolog", "dialogic: participation in interaction", and "routine formulae", as well as comprehension of "implicature" When related to L2 pragmatic competence of routines, productive pragmatic competence of routines is primarily divided into two major categories: 1) competence in initiating and responding to utterances, indicating the capability to launch and react to (the interlocutor's) utterances using routines in various communication circumstances;

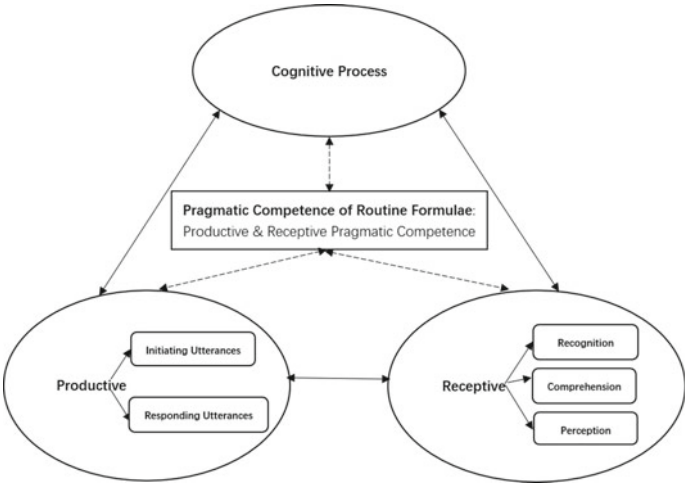

Fig. 3.1 Model for pragmatic competence of routines

Receptive pragmatic competence of routines is separated into three main parts: (1) routine recognition denotes the ability to select the most appropriate routine expression to meet and satisfy the requirement of contextual information inherent in designated communicative scenarios; (2) routine comprehension entails both the capacity to detect meanings and the ability to illumine their precise functional usage conditions that cannot be inferred from context or utterance individually (slightly updated and different from Taguchi's, 2013 denotation); (3) perception of routines is newly operationalized as two interrelated aspects: a. pragmatic awareness of routines; and b. distinguishing the nuances of use conditions in specific actual situational contexts in two paired routines expressions with close meaning or similar syntactic structure (also appreciably modulated and adapting from Ren's (2015) and Bardovi-Harlig (2014)'s survey to pragmatic awareness).

In a nutshell, it can be firmly concluded that the model for "pragmatic competence of routines" in this study, as indicated in Fig. 3.1, is equivalents to the sum of productive (including initialing and responding) and receptive (recognition, comprehension, and perception) pragmatic competence of routines, as well as learners' cognitive processes when completing diverse task modalities. This model is also considered the foundation of task-oriented pragmatic competence evaluations in this study.

3.1.3 Speech Act Theory

Austin (1962), a British philosopher, proposed the speech act theory, which was later expanded by Searle (1969, 1975, 1976). Above all, the constative and performative

are differentiated. According to the new pattern, "the uttering of the sentence is, or is a part of, the doing of an action" and comprises three types of acts at the same time: locutionary act, illocutionary act, and perlocutionary act. The locutionary force is defined as "the utterance of certain noises [the phonetic act], the utterance of certain words in a certain construction [the phatic act], and the utterance of them with certain meaning in the philosophical sense of that word, i.e., with a certain sense and with a certain reference [the rhetic act]" (Austin, 1962: 94), and represents the literal meaning of an utterance itself. Furthermore, this act cannot be considered verbal communication. The illocutionary force, defined as "asking or answering a question, giving some information or an assurance or a meaning" (Austin, 1962: 98), refers to the force or intents behind the literal words, such as warning. A locutionary act contains an illocutionary act. The perlocutionary force denotes "saying something will often, or even normally, produce certain consequential effects upon the feelings, thoughts, or actions of an utterance, or of the speaker, or of other persons" (Austin, 1962: 101), such as warning the listener with words. Furthermore, perlocutionary acts may not always occur, resulting in communication failure.

Searle, on the other hand, perceives it as a theory to explain human verbal communication, and he recognized a link between propositional content and illocutionary acts. Austin's proposed locutionary acts were similarly separated into two sections: Utterance act and propositional act. Austin (1969: 66–67) further classified the rules for enforcing speech acts into four conditions: Propositional content (proposition occurring alongside the act that the speaker is about to do), preparatory condition (both sides knowing the speaker does not generally do it), sincerity condition (the speaker subjectively hoping), and essential condition (the utterance making the speaker take responsibility).

Following Austin's taxonomy of speech acts, distinctions in speech acts are primarily evident in three areas: Illocutionary point, direction of fit, and expressed psychological state. Furthermore, Searle (1976, 1979) distinguished five separate illocutionary acts, which included representatives, directives, commissives, expressives, and declarations. Representatives have been instructed to "commit the speaker (in varying degrees) to something's being the case, to the truth of the expressed proposition" (Searle, 1976: 10) by assertion, statement, or guess. Directives are described as "attempts by the speaker to get the hearer to do something" (Searle, 1976: 11), and include requests, recommendations, orders, and demands. Commissives are acts that are to "to commit the speaker to some future course of action" (Searle, 1976: 11). Expressives, such as apologize, thank, regret, and congratulate, are used to "express the psychological state specified in the sincerity condition about a state of affairs specified in the propositional content" (Searle, 1976: 12). Declarations, such as name, declare, and appoint, allude to "the correspondence between the propositional content and reality" (Searle, 1976: 13).

Routines can be illocutionary acts such as expressives such as *I'm sorry I'm late*, or *Thanks for having me*, and so on. As a result, the speech act theory should primarily be employed to explicate the pragmatic competence of such routine expressions.

3.1.4 Indirectness

Language indirectness is closely connected to speech act theory and serves as the theoretical foundation for the study of L2 pragmatics (Jiang, 2013). According to He (2000), one common interpretation of indirectness is that it results from the contradiction between form and language function. The second argument for linguistic indirectness is the distinction between literal (compositional) and utterance (functional) meaning. Whereas the former focuses solely on the grammatical/syntactic form of the sentence and disregards the binding influence of context on utterance interpretation, the latter is more extensively employed than the former, which is also the theoretical focus of this present study.

When the literal and functional meanings of an utterance are incompatible, the use of language must be indirect. For one thing, conventional rhetorical tactics like irony (*a nice friend* may suggest a *bad* guy), exaggeration (having not seen someone *for ages*), and metaphor will result in the formation of indirectness. Furthermore, linguistic forms on certain occasions or idiomatic and or inferential theories might cause indirect phenomena of language. For example, on hearing *I'm tired*, if the speaker means to convey to the listener that his body is fatigued, then the use of this language is direct. Nevertheless, if the speaker's aim is more than just mentioning this information, such as asking for a massage or proposing that he stop working and go home, this type of usage might be called indirect.

When combined with the investigative tasks in this research, the indirectly idiomatic phenomena and the use of routines constitute possible barriers to the development of L2 pragmatic competence. In fact, it is difficult to explain how the listener might distinguish between these two meanings and interpret the meaning of the speaker's utterances from the literal meaning. For example, the lexical core *having* in *Thanks for having me* does not connote *possessing* but rather *inviting*, thereby making its compositional meaning lose its transparency due to the divergence from its functional meaning. As a result, if non-native speakers do not know the distinction between the two meanings ahead of time, their pragmatic performance will be directly hampered. In conclusion, the above explanations of indirectness (such as the idiomatic theory and inferential theory) offer a pragmatic theoretical perspective for developing learners' pragmatic competence.

3.2 Acquisitional Theories in L2 Pragmatics

3.2.1 The Two-Dimensional Model

The "two-dimensional model" (Bialystok, 1990, 1993) originally appeared in Kasper and Blum- Kulka's (1993) co-edited book as one of the cognitive theoretical methods to accounting for L2 pragmatics. Bialystok (1993: 48) distinguished two cognitive aspects of language processing: "analysis of knowledge" (denoting "the process

of making explicit or analyzing, a learner's implicit knowledge of a domain") and "control of processing" (referring to "the process of controlling attention to relevant and appropriate information and integrating those forms in real time"). The former refers to a person's capacity to utilize their linguistic resources, whereas the latter is concerned with cognitive representations of linguistic knowledge and how they evolve during language development. The latter, on the other hand, relates to learners' ability to process this kind of knowledge. It has been established that the knowledge and processing aspects are not intertwined.

This distinction also pertains to the acquisition of pragmatic knowledge (knowledge for appropriately performing target form-function-context mappings) and automatic control in pragmatic processing (fluency in accessing and processing such mappings). In terms of pragmatic knowledge, this model supports the assumption and mechanisms underlying adult pragmatic acquisition, namely that "for adult L2 learners who already possess rich representations of pragmatic knowledge in their L1, this process involves learning a new set of representations while controlling pre-existing pragmatic representations" (Taguchi & Roever, 2017: 50). Furthermore, pragmatic processing is not the focus of this present study, despite being an important component of L2 pragmatic competence.

The analytical process also includes three distinct levels of representation: conceptual representation, formal representation, and symbolic representation. "Language is organized only around the meanings it represents" (Bialystok, 1993: 49) throughout the conceptual representation process. Formal representations, which are analogous to "metalinguistic knowledge", are viewed as "explicit knowledge of language structure" (p. 49). In terms of symbolic representation, it is characterized as "an explicit accounting of the way in which language refers" (p. 49).

In accordance with L2 pragmatic competence, it is almost independent of formal representations but, to some extent, relies on symbolic representations. In essence, contextualized interpretation of meanings has strong links with relational representations, resulting in two major sections: linguistic forms and meanings conveyed by these forms in specific situations. Furthermore, contextual reminders and social considerations are required criteria for selecting the suitable form. Their mapping is based on mappings between form and social context rather than traditional semantic connections. As a result, according to Bialystok (1993), the difficulty for pragmatics is to build a reservoir of counterparts from which selections might occur. That is, "the richer the repertoire, the greater would be the pragmatic competence" (p. 51).

3.2.2 Skill-Acquisition Theories

The dichotomy between declarative and procedural knowledge is often reflected by skill-acquisition theories of language acquisition (Anderson, 1983), but its applicability to pragmatics has been limited (Taguchi & Roever, 2017).

Anderson's (1983, 1993) Adaptive Control of Thought Model and Anderson et al.'s (2004) Adaptive Control of Thought-Rational Model are skill acquisition

theories that rely on the basic differentiation between declarative and procedural knowledge. The former refers to knowledge of "facts we know", while the later refers to knowledge of "skills we know how to perform" (Anderson, 1983: viii). The former is cognizant and can be expressly verbalized or abruptly possessed in an all-or-nothing fashion. In contrast, the latter, which is partially possessed, is unconscious, with a progressive acquisition process.

The essential component of this declarative-to-procedural transitional mechanism, in which skill acquisition is gradually proceduralized from a controlled to an automated process, is extensive practice in using the L2. Practice, in turn, must be "skill-related" (Ellis, 2013: 480). The acquisition of skills occurs in three stages: declarative, associative, and autonomous (Anderson, 1993). The declarative stage, in which information is stored as facts in the absence of any existing activation methods, includes the implementation of rules, resulting in chunks of declarative knowledge. The associative stage follows, in which the informational rules are sorted and rehearsed through composition and progressive proceduralization. At this point, mistakes are likely to be observed. Continuous skill improvement can reach the point where procedures become increasingly fluent and automated in the final autonomous stage. Learners' minds continue to generalize and narrow down the domain-specific situations in which distinct production sets can be utilized. According to Anderson's observation, in spite of proceduralization via extensive practice, non-native or ELF learners can only reach the associative level before establishing full autonomy.

In terms of L2 pragmatic learning, form-function-context mappings and how they improve proceduralization have received much greater attention and are described by skill-acquisition theories. Traditional pragmatics defines initial declarative knowledge as "the knowledge of pragmalinguistic forms and their functional meanings, and contextual features associated with the form–function mappings" (Taguchi & Roever, 2017: 62). This mapping process may be defined as the automatic use of pragmalinguistic forms when a certain function must be accomplished. In contrast to the little mention of procedural knowledge, L2 pragmatics research has highlighted the only declarative feature of L2 pragmatic ability. The activation by substantially repeated practices results in a qualitative change and effective mapping of original declarative knowledge into automatized procedural knowledge, and is therefore regarded as an approach to building L2 pragmatic competence.

To conclude, pragmatic competence includes knowledge and processing elements that develop concurrently and draw on declarative (accuracy) and procedural (fluency) knowledge. As the primary focus of this study, pragmatic knowledge is typically represented by exact application into the form-function-context mapping, whereas pragmatic processing is represented by fluency in accessing the mapping, which is not included in this study. Furthermore, the difference between declarative and procedural from the SLA perspective differs significantly from the socio-cognitive approach, which is also used in the current study as described in Sect. 3.5.

3.2.3 *Language Socialization*

Language socialization is defined as "the practice by which novices in a community are socialized both to the language forms and, through language, to the values, behaviors, and practices of the community in which they live" (Schieffelin & Ochs, 1986) and by "taking on the appropriate beliefs, feelings and behaviors, and the role of language in this process" (Leung 2001: 2). Language socialization research, which is conceptually based in linguistic anthropology (e.g., Schieffelin & Ochs, 1986), claims that cultural knowledge and language knowledge are interdependent in the sense that they are learned together and support reciprocal growth throughout socialization (Ochs & Schieffelin, 1984).

To be more exact, L2 socialization consists of three primary dimensions: access and involvement in social activities, as well as affordances of learning contexts: 1) the acquisition of indexical information (represented by the interaction of language and culture), 2) the contingency and unpredictability of learning, and 3) the multi-directionality of socialization effects, all of which are particularly pertinent to L2 pragmatics learning (see the summary by Taguchi & Roever, 2017: 81). The indexical link between language and social meanings may be conveyed to L2 learners through repeated exposure and participation in daily intercultural communication with local residents. Furthermore, this approach is likely to produce both improved communicative behaviors and deviating consequences. The development of L2 learners' socialization will undoubtedly be aided by frequent interactions with proficient speakers in the host environment. Experts' viewpoints, on the other hand, might be impacted by the cultural values and practices that L2 learners bring to their prior experiences.

Language use in a given community is determined by conventions, norms, beliefs, and expectations, as well as understanding the preferred ways of saying things and formulating thoughts (Kecskes, 2007). Non-native speakers can only learn all of these cultural patterns through socialization with other competent local residents (see Kecskes, 2015). In the L2 pragmatics realm, learners can be socialized into using certain pragmalinguistic forms and their related sociopragmatic meanings through contact with members of the local community. Learners who have mastered the mappings between these forms and meanings are expected to become qualified members of the target speech community.

Pragmatic knowledge is based on the interdependence of linguistic and sociocultural knowledge, because L2 pragmatics includes "knowledge of linguistic forms and their social functions in context" (Taguchi & Roever, 2017: 81). On the one hand, it is explicitly transformed into pragmatic socialization by proficient membership of a particular speech community modeling, correcting, and supplying meta-pragmatic information. Observing their pragmatic performance also reveals the underlying indoctrination into pragmatic language use. This approach results in socialization into the local community through language use" (Taguchi & Roever, 2017: 88). Using a certain language and belonging to a specific speech community, on the other hand, implies having preferred methods of stating things and structuring thoughts (Kecskes, 2007). Language socialization is heavily reliant on "the acquisition of what

is expected to be said in particular situations and sociocultural frames, and what kind of language behavior is considered appropriate in the given speech community" (Kecskes, 2015: 428; Kecskes, 2019b: 33).

Indeed, the preferred ways of saying things in the local community are frequently represented in the use of routines, highlighting the crucial function of language socialization in routine interpretation. In addition to that, language socialization "highlighted the importance of prefabricated chunks in the socialization process both in L1 and L2 development" (Kecskes, 2015: 430). What is apparent is that "pragmatic competence in the L1 is the result of language socialization" (Kecskes, 2015: 421), but this is not always true of L2, especially when it comes to whether language socialization results in approximation to the native-speaker norms. L2 learners do not always mindlessly follow target norms, and "they sometimes exercise their agency and adopt differing L2 pragmatic options as a way to signal their identity" (Taguchi & Roever, 2017: 203).

To fully comprehend the impact of socialization in L2 pragmatics research, it is also critical to evaluate the social or personal identification, willingness, or motivation of individual learners participating in L2 pragmatics performance, as stated in the next section.

3.3 The Socio-Cognitive Approach

The socio-cognitive approach (SCA) (Kecskes, 2010, 2013) to L2 pragmatics provided solid theoretical guideline for this present study. The term "socio-cognitive" refers to "integrated cognitive and social properties of systems, processes, functions, and models" (Kecskes, 2013: 43). The SAC, which Kecskes and his students have applied to a broader range of research, stresses "the complex role of cultural and private mental models, how these are applied categorically and/or reflectively by individuals in response to socio-cultural environmental feedback mechanisms, and how this leads to and explains different meaning outcomes and knowledge transfer" (Kecskes, 2013: 47). The SCA model, which combines the cooperative view from pragmatics and egocentrism from cognitive viewpoint, is further presented and consists of the interaction of two columns of interconnected and mutually interactive individual and societal qualities, as shown in Fig. 3.2.

Individual traits	Social traits
prior experience	actual situational experience
salience	relevance
egocentrism	cooperation
attention	intention

Fig. 3.2 The socio-cognitive approach model by Kecskes (2013: 48)

To be precise, individual and societal traits interact with each other from the top down, with each trait serving as a consequence of the other. For example, prior experience leads to salience, which contributes to egocentrism and then promotes increased attention. Similarly, the ultimate purpose is a cooperative activity motivated by relevance that (partially) relies on actual situational experience.

3.3.1 Prior Context Knowledge vs. Actual Situational Context Knowledge

The "narrow-version" definition of pragmatic competence is the capacity of language users (or learners) to grasp and express precise intents in the context of a given language using various knowledge and tactics (Han & Huang 2018). According to the aspects listed above, context is a fundamental pragmatic approach for both sides of interlocutors to enhance and change the literal meaning of utterances and helps to determine the construction and comprehension of the dynamic utterance meanings on both speakers and hearers (Zhou 2019).

According to Kecskes (2013), context entails two sides of world knowledge (slightly different from those discussed in the prior section): one is declarative knowledge (prior context, PC), and the other is procedural knowledge (actual situational context, ASC), dividing context knowledge into prior and actual situational context knowledge. The former refers to prior knowledge stored in the mind and represents the cumulative influence of prior experiences, whereas the latter pertains to real-world experiences of a given communication scenario. The two sides are strongly intertwined, with ASC perceived via PC and vice versa. Both sides are reflected throughout the communication process, and interlocutors collaborate by forming and constructing intentions that should be aligned with the provided ASC (Kecskes, 2013). Most importantly, the meaning of pragmatic routines is thought to be the result of the interplay of these two sides of contexts (Kecskes et al. 2018; Kecskes, 2019a), as both are essentially socio-cultural, and PC plays an important role in routine construction and comprehension as ASC (Kecskes, 2013).

PC conveyed in utterances interacts with ASC, and this interaction generates meaning, which is, therefore, the consequence of reciprocity between both sides' private ASC, as judged by the interlocutors. Speakers and hearers who are equally involved in the communication process produce routines that rely on their most accessible and salient knowledge, which is conveyed in their private contexts in production (Kecskes, 2010). A hearer often relies on prior experience to produce the target expressions (covering activity, relationship, practice, and so on) that s/he believes best align with the speaker's purpose conveyed in her/his speech in the particular scenario (Kecskes, 2013). Individuals rely on the interaction of individual prior context knowledge and actual situational context knowledge (Kecskes, 2010) during the process of formulaic meaning construction and interpretation.

In summary, the SCA asserts that "lexical conceptual knowledge is the basis for prior context that is encapsulated in the lexical items whilst procedural knowledge, which is pragmatic, is triggered by the actual situational context" (Kecskes, 2013: 132). As a result, unlike the conceptualizations discussed above in the SLA field, PC knowledge in this framework, as a discrete line of traditional declarative L2 knowledge, specifically refers to previously accumulated knowledge about the target language, which consists of factual information about the target language, such as explicit knowledge of L2 grammatical rules. Meanwhile, ASC knowledge refers to the experience of a specific speech scenario in a real-world interaction as a representative of procedural knowledge in accordance with knowledge of available strategies that learners may adopt to take effective advantage of their L2 knowledge in communication. A PC-ASC mapping from the SCA perspective is thus used in the current study to depict learners' realization in their pragmatic competence of routines.

3.3.2 Conceptual Socialization

Conceptual socialization is described as the alteration of the conceptual system to accommodate the functional demands of the new language and culture (Kecskes, 2003, 2015; Kecskes & Papp, 2000). The bilinguals' L1-dominated conceptual base is gradually reformed during the conceptual socialization process (Kecskes, 2015), and it is ready to evolve with new knowledge acquired from the L2 channel (e.g., Kecskes, 2003; Ortactepe, 2012).

Conceptual socialization has been rather different from language socialization, for the former has enlarged the paradigm scope of the latter which has purely focused on language developmental problems. Conceptual socialization, by comparison, underlines "the primacy of mental processes in the symbiosis of language and culture, and aims at explaining the bidirectional influence of the two or more languages" (Kecskes, 2015: 426). The common underlying conceptual base generally serves as the essential part in the process of conceptual socialization, which is employed for the transition across two or more languages (see Kecskes & Papp, 2000; Kecskes, 2010).

Language socialization differs from conceptual socialization in that the latter broadens the paradigm scope of the former, which is simply concerned with language developmental issues. In contrast, conceptual socialization emphasizes the importance of mental processes in the language-culture symbiosis, and seeks to explain the bidirectional effect of two or more languages (Kecskes, 2015). In general, the same underlying conceptual basis is an essential component of the conceptual socialization process, which is used for language transitions across two or more languages (see Kecskes & Papp, 2000; Kecskes, 2010).

Pragmatic competence in L2 is more sensitive to language socialization than conceptual socialization because it is embodied "in the functioning of the dual language system" (Kecskes, 2015: 426), whereas pragmatic competence in L1 is

more responsive to language socialization rather than conceptual socialization. The differences between these two types of socialization may be classified as follows (see Kecskes, 2015: 427 for more information): 1) awareness; 2) age and attitude; and 3) direct or indirect exposure to the target language. Throughout this process, learners gradually develop a conscious knowledge of the distinguishing features of L1 (his/her own) and L2 (the target) culture, as well as the creative ways to convey such variations and an identity that represents the two sides of culture. According to the SCA, "exposure, quality, and quantity of input can be effective only as much as the individual learner allows them to be" (Kecskes, 2015: 428). Furthermore, because they reflect "socio-cultural patterns, cultural models and behavioral expectations in a speech community" (Kecskes, 2015: 430), conceptual socialization can make significant contributions to formulaic language, particularly SBUs.

To summarize, language socialization in the L2 might be insufficient at times to foster the internalization or conceptualization of routines for non-native speakers, despite the fact that it is accessible to some level. As a result, conceptual socialization has been employed again in this study to explain the pragmatic performances of routines among Chinese learners of English, particularly in the situation of the inconspicuous impact caused by pure language socialization. Chap. 6 will provide a full analysis and discussion.

3.4 Summary

The theoretical foundations of the current study were explored in this chapter from many perspectives. Initially, the scope of L2 pragmatics and L2 pragmatic competence were introduced. Following that, the theoretical foundation was separated into three major subsections: (1) the pragmatic viewpoint, (2) the L2 acquisitional viewpoint, and (3) the socio-cognitive approach. The relevant empirical research addressing the L2 pragmatic sphere of routine competence has been examined and demonstrated in detail in Chap. 2.

References

Anderson, J. (1983). *The architecture of cognition*. Harvard University Press.

Anderson, J. R. (1993). Rules of the mind. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associations.

Anderson, J. R., Bothell, D., Byrne, M. D., Douglass, S., Lebiere, C., & Qin, Y. (2004). An integrated theory of the mind. *Psychological Review, 111*, 1036–1060.

Austin, J. L. (1962). *How to do things with words*. Oxford University Press.

Bardovi-Harlig, K. (2001). Evaluating the empirical evidence: Grounds for instruction in pragmatics? In K. Rose & G. Kasper (Eds.), *Pragmatics in language teaching* (pp. 13–32). Cambridge University Press.

Bardovi-Harlig, K. (2010). Exploring the pragmatics of interlanguage pragmatics: Definition by design. In A. Trosborg (Ed.), *Handbook of pragmatics: Pragmatics across languages and cultures* (pp. 219–259). Mouton de Gruyter.

Bardovi-Harlig, K. (2014). Awareness of meaning of conventional expressions in second-language pragmatics. *Language Awareness, 23*(1–2), 41–56.

Bialystok, E. (1990). The competence of processing: Classifying theories of second language acquisition. *TESOL Quarterly, 24*, 635–648.

Bialystok, E. (1993). Symbolic representation and attentional control in pragmatic competence. In G. Kasper & S. Blum-Kulka (Eds.), *Interlanguage pragmatics* (pp. 43–63). Oxford University Press.

Ellis, R. (2013). *The study of second language acquisition* (2nd ed.). Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press.

Han, B., & Huang, Y. (2018). Defining and describing pragmatic ability in China's standards of English. *Modern Foreign Languages*, 1: 91–100+146–147.

He, Z. (2000). *A new introduction to pragmatics.* Shanghai Foreign Language Education Press.

Ishihara, N. (2006). Subjectivity, second/foreign language pragmatic use, and instruction: Evidence of accommodation and resistance. (Unpubished Ph.D. Dissertation), University of Minnesota, Minneapolis, MN.

Jiang, Z. (2013). *Research on pragmatic competence: An interlanguage pragmatics approach.* Peking University Press.

Kasper, G., & Dahl, M. (1991). Research methods in interlanguage pragmatics. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 13*, 215–247.

Kasper, G., & Roever, C. (2005). Pragmatics in Second Language Learning. In E. Hinkel (Ed.), *Handbook of research in second language teaching and learning* (pp. 317–334). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Kasper, G., & Blum-Kulka, S. (1993). *Interlanguage pragmatics.* Oxford University Press.

Kasper, G., & Rose, K. (2002). *Pragmatic development in a second language.* Blackwell.

Kasper, G., & Schmidt, R. (1996). Developmental issues in interlanguage pragmatics. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 18*, 149–169.

Kecskes, I. (2003). *Situation-bound utterances in L1 and L2.* Mouton de Gruyter.

Kecskes, I. (2007). Formulaic language in English Lingua Franca. In I. Kecskes & L. Horn (Eds.), *Explorations in pragmatics: Linguistic, cognitive and intercultural aspects* (pp. 191–219). Mouton de Gruyter.

Kecskes, I. (2010). Dual and multilanguage systems. *International Journal of Multilingualism, 7*(2), 91–109.

Kecskes, I. (2013). *Intercultural pragmatics.* Oxford University Press.

Kecskes, I. (2015). How does pragmatic competence develop in bilinguals? *International Journal of Multilingualism, 12*(4), 419–434.

Kecskes, I. (2019a). The interplay of prior experience and actual situational context in intercultural first encounters. *Pragmatics & Cognition, 26*(1), 112–134.

Kecskes, I. (2019b). *English as a lingua franca: the pragmatic perspective.* Cambridge University Press.

Kecskes, I., & Papp, T. (2000). *Foreign language and mother tongue.* Lawrence Erlbaum.

Kecskes, I., Obdalova, O., Minakova, L., & Soboleva, A. (2018). A study of the perception of situation-bound utterances as culture-specific pragmatic units by Russian learners of English. *System, 76*, 219–232.

Leech, G. (1983). *Principles of pragmatics.* Longman.

Leech, G. (2014). *The pragmatics of politeness.* Oxford University Press.

Ochs, E., & Schieffelin, B. B. (1984). Language acquisition and socialization: Three developmental stories and their implications. In R. A. Shweder & R. A. LeVine (Eds.), *Culture theory: Essays on mind, self, and emotion* (pp. 276–320). Cambridge University Press.

Ortactepe, D. (2012). *The development of conceptual socialization in international students: A language socialization perspective on conceptual fluency and social identity (advances in pragmatics and discourse analysis)*. Cambridge Scholars Publishing.

Ren, W. (2015). *L2 pragmatic development in study abroad contexts*. Peter Lang.

Roever, C. (2011). Testing of second language pragmatics: Past and future. *Language Testing, 28*(4), 463–481.

Schauer, G. A. (2009). *Interlanguage pragmatic development: The study abroad context*. Continuum.

Searle, J. R. (1969). *Speech acts: An essay in the philosophy of language*. Cambridge University Press.

Searle, J. R. (1975). Indirect speech acts. Speech actsIn P. Cole & J. L. Morgan (Eds.), *Syntax and semantics* (Vol. 3, pp. 59–82). Academic Press.

Searle, J. R. (1976). A classification of illocutionary acts. *Language in Society, 5*, 1–23.

Searle, J. R. (1979). *Expression and meaning: Studies in the theory of speech acts*. Cambridge University Press.

Selinker, L. (1972). Interlanguage. International Review of. *Applied Linguistics, 10*, 209–231.

Schieffelin, B. B., & Ochs, E. (1986). *Language socialization across cultures*. Cambridge University Press.

Tada, M. (2005). Assessment of ESL pragmatic production and perception using video prompts (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). Temple University, Philadelphia, PA.

Taguchi, N. (2013). Production of routines in L2 English: Effect of proficiency and study-abroad experience. *System, 41*, 109–121.

Taguchi, N. (2018). Contexts and pragmatics learning: Problems and opportunities of the study abroad research. *Language Teaching, 51*(1), 124–137.

Taguchi, N., & Roever, C. (2017). *Second language pragmatics*. Oxford University Press.

Thomas, J. (1983). Cross-cultural pragmatic failure. *Applied Linguistics, 4*, 91–111.

Zhou, L. (2019). The impact of context knowledge on the choice of polite request discourse by non-native Chinese learners: An experimental pragmatic study. *Foreign Languages and Their Teaching*, 6, 29–38+145–146.

Chapter 4
Research Methodology

Abstract The research methodology in L2 pragmatics has long been a source of concern, and with legitimate reason: how data is acquired and evaluated is critical in deciding what conclusions may be derived (Taguchi & Roever, 2017). Furthermore, methodologies must be chosen in order to best answer the study questions (Kasper, 2008). As a result, this chapter focuses on the research methods used in the current study. It is further divided into six main sections: (1) descriptions of the participants; (2) instrumentation; (3) data collection; (4) data analysis; (5) inter-rater reliability; and (6) ethical issues. The following details will be displayed.

Keywords Participants · Instrumentation · Data collection · Data analysis · Inter-rater reliability · Ethical issues

4.1 Participants

The participants were 143 Chinese students of English, divided into three groups (see Table 4.1). The 51 test-takers in Group 1 (G1) were all third-year English major undergraduates studying at some universities in China; they had a relatively low English proficiency (EP) level as they had only passed the Test for English Majors, Band 4 (TEM-4); these students had never lived or studied in a country where English was spoken. Group 2 (G2) included 59 Chinese master students with English majors (but with no study-abroad experience; they had passed the TEM-8, China's highest national English test. Group 3 (G3) consisted of 33 Chinese master and doctoral degree students of Chinese language and literature, world history, philosophy, accounting, management, business, and educational psychology; at the time of data collection, they were enrolled in various study-abroad programs and had previously taken either the TOEFL or the IELTS. Given that the TEM-4 is easier than the TEM-8, the proficiency levels of G2 and G3 were considered advanced, while the G1 level was considered intermediate.

At the start of the experiment, a background information survey was administered to the participants, which included age, gender, contact information, length of time and motivation during English learning, proficiency scores, and length of abroad studying or living experience. Several individuals were excluded from the

Y. Wang, *L2 Pragmatic Competence in Chinese EFL Routines*,
SpringerBriefs in Education, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-19-6352-0_4

Table 4.1 Participant information

	Group 1 (n = 51)	Group 2 (n = 59)	Group 3 (n = 33)
Average age (range)	21.08 (20–23)	23.32 (23–25)	27.50 (22–36)
Gender (male: female)	4:47	7:52	9:24
Length of studying English (SD)	12.18 years (2.33)	14.00 years (2.59)	15.33 years (6.65)
Proficiency levels	TEM 4 Average: 65.50 (SD = 5.56; range: 60–80)	TEM 8 Average: 69.00 (SD = 5.30; range: 60–82)	TOEFL (n = 6) Average: 89.33 (SD = 3.77; range: 83–94); IELTS (n = 27) Average: 6.83 (SD = 0.24; range: 6–8)
Length of study-abroad experience	None	None	Average: 10.60 months (SD = 7.43, range: 2–27 months)

final data set because they did not complete one or more of the testing tasks. All of the experimental tasks were completed with a 95% completion rate.

A pilot study was carried out with 41 native American speakers (30 females and 11 males, average age: 23.49, SD = 4.64), whose responses were synthesized as baseline data of target-like responses throughout each routine task.

4.2 Instrumentation

The present study employs a mixed-method, stimulus-led approach using internet-based animated movie sites (www.nawmal.com). During the testing stages, the animated scenarios are created in tandem with elicitation tasks to assess learners' routine performance across various tasks. This animation task can provide more prompts (i.e., animation of interactive context, movement, and images of interlocutors) that increase the degree of naturalness (Félix-Brasdefer, 2010; Ren, 2015), and share the cheerful practicality of DCTs, which is primarily reflected in the ease of administration for gathering large amounts of comparable data under controlled conditions from a large number of respondents in a relatively short period of time. It is wildly acknowledged that "natural data is often held up as the 'gold standard' of L2 pragmatics data" (Taguchi & Roever, 2017: 119). This task is intended to provide standardized computer-animated, audio-visual input to all participants, guaranteeing the comparability of learners' performance in routine output under differential grouping. Furthermore, it is generally established that DCT elicits offline knowledge (Félix-Brasdefer, 2010), which cannot substitute actual language use in real-world communication. Instead, because its major focus was not on participants'

real-life pragmatic use, but rather on their offline pragmatic competence with regard to target-like routine output that well fits diverse actual situational contexts, this computer-animated activity effectively remedied this deficiency.

4.2.1 Computer-Animated Production Task

To assess learners' abilities to produce routines, the Computer Animated Production Task (CAProT) was employed. The experimental situations were entirely based on Bardovi-Harlig (2009)'s research that targeted expressions for which learners demonstrated low production. The "stimulus-led oral" (Halenko, 2018: 146) CAProT consisted of 13 and 19 target routine scenarios for initiating and responding to utterances, respectively (see Appendix 2 and 3). Figures 4.1 and 4.2, for example, show two immobile screenshots of CAProT scenarios created through this animation technology. The scenarios included a number of animated actual situational settings as well as an initiating utterance by the "American speaker", to which the "Chinese hearer" had to respond by "engaging in a brief, single-turn interaction with the animated higher-status characters" (Halenko, 2018: 146). The characters portrayed individuals the students can encounter in their daily life, such as an academic tutor, a teacher or classmate on a university campus, a salesclerk at a clothes store, and so on.

To be more explicit, after an introductory instructional slide, all participants were invited to first observe (and read) the background of each scenario, which had been converted into a short movie. After a 5-s delay, the animated interlocutor would appear and instruct learners to initiate a conversation or respond to the speakers' utterances. Following that, participants were expected to offer an oral response in the form of either initiating responses or responding to utterances, as directed by the contextual reminders. The learners were then given a 30-s timed interval (20 s for replying and 10 s for the gap between two items) to respond before the scenario was automatically shown.

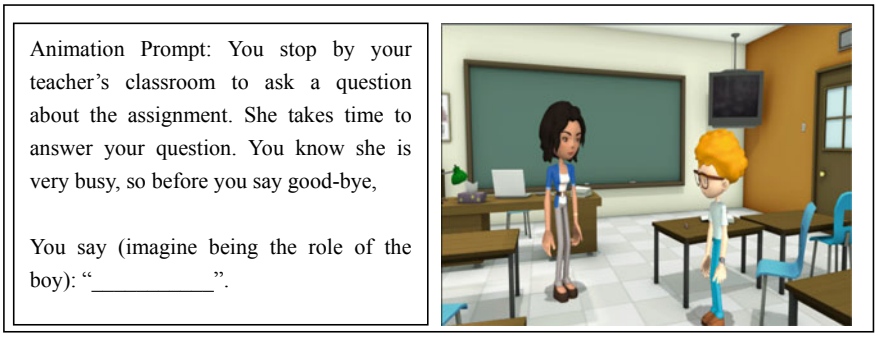

Fig. 4.1 An example scenario for initiating utterances

Prompt: The boy gives the girl, his classmate, a ride home. He lives in the building next to hers.

Animation: She gets out of the car and says, "Thanks for the ride."

You (imagine being the role of the boy) say: "_____".

Fig. 4.2 An example scenario for responding to utterances

In terms of the initiating task, participants must actively start a conversation after reviewing contextual information and topic requirements in order to fulfil the situational information requirements. As shown in Fig. 4.1, the Chinese youngster (on the right, you) needed to express his gratitude to his American teacher (on the left) for taking up her time to answer his questions before he was ready to leave the classroom based on situational information.

The responding task will display the initiated utterances of the speaker (the American girl on the left), and the listener ("you", a Chinese boy on the right), should not only respond to the girl's gratitude but also meet the requirements of contextual information, such as "you two are classmates who live nearby".

4.2.2 Computer Animated Recognition Task

The recognition task is a multiple-choice DCT in which participants must choose the most situationally appropriate response from four choices (i.e., Roever, 2005, 2012). Using animation technology, learners were primarily needed to complete the "visual-audio" computer-animated recognition task, in which the prompts were initially shown in a short movie, with written captions appearing at the bottom of the screen. Following an introductory instructional slide, learners were instructed to observe and view each scenario's background and options on the left, and they were then needed to choose the most appropriate option from four selections online. Following a 10-s pause, the animated interlocutor would be awakened and begin a fresh dialogue, with another 10-s pause for recognition to complete (Fig. 4.3).

Prompt: Carrie (left) has done some shopping at a grocery store.
Animation: The salesclerk (right) at the cash register has just finished packing her groceries and gives her the bags.
What would the salesclerk probably say?
A. 'All yours.'
B. 'There they are.'
C. 'Here you go.'
D. 'Please.'

Fig. 4.3 An example item for routine recognition: "Shopping grocery"

4.2.3 Computer Animated Comprehension Task

This computer-animated comprehension task (CACT) was also delivered via an animated movie website mentioned above. Several scenarios were produced in order to weaken "the potential for learners to infer meaning from contexts provided by test stimuli" (Bardovi-Harlig, 2014: 43). The prospective target expressions were selected from prior L2 pragmatics investigations (Bardovi-Harlig, 2014; Roever, 2005, 2012), and included *Here you go*, *All yours*, *That works for me*, *For here or to go*, *Do you think you can make it*, *Excuse the mess*, and *Thanks for having me*, on which learners demonstrated both low production and recognition. All of the expressions had a nontransparent compositional meaning and were difficult to identify and produce. Figure 4.4 shows a still snapshot of one of the testing scenarios created with this technique.

To match the modes over the whole task, each targeted expression was shown both aurally and visually twice with a 0.5-s timed interval. Following an initial instructional slide, all respondents were instructed to deliver an oral answer from four alternatives while seated in one-row intervals to prevent the disruption of overlapping noises. All participants had 30 s to finish each task and a 10-s timed period to react before the next scenario was presented automatically. This approach was originally illustrated using a practice animation scenario prior to the formal test phase. All of their oral replies were videotaped by the computer terminal equipment.

4.2.4 Computer Animation Perception Task

Based on the preceding tasks, this computer-animated perception task chose five pairs of routines that were similar in form, meaning, or function but not identical. The boy (on the right) will ask the girl (you, the respondent) a series of questions, such as

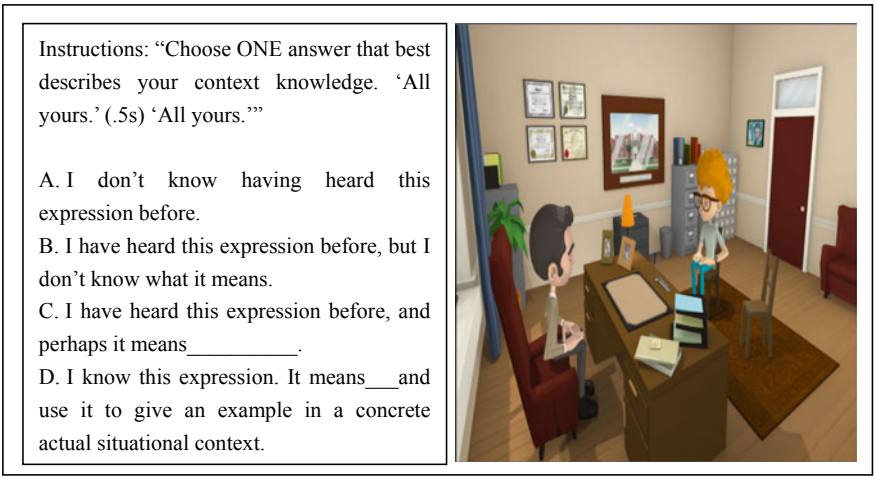

Fig. 4.4 An example item for routine comprehension: "All yours"

"Do you believe *Nice to meet you* and *Nice to see you* can be used interchangeably? If this is the case, only say Yes. If not, please describe the various contexts in which these two phrases can be used". The girl ("you") should reply "yes" or "no" for the first time; if the answer is "yes", the problem directly ends; if the answer is "no", you must demonstrate the precise distinctions between the two routines about their functional applicability in the particular actual situational context. The respondents were then given a 20-s time limit to answer the question before the next paired routines presented automatically on the screen (Fig. 4.5).

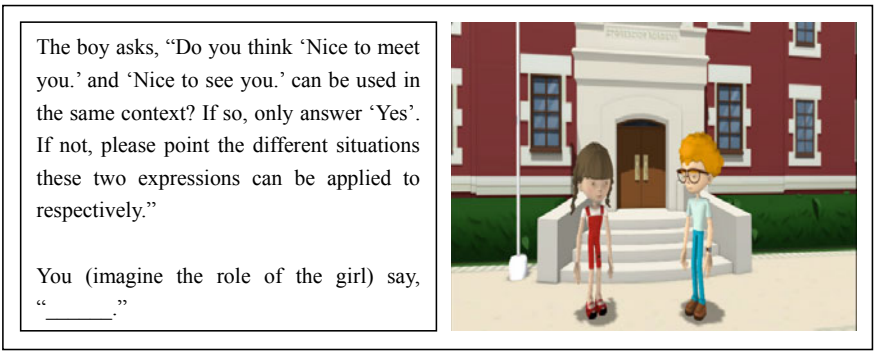

Fig. 4.5 An example item for routine perception: "Nice to meet/see you"

4.2.5 Computer Animated Retrospective Review

The utilization of multiple data sources in this investigation follows a trend observed in recent studies; that is, a series of computer-animated elicitation tasks were initially used to elicit learners' pragmatic knowledge, and then a follow-up retrospective interview was conducted to gain insights into learners' responses. The animation was also used in this retrospective interview, as seen in Fig. 4.6. The respondent envisioned himself/herself as the youngster on the left, delivering his/her replies as soon as they heard the questions displayed on the screen.

This test was constructed with the following levels in mind to elicit data from researching the Chinese EFL learners' (without abroad residence) cognitive processes engaged in their routine performances: (1) learners' attention across all tasks; (2) task difficulties; (3) L1/L2 preference to assess the degree of L1-driven transfer; and (4) the major source of prior context knowledge that may be controlled for routine completion. When administering this interview, participants were allowed to offer their replies in Chinese, capable of interacting their views more clearly.

4.3 Data Collection Procedure

By the end of the summer semester in 2019, the entire research has been completed properly. The collection procedure began in May 2019 and ended in November 2019, at which time the whole process was divided into two sections nationally and internationally. Prior to the experiment, each participant was asked to provide informed consent to the collection of oral data for research purposes. They were also informed that the holistic research project would only be exploited for scientific research, their personal information would not be shared, and that their oral responses would be kept confidential.

After agreeing to participate in the experiment, each participant was requested to complete a personal background questionnaire (see Appendix 1 for details). Before

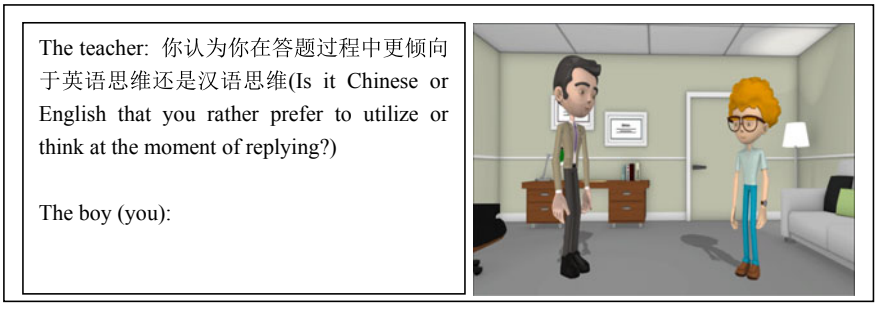

Fig. 4.6 An example for retrospective interview: "L1/L2 Preference"

the formal start of each test phase, the researcher will explain the relevant test requirements. Because the proficiency level of learners at home and abroad is quite high, the researcher's short rundown of pragmatic routines will assist participants in clarifying the assessment goals. It should be reminded that the example questions produced ahead of time are just designed to demonstrate the test objective; learners' replies will not be recorded or scored.

The experimental site is mostly done in five Chinese universities at home, whereas data for Chinese EFL learners overseas is primarily collected during the researcher's visit to the United States. All potential study-abroad participants were distributed and collected via the online questionnaire website due to technical challenges with the experimental location and requisite equipment.

A survey of 110 at-home EFL students was conducted as a consequence of the follow-up retrospective research, which mostly focused on improving the pragmatic skill of Chinese English learners with no prior overseas experience. Overall, the cross-sectional approach took roughly 50–60 min for all participants to engage in the overall phases of experiment conduction.

4.4 Data Analysis

4.4.1 Coding for Routine Production

In this task, distinguishing different aspects of pragmatic knowledge is highly recommended, in contrast to the overall rating. The evaluation system, adapted from Bardovi-Harlig (2019), allows us to fully understand the impact of proficiency and study-abroad experience on learners' production of routines. As a result, for participants' routine manifestations, two mastery levels of actual situational and prior context) knowledge were assessed separately.

Routines are frequently linked to contexts and speech acts, which are "two basic pragmatic constructs" (Bardovi-Harlig, 2019: 47). In such cases, learners' mastery of actual situational context knowledge was assessed based on their comprehension of contextual information and the consistency of the target speech act with a felicitous pragmatic strategy. To assess the learners' mastery of prior context knowledge, a seven-point rating scale was used, with scores ranging from zero (inconsistent or no response) to three (perfectly appropriate), as displayed in Table 4.2 (identical to statements in Wang, 2022).

An example of a learner's initiating utterance was used to demonstrate the coding criteria for routine production more clearly. Above all, "*Excuse me, do you have a time?*", said by the respondent, met all of the requirements of the actual situational context and thus received 3 points, because it can be inferred at least in these aspects: (1) this learner did indeed interpret contextual information, (2) the target request speech act "request" with proper pragmatic strategy was precisely employed. In the area of prior context knowledge, an uncountable noun *time* was used in place of the

Table 4.2 Rating band for routine production

Level	Rating criteria	Score
Mastery of ASC knowledge	Fully aware of key information provided in the video and implemented the respondent's role (if not, the score is 0)	1'
	Is the speech act consistent? (if not, the score is 0)	1'
	If stated, is the same pragmatic strategy used?	1'
Mastery of PC knowledge	The same content as NSs, almost perfectly appropriate	3'
	Alternative appropriate wording, or slightly non-native-like with verbosity	2.5'
	Routines that do not mention core content but are acceptable	2'
	Attempted lexical core, slightly non-native-like for minor interlanguage grammatical errors	1.5'
	Non-native like for strange wording, major grammatical errors	1'
	Utterances that are incomplete but can be judged	0.5'
	Impossible to understand, totally inconsistent with NSs' responses, or no response	0'

Note ASC, actual situational context; PC, prior context

countable noun *minute* in this response, thus scoring 1.5 points in this section and 4.5 points overall.

4.4.2 Coding for Routine Comprehension

Learners' routines were evaluated based on two aspects in the same task, namely, meaning and use: explicitly stating the definition of a particular routine expression based on prior knowledge and specifying its usage in a concrete actual situational context. Learners' definitions, derived from their prior knowledge, were assessed and coded as "plausible", "implausible", and "no recognition". Plausible definitions comprised all the meanings listed by 41 native speakers. Implausible definitions included *It's up to you* for *All yours* and *To stop here or continue* for *For here or to go*. One point was the maximum score for any plausible response to option (c) or (d). The same was true for examples produced in a specific actual situational context. The definitions and examples were transcribed respectively, and two points were the maximum score for each item if learners received one point for a plausible definition and another for a plausible example. In the meanwhile, the mixed coding for further analysis was indicated in Table 4.3.

To be specific, Level 1 was composed of choosing both a & b options, together with wrong-answer and no-response options. For example, even if choosing option c, the response *You are all ready to leave* provided by one learner was also categorized

Table 4.3 Evaluation criteria for routine comprehension

Level	Rating criteria/score
1. No PC or ASC knowledge	choosing option (a) & (b) + total wrong answers or no response of (c) & (d), 0'
2. Plausible PC knowledge	choosing option (c) & (d) with explaining accurate definitions, 1'
3. Plausible ASC knowledge	choosing option (d) with raising a proper example, 1'
4. Plausible interplay of PC & ASC knowledge	choosing option (d) combined with a correct definition and a suitable example, 2'

Note ASC, actual situational context; PC, prior context

as Level 1 due to the erroneous statement. In addition, the correct definition that has been mentioned both in option c (*Here it is* for the target expression *All yours*) and d (*Do you want to eat food in the restaurant or take it away*? for the definition of *For here or to go*, together with the raised examples *Here is your coffee. For here or to go*?) belonged to Level 2. With respect to Level 3, one learner selected option d and only give the explanation to the definition of *Do you think you can make it?* as *Can you do it successfully*? but with no example. Such a situation should also be attributed to Level 3. While as to Level 4, see the above responses *Here is your coffee. For here or to go?*

4.4.3 Coding for Routine Recognition and Perception

Because the answers to the recognition task were relatively uniform, 1 point was awarded for one acceptable option based on their precise prior context knowledge in each scenario, for a total of 9 points. For example, the learner could only receive one point if he/she selected the target expression *Here you go* in Item 2; otherwise, the score would be zero.

Similarly, the criteria for routine perception were divided into two sections: learners' pragmatic awareness (up to 1 point for answering Yes, and 0 for No) and their adequate prior context knowledge. Each condition for their functional usage may be precisely targeted (1 point for one functional use, whereas one statement has two functional connotations, 0.5 points for each), with a total of 3 points for one pair and 15 points for the whole task. Here is an example,

> No.
>
> 'Nice to meet you' is more formal;
>
> 'Nice to see you' is used when we say goodbye to somebody.

The answer *No* means actual differentiation, receiving 1 point. The functional usage of *say farewell to someone* received 0.5 points for not saying *whatever sort of*

person, known or unfamiliar s/he once met for the first/second time. Furthermore, the *formal* response to the use condition of *Nice to meet you* was completely incorrect, gaining 0 and finally 1.5points in total.

4.4.4 Statistical Methods in Data Analysis

The independent t-tests with effect sizes (Cohen's *d*) were used to examine the impact of influencing variables on distinct components of routine task modalities in response to routine production, recognition, and perception. As Cohen (1988) elaborated, 0.2 < Cohen's d < 0.3, insignificant effect size; Cohen's d approximately 0.5, medium effect size; Cohen's d > 0.8, large effect size. To evaluate group differences and the influence of variables in response to routine comprehension, McNemar chi-square and Mann–Whitney U tests were used sequentially. SPSS 23.0 was used for all data analysis procedures.

4.5 Verification for Inter-Rater Reliability

Inter-rater reliability investigates the extent to which different raters interpret the same set of data in the same way (Mackey & Gass, 2005), even with no specific rules established in the SLA presented. Nonetheless, inter-rater reliability is widely recognized as assessment indication for "checking the consistency and accuracy of coding" (Ren, 2014: 95), mainly "when high-inference categories are involved" (Kasper, 1998: 360). To establish inter-rater reliability, the researcher coded the rating criteria for each task and had them checked by another two experienced learners (a male doctor and a female master). In order to calculate inter-rater reliability, the researcher used the random sampling method to pick out 15% of responses in each task in total. The two raters then classified and scored these quantitatively filtered oral responses for appropriateness using the coding schemes developed in the prior chapter. Cohen's kappa was later used to determine if inter-rater dependability can reach an acceptable ideal level if its value exceeded 0.8. (Mackey & Gass, 2005).

Throughout every routine task modality, all Cohen's kappa values were more than 0.8. It is thus encouraging to see that the inter-rater reliability of all coding schemes for evaluation criteria was rated as excellent, with all reported values significantly exceeding 0.8 in the present study.

4.6 Ethical Considerations

All data collection occurred following approval from the East China Normal University Ethics Committee and all subjects who agreed to participate in this research. At

the same time, all participants were informed that this was a totally anonymous study. The data collected would be used solely for scientific research and statistical analysis and would not be exploited for any other purposes. You have the right to terminate the investigation at any moment throughout the test. When you started answering the questions, it shows you were fully informed and consented to participate in the study.

Concerning confidentiality, all data were transcribed anonymously. All participants were divided into three groups based on proficiency levels with or without international exposure, and no personal information was collected. The cases of relevant individuals were additionally tagged with group and serial number in the further analysis. To avoid data loss, the raw data and subsequent electronic transcripts must be held under absolute confidentiality.

4.7 Summary

This chapter described the entire design for the holistic study, including descriptive information on the three groups of participants (Sect. 4.1). This part also included an instrumentation summary (Sect. 4.2), as well as detailed data collecting protocols (4.3) and coding for each routine task (4.4). Sections 4.5 and 4.6 introduced the verification for inter-rater reliability and ethical problems in the present study, respectively. The outcomes of the exploration into each research question across each task modality will be analyzed in the next chapter.

References

Bardovi-Harlig, K. (2014). Awareness of meaning of conventional expressions in second-language pragmatics. *Language Awareness, 23*(1–2), 41–56.

Bardovi-Harlig, K. (2019). Routines in L2 pragmatics research. In N. Taguchi (Ed.), *Handbook of SLA and pragmatics* (pp. 47–62). Routledge.

Cohen, J. (1988). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences* (2nd ed.). Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Félix-Brasdefer, J. C. (2010). Data collection methods in speech act performance: DCTs, role plays, and verbal reports. In A. Martínez-Flor & E. Uso-Juan (Eds.), *Speech act performance: Theoretical, empirical and methodological issues* (pp. 41–56). John Benjamins.

Halenko, N. (2018). Using computer-assisted language learning (CALL) tools to enhance output practice. In C. Jones (Ed.), *Practice in second language learning* (pp. 137–163). Cambridge University Press.

Kasper, G. (1998). Analysing verbal protocols. *TESOL Quarterly, 32*(2), 358–362.

Kasper, G. (2008). Data collection in pragmatics research. In H. Spencer-Oatey (Ed.), *Culturally speaking* (pp. 279–303). Continuum.

Mackey, A., & Gass, S. (2005). *Second language research: Methodology and design.* Lawrence Erlbaum.

Ren, W. (2014). A longitudinal investigation into L2 learners' cognitive processes during study abroad. *Applied Linguistics, 35*(5), 575–594.

Ren, W. (2015). *L2 pragmatic development in study abroad contexts*. Peter Lang.
Roever, C. (2005). *Testing ESL pragmatics: Development and validation of a web-based assessment battery*. Peter Lang.
Roever, C. (2012). What learners get for free: Learning of routine formulae in ESL and EFL environments. *ELT Journal, 66*, 10–21.
Taguchi, N., & Roever, C. (2017). *Second language pragmatics*. Oxford University Press.
Wang, Y. (2022). The role of prior and actual situational context in conversational routines produced by Chinese learners of English. *Pragmatics & Society, 13*(4), 587–606.

Chapter 5
Results

Abstract This chapter presents the major study's quantitative and qualitative findings. It starts by displaying descriptive statistics for each task in order to illustrate the overall data distributions. The chapter then presents the research findings, statistical analyses, and research questions addressed in the five subsections that follow.

Keywords Quantitative findings · Qualitative findings · Research questions

5.1 Results for Routine Production

Table 5.1 provides the descriptive statistics for the different levels of productive pragmatic competence of routines scores for the three participant groups' oral responses. According to the results, overall productive pragmatic competence should be judged satisfactory, since all score rates were significantly greater than 70.00%. Furthermore, there was a consistent trend across three levels among three groups: G3 students scored significantly higher on all three sections than G2 students, and both G3 and G2 significantly outperformed G1 (G3 > G2 > G1), indicating that both levels of context knowledge, including the holistic productive pragmatic competence of routines, developed hand in hand with proficiency and study-abroad experience to a large extent.

To be specific, the frequency of the ASC was also more significant than that in the PC part: $\%_{ASC}$ ($M_{ASC} = 2.61/3$) $= 87.00 > \%_{PC}$ ($M_{TPC} = 2.20/3$) $= 73.33$. Paired-samples t-test then reveals there indeed existed a significant difference between the two levels of context knowledge manipulated by all learners with an enormous effect size: $t\ (142) = 40.46$, $p = 0.00 < 0.01$, Cohen's $d = 1.78 > 0.8$. It is apparent that in all cases, when facing specific actual situational context, participants across the three groups could accurately perform the role of the respondent in time and identify the target speech acts with pragmatic strategies based on the contextual information.

To be more explicit, the frequency of the ASC was higher than that of the PC part: 87.00% > 73.33%. The paired-samples t-test then demonstrates that there was a significant difference between the two levels of context knowledge controlled by all learners, with a massive effect size: $t\ (142) = 40.46$, $p = 0.00 < 0.01$, Cohen's $d = 1.78 > 0.8$. In all situations, when confronted with a specific actual situational

Y. Wang, *L2 Pragmatic Competence in Chinese EFL Routines*,
SpringerBriefs in Education, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-19-6352-0_5

Table 5.1 Descriptive statistics for productive pragmatic competence of routines

	Group							
	G1 (n = 51)		G2 (n = 59)		G3 (n = 33)		Overall (n = 143)	
Level	M	%	M	%	M	%	M	%
ASC	2.54	84.67	2.55	85.00	2.81	93.67	2.61	87.00
PC	2.06	68.67	2.14	71.33	2.52	84.00	2.20	73.33
ProPCR	4.60	76.67	4.69	78.17	5.33	88.83	4.81	80.17

Note ASC actual situational context; *PC* prior context; *ProPCR* productive pragmatic competence of routines

context, participants from all three groups were able to properly execute the role of the respondent in time and identify the target speech actions using pragmatic strategies based on contextual knowledge. In comparison, the native-like selection of target routines has several limitations. Participants lacked or were unable to properly use sufficient PC knowledge to produce the target expression to meet the demands of the current situation. It is possible to conclude that the acquisition of ASC information influenced the retrieval of PC knowledge and the accurate production of routine expressions to some extent.

When the initiating and responding modalities were compared, significant differences were found among three paired levels with small and medium effect sizes: all $p = 0.00 < 0.05$, $0.4 <$ all Cohen's $d < 0.6$, indicating that all respondents outperformed in responding utterances rather than initiating a conversation through routines on both sides of productive pragmatic competence, which was also included. In other words, the participants had no idea what appropriate routine expressions to use to start a conversation, yet as listeners, they were reasonably adept at responding to the speaker's conversation. In the present study, initiating a discussion was shown to be substantially more challenging than replying to it utilizing routines in terms of task difficulty. The statistical findings for the initiating and responding tasks are shown in the next two sub-sections.

5.1.1 Results for Initiating Utterances

As shown in Table 5.2, the competence of initiating utterances was deemed rather good, with an average score of 4.64 and a scoring rate of 77.33%, which was significantly higher than 70.00% overall. Furthermore, the average mean score in the ASC section was 2.54 (means above an exceptional level of 80.00%), demonstrating that they were able to successfully capture contextual information. The total PC score, on the other hand, was somewhat higher than the threshold regarding "acceptable routines without mentioning the lexical core" ($M = 2.09 > 2.00$), indicating that learners' retrieval of PC knowledge was not substantially impeded. As a result, they were unable to start a conversation in the target language appropriately. The

Table 5.2 Descriptive statistics for competence of initiating utterances

	Group							
	G1 (n = 51)		G2 (n = 59)		G3 (n = 33)		Overall	
Level	Mean	%	Mean	%	Mean	%	Mean	%
ASC	2.48	82.67	2.44	81.33	2.84	94.67	2.54	84.67
PC	1.92	64.00	2.00	66.67	2.52	84.00	2.09	69.67
CIU	4.40	73.33	4.43	73.83	5.36	89.33	4.64	77.33

Note ASC actual situational context; *PC* prior context; *CIU* competence of initiating utterances

group scores demonstrate that learners' reported initiating competence of routines increased with proficiency levels and residence duration. The sole exception to this variance trend was discovered among non-residence learners, with lower-level counterparts reporting ACS section scores that outperformed those of higher-level peers, demonstrating that the mastery degree of ASC information does not always rise with proficiency level.

Based on cross-sectional performance across three groups, the reported initiating ASC scores for the routine formulae range from 2.44 (G2, indicating that each respondent in a group achieved at least two levels of contextual information provided in the ASC section) to 2.84 (G3, indicating that not all high-level, abroad-residence learners can fully comprehend the requirements of ASC). In comparison, the reported initiating PC scores of two non-residence groups were either "without lexical core level" or fell short of this level on average. However, respondents with study-abroad experience might reach the highest "alternative wording sequence" level, emphasizing the contributive role of study-abroad experience in initiating utterances.

According to the independent sample t-test results, proficiency level had no effect on both levels of initiating competence, including itself, for all $p > 0.05$. On the contrary, study-abroad experience (together with both factors' interaction) had a significant impact on learners' initiating competence with very large effect sizes: all $p < 0.01$, all Cohen's $d > 0.8$.

When comparing ASC and PC in the CIU task, a significant difference was observed with a significant effect size: $p = 0.00 < 0.01$, Cohen's $d = 1.36 > 0.8$, indicating that learners were much more likely to comprehend the contextual reminders embedded in the ASC when compared to fulfilling the preferred way of routine selection by their PC knowledge.

5.1.2 Results for Responding to Utterances

As shown in Table 5.3, the competence of responding to utterances was rated substantially higher than scores acquired in the section, with the average score arriving at 4.92 and its scoring rate attaining 82.00%, which was higher than the 80.00% overall.

Table 5.3 Descriptive statistics for competence of responding to utterances

	Group							
	G1 (n = 51)		G2 (n = 59)		G3 (n = 33)		Overall (n = 143)	
Level	M	F	M	F	M	F	M	F
ASC	2.58	86.00	2.62	87.33	2.79	93.00	2.65	88.33
PC	2.16	72.00	2.23	74.33	2.52	84.00	2.27	75.67
CRU	4.74	79.00	4.85	80.83	5.32	88.67	4.92	82.00

Note ASC actual situational context; *PC* prior context; *CRU* competence of responding to utterances

Furthermore, the average mean score in the ASC part was 2.65, exceeding an exceptional level of 85.00%), indicating that they were able to capture more contextual information than they did in the initial task. In contrast, the total PC score was greater than Level 3, but fell short of the "alternative appropriate wording" level (2.27 > 2.00), as evidenced by learners' retrieval of PC knowledge being less restricted in the CRU section than in the initiating section (2.27 > 2.09). As a result, respondents were far more likely to correctly respond to the speaker's utterances using the target routines. With practically no exceptions, group scores demonstrate that learners' reported responding to an utterance by the routine expressions improved with proficiency and study-abroad experience from the leftmost to the terminal column.

The reported responding ASC scores for the routine formulae vary from 2.58 (G1) to 2.79 (G3), indicating that each respondent in a group reached at least two levels of contextual knowledge supplied in the ASC section. In contrast, the reported responding PC scores of two non-residence groups totaled the level "without lexical core". However, respondents with abroad experience might reach the top level of "alternative wording sequence", emphasizing the significance of abroad residence in competence of responding to utterances.

According to the independent sample t-test results, proficiency level has no influence on both levels of competence in responding to utterances (both $p > 0.05$), with the exception of the PC section, which is significant at $p = 0.04 < 0.05$ level with a small effect size: Cohen's $d = 0.4 < 0.5$. On the contrary, study-abroad experience (together with both factors' combination) repeatedly had a significant impact on learners' capabilities to respond to utterances, with large effect sizes: all $p < 0.01$, all Cohen's $d > 0.8$.

When the disparity between ASC and PC in the responding modality was compared, a statistical significance was found with a significant effect size: $p = 0.00 < 0.01$, Cohen's $d = 1.72 > 0.8$. As a result, in addition to fulfilling their preferred methods of routine selection through their PC knowledge, learners were also more likely to grasp the contextual reminders embedded in the individual ASC, which was comparable to the initiating competence.

5.2 Results for Routine Recognition

Routine recognition was primarily represented by participants' mastery of their prior context knowledge under computer-animated contextual reminders, that is, their ability to select the exclusive target expression from other semantically/syntactically-approximate, functionally-deviated options. The percentage of correct answers for each routine at each proficiency level with and without abroad experience is shown in Table 5.4. It appears that participants' recognition was nearly unacceptable, with a wide range of scores ranging from 26.57 to 98.60%.

For example, Item 7 (*Can I leave a message*?) was the most well-known to all groups (all score rates over 98.00%), including both groups with and without international experience. In contrast, Item 3 (*Can I get you anything else*?) was least recognized at a high level by the non-residence group (11.86%), and the same was true for proficient G3 with abroad experience: 45.45%. It implies that learners might use their PC knowledge to distinguish native-like routines from those with similar syntactic structures, semantic meanings, or even pragmatic functions under specific contextual reminders. Their favorite choices, however, were subject to some limitations.

Furthermore, G3 learners surpassed G2, while G1 learners scored the lowest overall: 78.79% > 65.14% > 63.28%, revealing that study-abroad experience (when combined with both elements' interaction) might result in a better effect, but not the same as proficiency alone. However, it should be noted that this changing pattern may not be observed across all scenarios, such as when a G3 > G2 > G1 trend emerged in Item 1, 6, 7, and 9, but Item 4 and 5 had a G2 > G3 > G1 tendency.

The results of the independent sample t-tests show that there is no significant correlation between proficiency and learners' PC knowledge required to recognize routines: $p > 0.05$; however, study-abroad experience (with both variables combined) was positively correlated with routine recognition with very large effect sizes: both $p < 0.01$, both Cohen's $d > 0.8$.

Likewise, there were no significant differences between Items 1, 4, 6, and 7. Moreover, Items 2 and 8 had a relatively similar trend: participants' performance considerably increased in conjunction with study-abroad experience alone, with small and moderate effect sizes: both $p < 0.05$, Cohen's $d = 0.44$ approximately 0.5, and 0.71 < 0.8. Study-abroad experience was also important in recognizing *Can I get you anything else*?", *Say that again, please*", and *That's okay*, but proficiency was only significantly effective in recognizing *You're welcome*, while the integration of the two factors only produced a significant influence on recognition of *That's okay*.

The outcomes of the decontextualized routine comprehension will be shown in full in the following section.

Table 5.4 Descriptive statistics for routine recognition

ASC (Set.)	Target selections	G1 (N = 51)		G2 (N = 59)		G3 (N = 33)		Overall (n = 143)	
		N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1.First encounter	Glad to see you	7	78.43	10	81.36	6	81.82	23	80.42
	Good to run into you	2		1		0		3	
	Happy to find you	2		0		0		2	
	Nice to meet you ☑	40		48		27		115	
2.Cashier	All yours	2	62.75	7	47.46	0	81.82	9	60.84
	Here you go ☑	32		28		27		87	
	Please	4		7		6		17	
	There they are	13		17		0		30	
3.More food	Would you like anything extra?	26	31.37	38	11.86	18	45.45	82	26.57
	Is there more for you?	5		5		0		10	
	What can I do for you?	4		9		0		13	
	Can I get you anything else? ☑	16		7		15		38	
4.Rejection of more food	No, thanks, I'm full ☑	36	70.59	44	74.58	24	72.73	104	72.73
	No, thanks, I've done it	9		9		7		25	
	No, thanks, I've finished it	6		6		2		14	
	No, thanks, I've eaten	0		0		0		0	
5.Response to thanks	Don't bother	5	86.27	2	96.61	3	90.91	10	91.61
	Thank you	2		0		0		2	
	You're welcome ☑	44		57		30		131	
	Please	0		0		0		0	
6.Phone	Hello ☑	32	62.75	38	64.41	24	72.73	94	65.73
	Hi	1		3		6		10	

(continued)

Table 5.4 (continued)

ASC (Set.)	Target selections	G1 (N = 51)		G2 (N = 59)		G3 (N = 33)		Overall (n = 143)	
		N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
	How are you?	3		3		2		8	
	It's me	15		15		1		31	
7.Message	Can I give you information?	1	98.04	0	98.31	0	100	1	98.60
	Can I leave a message? ☑	50		58		33		141	
	Can you take a note?	0		1		0		1	
	Can you write something?	0		0		0		0	
8.Repeating	Repeat yourself, please	10	60.78	20	50.85	9	72.73	39	59.44
	Say that again, please ☑	31		30		24		85	
	Say that another time, please	7		4		0		11	
	Restate what you said, please	3		5		0		8	
9.Response to apology	Don't mention it	9	35.29	7	44.07	1	90.91	17	51.75
	It's nothing	10		14		1		25	
	No bother	14		12		1		27	
	That's okay ☑	18		26		30		74	
Total		299	65.14	336	63.28	234	78.79	869	67.52

5.3 Results for Routine Comprehension

With respect to the general trend of routine comprehension (Table 5.5), G3 students scored much higher on all three sections than G1 students, and both G3 and G1 markedly surpassed G2 (G3 > G1 > G2), thus substantiating that on the whole, study-abroad experience (both factors' interaction) developed hand in hand with learners' pragmatic comprehension of routines. However, the impact of proficiency alone on routine comprehension revealed an opposite trend, namely, comprehensive competence decreased with the improvement of proficiency.

As to the independent sample t-test results, study-abroad experience and its interaction with high proficiency level played influential roles at all phases of routine

Table 5.5 Descriptive statistics for routine comprehension

Group (G)	N	M	SD	Frequency (%)
G1	51	5.24	2.98	37.43
G2	59	4.05	2.76	28.93
G3	33	8.64	3.30	61.71

comprehension without exception—both $p < 0.01$—and with large effect sizes: both Cohen' $d > 0.8$. In contrast, the impact of proficiency alone revealed a somewhat opposite pattern (a negative pattern), further confirming the more decisive role of study-abroad experience but the weaker impact of proficiency alone in the decontextualized process of routine comprehension.

As to examining the plausibility of the definitions and examples within each group, a McNemar frequency table (Table 5.6) was constructed featuring the number of responses for no PC or ASC, plausible PC, plausible ASC, and the plausible interplay of PC and ASC. McNemar chi-square tests were then used to process these data. When plausible PC and ASC were compared within each group holistically, it was found that participants within each group were more likely to provide plausible meanings based on PC than to make up specific examples in an ASC (46.78% vs. 28.01%, 38.74% vs. 19.13%, and 77.49% vs. 45.89%, all $p < 0.05$).

Table 5.7 summarizes the results of pairwise comparisons as follows. Mann–Whitney U tests were employed to examine the impact of three factors on the quadripartite levels. No significant differences at any level were detected between Groups 1 and 2 (all $p > 0.05$), signifying that proficiency had no meaningful effect on any level of context knowledge required in routine comprehension. Study-abroad experience (G2 vs. G3), by contrast, appeared to be the major influence on each level of context knowledge during the decontextualized comprehension (all $p < 0.05$). The interaction of proficiency and study-abroad experience, as an integral variable, affected the first two sections, i.e., no PC & ASC and plausible PC (both $p < 0.05$), exclusive of the other two levels (both $p > 0.05$).

More precisely, the percent chi-squared of test-takers providing plausible definitions based on PC was significantly different from that of test-takers providing plausible examples in an ASC for the expressions *All yours* (50.98% vs. 17.65% and

Table 5.6 Distribution of No PC or ASC, plausible PC and ASC, and mutual mappings

Level	G1 (Total responses: 357)		G2 (Total responses: 413)		G3 (Total responses: 231)	
	N	%	N	%	N	%
NO PC & ASC	182	50.98	251	60.77	51	22.08
Plausible PC	167	46.78	160	38.74	179	77.49
Plausible ASC	100	28.01	79	19.13	106	45.89
Plausible PC & ASC	92	25.77	77	18.64	105	45.45

Table 5.7 Summary of pairwise comparisons

Variable	Level			
	NO PC & ASC	Plausible PC	Plausible ASC	Plausible PC & ASC
Proficiency	z = −0.70	z = −0.83	z = −1.73	z = −1.22
Study-abroad experience	z = −2.12*	z = −2.38*	z = −2.51*	z = −2.52*
Two factors' interaction	z = −2.12*	z = −2.12*	z = −1.61	z = −1.61

Notes *, $p < 0.05$

40.68% vs. 10.17%, both $p < 0.05$) and *Thanks for having me* (45.10% vs. 17.65% and 50.85% vs. 22.03%, both $p < 0.05$). Additionally, G2 subjects were far more likely to provide plausible definitions than examples for *Here you go!* (27.12% vs. 8.47%, $p < 0.05$). The same was true in G3 for *Excuse the mess* (72.73% vs. 27.27%, $p < 0.05$). By comparison, the remaining items did not present a significant difference between plausible PC and ASC within each group (all $p > 0.05$).

5.4 Results for Routine Perception

Routine perception was divided into two sections: pragmatic awareness and the identification of ASC traits using PC knowledge between the two paired expressions. As shown in Table 5.8, the following routine tasks are the most unsatisfying in contrast to the others: Mean = 5.79, 2.89 for overall routine perception and their level of PC knowledge mastery, frequency = 38.60, 28.9%. Furthermore, pragmatic awareness was also not optimistic: mean = 2.90, frequency = 58%. More crucially, learners' pragmatic distinctive awareness was substantially lower than overall accuracy in identifying functional meanings through their PC knowledge.

Table 5.8 Descriptive statistics for routine perception

Paired routine expressions	Total (n = 143)		
	Mean awareness	Mean distinction	Mean overall
Nice to meet you versus Nice to see you	0.52	0.78	1.30
Hello versus Hi	0.50	0.37	0.87
Watch out versus Be careful	0.43	0.54	0.97
No problem versus You're welcome	0.79	0.80	1.59
Do you have the time versus Do you have a minute	0.66	0.39	1.05
Overall	2.90	2.89	5.79

For the perception task, pragmatic awareness does not always guarantee the realization of differentiating paired routines, implying that even if the subtle differences were perceived in the beginning, learners may still fail to implement the decontextualized distinction of their pragmatic features due to a lack of precise PC knowledge. In terms of specific perception types, students performed best in *No problem* versus *You're welcome* with the score rate just above 50%. However, it is unexpected that they had the weakest response to *Hello* versus *Hi* with the lowest rate of 29.00%.

The independent sample t-test results show that proficiency has no effect on overall routine perception, pragmatic awareness, or the abilities to discriminate ASC traits based on learners' PC knowledge: all $p > 0.05$. Study-abroad experience, on the other hand, had a strong positive impact that was significant at $p < 0.01$, and the between-group difference, represented as Cohen's d, was quite considerable, with all values significantly higher than 0.8.

5.5 Summary

The quantitative results have already been testified and answered based on the data given in this chapter. In general, English proficiency had significant influence on the mastery degree of PC knowledge in contextualized routine production and decontextualized routine comprehension. Almost every routine task demonstrated a high vulnerability to study-abroad experiences with large effect sizes. The results of qualitative data analysis will be discussed in depth in the following chapter, and so will the findings.

Chapter 6
Analysis and Discussion

Abstract This chapter will give an analysis and discussion of the findings in relation to the various research questions outlined in the preceding section. From Sect. 6.1 through Sect. 6.4, the overall analysis may be broken into three sub-sections: (1) the general trend of each routine task modality, (2) the impacts of proficiency and study-abroad experience on distinct components of routine competence, alongside underlying explanations, and (3) specific individual pragmatic performances with extensive discussion. Sect. 6.5 will depict the learners' cognitive processes as they complete the whole routine tasks. The details can be seen as follows.

Keywords General trend · Proficiency · Study-abroad experience · Routine competence · Cognitive processes

6.1 Production Competence of Routines

One of the goals of this study was to look into the effects of English proficiency and study-abroad experience on learners' competence of initiating and responding to utterances at the same time, as both these elements combined to form productive pragmatic competence of routines. In the current study, the constituting mechanisms of each productive segment is primarily reflected as the mappings of the actual situational context (ASC, implying sociopragmatic contexts or functions) onto prior context (PC, denoting pragmalinguistic forms), validating the importance of both context knowledge for productive pragmatic competence of routines. In accordance with Sect. 5.1, the three subsections that follow will show the underlying analysis and discussion.

6.1.1 The General Trend of Routine Production

This study first looked at the impact of English proficiency and study-abroad experience on contextualized productive pragmatic (initiating and responding) competence

Y. Wang, *L2 Pragmatic Competence in Chinese EFL Routines*,
SpringerBriefs in Education, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-19-6352-0_6

of routines (ProPCR) among Chinese learners of English using a computer-animated production task. The operationalization was further computed by adding the scores from the ASC and PC sections. The descriptive result given in the previous section was then turned into the corresponding Fig. 6.1. So that the overall dynamic trend between two variables and ProPCR could be seen much more clearly. Each level shows a moderate increase from G1 to G2 (the full lines are in bold), indicating that proficiency has a very little influence in routine production. In marked contradiction, a considerable rising trend (dotted lines in bold) exists from G2 to G3, indicating that study-abroad experience has a greater influence on routine output.

From an overall trend standpoint, Fig. 6.1 demonstrates that the overall ProPCR of all-level participants involved is comparatively at a satisfactory level (outnumbering 70% or so on the total), as shown in the advanced formation of ASC-PC knowledge mappings. Furthermore, mastery of ASC knowledge significantly outnumbered that of PC knowledge counterparts both in the initiating and responding sections, resulting in slightly easier access to actual situational information and contextual reminders but more limited retrieval of PC knowledge for native-like output of linguistic strings that correspond to the ASC. In terms of the criteria used to measure ASC mastery, all three groups of learners were needed to first analyze the key sociopragmatic information encoded in the computer-animated scenarios, followed by perception of the target speech act suitable technique (if necessary). Following that, participants' PC knowledge took effect, mapping the preferred pragmalinguistic ways of saying things onto the proper sociopragmatic context, culminating in the attainment of productive routine competence.

Fig. 6.1 The general trend of routine production. *Note* TASC, total mastery degree of actual situational context; TPC, total mastery degree of prior context knowledge; ProPCR, productive pragmatic competence of routines

It is obvious that ASC will act as a critical precondition for ProPCR, with any divergence resulting in the failure of their mappings. Consider the example scenario "refusal to provide additional food". The core of refusal speech act (*No thanks*), accompanied by the strategy being full or staffed (*I'm full/staffed*) as an excuse, was mistaken for gratitude speech act (*Thank you*), implying the illocutionary force of acceptance rather than rejection, and therefore directly leading the deviated retrieval of PC knowledge to inappropriate target expressions.

However, simply interpreting the ASC information did not guarantee success in the PC sections. For example, the "late for appointment" (#R7) highlighted the target routine *I'm sorry. {I'm late.}*, the apologetic speech act, and the accompanying pragmatic strategy indicate two distinct levels of ASC knowledge that are universally understood. These are most frequently and successfully produced with the target apology utterance of all three groups, though participants do not always have complete command of appropriate pragmalinguistic forms based on their PC knowledge: *(I'm) Sorry for (my) late*, *I'm sorry for lating (5 min)*, and *I won't late again.* It might also explain the ease with which all participants comprehended the contextual reminders when compared to situationally appropriate selection and use of routine expressions.

6.1.2 Impacts of Proficiency and Study-Abroad Experience on Routine Production

As shown in Fig. 6.1, it revealed somewhat similar patterns in the ASC, PC, and ProPCR sections, namely, little observable change (see flat lines in bold from G1 to G2) is evident between the two non-sojourn groups, whereas marked rising tendency (steep dotted lines from G2 to G3) is clearly observed between high-level groups with and without study-abroad experience. This confirms that all components of ProPCR were insignificantly changed by proficiency alone but profoundly influenced by study-abroad experience, and the combination of both variables primarily resulted in no dramatic pragmatic advances.

For one thing, the minimal role of proficiency highlighted here implicitly mirrors prior literature's differing perspectives on the link between L2 proficiency and pragmatic competency of routines. As previously stated, several research has demonstrated that students' L2 proficiency is a major positive predictor of their pragmatic competence of routines, implying that students' pragmatic competence of routines rises proportionally to their growing L2 proficiency (i.e., Bardovi-Harlig & Bastos, 2011). On the other hand, high proficiency does not always result in native-like routine production, which is less essential than exposure, namely, higher-proficiency learners unnecessarily outperform lower-level peers on competent routine production (e.g., Taguchi, 2013). Taken together, the latter findings are more consistent with the existing study, indicating a certain but comparatively weaker impact of proficiency

on routine production, which is most likely due to the nature of routines: situational-bound, constitutive shortness, and linguistic simplicity. This may account for the ease with which even low-proficiency participants may generate them as a prefabricated chunk with no need for sophisticated semantic and syntactic parsing. However, this is not to argue that routines of all sorts do not benefit from L2 proficiency, particularly when producing semi-fixed expressions with specific slots for further completion.

For another, the research findings lend further support to the study-abroad context's superiority over the at-home context in learning or producing routine expressions as self-contained pragmatic units through extended residence in the host-country environment, which has already been confirmed by the majority of relevant studies mentioned in the section of literature review. The positive effect of studying abroad over the at-home learning context for L2 routine production makes intuitive sense when two fundamental strands of factors are considered: the promoting aspects of the abroad setting itself and the ubiquitous nature of routines. In such an atmosphere, high-quality opportunities to engage in social practices, L2-driven norms, and precise awareness might potentially be established and attained, which are uncommon in an at-home instructional situation. These pragmatic practices, reinforced by native speakers' authentic and unscripted utterances via everyday interaction, can further lead to conceptual socialization (such as linguistic choices regulated by specific contexts or interpersonal connections) into automatized pragmatic behaviors. Routines, on the other hand, are frequently used across the community and are tied to daily speech occurrences, with the characteristics of permeating daily communication and facilitating social involvement. The superiority of the study-abroad context is largely due to the abundance of opportunities to observe local community members' preferred ways of saying or selecting linguistic forms, as well as to frequently practice those target-like patterns through daily engagement in social events or activities.

Furthermore, comparable to the effect of L2 proficiency, a study-abroad investigation gave slightly divergent findings (no significant or even negative influence) depending on the relationship between study-abroad settings and L2 production of routines reviewed (e.g., Bardovi-Harlig & Bastos, 2011; Kecskes, 2000). In other words, students who study overseas do not always surpass their peers who just have an at-home academic background. According to the takeaway from conflicting findings, studying abroad "is not a uniform construct" (Taguchi, 2018: 129; Taguchi & Roever, 2017: 221). Specifically, the study-abroad experience can generate varying impacts across various pragmatic targets (situational vs. function routines or fixed vs. semi-fixed routines) as well as distinct task modalities (comprehension vs. production).

The study-abroad environment, in particular, "does not account for target-like production of routines" (Taguchi & Roever, 2017: 224). Elucidating the issue of language socialization, however, "just physical presence in the target language environment is no guarantee for actual engagement" (Roever et al., 2014: 379), and the individual difference factors such as motivation or willingness (Kecskes, 2015),

learner agency or subjectivity, other decisive factors, such as intensity of interaction (Bardovi-Harlig & Bastos, 2011), or another variable initial-level formulaic competence (Taguchi et al., 2013) can vary widely and take significant effect.

Simultaneously, in contrast to these clear-cut findings, there is another line of evidence in the present study showing the interplay of proficiency and study-abroad experience has a significant impact on the production of routines. To put it another way, proficiency and overseas studying experience both influence learners' capacity to perform L2 pragmatic functions of routines. A complex association was also discovered between study-abroad experience and the structure of pragmatic targets, with L2 proficiency serving as a mediator (Roever, 2005). Indeed, study-abroad experience, even when at play, has not always been shown to offer a distinctive contribution to routine output, which may also be vulnerable to proficiency levels (Taguchi, 2013). In terms of routine production, adequate exposure to target language surroundings can result in L2-dominated patterns and sociopragmatic norms, and high-level L2 proficiency is inevitably helpful to the precise management of target-like linguistic forms.

6.1.3 Learners' Specific Performances in Routine Production

This section now moves on to a more extensive examination and discussion of the impact of proficiency and study abroad on the distinct features of productive pragmatic competence of the routines under investigation in this study.

6.1.3.1 Competence of Initiating Utterances

From a holistic standpoint, the competence of initiating utterances (CIU) was found to be adequate in comparison to a comparatively lower level reported in Wang's (2020) study, as the entire score rate exceeded 70%. In accordance with the overall productive trend, learners surpassed their PC counterparts in terms of ASC knowledge mastery. The results from the present study's Chinese EFL participants revealed a variety of nuanced roles of proficiency.

As shown in Fig. 6.2, proficiency alone demonstrated a gently declining trend (see ASC from G1 to G2) in learners' mastery of ASC knowledge, a slightly ascending impact (see G1 to G2 in PC section) on their mastery of PC knowledge, and an almost parallel trend (see CIU section from G1 to G2) for the overall CIU. In comparison, the impact of the study-abroad context alone on all dimensions of CIU was rather consistently upward (from G2 to G3 across each level). It is also apparent that both overseas-sojourn students outperformed their non-residence counterparts significantly, indicating the superiority of studying abroad over studying at home. The following analysis is depicted below.

Proficiency and CIU The area-line constitutional diagram was produced based on the data calculated and displayed in Fig. 6.3 to observe the influence of proficiency

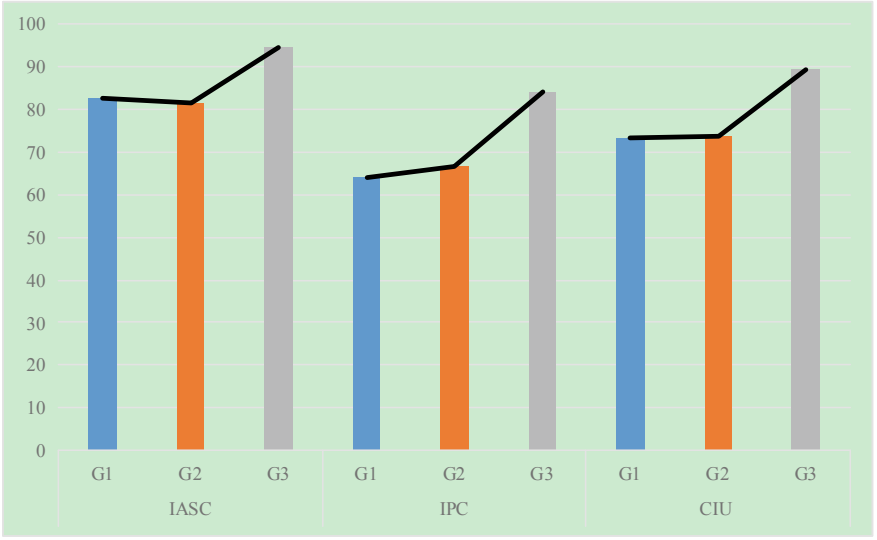

Fig. 6.2 The general trend of CIU. *Note* IASC, mastery degree of actual situational context in initiating competence; IPC, total mastery degree of prior context knowledge in initiating competence; CIU, competence of initiating utterances

alone (by subtracting numbers in G1 from those in G2) on the CIU section. The areas above the x-axis represent the positive effect of proficiency, while the areas below the x-axis represent its negative influence (applying to other area graphs below). The polarized trend was committed to demonstrating that proficiency was significantly salient to both groups of learners when commencing target routines such as *Be careful* (#1), *Come to my place* (#2), *I'm sorry I'm late*, *I gotta go*, *Watch out*, and *Can I/you leave/take a message*.

What's more, two negligible positive correlations lie in PC knowledge of *Nice to see you* and ASC knowledge of *Excuse the mess*. By comparison, counter-evidence from the figure below manifested a negative-correlated pattern that lower-level learners demonstrated superior initiating performance to higher-level peers, such as *Watch out*, *Can I get a ride*, *Can/Would you (mind) pass(ing) me a glass*, *No problem*, and *Do you have a minute*. The rest partially-negative roles of proficiency were mainly reflected as ASC knowledge of *Nice to see you* and PC knowledge of *Excuse the mess*.

Concerning the ASC portion, a notable pattern is that the proficiency level appears to have resulted in a mixed contradictory effect of ASC knowledge. To begin, Table 6.1 depicts the particular performance of the ASC knowledge section between two non-residence groups with varying degrees of proficiency. The situations are sorted and ranked from the top down in the leftmost column by the favorably influencing degree of proficiency.

However, as shown in Table 6.2, high-level proficiency may not ensure the complete accuracy of ASC information. G2 learners' inaccuracies in the ASC portion

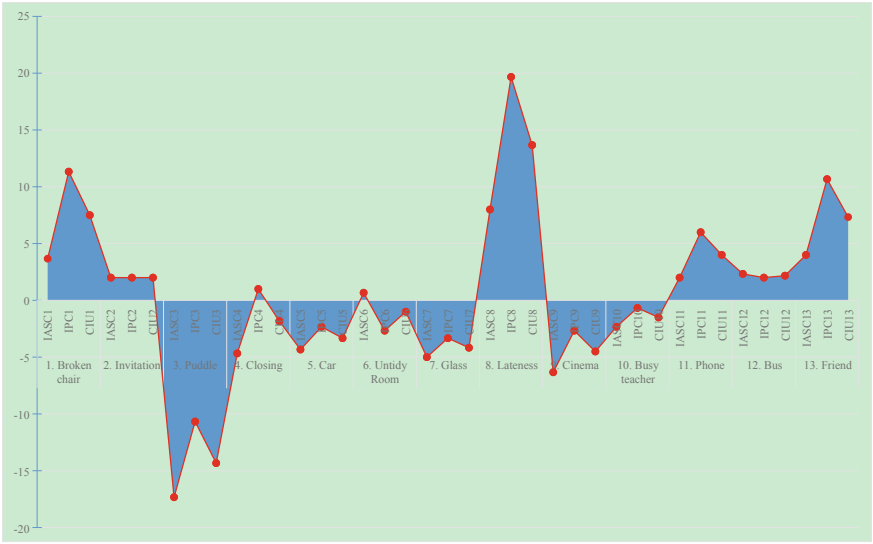

Fig. 6.3 Effects of proficiency on ASC, PC, and CIU

are also evident in the erroneous comprehension of essential contextual information puddle as heavy rain, resulting in a large variation in the target speech act with its pragmatic strategies, such as *not forgetting the umbrella*, or *come with me*, and so on. Similarly, learners with excellent linguistic competence occasionally misinterpreted being quiet for talking loudly (i.e., *Could you speak aloud?*), or asking for a cup as though they wanted coffee (e.g., *A cup of coffee?*). In reality, such fixed routines or semi-fixed expressions with fixed lexical cores may not need significant language parsing, relying instead on recurrent practice based on a thorough knowledge of ASC requirements.

In Table 6.3, the precision of pragmalinguistic selections, such as syntax and lexical core, must be strongly demanded to ensure the meanings contained in the response can be sufficiently and mutually understood. To be more explicit, improper linguistic representation can directly lead to deviations from native-speaker norms, such as erroneous word order or word choice.

For example, the inaccurate routine *sorry for my lating* uttered by lower-proficiency students who have not studied abroad might result in an immediate PC level of Level 4, deviating from the target linguistic form due to interlanguage grammatical mistakes. Similarly, problematic utterances by G1 participants included adding a redundant object following the fixed goal expression *watch out* and employing an incorrect preposition related to *be careful*, as well as incorrect phrasal verb collocation *go up to take*. On the other, high-level proficiency can undoubtedly help in this respect. Learners may get greater control of pragmatic processes, as shown by their capacity to prevent negative L1 transfer, manage acceptable degrees of directness in speech acts, and more accurate interpretation of indirect meaning as

Table 6.1 Positive effects of proficiency on ASC knowledge in CIU[1]

Situation/Group	Expressions	Core information	Speech act	Pragmatic strategy
"Lateness" (#I8)	"I'm sorry I'm late"			
G1 (6)	Goodness. What a terrible day	✗	✗	✗
G1 (11)	What a pity!	✗	✗	✗
G1 (30)	Oh my god	✗	✗	✗
G1 (1)	I'm so sorry. But there's no teacher, why I'm supposed to talk?	✓	✓	✗
G2 (75)	Oh, I'm so sorry that I'm late. There is something emergent that need I to handle. Do you have other time that I can make an appointment?	✓	✓	✓
G2 (85)	I'm so sorry I'm late today. Can we meet next time?	✓	✓	✓
G2 (101)	I'm sorry for late. We can make an appointment next time	✓	✓	✓
"Friend" (#I13)	Can I/you leave/take a message?	✗	✗	✗
G1 (43)	Would you please tell something about him?	✗	✗	✗
G1 (28)	Could you pass me the message to him?	✓	✓	✓
G2 (56)	Do you know where is he? Can you tell me? Thank you	✗	✗	✗

(continued)

[1] G1 (6) means the response was given by the G1 student that is labeled as No. 6. The same goes for the following tables in this chapter.

Table 6.1 (continued)

Situation/Group	Expressions	Core information	Speech act	Pragmatic strategy
G2 (78)	If my friend come back, give me a message	✗	✗	✗
G2 (101)	Can you take the message to him?	✓	✓	✓
G2 (110)	I'll leave me a message to my friend. Thank you	✓	✓	✓
"Broken chair" (#I1)	Be careful!			
G1 (1)	Wait a minute. The chair is broken	✓	✗	✓
G1 (2)	Oh. It's dangerous. Let me help you	✓	✗	✓
G2 (74)	Oh, don't do this. Be careful. Let me help you	✓	✓	✓
G2 (63)	Take care yourself	✓	✓	✓
G2 (108)	Be careful. The leg has broken	✓	✓	✓

their proficiency levels increase (Taguchi, 2011a). As a result, although still evident, the high-level group's interlanguage grammatical faults may be efficiently regulated and decreased. When completing this slot-and-frame pattern, G2 learners outperformed their lower counterparts in terms of the specific component of *leave/take a message*. Lower-proficiency peers cannot typically determine that the logical subject of *leave* should be *I*, but the logical subject of *take* is *you*, whose mixed collocation would immediately lead to the deviating target forms.

In contrast, a significant number of researchers, like Ortactepe (2012), discovered that in the case of developed language learners, the use of routines rests not on proficiency but on acceptability, preference, and willingness to use. In reality, even if learners are proficient in their L2 language abilities, their connection with local community members might be severely hampered by the restrictions placed by cultural elements (Kecskes, 2015). Consider the theater scenario as an example. As illustrated in Table 6.4, even when disturbed, Chinese students are more likely to follow the traditional Chinese cultural norm of politeness.

As a result, a wide range of euphemistic semi-fixed formulaic structures with attenuated properties was abundantly used, such as *Could/Can/Would you + lexical core lower your voice*? Because the learners insist on expressing themselves through social beliefs and personal values, their pragmalinguistic options will not accept the target-like norm (fixed functional routine *Be quiet/Shut up*). This guarantees that the imperative ordering tone is imposed at a low level in order to retain personal agency and L1-driven social norms, resulting in divergence from native-speaker norms.

Table 6.2 Negative effects of proficiency on ASC knowledge in CIU

Situation/Group	Expressions	Core information	Speech act	Pragmatic strategy
"Puddle" (#I3)	"Watch out."			
G1 (14)	Oh be careful. There is a big puddle	✓	✓	✓
G1 (37)	Stop right there	✓	✓	✓
G1 (7)	Oh, watch out your shoes. Be careful	✓	✓	✓
G1 (26)	Please use my umbrella and we can go to the library together	✗	✗	✗
G2 (67)	Come with me	✗	✗	✗
G2 (85)	It's going to raining. Don't forget your umbrella	✗	✗	✗
G2 (102)	Are you OK?	✗	✗	✗
"Cinema" (#I9)	"Shut up/Be quiet/Keep it down."			
G1 (3)	Hey guys. Please stop talking so loud. I couldn't hear what the movie says	✓	✓	✓
G1 (8)	Could you please lower down your voice? I cannot hear a word	✓	✓	✓
G1 (30)	I'm sorry, but would you mind talking in a lower voice?	✓	✓	✓
G2 (82)	Would you mind louding your voice?	✗	✗	✗
G2 (91)	Could you speak aloud?	✗	✗	✗
G2 (64)	hey, hey, hey…	✓	✗	✓
"Glass" (#I7)	"Can/Could/Would you mind pass (ing) me a glass?"			

(continued)

This is not to say that EFL learners do not know or understand these commonly used target-like forms, but they have subjectively managed to resist the target norms, or at least experienced inner struggles between seemingly contradictory pragmatic norms (Taguchi & Roever, 2017; cf. Kim, 2014), due to discomfort with the way of saying things triggered by the disagreement with their L1 cultural norms. In summary,

Table 6.2 (continued)

Situation/Group	Expressions	Core information	Speech act	Pragmatic strategy
G1 (4)	Could you please to give me a glass?	✓	✓	✓
G1 (33)	Could you help me a cup of glass?	✓	✓	✓
G1 (22)	Can you give me a bottle of water?	✓	✓	✗
G2 (82)	A cup of coffee?	✗	✗	✗
G2 (104)	Do you want to a cup of glass?	✗	✗	✗

research has shown that learners' application of pragmatic knowledge may be limited by how they establish themselves as L2 (non-native) speakers and what identities they wish to present (Taguchi & Roever, 2017).

Study-abroad experience and CIU Study-abroad experience in the present study profoundly influence all aspects of CIU with a relatively consistent pattern, exclusive of the puddle scenario alone. It is effortless to understand the beneficial role of the study-abroad context in routine learning is mainly manifested as the characteristic that learners can obtain "abundant opportunities to observe linguistic patterns preferred by native speakers and to practice those patterns through daily participation in social events" (Taguchi & Roever, 2017: 223). Based on the data shown in Fig. 6.4, the study-abroad context's advantageous position can be detected with great ease, for most of the parts in the area line chart are above the x axis.

In the present study, study-abroad experiences substantially impact all components of CIU in a rather cohesive manner, excluding the puddle scenario alone. It is simple to see how the beneficial role of the study-abroad context in routine learning is primarily embodied by the fact that learners have numerous chances to observe and practice linguistic patterns favored by native speakers through continuous involvement in social activities (Taguchi & Roever, 2017). Based on the data in Fig. 6.4, the favorable position of the study-abroad environment can be easily identified, since most of the portions in the area line chart are above the x axis.

However, the degree of facilitation by studying abroad differs from scenario to scenario. This might be due to the fact that the specific application circumstances of these routines may be firmly established at varying stages during abroad residence, and non-native speakers "do not passively 'pick up' and internalize L2 pragmatic norms through exposure" (Taguchi & Roever, 2017: 205). In the case of infrequently used routines such as *Excuse the mess* (#6), *Can I get a ride*? (#5), and *Thanks for your time* (#10), the salience of such prefabricated linguistic forms in the local community environment will become quite noticeable to EFL speakers. Although at play, the degree of familiarity previously stored in the at-home environment, such as *Shut up* (#9), *I'm sorry to be late* (#8), and so on, reduces the reinforcement generated by the abroad context. The target routine *Be careful* embodied the solely

Table 6.3 Positive effects of proficiency on PC knowledge in CIU

Situation	Expressions (Band)
"Lateness" (#I8)	"I'm sorry. {I'm late.}"
G1 (11)	What a pity. (Band 7)
G1 (30)	Oh my god. (Band 7)
G1 (35)	I'm so sorry for my lating. (Band 4)
G1 (45)	I'm sorry for my late. (Band 4)
G2 (75)	Oh, I'm so sorry that I'm late. There is something emergent that need I to handle. Do you have other time that I can make an appointment? (Band 2)
G2 (100)	I'm very sorry I'm late. Can we make next time? (Band 2)
"Broken chair" (#I1)	Be careful!
G1 (33)	Let me help you. (Band 7)
G1 (7)	Please be careful to your leg. Or my heart will broke. (Band 4)
G1 (51)	Watch out your foot. (Band 4)
G1 (20)	Oh, attention please. (Band 3)
G2 (63)	Take care yourself. (Band 4)
G2 (101)	You should change another chair. (Band 3)
G2 (100)	I'm very sorry I'm late. Can we make next time? (Band 2)
"Friend" (#I13)	Can I/you leave/take a message?
G1 (48)	Could you tell me more details for my friend? (Band 7)
G1 (8)	OK, could you please tell her that I want to made her at 18 I'm and school campus? (Band 7)
G1 (38)	Can I leave a…. (Band 5)
G1 (12)	May I leave a message to my friend? (Band 3)
G1 (29)	Would you like to pass some message for me? (Band 3)
G2 (63)	Take care yourself. (Band 4)
G2 (107)	Can you help me a favor? I have something to tell him. Could you help me? (Band 3)
G2 (100)	Could you help me to tell him something? (Band 3)
G2 (85)	Can you help me to pass the message to him? There is something really important that I want him to know. (Band 2)
"Phone" (#I11)	I gotta go
G1 (21)	It's time to get off. Stop focus on your phone. (Band 7)
G1 (44)	I'm sorry. Here comes a bus. I need to hang. (Band 5)
G1 (26)	Now I should go up to take the bus. Wait for a minute. (Band 4)
G1 (29)	The bus is coming. But I have to hanging up. (Band 4)
G2 (63)	I'll take to you later. (Band 3)
G2 (100)	I'm sorry I have to go. (Band 2)

Table 6.4 Negative effects of proficiency on PC knowledge in CIU

Situation	Expressions (Band)
"Puddle" (#I3)	"Watch out!"
G1 (22)	Watch out. Be careful. (Band 2)
G1 (35)	Stop right there. (Band 3)
G2 (81)	Please watch out your feet. (Band 4)
G2 (90)	It's going to raining. Don't forget your umbrella. (Band 7)
"Glass" (#I7)	"Can/Could/Would you mind pass (ing) me a glass?"
G1 (7)	Can you do me a favor and give me a glass? (Band 2)
G2 (35)	Could you help to take the glass for me? (Band 4)
G2 (87)	Can you come here and have glass? (Band 5)
G2 (104)	Do you want to a cup of glass? (Band 7)
"Cinema" (#I9)	Shut up
G1 (8)	Could you please lower down your voice? I cannot hear a word. (Band 2)
G2 (98)	Hey, hey, hey. (Band 3)
G2 (105)	Please low your voice. (Band 4)
G2 (91)	Could you speak aloud? (Band 7)

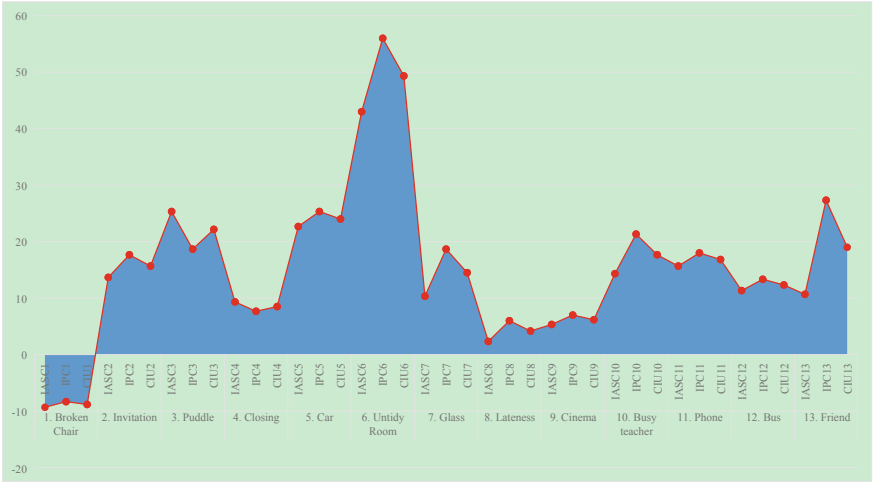

Fig. 6.4 Effects of study-abroad experience on CIU

negative correlation, since the usage conditions are significantly more accessible to G2 students in the at-home learning environment.

According to the data set, non-native speakers can benefit from the study-abroad context "in developing an understanding of strategies involved in communicative acts through their daily participation in the acts" (Taguchi & Roever, 2017: 229).

For example, in the situation of an untidy room, learners who did not live abroad typically finished the initiating utterance with the target apologetic speech act, either disregarding (*Sorry*) or misusing the pragmatic strategy (*I'll clean it up*). Similarly, the underuse of pragmatic strategy (*Can I go with you*?) by speakers with limited abroad experience may result in confusing output, because we as listeners have no concept of *how* you will *come with me*. In other words, because of the overgeneralization of pragmatic strategy, the main essence of the request speech act cannot be fully conveyed. The same was true for only adopting the target expression *Thank you* with neglecting the necessary strategy *the time your teacher spent on you* encoded in the ASC. Table 6.5 summarizes the particular performances in the ASC section.

The length of abroad experience, like proficiency, may not ensure the absolute comprehension of ASC information. As indicated in Table 6.6, despite the fact that *Be careful* may be the most frequent routine expression to learners both at home and

Table 6.5 Positive effects of study-abroad experience on ASC knowledge in CIU

Situation/Group	Expressions	Core information	Speech act	Pragmatic strategy
"Untidy room" (#I6)	"Excuse the mess."			
G2 (108)	Help me. I need your help	✗	✗	✗
G2 (100)	Come in. Don't worry about the mess. I'll clean up	✓	✗	✓
G3 (126)	Sorry	✓	✓	✗
G3 (75)	Sorry. It is messy but I will clean it up immediately	✓	✓	✓
"Car" (#I5)	"Can I get a ride/lift?"			
G2 (67)	Thanks for take	✗	✗	✗
G2 (95)	Can I go with you?	✓	✓	✗
G3 (126)	Can you please pick me up?	✓	✓	✓
G3 (131)	Can you take me a ride?	✓	✓	✓
"Busy teacher" (#I10)	"Thanks for your time"			
G2 (102)	That's alright	✗	✗	✗
G2 (87)	Thank you so much	✓	✓	✗
G3 (115)	Thank you for teaching me	✓	✓	✗
G3 (133)	Thanks for your time and answering my questions	✓	✓	✓

Table 6.6 Negative effects of study-abroad experience on ASC knowledge in CIU

Situation/Group	Expressions	Core information	Speech act	Pragmatic strategy
"Broken chair" (#I1)	"Be careful."			
G2 (63)	Take care yourself	✓	✓	✓
G2 (74)	Be careful. Watch out	✓	✓	✓
G3 (130)	Do you need help?	✓	✗	✗
G3 (135)	That chair's leg is broken	✓	✗	✓

abroad, G3 learners with a specific length of abroad residence may still struggle to understand the ASC information accurately. They also frequently ignored the target warning speech act, instead seeing it as an offer of assistance *Do you need help*? or just presenting a pragmatic strategy *That chair's leg is broken.*

In terms of the specific influence of study abroad on PC knowledge, non-native learners may "develop an understanding of pragmalinguistic forms and their indexical meanings through routine interactions with expert members of the community" (Taguchi & Roever, 2017: 87). In particular, the three norms of native-like speakers shown in Table 6.7 pertain to semi-fixed routines that were considerably more commonly used in the local community. The study-abroad experience contributed to their dominant linguistic form, which is not otherwise available in the at-home situation. At-home learners with higher proficiency, for example, were significantly hampered in retrieving PC knowledge due to less contact with their use conditions, since their pragmalinguistic selection was confined to *little dirty* rather than the lexical core *the mess*. Likewise, the deviating terms *help me get to*… and *go with you* replaced the native-speaker lexical core *get a ride/lift*, albeit the former can still reflect the illocutionary forces of the request speech act.

Furthermore, because pragmatics learning is assumed to be "embedded in cultural practices in situ in a community of users of the language" (Taguchi & Roever, 2017: 87), continuous interaction with the target form in the host context promotes the internalization of routine acquisition. Furthermore, active participation in the target language community aids in the differentiation of the similarly-paired lexical core. Even with stronger proficiency, learners without abroad experience failed to distinguish between *leave and take a message*. The particular performance of G2 and G3 learners is detailed in Table 6.7.

As previously stated, not all routines receive equal promotion in the study-abroad environment, particularly for certain conventional expressions often employed at home. There is evidence that learners without abroad experience outperform learners with abroad experience in the broken chair scenario. This might also explain the comprehensive command of PC knowledge gathered previously by at-home learners. Due to extensive exposure to the use condition, at-home students have

Table 6.7 Positive effects of study-abroad experience on PC knowledge in CIU

Situation	Expressions (Band)
"Untidy room" (#I6)	"Excuse/Sorry for the mess."
G2 (81)	Sure, can you come my home to help clean my home? (Band 7)
G2 (57)	Just forget it. It's a little dirty. (Band 4)
G3 (133)	It is a messy place. So sorry. (Band 2)
G3 (129)	Sorry. It is messy but I will clean it up immediately. (Band 2)
"Friend" (#13)	"Can I/you leave/take a message?"
G2 (78)	If my friend come back, give me a message. (Band 7)
G2 (79)	Can you tell… (Band 6)
G2 (91)	Can I give a conversation with my friend? (Band 5)
G2 (89)	Do you like to take a message for me for my roommates? (Band 4)
G2 (81)	Could you do me a favor? And I want to say something to my roommate. (Band 3)
G3 (143)	Can you pass a massage to him? (Band 2)
"Car" (#I5)	"Can I get a ride/lift?"
G2 (67)	Thanks for take. (Band 7)
G2 (63)	Can you help me to get to…? (Band 6)
G2 (77)	Can I go together with me? (Band 5)
G2 (70)	Could you please take me a ride? (Band 4)
G2 (95)	Can I go with you? (Band 3)
G3 (119)	Would you mind driving me there? (Band 2)

been completely familiar with the target selection of *Be careful*, enabling the study-abroad experience to lose its constructive value, even with a tendency toward negative association.

However, it is worth noting that G2 learners' responses contained a wide range of interlanguage grammatical errors. One of the most common faults is verbosity, in which learners with no abroad experience tended to offer more statements (i.e., the simultaneous occurrence of *Be careful. Watch out.* in one response) in order to compensate for non-native speaker norms. Meanwhile, collocation mistakes were placed high up on the list. As seen in the example, the preposition *of* that should has been followed by *take care* has been completely deleted, resulting in a considerable variety of intended responses owing to inadequate PC knowledge. Table 6.8 has further information.

Both factors' interaction and CIU There is no dispute that proficient learners with abroad experience outperformed their less-proficient counterparts without abroad experience in all facets of routine initiating competence. In effect, the interplay between proficiency and study-abroad experience influences routine productivity in general. Due to the significant reliance on grammar for the realization of semi-fixed

Table 6.8 Negative effects of study-abroad experience on PC knowledge in CIU

Situation	Expressions (Band)
"Broken chair" (#I1)	"Be careful."
G2 (63)	Take care yourself. (Band 4)
G2 (74)	Oh, don't do this. Be careful. Let me help you. (Band 2)
G3 (130)	Do you need help? (Band 7)
G3 (132)	The chair is not stable. It has a broken leg. (Band 3)

routines or exact management of pragmalinguistic forms, a greater degree of proficiency is necessitated. On the other hand, more exposure to the target language community might lead to the formation of target-like norms, because these forms are easily available in such a context as long as EFL speakers actively engage in such social activities.

Similarly, this does not imply that the combined factors may produce dramatic pragmatic advantages in all routine expressions. As shown in Fig. 6.5, its favorably impacting degree varied from routine to routine, and even the ASC component of Scenarios 1 and 9 showed varying degrees of negative correlation. Similarly, the study-abroad context has differential supporting effects on learners' usage of low-frequency routines in the at-home environment. For example, the positive and constructive degree of their combination in *Excuse the mess* was the highest, while that in *Come to my place* was substantially lower. Acquiring exact "pragmalinguistics for encoding illocutionary intentions" is a long process, even in the target language environment (Taguchi & Roever, 2017: 229), despite the presence of relatively quick advancement of knowledge relevant to a solitary pragmatic event. To that aim, a sophisticated understanding of linguistic systems along with target language abilities to activate the information in actual engagement is essential for successful pragmatic production (Taguchi, 2011a).

This part primarily focused on routine demonstrating the influence of two primary factors, proficiency and study-abroad experience, on the two categories of contextual knowledge necessitated for initiating competence of routines. The following part will illustrate the relevant analysis and discussion on the competence of responding to utterances.

6.1.3.2 Competence of Responding to Utterances

In terms of competence in responding to utterances (CRU), the points by G3 in each item were clearly placed in the topmost portion of the chart, followed by G2 and G1, which were positioned at the bottom with an essentially uniform changing pattern, as illustrated in Fig. 6.6. This general trend (G3 > G2 > G1) confirmed the finding that proficiency was not the sole crucial component (Kecskes, 2013); rather, study-abroad experience and both factors' interaction had a significant influence on CRU. This is

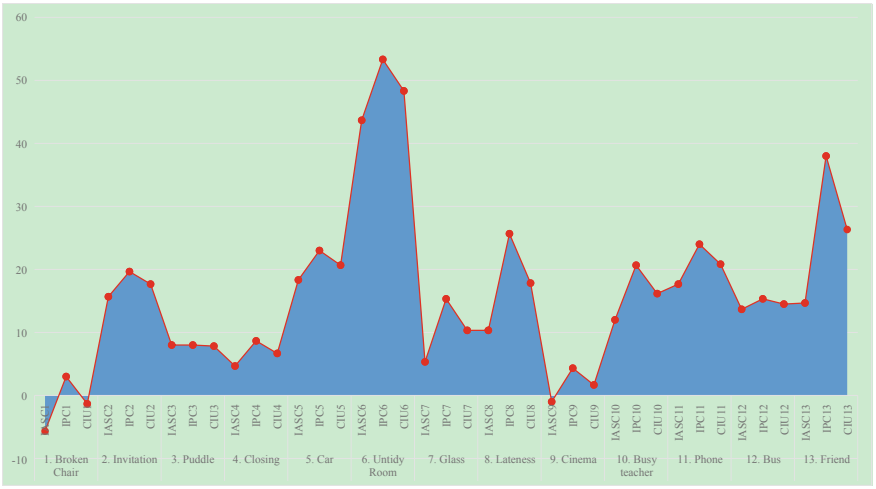

Fig. 6.5 Effects of both factors' interaction on each scenario in CIU

consistent with previous research findings on proficiency versus routine production (Bardovi-Harlig, 2009) and the interplay of proficiency and study-abroad experience (Taguchi, 2013), but differs slightly from those on study-abroad experience versus routine production (Bardovi-Harlig & Bastos, 2011).

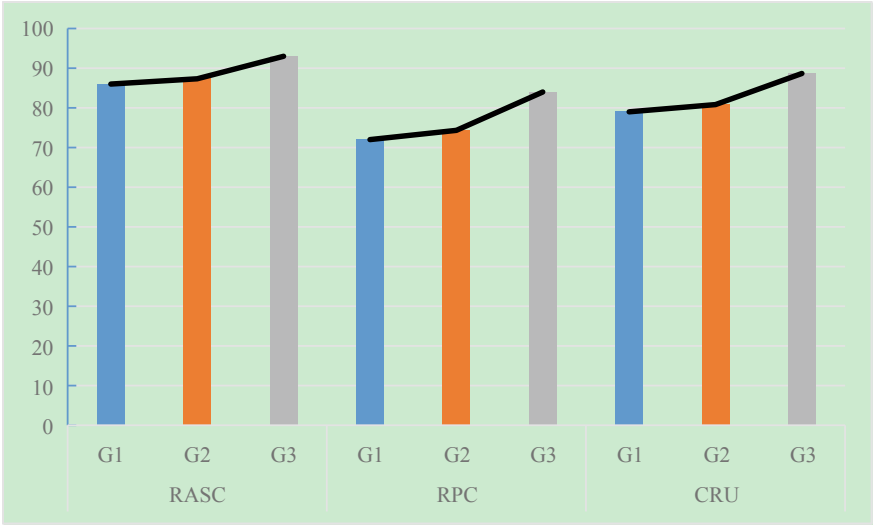

Fig. 6.6 The general trend of CRU

Furthermore, it is necessary to emphasize that the integrated variable was more relevant in CRU than proficiency alone. Indeed, learners with study-abroad experience gain extensive exposure to target-like socio-culturally bound practices, which is "the prime feature of the study-abroad context" (Taguchi & Roever, 2017: 220), resulting in more socialization of PCs in appropriate linguistic practices because they are shaped and guided by native speakers. Meanwhile, repeated interactions with multiple ASCs should be widely obtainable in the target-language context, enhancing learners' pragmatic awareness. Furthermore, members of the local speech community can generate preferred methods of linguistic selection, native-like patterns of interaction, and explicit feedback on pragmatic practices.

The usage of routines often reflects preferred ways of saying things (cf. Kecskes, 2007; Pawley & Syder, 1983), which are closely related to pragmatic competence (Kecskes, 2013). Aside from the advantage of study-abroad experience, the combination of two variables might offer an exceptional contribution to routine output, as a vital function of high levels of proficiency has been discovered in the productive control and proper processing of linguistic expressions. Even learners with high levels of pragmatic ability (from studying abroad) cannot fully attain the target-like degree, which is contrary to Taguchi's (2013) findings.

This phenomenon might be accounted by non-native speakers' lack of readiness to rely on prefabricated routines and properly comprehend the socio-cultural burdens they face, as well as their proclivity to turn to literal production rather than figurative output in intercultural communication. In conclusion, learners were able to identify the same essential components of ASCs as native speakers, covering a speech act of specific illocutionary force. However, due to their limited prior knowledge and infrequent interactions with ASCs, they were unable to select the most relevant linguistic strings to elaborate on that force. Furthermore, while all test takers excelled at producing *No problem* for Item 3, the riding scenario, they were unable to provide *Do you have a minute*? in the office context. The following paragraphs will feature detailed analysis.

Proficiency and CRU The area-line constitutional diagram was drawn based on the data calculated and shown in Fig. 6.7 to examine the unique influence of proficiency (by subtracting values in G1 from those in G2) on CRU. According to this diagram, the area above the x-axis denotes positive impacts of proficiency and vice versa. The polarized trend was committed to demonstrating that proficiency was significantly salient to both groups of learners when responding to target routines such as *I have other plans* (#10), *I'm just browsing* (#12), *Do you have a minute*? (#13), *I'm sorry to hear that* (#1 and 16), *I'm looking for…* (#4), and *Thank you* (#18). In comparison, the data below revealed a negative-correlated pattern in which lower-level learners outscored higher-level peers in 7 scenarios, including *Thank you* (#2), *No problem* (#5), *You too* (#6), *I'm sorry* (#7 and 8), *Thank you* (#17), and *No thanks* (#19). Mixed connections were also observed among the remaining routines, such as *No problem* (#9), *That works for me* (#8), *Nice to meet you* (#15), and so on, which primarily represented a favorable influence on ASC knowledge but a negative impact on PC counterpart.

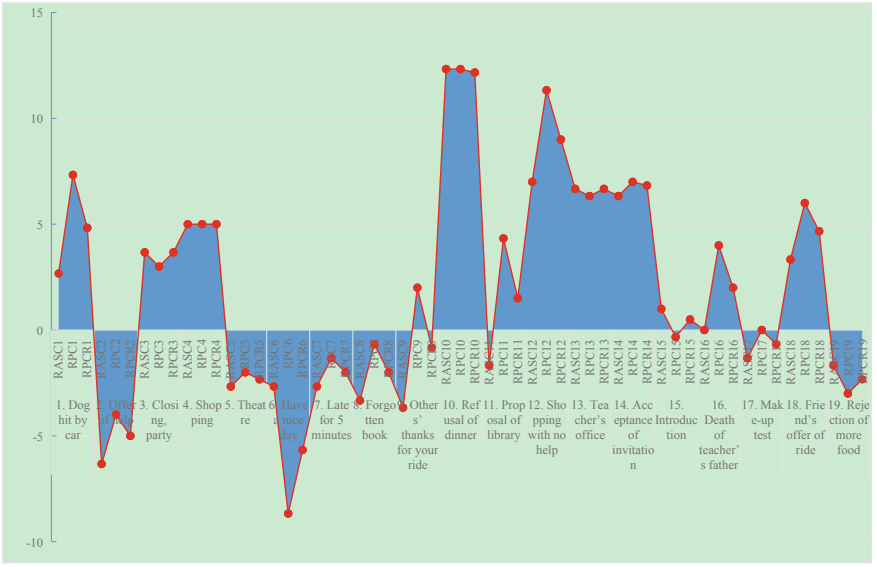

Fig. 6.7 Effects of proficiency on each routine scenario in CRU

After contrasting the positive and negative effects of proficiency, Table 6.9 shows that the most frequently used, situation-bound expressions with slot completion are more likely to be susceptible to proficiency. Such routines are not fully and exclusively formulaic in essence but frequently consist of some slots-and-frame patterns whose completion benefits greatly from a high level of precise linguistic parsing. In terms of ASC in CRU, proficiency was not a significant factor in the ASC of most items, but it did impact perception of the refusal speech act in response to the salesclerk's offer of assistance, *Can I help you*? in Item 12.

To some extent, proficient learners (G2) were considerably more likely than lower proficiency counterparts (G1) to identify the refusal speech act embedded in the shopping (refusal) context and employ the pragmatic strategy of presenting a justification for not purchasing, as shown below. Low proficiency individuals failed to formulate a pragmatic strategy or distorted the target refusal speech act far more frequently than high proficiency participants. It can also be demonstrated that high proficiency, albeit insignificantly, can help participants retrieve accurate ASC information when confronted with such scenarios up to a point. Concurrently, no significant association occurred between influencing factors and other features not mentioned in this section, implying that even the combination of proficiency and study-abroad experience had no marked effect on ASC.

In contrast, high levels of proficiency are not always a guarantee of successful routine output. In fact, the formation of fixed and functional routines is within the ability of lower-level at-home learners, and even lower-level participants outperformed their higher-level counterparts in terms of responding performance. Although G2 learners have a better command of linguistic abilities, complete comprehension

Table 6.9 Positive effect of proficiency on ASC knowledge in CRU section

Situation/Group	Expressions	Core information	Speech act	Pragmatic strategy
"Dinner" (#R10)	"I have other plans."			
G1 (23)	Yes, I'm sure. I would love to	✗	✗	✗
G1 (35)	I'm so sorry I cannot go there	✓	✓	✗
G2 (105)	I really want to go but I have something to do on that night	✓	✓	✓
G2 (59)	I'd like to but I have an appointment with others	✓	✓	✓
"Shopping with no help" (#R12)	"I'm just browsing/looking around."			
G1 (11)	Yes. Thank you	✗	✗	✗
G1 (30)	No, thanks	✓	✓	✗
G2 (107)	Thank you but I just want to look around. maybe I'll call you later	✓	✓	✓
G2 (93)	Thank you, but I just go around by myself	✓	✓	✓
"Teacher's office" (#R12)	"Do you have a minute?"			
G1 (48)	Thank you	✓	✗	✗
G1 (35)	Can we have a talk?	✓	✗	✓
G2 (101)	Hello, can I ask you some questions? Are you available?	✓	✓	✓
G2 (72)	Do you have time?	✓	✓	✓

of ASC information may still occur, as one respondent may use *My pleasure* (a routine used to respond to others' gratitude) to replace *Thank you*, corroborating s/he completely misjudged the contextual information embedded in this situation. This also occurred frequently in the following situations *Of course, I can bring the book* (denoting one's abilities) in place of *I'm sorry* simply because your forgetfulness (#8), and the refusal *Sorry, I don't want to.* taking the target's place by *responding to others' reasonable requests* (#5) Another instance of ignorance about the target speech act may be identified among upper at-home learners. As a reaction to others' *Have a nice day*, the only use of a supplemental strategy *Thank you* appears insufficient to reply to the speaker's utterances. The same might be argued about using *Oh my god. I left the book at home* to do the apologetic speech act in Scenario 8.

These observations might also demonstrate that improved management of linguistic resources does not have a direct relationship with comprehension of ASC information. Table 6.10 contains information on the performance of two-group at-home learners.

Appropriate routine output does necessitate some grammatical analysis. Proficiency, as reflected by an excellent command of previously acquired linguistic abilities, is more conducive to production in the CRU part because "producing language requires greater effort, active access to grammar and vocabulary knowledge, and fast output" (Taguchi & Roever, 2017: 215). In fact, proficiency was a significant factor only in the shopping (refusal) and dinner (refusal) settings due to a significant increase of approximately 11.10–12.23% in the accuracy ratings of PC knowledge between G1 and G2. However, study-abroad experience had no impact on these two items in which the target expressions required a specific number of syntactic analyses, particularly accurate mastery of the lexical core. For example, the target expression *I have other plans* (Band 1) required learners to extract the core vocabulary *other plans* through their PC knowledge in accordance with the information provided by the ASC. This cannot be substituted, ignored, or attached to additional components, otherwise resulting in alternative routines that were slightly nonnative-like with verbosity (Band 2) or expressions without mentioning core content (Band 3).

This interpretation also applies to the expression *{I'm} Just browsing/looking (around)*, which has a functional meaning that is generally stable or invariant and is tightly linked to a certain ASC. This type of routine, which is often handled as a fixed group rather than a solitary string of words, can be retrieved and pronounced quickly as long as it meets the requirements of ASC. The lexical core *browsing* or *looking around* most likely reflected the nature of ASC, that *I had no intention of purchasing anything here.* As a result, when *browse* or *look around* were replaced by *see* or *for*, the learners' PC knowledge dropped immediately to Band 4, nonnative-like, due to minor lexical errors.

Also, the illocutionary force of the refusal speech act may even be changed directly into its antithesis, acceptance, bringing about strange wording because of substantial grammatical errors (Band 5). As a result, greater proficiency appeared to be favorable, as it reduced the risk of syntactic incorrectness, particularly when learners manipulated accurate prior knowledge for routines. However, it did not apply to the majority of the other routine items not stated in this section, where no significant differences between G1 and G2 learners were found, because proficiency alone does not account for target-like production (Taguchi, 2013). Due to the partial conceptual socialization process, errors in routine production can sometimes be triggered by pragmatic rather than structural problems, as L2 learners must identify issues with culture-specific communicative functions, routine-specific pragmatic features, and differences in communication patterns (Kecskes, 2013).

In conclusion, as stated by Taguchi and Roever (2017: 312), "the meanings of speech forms are diverse and ambiguous, reflecting one's language ideology and contextual contingencies", which was intertwined with the unfamiliar degree of certain speech act, such as the refusal speech act shown in the table below. More

Table 6.10 Negative effects of proficiency on ASC knowledge in CRU

Situation/Group	Expressions	Core information	Speech act	Pragmatic strategy
"Offer of help" (#R2)	"Thank you."			
G1 (5)	Thank you, it's very kind of you	✓	✓	✓
G1 (35)	Oh, very appreciate. Thank you very much	✓	✓	✓
G2 (68)	My pleasure	✗	✗	✗
G2 (70)	That would be very nice of you	✓	✗	✓
"Forgotten book" (#R8)	"I'm sorry."			
G1 (9)	Oh, I'm sorry I forgot. I am going right to my home and pick it for you	✓	✓	✓
G1 (38)	I'm sorry. I forget it at home. I will give you the book this afternoon	✓	✓	✓
G2 (87)	Of course I can bring the book	✗	✗	✗
G2 (99)	Oh my god. I left the book at home	✓	✗	✓
"Theatre" (#R5)	"No problem."			
G1 (5)	OK, of course	✓	✓	✓
G1 (38)	Of course yes. I can do that for you	✓	✓	✓
G2 (76)	Sorry, I don't want to	✗	✗	✗
G2 (83)	sorry, I don't have time	✗	✗	✗
"Have a nice day." (#R6)	"You, too!"			
G1 (1)	Thank you. You too	✓	✓	✓
G1 (15)	Thank you. Have a nice day too	✓	✓	✓
G2 (101)	Thank you	✓	✗	✓
G2 (108)	Thank you very much. It's a nice day	✓	✗	✓

Table 6.11 Positive effects of proficiency on PC knowledge in CRU

Situation	Target expressions (Band)
"Dinner" (#R10)	"I have other plans."
G1 (23)	Yes, I'm sure. I would love to. (Band 7)
G1 (46)	I'm sorry but I have to… (Band 6)
G1 (19)	I'm so sorry. I'm busy for something else and I… (Band 4)
G2 (64)	I'm sorry. The time is not available at that time. (Band 3)
G2 (91)	Sorry, I have an appointment on Friday. (Band 2)
"Shopping with no help" (#R12)	"I'm just browsing/looking around."
G1 (11)	Yes, thank you. (Band 7)
G1 (30)	No, thanks. (Band 5)
G1 (26)	I just looking for some clothes. I don't need help. Thank you. (Band 4)
G2 (97)	Thank you, but I want to choose by myself. (Band 3)
G2 (107)	Thank you but I just want to look around. Maybe I'll call you later. (Band 2)

crucially, lower proficiency learners usually produce less native-like responses than their higher proficiency peers simply because they lack the linguistic resources required to convert complicated L1 pragmatic conventions into L2 output (Taguchi, 2011a: 907). Table 6.11 has listed the defective responding utterances that support the aforementioned elaborations.

Higher-level control of pragmalinguistic resources by PC knowledge, on the other hand, does not always result in the successful output of routines. As shown in Table 6.12, even high-level EFL speakers were unable to completely eliminate L1-driven negative transfer due to the frequent occurrence of interlanguage grammatical errors, such as ignorance of the indefinite article *an* in *You're angle* as a thanking response to others' offer of assistance. At the same time, even if the linguistic form of the target speech act is correct, certain errors in the supplemental pragmatic strategies may occur, such as the incorrect adverb collocation in *I'm already eating enough.*

In reality, when learners do not have access to practice opportunities, their L2 growth and final attainment are always constrained (Duff, 2012). G2 learners without abroad experience must have understood the target pragmalinguistic form of *You too*, but they may still fail to activate PC knowledge when confronted with such a circumstance with limited use of *Thank you* as an alternative linguistic string. This might also be attributed to a lack of practice and exposure to the use condition of such fixed functional routines.

Study-abroad experience and CRU The results of this study revealed that the study-abroad environment has a positive effect in CRU, as shown in Fig. 6.8, because relatively few areas are adversely below the x-axis (i.e., #8 the forgotten book). Exposure to diverse communicative situations could be abundantly realized in the study-abroad context (in comparison to at-home academic background) to make non-native

Table 6.12 Negative effects of proficiency on PC knowledge in CRU

Situation	Target expressions (Band)
"Have a nice day." (#R6)	"You, too!"
G1 (12)	Have a nice day, too. (Band 2)
G1 (46)	It's same to you. (Band 2)
G2 (101)	Thank you. (Band 3)
G2 (83)	Thanks, I will. (Band 3)
"Offer of help" (#R2)	"Thank you."
G1 (13)	Thank you. It's very kind of you. (Band 2)
G1 (46)	That's wonderful. (Band 3)
G1 (29)	Thank you with your nice. (Band 4)
G2 (76)	You're angle (Band 4)
G2 (68)	My pleasure. (Band 7)
"Rejecting more food" (#R19)	"No, thanks. {I'm full/staffed.}"
G1 (37)	I would like to but I'm really stuffed. So delicious, thank you. (Band 2)
G1 (29)	The food is delicious but I'm already full. (Band 3)
G2 (110)	No, thanks. I'm already eating enough (Band 4)
G2 (107)	Thank you but… (Band 6)
G2 (105)	Thank you. (Band 7)

speakers participate in L2-dominated social patterns and linguistic practices. This further contributed more to L2 conceptual socialization into target-like pragmatic norms subconsciously, especially after prompt feedback and guidance from native speakers.

More crucially, non-native learners were able to identify certain characteristics of interactional contexts for which matching linguistic choices were really suitable, suggesting that their comprehension of appropriate pragmatic acts may be gradually established. Similarly, the promoted degree of abroad residence differed from scenario to scenario. In other words, the study-abroad experience may encourage infrequently utilized, saliently established routines with a certain degree of unfamiliarity, such as *Thanks for having me* (#3) and *Do you have a minute*? (#13). The thorough analysis will be elaborated on in the following sections.

Again, proficiency had essentially little impact on ASC mastery between G2 and G3, but study-abroad experience showed the exact opposite effect; consequently, our attention is undeniably on the latter. First, G3 participants with abroad experience were found to comprehend ASC considerably better than G2 counterparts without abroad experience in Item 3, closing party, Item 11, library proposal, and Item 13, teacher's office situations. This implies that study-abroad experience appeared to have the most impact on comprehending ASC of these items. As for the performance when producing *Do you have a minute*? as the target response on *hearing*

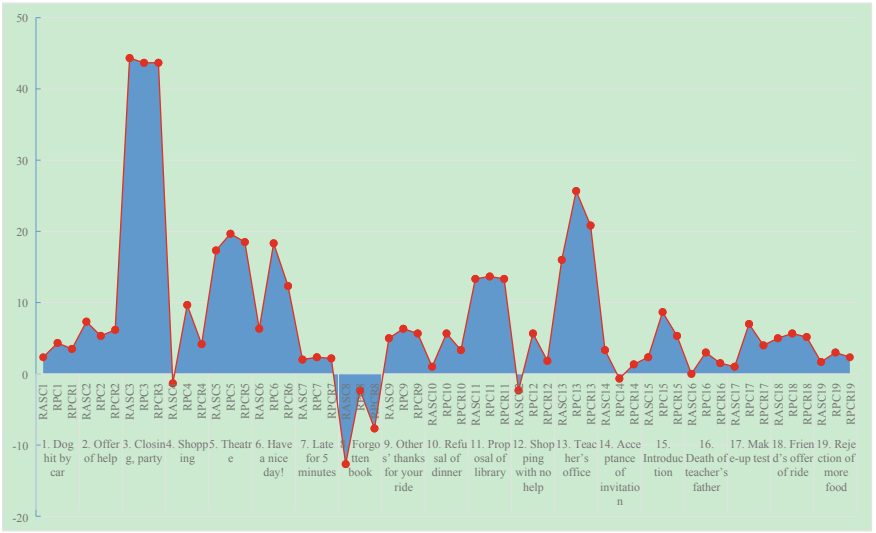

Fig. 6.8 Effects of study-abroad experience on each routine scenario in CRU

the teacher's allowing you to enter the office (#13), learners with abroad experience significantly outperformed the two non-residence counterparts both in the comprehension of ASC information and the target-like production of linguistic forms. Because of these frequently encountered situations in learners' daily communication abroad, they gain a better understanding of ASC than those who have no abroad experience.

On hearing *Thanks for coming* in the reception scenario, for example, the learners were required to accomplish the thanking speech act with the pragmatic strategy containing *the host's invitation.* Similarly, the ASC of the library scenario could include the assenting speech act and the pragmatic strategy regarding the intrinsic suitability of the proposal *Is the library okay for everyone* for yourself, whereas the office setting required test takers to use the request speech act, which included inquiring about the teacher's availability (*time*).

The peers without abroad experience frequently misinterpreted the situational context as a general greeting occasion, ending with *Hi, morning*, *Hello, professor*, or even *I'm sorry to interrupt you* and *Thank you.* Sufficient exposure to these frequently encountered situations overseas can aid in the formation of ASC knowledge experiences in which the target speech actions and pragmatic strategies are effortlessly mastered. The counterparts without abroad experience, for example, may only output the target speech act of *Thank you* without the suitable strategy *for having/inviting me*, and vice versa (using an appropriate strategy *for your invitation* with an irrelevant speech act *I'm quite pleased*…).

This might be attributed to a decrease in utilization or a lack of involvement in productive classroom training or practice, which "fails to consider the importance of a pragmatic focus for improving communicative competence" (Halenko, 2018: 156).

The lack of any element in each item may cause the entire ASC knowledge to be judged defectively. The participants' inadequate responses related to ASC in these items, as listed below, may validate the aforementioned explanations. We focused primarily on whether the participants grasped the core information provided by the short video, as well as if the target speech act was consistent with the required pragmatic strategy. Table 6.13 has further details.

In contrast, as shown in Table 6.14, the study-abroad context had no discernible effect on the perception of ASC information with regard to the apology speech act of *I'm sorry*. As previously stated, learners with or without study-abroad experience always follow this fixed routine. Furthermore, "genuine opportunities for language practice of speech acts such as apologies may be few and far between in study abroad

Table 6.13 Positive effects of study-abroad experience on ASC knowledge in CRU

Situation/Group	Expressions	Core information	Speech act	Pragmatic strategy
"Closing party" (#R3)	"Thanks for having me."			
G2 (52)	That's okay. I'm coming anyway	✗	✗	✗
G2 (66)	My pleasure	✓	✗	✗
G3 (126)	I have fun. Thank you	✓	✓	✗
G3 (137)	I had a wonderful night. Thanks so much for your invitation	✓	✓	✓
"Library" (#R11)	"That works for me."			
G2 (56)	Yes	✓	✓	✗
G2 (98)	That would be fine	✓	✓	✗
G3 (123)	Perfect for me	✓	✓	✓
G3 (121)	I am OK with that	✓	✓	✓
"Teacher's office" (#R13)	"Do you have a minute?"			
G2 (93)	Hello, teacher. I forget the time to meet you now	✗	✗	✗
G2 (78)	Good morning, teacher	✓	✗	✗
G2 (100)	Hello, teacher. May I talk to you please?	✓	✗	✓
G3 (129)	Hi professor. I just stop by to see if you are available	✓	✓	✓

Table 6.14 Negative effects of study-abroad experience on ASC knowledge in CRU

Situation/Group	Expressions	Core information	Speech act	Pragmatic strategy
"Forgotten book" (#R8)	"I'm sorry."			
G2 (53)	I'm so sorry. I'll give it tonight	✓	✓	✓
G2 (99)	Oh my god. I left the book at home	✓	✓	✗
G3 (112)	Of course	✗	✗	✗
G3 (125)	I forget to bring it here for you	✓	✗	✓

experiences" (Halenko, 2018: 156). As a result, it appeared conceivable for learners, even those with abroad experience, to avoid the target speech act of apologizing by simply offering an excuse, such as *I forget to bring it here for you.*

According to Taguchi and Roever (2017: 229), the promotion of the salience regarding "target form-function mappings" by direct attention to forms may hasten the rate of pragmalinguistic development. In terms of PC knowledge, both G2 and G3 subjects were 12–47% more likely to produce native-like routines than G1 students, implying that study-abroad experience and both factors' combination, rather than proficiency alone, appeared to play a dominant role in most reception, riding, studying, and office situations. Approximately 65.9–82.9% of native speakers can produce a single ruling routine, such as *Thanks for having me* in the reception setting, *No problem* in the riding item, *That works for me* in the studying scenario, and *Do you have a minute*? in the office context.

The shared distinguishing features of these expressions are comparatively fixed in syntactic structures and functional meanings across similar situations; thus, a "lesser degree of creative construction (is) required in their processing, understanding, and production" (Taguchi & Roever, 2017: 176), and such expressions can be immediately retrievable. Even higher proficiency will have no effect on native-likeness, but learners' sociopragmatic knowledge from their PC might be the crucial determinant in choosing the appropriate routines, highlighting the significant impact of study-abroad experience in these scenarios. Continuous exposure to the use of routines in a dense target-language environment would undoubtedly aid in the formation of solid ASC-PC mappings, resulting in target-like production of linguistic units. As a result, the participants' erroneous expressions centered mostly on Bands 5 and 6, that is, non-native selection of dominant expressions or divergence from normative patterns. Table 6.15 provides the specifications.

On the contrary, not all learners benefited equally from their overseas study experience. In reality, "the precise elements-amount and nature of social contact, types of language practice, and individual learner characteristics-that determine learning outcomes" (Taguchi, 2018: 129), rather than just sheer time of staying abroad. Even with the experiences of abroad residence, it is not guaranteed that they have complete access to it due to personal or environmental factors (Kecskes, 2015). The above

Table 6.15 Positive effects of study-abroad experience on PC knowledge in CRU

Situation	Target expressions (Band)
"Closing party" (#R3)	"Thanks for having me."
G2 (52)	That's okay. I'm coming anyway. (Band 7)
G2 (91)	Glad to invite this activity. (Band 4)
G3 (126)	I have fun. Thank you. (Band 3)
G3 (128)	Thanks for your reception. (Band 2)
"Teacher's office" (#R13)	"Do you have a minute?"
G2 (94)	Thank you. (Band 7)
G2 (64)	I want to ask you if you have time to give my… (Band 6)
G2 (74)	Oh, my dear teacher. I have something to talk with you. Do you free now? (Band 4)
G3 (120)	Hello. Do you have time to talk to me? (Band 2)
G3 (129)	Hi professor, I just stop by to see if you are available. (Band 2)
"Theatre" (#R5)	"No problem."
G2 (23)	Sorry, I don't want to. (Band 7)
G2 (96)	I'm so sorry. I couldn't. (Band 7)
G3 (125)	Sure. (Band 2)
G3 (117)	Of course. (Band 2)

findings clearly demonstrate the vital need of considering learners' subjectivity and agency, particularly when evaluating speech act data (Taguchi & Roever, 2017).

Concerning the verbose responses in routine production, non-native EFL speakers persisted in using verbosity to approximate the target-like responses they evaluated, such as *I am very sorry that I forgot it, but I will retain it to you tonight at your house*. On the other hand, this type of abroad setting failed to advance the "learning of the exact syntax and lexis involved in the acts" (Taguchi & Roever, 2017: 229). In the case of acceptance of invitation, learners with study-abroad experience may still exhibit insufficient responses due to a lack of interactions with direct input driven by inadequate exposure or low interaction in the target environment (Halenko, 2018). This resulted in unsuccessful conceptual socialization into native-speaker norms, because linguistic and social development are not always intertwined, and non-native EFL learners do not always have easy access to L2-dominated sociocultural contexts. Table 6.16 illustrates their responses.

Both factors' interaction and CRU In addition to study-abroad experience, as shown in Fig. 6.9, the interplay of both variables had an influence only on routine production. Aside from the advantages of studying abroad, higher-level proficiency may contribute significantly to far more precise retrieval of syntax and lexical core in routine output, resulting in the meaning encoded in the expression being correctly interpreted (Taguchi & Roever, 2017).

For example, the target phrasal verbs, such as, *I'm looking for…*, *I have other plans*, and *I'm just browsing/looking around*, pertained primarily to semi-fixed

Table 6.16 Negative effects of study-abroad experience on PC knowledge in CRU

Situation	Target expressions (Band)
"Forgotten book" (#R8)	"I'm sorry."
G2 (58)	Sorry. I will give it to you tomorrow. (Band 2)
G2 (99)	Oh my god. I left the book at home. (Band 3)
G2 (67)	Sorry I forgot your book at home and I will check it to you. (Band 4)
G3 (112)	Of course. (Band 7)
G3 (124)	I forgot taking it here and give it to you. (Band 4)
"Acceptance of invitation" (#R14)	"Yes, I'd love to."
G2 (55)	Sure, I'm very happy you can invite me. (Band 3)
G2 (65)	Yeah, sure. I'm so glad to attend the party. (Band 2)
G3 (127)	Of course. (Band 3)
G3 (118)	Of course. I am so happy to join you. (Band 2)

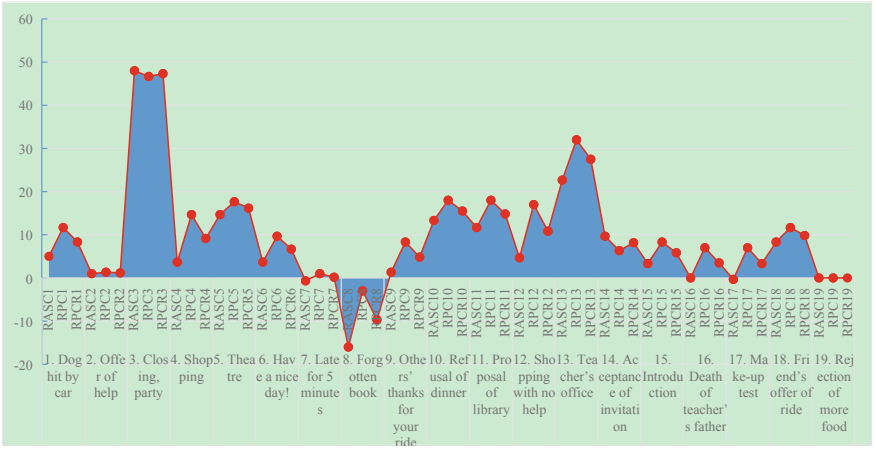

Fig. 6.9 Effects of both factors' interaction on each scenario in CRU

routines, which were closely tied to various actual situations, resulting in greater susceptibility to the combination of proficiency and study-abroad experience. These situational routines aren't entirely formulaic, but they do typically incorporate slot-and-frame patterns (i.e., *I'm looking for…*). As a result, completion of the slots component benefits from a decent level of proficiency. Furthermore, the routine itself may have some flexibility (i.e., *{I'm} Just browsing/looking around*), where both significant exposure to the target-language environment and high-level language proficiency did affect native-like production. In conclusion, some less adept learners with no abroad experience may not respond to the animation scenario owing to a lack

of ASC knowledge and PC knowledge, including sociopragmatic comprehension and pragmalinguistic rehearsal.

This part focused mostly on the competence of routine output, including both initiating and responding to utterances. The section that follows will go through the precise performances of contextualized routine recognition in detail.

6.2 Recognition Competence of Routines

Production and recognition are distinct modalities, with the modality interacting with diverse factors to varying degrees of effect. As indicated in the literature review section, the study-abroad experience was found to have a significant impact on routine production, with the added impact of proficiency in precise language parsing. However, routine recognition was shown to be less impacted by proficiency, instead relying on contextual cues or reminders as the inference foundation. Even when using the identical routine expression, Bardovi-Harlig (2009) discovered that learners performed far worse in routine production than on routine recognition. In order to answer the research question of the present study, to what degree do proficiency, study-abroad experience, and the combination of both factors affect routine recognition, the analysis of PC knowledge required and comprehension of contextual reminders contained in the ASC were used as evidence.

6.2.1 The General Trend of Routine Recognition

The interaction between ASC reminders (shown in the animation movie) and learners' mastery level of PC knowledge is characterized as routine recognition (the main focus of examination). Because L2 speakers' pragmatic options reflect their understanding of the individual, others, and circumstances at the time of interaction (Taguchi & Roever, 2017), this task modality required all three-group learners to choose an exclusive item that can be most appropriately matched with the scenario. As seen in Fig. 6.10, all learners had a reasonably superior recognition performance.

Above all, an ASC prompt is required for effective routine recognition. For instance, in Item 6, all groups, including the low-level learners without abroad experience, were familiar with the literal meanings of the four alternatives offered in the animation task. If the contextual reminder *the phone rings*, suggesting that the scene where the conversation takes place is about a phone conversation, was not well received by learners, the greeting expression *Hello*, typically used on the phone, could not be accurately identified by non-native speakers. Furthermore, pragmatic recognition and production are task modalities that demand learners to use different context knowledge and pragmatic capabilities. As a result, once learners' PC knowledge is focused on the lexical core *No, thanks*, alternative accompanying pragmatic

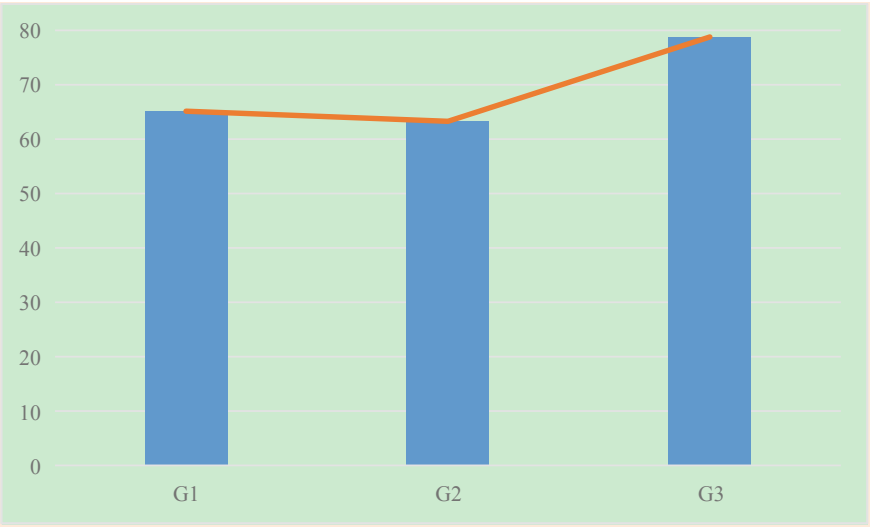

Fig. 6.10 The general trend of routine recognition

strategies (*I'm full* or *It's enough*) will not cause significant variance in the selection of target speech acts.

On the other hand, it is well recognized that PC knowledge is necessary for the effective recognition of routines. Failure to retrieve and extract PC knowledge will result in erroneous recognition, even though the actual contextual information was simply received and completely understood. For example, all participants might easily learn from contextual signals of Item 9 that replies to an apology were necessary. Despite the contextual reminders, the two at-home groups still found the intricacies of the target selection alternatives of *That's alright* (a reply to apologies; *I'm good enough to take care of myself* or *I don't need it*) to be bewildering, and other perplexing options such as *No bother* (no problem at all, especially implying it is not serious), *It's nothing* (not worth mentioning, a response to thanks), and *Don't mention it* (akin to *You're welcome*, a response to thanks) a tough routine to differentiate.

In terms of overall performance across three groups (see Fig. 6.10), learners with abroad experience outnumbered the other two at-home groups (see a steep upward trend from G2 to G3), with little significant difference (a downtrend from G1 to G2) between the former two under at-home institutional learning context. This corresponds to Bardovi-Harlig and Bastos' (2011) conclusion that there was no significant effect of proficiency on routine recognition, as well as Roever's (2012) generalization that routines are normally easier to acquire in the target language environment, but routine knowledge was almost independent of L2 proficiency.

The following part will provide a full linguistic analysis and explanation of the influence of these two distinct factors on routine recognition.

6.2.2 *Impacts of Proficiency and Study-Abroad Experience on Routine Recognition*

Proficiency and Routine Recognition To examine the influence of different degrees of proficiency, the sample was originally divided and primarily focused on two at-home groups with lower and higher levels of proficiency, respectively. As shown in Fig. 6.11, portions above the x-axis are positive, and vice versa. The same is true for the remaining figures in Sect. 6.2. The current study demonstrated a weaker effect of proficiency on routine recognition, which was most likely owing to routines being brief and featuring less linguistic complexity. Furthermore, because participants are just required to identify and select a prefabricated routine "without necessarily having to parse it semantically and grammatically" (Taguchi & Roever, 2017: 176), this crucial feature makes recognition or routines accessible to even low-proficiency participants.

For example, in Item 6, recognition of the target greeting expression *Hello* from possible distraction options, such as *Hi*, is achievable without exact language parsing by relying on the contextual on the phone rather than the face-to-face meeting. Certainly. This is not to suggest that proficiency levels have no effect on routines. In contrast, a substantial negative impact was found in Item 3, indicating that lower-level learners are better at detecting and selecting the target routine, *Can I get you anything else*? although their more proficient counterparts were far more likely to choose *Would you like anything else*? as the native-like alternative. This can, to some extent, support the notion that it is the frequent engagement, although in a purely at-home situation, rather than a strong command of linguistic skills, that allows the internalization of PC knowledge into contextualized routine recognition.

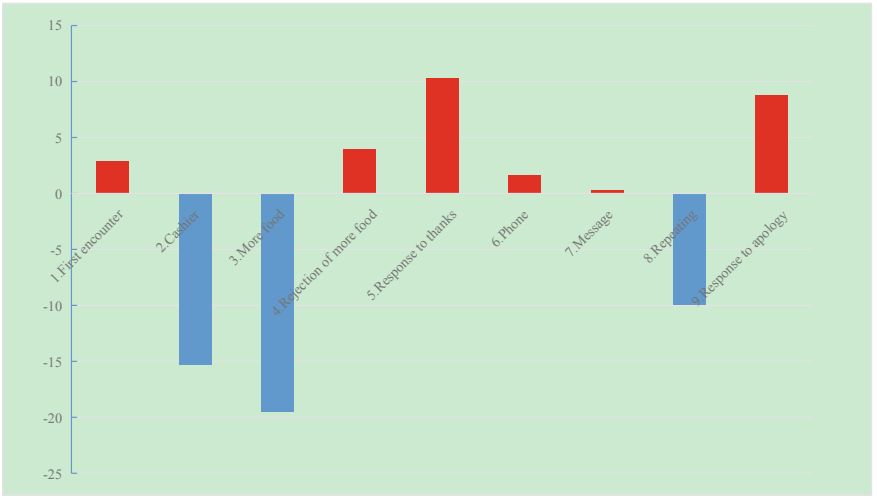

Fig. 6.11 Effects of proficiency on recognition competence

Furthermore, whereas proficiency had little effect on routine recognition in general, its specific positive and negative role differed from scenario to scenario. The negative effect of proficiency is reflected by Items 3, 2, and 8, as seen in Fig. 6.11, whereas the others are all positive. The positive relationship may be explained by two underlying factors: higher-proficiency learners' stronger command of refined linguistic knowledge and a certain extent of flexibility the routine itself may feature. Based on a thorough understanding of the contextual cues, the interpretation of the differences in answers to an apology, such as *That's okay*, *No worry*, *It's nothing*, and *Don't mention it*, necessitates exact linguistic differentiation via adequate PC knowledge.

Furthermore, when one part of the target routine, *No thanks*, is consistent across the overall options in Item 4, the distinction of deviated pragmatic strategies (i.e., *I've finished it*, *I've eaten*, and *I've done it*) and their completion require a relatively higher level of proficiency. In comparison to general proficiency, frequent use or encounter with the situational routine, *Here you go* in Item 2, will enhance the occurrence of preferable and native-like selections at home or abroad.

Study-abroad experience and Routine Recognition A closer look at how study-abroad experience affects routine recognition in Fig. 6.12 demonstrates that the findings comply with those from most previous recognition research (e.g., Roever, 2012; Roever et al., 2014) that routines are generally easier to acquire in the host community, as the majority of the blue bars are clearly distributed above the horizontal axis, with the exception of two red exceptions below the x-axis. This supports the relevance of study-abroad experience in facilitating the recognition of routines. At least in this study, exposure to the target norms is inevitably influential in the spontaneous accumulation of the sociopragmatic properties included in the ASC and pragmalinguistic forms based on their PC knowledge, which is required to recognize preferred routines.

To be more explicit, because routines are seen as prominent linguistic forms in the host environment, sufficient exposure and engagement in the study-abroad context, "characterized by features such as length of residence in formula-use situations, are likely to enhance knowledge of routine" (Taguchi & Roever, 2017: 224). Furthermore, routines reveal higher links with colloquial communication occurrences. Learners in the local setting have indeed been exposed to situations featuring such prefabricated expressions. As a result, learners can progressively understand "the function of highly context-dependent, culture-specific routines" (Taguchi & Roever, 2017: 225). The target selection of *Here you go* (Item 2) falls under the category of situational routines, with the essence that one linguistic form has the authority to carry a wider range of functional meanings. It is closely related to a few circumstances, the compositional meanings of which are completely distinct from their practical implications (i.e., *Here you are*, *Well done*, and so on). As a result, this can account for the ease with which routines, in particular, can be most efficiently learned and restored as updated PC knowledge by recurring quality interaction with communicative activities while overseas.

Furthermore, the target language community is "certainly not the only place where routine formulae can be learnt" (Roever, 2012: 16). Some routine knowledge can be

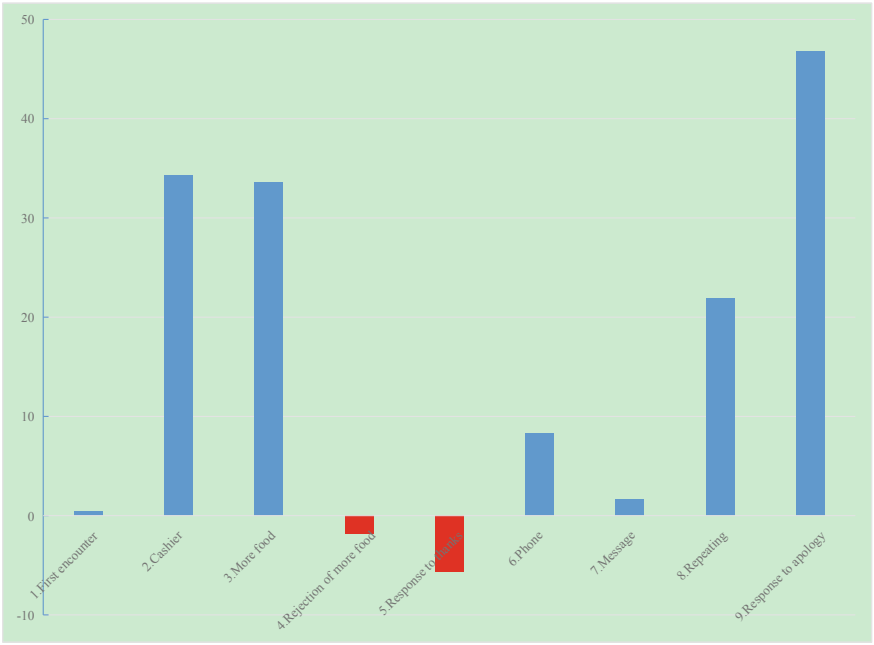

Fig. 6.12 Effect of study-abroad experience on routine recognition

gained at home, leading to reduced gaps between G2 and G3 (see the first and seventh blue bars). In comparison to other deviant expressions, the frequently used greeting routine *Nice to meet you* during the first encounter and the suggestive impact of *Can I leave a message*? appear to be generally learnable by at-home learners outside the target language context.

Although learning routines are highly susceptible to the study-abroad experience, this is not to say that high proficiency learners without abroad experience are invariably inferior to their peers with abroad residence in routine recognition or would not benefit from at-home instruction or experience—quite the contrary (e.g., see Item 4 and 5). Because these expressions are learnable in the at-home institutional context, at-home learners with high proficiency are already familiar with them. For example, at-home students are already accustomed to the refusal routine *No thanks, I'm full* and the reply to others' thanking *You're welcome*. Such routines will be modified more frequently at home than in local communities, resulting in even more evident negative growth.

Both factors' interaction and Routine Recognition In compared to the basic effect of study abroad experience, a significant difference was observed that there was no negative part in this section at all, as all blue bars are clearly above the x-axis as shown in Fig. 6.13. However, these elements appear to have differing effects on various types of routines. Some expressions are more likely to be selected as a result of sufficient encounters with target-like patterns in the social environment, but

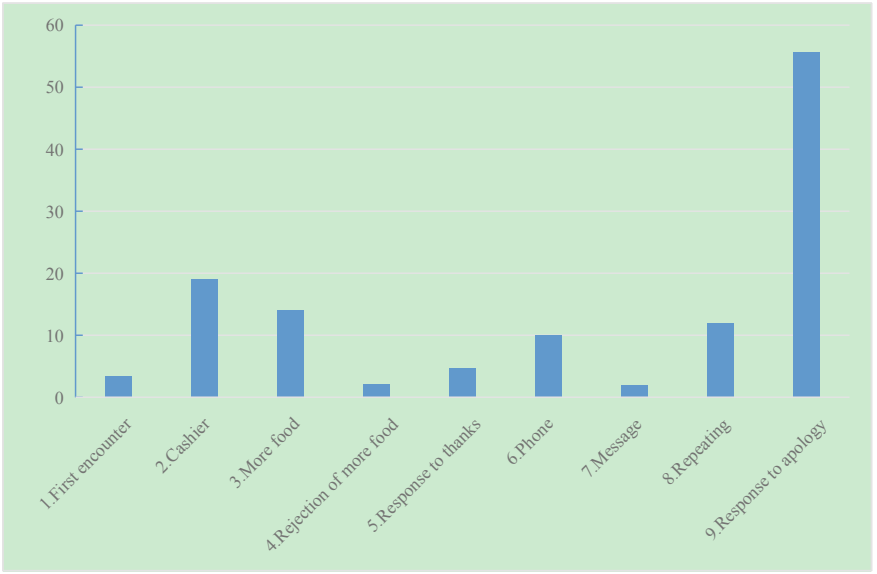

Fig. 6.13 Effects of both factors' interaction on routine recognition

others do not necessarily require a long duration of residence to become internalized. Overall, the significant pragmatic improvements were divided into two categories: larger gaps are represented by *That's okay*, *Here you go*, and *Can I get you anything else*, while smaller gaps are characterized by *No thanks, I'm full*, *Can I leave a message*, and *Nice to meet you.* These discrepancies in growth have been attributed to a number of factors including levels of contact, a recall of pertinent deviating possibilities, and the degree of familiarity with target routine expressions.

The next section will go into further insight into the specific performances within different grouping variables.

6.2.3 Learners' Specific Performance in Routine Recognition

As shown in Fig. 6.14, recognition of routines across three groups of unequal size is almost unaffected by proficiency and significantly susceptible to study-abroad experience, with rather similar changing patterns across all scenarios: flat (green/black dotted line), slightly steep (green/black lines) rising, and sharp downtrend (green/black lines in bold). More specifically, a negligibly slow broken-line increasing trend was discovered among the semi-fixed routine *Can I leave a message*? (best recognized), the fixed routine *Nice to meet you* (#1) when first met, and the phone greeting routine *Hello* (#6). In addition, a severe V (downtrend + uptrend)

Fig. 6.14 Learners' specific performances in each scenario of routine recognition

pattern was also identified among the situational routine *Here you go* (#2), the semi-fixed routine *Can I get you anything else* (#3, the most unrecognizable), and the fixed routine *Say that again, please*. There was also an inverted V-pattern in *No thanks, I'm full* (#4) and You're welcome (#5). In the end, a continuous sharp ascending trend falls on the functional routine *That's okay* (#9).

In light of the trends discussed above, it is also possible to conclude that while English proficiency was identified as an effective indicator for only certain routines, it had almost no overall positive and constructive impact in this study, whereas study-abroad experience had the opposite effect, statistically influencing routine recognition.

It is undeniable that study-abroad experience, defined as the time of residence in the host community, may lessen routine unfamiliarity through frequent interaction while abroad. Furthermore, prompt activation of the specified alternatives can boost routine recognition accuracy. According to the degree of recognition, *Can I leave a message* was the most prominent among almost all of the respondents (except 2 learners). In contrast to other deviating constituents, such as *take a note* or *write something*, the lexical core *leave a message* can be directly picked by even low-level peers. In comparison, the target expression *Can I get you anything else* seems to be a little more difficult to choose generally, since it is readily mistaken with the most disruptive alternative *Would you like anything extra* (A total of 82 participants' selections). Over time (more than two years), the precise use conditions of this routine may become firmly defined (Roever, 2012). This might also explain the low recognition among overseas students in the present study. This category of unfamiliarity or low frequency of use also resulted in lower recognition of *Say that again, please* generally used on the phone and *Here you go* with a couple of functional meanings designated for various contextual situations, which were respectively interfered by *Repeat yourself, please* (chosen by 39 learners) and *There they are* (selected by 30 people).

Even in this scenario-based recognition task modality, failure in recognition was attributed to a lack of exact PC knowledge concerning ASCs' functional properties. In this regard, high-level, abroad-experienced learners may occasionally confuse the functional usages of *Nice to meet you* and *Nice to see you*, demonstrating that simply being exposed to the target language environment (language socialization) does not guarantee learners' heightened pragmatic awareness of routine recognition. Rather, the intensity of interaction (quality engagement) or the degree of individual attention will increase the management of conceptual socialization and routine recognition.

For example, L1-driven negative transfer will enable 31 learners to choose *It's me* as their favored manner of answering phone calls. At the same time, it becomes more understandable that both at-home groups showed no significant recognition performance due to a lack of daily interaction or extensive use. Because there is little room for higher-level linguistic processing through proficiency, syntactic succinctness has also led to language level losing its major function. Indeed, it is not to suggest that pragmatic recognition of routines will not benefit from the at-home environment, because these participants can be shown to have learned and become familiar with expressions, such as *Nice to meet you*, *Hi*, and *You're welcome.*

To summarize, the prompt role of other deviating possibilities and degree of familiarity will make the target option much more apparent without much more precise linguistic parsing by proficiency, resulting in improved routine identification across all participants. When high-level at-home learners are also aware of specific functional meanings, the study-abroad experience might lose its positive and constructive function. While similarly acquainted, successful routine recognition requires knowledge of the various distinctions between target and interference choices. In contrast, insufficient PC knowledge owing to rare interaction or employment in at-home settings would result in lower routine recognition under comprehensible ASC signals, which is also unknown to at-home learners.

6.3 Comprehension Competence of Routines

Routine comprehension can be further coded and characterized as four levels: No PC & ASC (no comprehension), Plausible PC (offering precise definitions alone), Plausible ASC (merely providing appropriate examples), alongside their plausible integration, which mainly required learners to figure out the definition and use condition of a specific routine under no contextual cues as inference basis. As noted above, advantages of studying abroad, however, do not hold the same across different task modalities (comprehension vs. production). As opposed to the comprehension of routines, the linguistic demands posed by the production highlight proficiency as an additional influence on routine competence. Therefore, further analysis and discussion with respect to the correlation between both factors and decontextualized comprehension of routines will be discussed in detail.

6.3.1 The General Trend of Routine Comprehension

As shown in Fig. 6.15, more than 20% of the no PC or ASC responses given by learners with studying abroad indicated no recognition of these routines, and even though nearly 40% with high proficiency but no abroad experience knew the meaning, this was a lower rate than that observed for their low-proficiency counterparts. The data considered here confirmed that all learners had low pragmatic gains in decontextualized routine recognition. Proficiency had almost no effect on routine recognition, with small discrepancies existing between these two groups, while the effect of study-abroad experience was indeed remarkable, as revealed by the large gaps between G3 and the other no-abroad-experience two groups.

In addition, there is a uniform downtrend in all the groups as a whole: there is a peak at plausible PC and a nadir at the plausible interplay PC and ASC, with plausible ASC being located in the middle. A steeper decline (see the bold lines in Fig. 6.15) is evident between plausible PC and plausible ASC. Learners predominantly manifested high confidence in providing plausible definitions based on their PC knowledge. The functional meanings of some routines (i.e., *All yours*) are close to their literal meanings, making inference easy even without the help of actual situational context. For certain short and simple constituents, linguistic parsing or frequent exposure abroad is not necessary for recognition. By contrast, participants showed less confidence in making up a plausible example in a concrete context, not to mention plausible definition-example mappings, demonstrating that learners

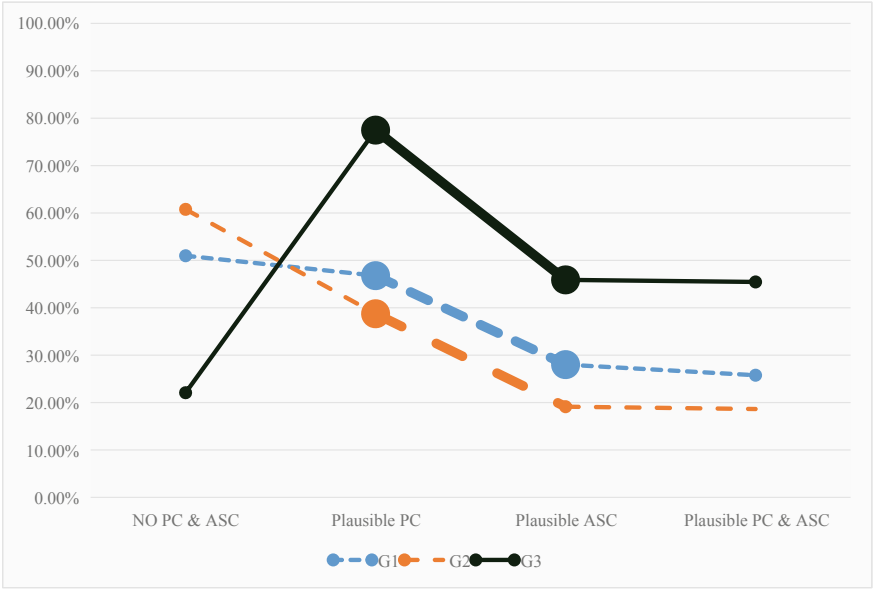

Fig. 6.15 The general trend of learners' PC and ASC knowledge distribution

still did not know how to map their PC knowledge onto a specific actual situational context.

Furthermore, the overall trend among the groups revealed a consistent mode (G3 > G1 > G2), suggesting that the three levels mentioned above were highly susceptible to study-abroad experience but negligibly influenced by proficiency. For instance, the functional meaning of *For here or to go*? failed to be inferred directly from learners' PC knowledge unless they knew its concrete usage in advance. Hence, the study-abroad context can be intuitively advantageous in enhancing the cumulative PC knowledge in learners' conceptual base, given that routines are used community-wide and bound to specific speech events. On the other hand, study-abroad experience is beneficial for increasing actual experience of given speech situations, since learners in the target language environment are often located in diverse social situations where routines are frequently used. In fact, non-native learners, whether they knew it or not beforehand, constantly heard *Here you go* by local community members while abroad—in situations such as when the supermarket cashier hands you your purchase or when your team wins. In this regard, participants with study-abroad experience are likely to have acquired such salient linguistic strings through recurrent socialization and to better understand their functions, which are socio-culturally bound to certain situations. The two-variable combination profoundly affected the influence of PC alone, considering G1 subjects' relatively limited social participation and relatively low proficiency.

6.3.2 *Impacts of Proficiency and Study-Abroad Experience on Routine Comprehension*

The sharp "V" pattern of the total results in Fig. 6.16 once more substantiated that the holistic comprehension of routines was almost unaffected by proficiency but significantly correlated with study-abroad experience, corresponding to the previous findings that a significant study abroad effect was found on the comprehension of routines (i.e., Roever, 2005; Taguchi, 2011a), whilst proficiency, on the other hand, had no significant effect (e.g., Roever, 2005). As the proficiency of at-home learners increased, their PC knowledge showed a marked downward trend. Namely, high proficiency was not necessarily influential in learners' routine comprehension (Roever, 2005) in the absence of actual situational context as an inference basis, largely due to routines' syntactic simplicity, fixedness in terms of construction and intrinsically situation-bound features. Specifically, the constituents of *Here you go* and *All yours* are relatively invariant and cannot be substituted by other words, leading to the non-transparency of their functional meanings. Moreover, situation-bound routines are commonly exploited in colloquial language use for their lexical succinctness, making acquisition "through (social) participation in recurrent communicative events while abroad" more effective (Taguchi & Roever, 2017: 224). Briefly,

it was not proficiency but rather daily use or exposure that mattered for situation-bound routine comprehension, especially in the absence of contextual reminders. However, this was not at all true for *That works for me* and *Thanks for having me,* given the escalating trend (see red lines in bold), indicating that proficiency still played a strong and decisive role in both no-abroad-experience groups. That is, proficiency can still make striking contributions to decontextualized comprehension to some extent, since a certain amount of linguistic parsing is indispensable to non-native learners.

On the other hand, study-abroad experience interacted with proficiency, as indicated in Fig. 6.16, appeared pivotal to learners' PC knowledge without ASC to provide an inference basis, as the highest value for each item except Item 5 was obtained by G3. In fact, this task provided abundant evidence of the facilitating role of study-abroad experience in learners' comprehension of routines. Furthermore, most items were situation-bound utterances and functional speech formulas, the majority of which had strong associations with specific actual situational contexts. Learners in the study-abroad environment would have many opportunities to encounter such situations in which routines might occur. Since routines permeate daily communication and reinforce effective socialization, it can be far easier for learners to interpret the function of these culturally context-dependent expressions while abroad. In this regard, there is no need to conduct precise parsing of *For here or to go*? and *Here you go* due to their clear compositional meanings and the particularly strong correlation between their functional meanings and actual situational contexts. The former is often asked by waiters in fast food restaurants, and the latter has several functional meanings, such as *Well done*! and *Here you are*, that are determined situationally in

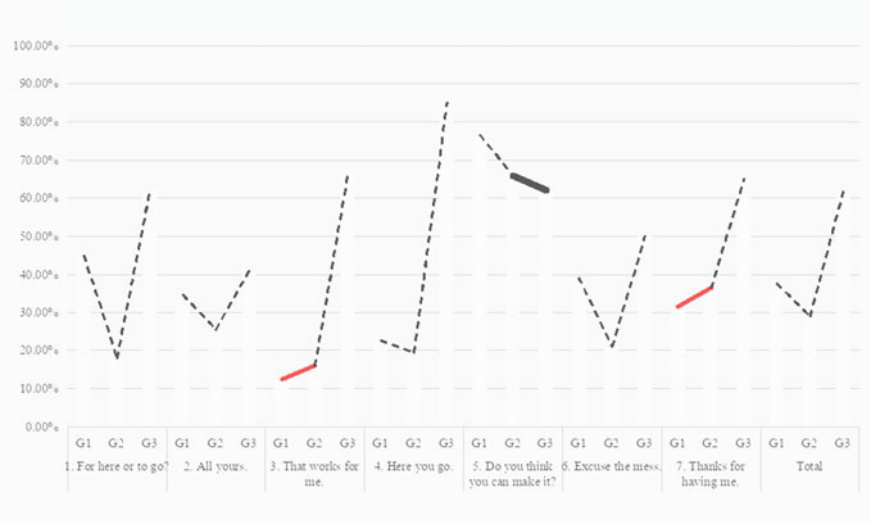

Fig. 6.16 The overall frequency of routine comprehension for each routine item

daily colloquial use. While the meaning values of routines are the result of the socio-cultural interplay of prior and actual situational experience (context), the proportion of their contribution to meaning comprehension is continuously changing. PC knowledge, therefore, has a dominant role in routine comprehension, particularly in the absence of contextual information that can be used as an inference basis. By this token, it seemed difficult for non-native learners who had never studied abroad to comprehend the functional meanings of such routines. Instead, as the black, bold line in Fig. 6.16 indicates, learners' comprehension of *Do you think you can make it*? actually decreased from G2 to G3. This expression has a more complex syntactic structure and is basically utilized by the speaker to determine whether the hearer can accept an invitation to attend an event later or whether s/he can accomplish something difficult successfully. Study-abroad experience alone does not exert a comprehensive influence on all aspects of routine comprehension, and it had a negligible impact with respect to this routine expression. For non-native learners, continuous exposure to these routinized expressions may be insufficient to establish "psychological saliency" (Kecskes, 2013: 119). It is not certain that they can fully exploit individual or external cues except in the host environment. As a matter of fact, "language learners may have direct access to the L2 linguistic materials they need but not always to the socio-cultural background knowledge that gives sense to particular linguistic expressions in the L2" (Kecskes, 2015: 428). In summary, learners tended to understand situation-bound routines readily and unproblematically under exposure in the host environment, but specific routines might require extensive use or may be difficult to acquire even in the target environment "when learners' L1 and L2 cultures do not operate under the same values and norms or when learners do not agree with L2 norms and the linguistic forms that encode target norms are not easily acquired" (Taguchi, 2011b: 303). Some participants may even be fully aware of preferred linguistic selections but are reluctant to adopt them because they are not consistent with their L1-dominated conceptual system. Exposure (individual-social interplay) is one factor, but the individual preference and willingness that motivate acquisition in the study-abroad environment also play a pivotal role. In fact, "exposure, quality, and quantity of input can be effective only as much as the individual learner allows them to be" (Kecskes, 2015: 428; cf. Kecskes, 2013).

More importantly, it can be ascertained that the integration of the two factors produced a striking pragmatic advantage (except for Item 5) in routine comprehension, for G3 obtained the highest values for each item. The combination of high proficiency and study-abroad experience is beneficial because these non-native learners with higher proficiency in linguistic retrieval and parsing have abundant opportunities to observe the linguistic strings preferred by local community members. G3 students can also practice these expressions more through daily participation in social events. In practice, participants generally "have higher pragmalinguistic skills than sociopragmatic skills, especially if they have acquired the target language in the classroom" (Kecskes, 2013: 64), as G1 and 2 learners did.

6.3.3 *Learners' Specific Performance in Routine Comprehension*

Regarding the participants' specific performance, several key trends can be observed. As shown in Fig. 6.17, a similar change pattern (G3 > G1 > G2) was also detected across several expressions. It appeared for all four responses for *Here you go*, *All yours*, and *For here or to go*; the no PC or ASC and plausible PC responses for *Excuse the mess*; and the plausible ASC responses for *That works for me*. However, diverse modes appeared for the other routine expressions, i.e., G3 > G2 > G1 for all the responses of *Thanks for having me* and G1 > G2 > G3 for *Do you think you can make it*; G3 > G2 > G1 for the main responses (except the plausible ASC) of *That works for me*; and G1 > G3 > G2 for the PC & ASC and plausible ASC responses of *Excuse the mess*.

A markedly similar trend (G3 > G1 > G2) emerged across all the responses for *For here or to go*? and *Here you go*. These two expressions pertain to the category of situational routines, whose functional meaning is completely different from their compositional meaning, and will be considered as examples for the purposes of this discussion. On the one hand, literal inference predominated in non-native speakers without study-abroad experience, and they were likely to assume that *for here* meant *stay/live here* or even *stop here* and to erroneously interpret *to go* as *go to another place* or *continue*. The decontextualized comprehension of such situational routines depends on high-quality input/exposure when studying abroad or frequent use in daily

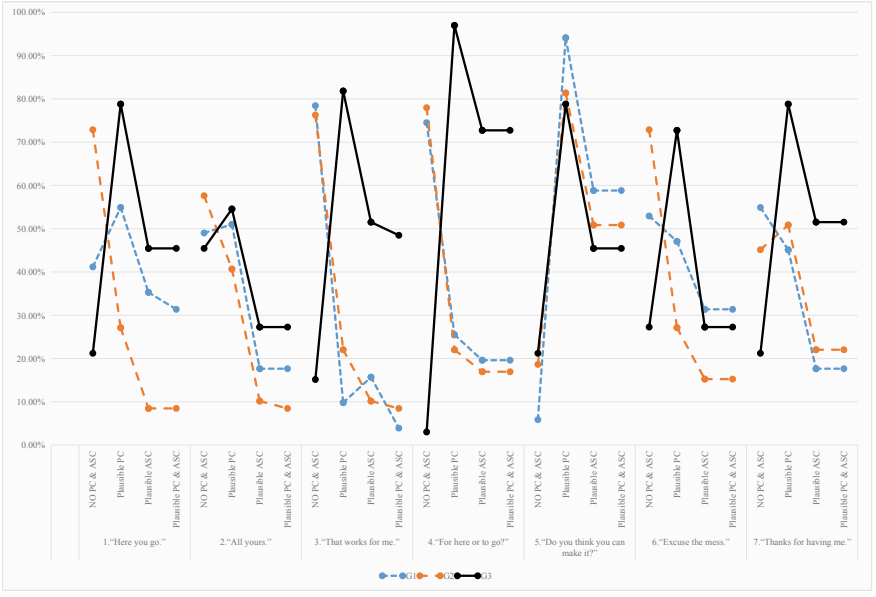

Fig. 6.17 Learners' specific trends of learners' PC and ASC knowledge distribution

communication rather than high proficiency in linguistic parsing or syntactic analysis. Hence, high-proficiency learners with study-abroad experience tend to outperform their no-abroad-experience counterparts. On the other hand, there are several functional meanings of *Here you go*, such as, *Well done*, *Here you are*, and *That's it*, and so on, which cannot be directly inferred from the literal meaning at all. Exposure, as a distinguishing feature of study-abroad experience, appears to be salient to the interpretation of situational-bound routines and their specific usage in the actual situational context across all stages.

For example, participants who have encountered such expressions are able to both define them and propose an example in a situational context. The no-abroad-experience participants can provide an example but may not know the accurate definition, i.e., they may misinterpret *Here you go* as *let's get it started*, *getting permission to leave*, or *you can deal with something* because of "insufficient exposure through productive and receptive classroom practice which fails to consider the importance of a pragmatic focus for improving communicative competence" (Halenko, 2018:156). In contrast, routine comprehension does not seem to develop hand in hand with higher proficiency (Roever, 2005) due to a certain degree of language attrition. Furthermore, formulaicity is always considered one of the main indexes of pragmatic competence. G2 postgraduate students seemed to focus more on the cultivation of academic ability and paid less attention to routine use, leading to a certain degree of attrition both in pragmatic awareness and competence of routines. For example, certain participants even believed that *here* meant going *in this direction*, a complete deviation from the original meaning. By comparison, G1 participants reported that they had frequent exposure to such expressions both in and out of class, although they had lower proficiency. They likely at least knew some of the basic functional meanings, such as *It's your turn.*

Though most of the aforementioned data indicate that routine comprehension bears no relation to proficiency but is highly susceptible to study-abroad experience and the combination of high proficiency and study-abroad experience, some exceptions are noteworthy. Proficiency was significantly associated with comprehension of *Thanks for having me* and *That works for me*. The lexical core of *having* refers here to *inviting* and not to the literal meaning *possessing*, and the latter is more strongly bound to the actual situational context (extending gratitude for others' invitation). Similarly, for the phrasal verb *works for*, the functional meaning, *the suitability to you of some suggestion, proposal, or idea*, makes more sense than the literal meaning, *doing a job for an employer*. In other words, higher proficiency is indeed conducive to inferring an obscure definition from a specific example in a situational context. In reality, "the higher the learner's fluency in the L2, the less the learner has to rely on L1 word association because the growth of L2 proficiency brings about changes in the conceptual system, which starts to accommodate socio-cultural knowledge and concepts gained through L2 use and experience" (Kecskes, 2013: 140). For example, students tended to believe the functional meaning of *having* was *choosing and letting you be a member or accompanying you when you have difficulties*. Likewise, some students could provide only partial appropriate responses, that is, an implausible definition (*It's very good and all right*) with a plausible example (*How about the*

movie?; *That works for me*) or vice versa (a plausible definition, *something is suitable for me* with an implausible example, *The clothing is beautiful. That works for me*). Sometimes, both of the parts provided were problematic (an implausible definition, *Something has an effect on me* with an inappropriate example, *The medicine works for me*). As a matter of fact, most G1 students knew the distinction between the functional and compositional meanings of *works for* but erroneously interpreted it as *effective, helpful, functional or solvable* nonetheless. The same was true for their interplay in *Do you think you can make it*. Participants in the high-proficiency group outperformed their low-proficiency counterparts because *make it* here also did not denote its literal meaning and embodied two functional meanings, as mentioned above. Both no-abroad-experience groups were aware of the former meaning, but the latter was less known to some extent.

High proficiency combined with study-abroad experience had a decisive and considerable impact overall, but there still existed some discrepancies in the effect of the integrated factor on routine comprehension. This combined factor loses its efficacy when students have frequent exposure to prefabricated expressions at home or there is a close approximation between their literal and functional meanings. G1 students retrospectively mentioned that they grasp the usage of *Do you think you can make it*, particularly because it has appeared so many times on oral English tests. However, certain learners may misinterpret it as *whether someone has confidence in doing something* (i.e., *Are you confident*?). The illocutionary force of *invitation* was rarely assimilated by subjects with no study-abroad experience because they were incapable of acquiring their socio-cultural connotations in the classroom. Their study-abroad counterparts had a better knowledge of the meaning (i.e., *Can you come to someplace on time*?) because of their authentic engagement with local community members. However, even subjects with low proficiency could infer the use of *Excuse the mess* in a specific context based on its transparent compositional meaning. Both G1 and G3 participants could guess the exact definition *sorry for the untidiness of my place* based on their PC knowledge; however, their low-proficiency counterparts often failed to come up with an example simultaneously and might sometimes misinterpret its definition, such as *forgive my mistakes/the matter* or *somebody makes someplace dirty*. Likewise, high-proficiency learners with study-abroad experience could also experience a complete inability to infer meanings and formulate examples at the same time. Study-abroad experience sometimes failed to be beneficial due to insufficient exposure to authentic input (poor engagement) in the host environment or learners' L1 socio-cultural mindset and "L2 norms and patterns need conscious acts by the language learner to accept and/or acquire them" (Kecskes, 2015: 421–422). Hence, it is not only authentic language socialization that matters but also conceptual socialization, which can fully restructure learners' L1 conceptual system to adapt to a new language that encodes specific socio-cultural loads. Moreover, even if an individual with a certain amount of study-abroad experience has good English proficiency and excellent interaction abilities on par with those of native speakers, they also tend to be strongly hindered by the constraints imposed by L1 cultural norms. L1 and L2 cultures are sometimes mutually contradictory, and prefabricated strings that encode pragmatic norms and conventions are not easily acquired even

during a study-abroad program. non-native speakers may be fully aware of them but tend to ignore them or be unwilling to perform accordingly, underscoring the crucial and powerful role of individual motivation and willingness in the modification of L1-based pragmatic conventionality.

Regarding the significant difference in plausible definitions and examples within each group, the students' performance followed the pattern of G2, mainly embodied in the consistency of *All yours*, *Do you think you can make it* and *Thanks for having me*. Moreover, G2 students gave far more plausible definitions of *Here you go* than plausible examples. This pattern applied equally to G3 participants with regard to *Excuse the mess*. Beyond these expressions, all learners tended to give definitions based on their PC knowledge but uniformly failed to specify its actual usage in a situational context. Some test-takers indicated that much more time was spent inferring definitions than inventing examples due to the order in which they answered the questions and the approach they used to do so. Most used a literal translation method to infer the meanings of routines they were totally ignorant of or not familiar with. For instance, the functional meaning of *All yours* is relatively easy to determine from compositional constituents; however, it is difficult to formulate a specific example. Hence, there was not enough time to provide its definition, let alone give examples. Based on their performance and the calculation above, it is clear that PC knowledge is not only significantly higher than ASC knowledge but also determines it to a large extent. More importantly, for situational routines, the two types of knowledge are closely related to each other. As long as the meaning can be accurately inferred, corresponding examples can be generated. By contrast, it is difficult to form PC-ASC mappings for functional routines.

6.4 Perception of Routines

The decontextualized pragmatic perception of routines was intended to investigate learners' pragmatic awareness of two distinct routines, after which all participants were required to elaborate their specific ASC functional utilization apiece using their accumulated PC knowledge (form-context-function mappings). On the one hand, pragmatic awareness is defined as a "conscious, reflective, and explicit knowledge about pragmatics" (Kecskes, 2015: 425). Pragmatic differentiated awareness is required for later effective perception. The mapping of pragmalinguistic forms of routines to sociopragmatic usage conditions, on the other hand, has not always been linear and unambiguous (Bardovi-Harlig, 2014). Indeed, the ultimate challenge for non-native learners, in particular, is to master new form-function relationships corresponding to the L2, necessitating the acquisition of new pragmalinguistic forms as well as the social settings wherein they occur (Taguchi & Roever, 2017). The thorough analysis and debate will be presented in the subsections that follow.

6.4.1 The General Trend of Routine Perception

The combination of pragmatic awareness and the correct identification of ASC traits of two associated routines by the mastery of PC knowledge constituted routine perception in the present study. Across all routine tasks, the learners performed the worst in routine perception, as evidenced by the difficulties of formation into the PC-ASC mappings. In other words, learners' PC knowledge does not develop concurrently with their acquisition of ASC properties; there is no direct mapping between pragmalinguistic forms and their sociopragmatic use conditions. Figure 6.18 showed a steady "V" pattern across all categories, indicating that proficiency plays a less role while study-abroad experience has a larger influence.

In reality, the pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic competencies do not develop concurrently (Taguchi & Roever, 2017). The reason for this is that routines typically convey functional meanings that differ from their compositional equivalents, leading to confusion or misinterpretation. Non-native speakers, in particular, were far more likely to rely on compositional meaning (semantic analyzability) than functional meaning (Kecskes et al., 2018), resulting in inferential failure of ASC characteristics, particularly under decontextualized conditions. When comparing *Do you have the time* versus *Do you have a minute*, it was mistakenly assumed that *have the time* literally means *have the time to do something*, and that the distinction between *the time* and *a minute* was primarily reflected in the length of time (*the time* referring to

Fig. 6.18 The general trend of routine perception. *Note* AW, awareness; PC, prior context; PerPCR, perceptive pragmatic competence of routines

a long time and *a minute* emphasizing *a short time*). They have no awareness that the former was used to inquire *what time it is right now* and the latter to determine whether *the other person involved is accessible.* In practice, all learners who could employ warning speech acts, *Be careful* and *Watch out*, but they could not always gauge the extent of their illocutionary forces.

Furthermore, some students believed that *No problem* simply means being capable of or promising to do something, but much less is known about other functional meanings, such as a response to thanking, the trivial matter (a piece of cake) of responding to a request, and the consolation implying it is not a problem. Although pragmatic awareness was occasionally directly helpful in PC-ASC mappings for routine perception, learners' PC knowledge was nevertheless important in overall perceptive competence. Even though the learners intended so, inadequacy of PC knowledge resulted in failure of perceiving paired routines. For example, all participants (50%) were pragmatically aware of the distinction between the greeting expressions *Hello* (on the phone) and *Hi* (face to face). They were virtually unaware of the various characteristics of use in the actual situational context (18.5%) and considered them as interchangeable alternatives. The fact that traditional classroom instruction at home has overwhelmingly concentrated on pragmalinguistic changes and features of the target language, whereas the sociopragmatic facets (e.g., rich opportunities for meaning-making in pragmatics) has been neglected, can account for more dispreferred responses frequently produced by at-home students in particular.

6.4.2 Impacts of Proficiency and Study-Abroad Experience on Routine Perception

Proficiency and Routine Perception In contrast to Bardovi-Harlig's (2010) optimistic conclusion on the beneficial contribution of L2 proficiency, our results show that proficiency is only marginally important in routine perception, but study-abroad experience, together with both variables' integration, has a rather substantial influence. Above all, proficiency helps but does not always necessitate L2 pragmatics, because this sensitive task modality prioritizes learners' sociopragmatic awareness of cultural norms and standards rather than more precise parsing. In the case of two groups of at-home learners who have had no direct exposure to target instructional strategies, frequent use and regular interaction nonetheless play an important role in routine perception.

As a result, it is not surprising that lower-proficiency learners outperformed higher-proficiency counterparts across most levels, because the former group has far more opportunities (more communication with native foreign teachers, see Sect. 6.5) to use these types of routine expressions precisely. Meanwhile, higher counterparts, although having great command of linguistic skills, are postgraduate learners who have admitted experiencing less opportunity to practice these routinized phrases than lower students did both within and outside of the formal classroom, resulting

in certain language attrition. The area-line charts were also used to demonstrate the positive (areas above the x-axis) and negative (areas below the x-axis) impact of various variables on routine perception.

As shown in Fig. 6.19, the beneficial contribution generated by proficiency was found in an exclusive pair, *No problem* versus *You're welcome*, with the pragmatic awareness section of *Hello* versus *Hi*. G2 students may know more functional interpretations of the situational routine *No problem* than G1 peers since they are more adept in linguistic capabilities. As an example, consider the PC portion of Pair 4. Few at-home students can learn the entire set of functional utilization of *No problem*, only attaining one interpretation at most. High-proficiency peers, on the other hand, can explicate more acceptable usages than lower peers. This might be justified by G2 learners' superior command of linguistic resources.

Nonetheless, almost no learners (including those with study-abroad residency) failed to differentiate the essential nuances of *No problem* versus *You're welcome* in relation to the *deflection and reception of gratitude* indicated above in Sect. 6.1. In reality, not all study-abroad students benefit relatively well throughout their studying overseas, leading to the generalization that individual characteristics and their interplay with context influence pragmatic progress. (cf. Taguchi & Roever, 2017). The particular variables that do have a significant impact on routines are "amount and nature of social contact, types of language practice, and individual learner characteristics" (Taguchi, 2018: 129). Table 6.17 vividly displays the information.

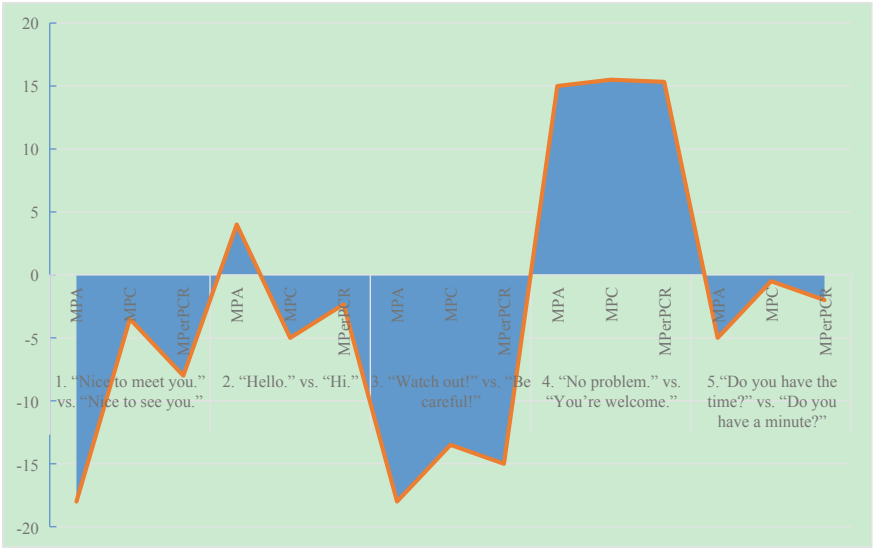

Fig. 6.19 Effects of proficiency on routine perception. *Note* AW, awareness; PC, prior context; PerPCR, perceptive pragmatic competence of routines

Table 6.17 Positive effects of proficiency on PC knowledge in routine perception

Group	ASC functional features (Score)
G1	No problem is less formal than You're welcome (0')
G1	No problem: more casual and used between friends or family (0'); You're welcome: more formal, say to a person who you respected (0')
G1	No problem: you don't want anymore (0'); You're welcome: you can do this again (0')
G1	No problem: the things is already been done (0'); You're welcome: the things not been done (0')
G1	No problem: no explain (0'); You're welcome: reply to thank you (1')
G2	No problem: when you speak to others for help and you says it's easy (0.5'); You're welcome: a response to others' thanks (1')
G2	You're welcome: response to thank you (1'); No problem: response to someone's help (0.5')

As demonstrated in Table 6.18, while G2 participants have a numerical advantage in identifying two types of greeting routines, proficient levels do not always ensure the complete interpretation of sociopragmatic characteristics in a given ASC. The majority of G2 students believe there is no difference between *Watch out* versus *Be careful* and *Nice to meet you* versus *Nice to see you.* They just believed that *Watch out* is more direct in spoken language, but *Be careful* is a more formal and written word. Similarly, G2 may consider *Hello* as a formal expression or simply treat it as a commonly-used pattern for greeting on the phone, but G1 peers are also reported to be aware that *Hi* might primarily be used for face-to-face engagement.

Study-abroad experience and Routine Perception In contrast to proficiency, studying abroad has resulted in a variety of social experiences contributing to the formation of unique form-function linkages (Taguchi & Roever, 2017). The favorable trajectory brought about by study abroad experience was usually retained in all facets of routine perception, with the exception of a modest drop in the awareness portion of Pair 2, as shown in Fig. 6.19. In reality, adequate functional language use rests on conventions, norms, attitudes, expectations, and knowledge concerning preferred ways of saying things and structuring thoughts (Kecskes, 2007). This corroborates the

Table 6.18 Negative effects of proficiency on PC knowledge in routine perception

Group	ASC functional features (Score)
G1	Hello: when we phone others (1'); Hi: meet some guys in the daily life (1')
G1	Hello: making phones (1') Hi: people meet (1')
G2	Hello can be used in when we are calling in the telephone but Hi not (1')
G2	Hello is more official (0'); Hi is for friends, family, meeting persons (1')

requirement and promoting role of abroad residency for successful routine perception and demonstrates that prolonged exposure to native patterns is up to a point necessarily influential in form (PC)-function (ASC) mappings.

Take Pair 5 as an example. Even with higher proficiency, at-home learners resorted to literal inference, viewing the distinction between *a minute* and *the time* as the difference in length of time or degree of formality, rather than a request for asking the current time (*the time*) and making a request whether they have time to talk (*a minute*). Similarly, the majority of at-home learners also see no differences between the conventional and alternatively utilized expressions *Nice to meet/see you* in daily communication, whereas study-abroad peers grasped at least a portion of the functional meanings or both.

Non-native speakers are motivated to engage in the ASC on a frequent and quality level, where routines are constantly present, in order to better grasp the function of inherently context-dependent, culture-specific routines in particular. In comparison to the study-abroad experience or duration of studying abroad, frequent and effective interaction with the use features of routines' ASC will undoubtedly increase the establishment of learners' pragmatic awareness, acquisition, storage, and extraction of contextual knowledge. This might support the function of length of residence while overseas in decontextualized routine perception. Table 6.19 contains more information.

Table 6.19 Positive effects of study-abroad experience on PC knowledge in routine perception

Situation/Group	ASC functional features (Score)
#5	
G2 (64)	Have the time: when you want to have a long talk to others Have a minute: only spend a little time (0')
G2 (66)	Have the time: ask for future (0') Have a minute: ask for now (0')
G2 (76)	Have a minute: short time; more casual (0') Have the time: long time; officially and formal (0')
G3 (112)	Have the time: ask the exact time (1') Have a minute: ask someone whether have time to talk (1')
G3 (133)	Have the time: ask time (1') Have a minute: make a request (1')
#1	
G2 (60)	Meet: when two persons meet at the first time (0')
G3 (123)	Meet: the first time to see someone (1') See: no response (0')
G3 (129)	Meet: the first time to greet (1') See: you are mutually friends (1')

Fig. 6.20 Effect of study-abroad experience on routine perception

All of the regions in Fig. 6.20 are above the x-axis, indicating that the study-abroad experience had a significant influence on routine perception. However, it is also seen in Fig. 6.20 that even those who studied abroad did not achieve the desired level of routine perception because "form-function-context mappings are not internalized in a linear, fast-paced manner even when living in the target language community" (Taguchi, 2011a: 914). In actuality, frequent interactions with these expressions for non-native speakers are beneficial but insufficient to establish "psychological saliency" (Kecskes, 2013: 109). This might further support the notion that learners' individual willingness or motivation, as well as quality participation in social events, matter significantly more to decontextualized routine perception than pure interaction with the target language community.

Both factors' interaction and Routine Perception When comparing G1 and G3, all areas in the area graph (Fig. 6.21) are above the x-axis, indicating that both factors combined made more striking pragmatic gains in situational routines (e.g., *No problem* and *Do you have the time*?) than in functional routines (e.g., *Watch out* and *Nice to meet you*). Situational routines, which are generally related to one or a few situations, appeared to be more prominent in the target language community, resulting in simpler acquisition and subsequent internalization. Aside from that, awareness of such situational routines needs some linguistic parsing. Due to the essence of one (linguistic form)-to-many (functional meanings) would undoubtedly promote routine perception, and great mastery of linguistic abilities and knowledge will undoubtedly promote routine perception. For example, the definite article *the* in *have the time* cannot be substituted with the indefinite article *a* without generating a meaning shift. Similarly, the perception of various functional meanings of *No problem* benefits

Fig. 6.21 Effects of both factors' interaction on routine perception

from acquired PC knowledge, or it results in perceived incompleteness, such as just pointing out replies to thanking or requesting separately.

6.4.3 Learners' Specific Performances in Routine Perception

When comparing differentiated awareness and required PC knowledge, as shown in Fig. 6.22, the former outnumbered the latter to a greater extent. As previously stated, the formation into PC-ASC mappings is the most important question of routine perceptive pragmatic competence. In other words, even if they have distinctive awareness, their PC knowledge cannot accomplish effective or thorough routine perception, especially if contextual reminders are not used as the inferential foundation.

To be more specific, as illustrated in Fig. 6.22, the pragmatic awareness across three groups in *Hello* versus *Hi* and *Watch out* versus *Be careful* revealed a somewhat parallel tendency. Both of these paired expressions were located at an unsatisfactorily lower level, because learners at home or abroad are constantly manipulating these routinized expressions interchangeably, resulting in their weaker distinctive awareness and routine perception. The distinctive awareness will emerge perpendicularly for situational routines (i.e., Pair 4 and 5) with a reduced frequency of usage, notably in at-home contexts. Furthermore, continuous exposure to the host community benefits their specialized functional utilization. This type of unfamiliarity or infrequency may further elucidate and lead to the lowest performance of PC knowledge and routine perception across two non-residence groups in Pair 5, with essentially no

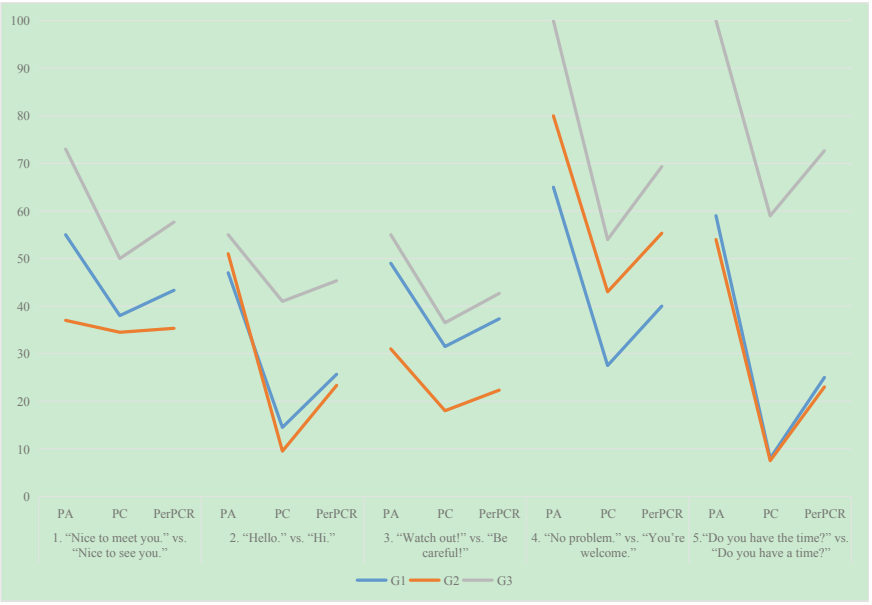

Fig. 6.22 Learners’ specific performance of each pair in routine perception

differences between the two non-residence groups but the largest gaps between G2 and G3. The performance of three groups in Pair 4 shared a similar evolving pattern with those in Pair 5 but clearly differentiates in two non-residence groups, since expressions in Pair 4 appear more acquainted to all participants than those in Pair 5, owing to extensive usage and interaction level. The perception level in Pair 1, by contrast, was squarely in the middle. Because the paired expressions, comparable to *Hello* versus *Hi*, were also employed interchangeably, up to two-thirds of non-residence higher learners were unable to distinguish between *Nice to meet you* as a routine for first meetings and *Nice to see you* as a routine for subsequent encounters.

To recapitulate, for unexpected or infrequent expressions (Pair 5), differentiated awareness may appear to be significantly higher in the at-home context, and the constructive impact of study-abroad experience, rather than proficiency, may appear to be more important in routine perception. In contrast to the rather frequently-used routines (such as Pair 2 and 3), interchangeable employment in the at-home setting leads to L1-driven negative transfer, which further minimizes their distinguishing awareness and decontextualized perception. When handled alternatively, the clearly differentiating functional usage (Pair 1 and 4) in the abroad setting might at least raise learners’ pragmatic awareness.

6.5 Retrospective Review for Cognitive Process

Sections 6.1, 6.2, 6.3 and 6.4 investigated the influence of proficiency and study-abroad experience on four modalities in pragmatic competence of routines (production, recognition, comprehension, and perception), with the required ASC and PC knowledge involved. This section primarily examines and discusses the findings of the investigation into 110 non-abroad-experience Chinese EFL learners' cognitive processes involved in completing their routine items in order to ascertain the explanations of deficient pragmatic competence. When the four tasks listed above were completed, the Computer Animated Retrospective Protocols were implemented and data were collected cross-sectionally.

The retrospective review used for this study served three functions, as described by Ren (2015): (1) to investigate learners' cognitive processes at each phase of task modalities, (2) to justify the results and conclusions drawn from the entire task, and (3) to offer viable approaches to developing pragmatic abilities. The first level concentrated on four dimensions: (1) learners' attention when responding to each item; (2) task complexity; (3) source of context knowledge; and (4) preference for L1 or L2 when responding to each scenario. The second level included two aspects: (1) whether they had been exposed to such expressions or not; and (2) whether their pragmatic competence was higher when compared to lower grade learners, as evidenced by data on difficulty of each task. The last level focused on self-reported ways of developing pragmatic competence of routines. Here are the interview questions.

1. What is your primary emphasis during the task completion process?
2. When comparing the four tasks as a whole, which part do you believe is the most difficult to complete?
3. What prompted you to accomplish all of the routine tasks in this manner?
4. Do you prefer to use or think in Chinese or English when trying to respond to each item?
5. Is there adequate exposure to or contact with such routines within or outside the English classroom?
6. As an English-majored postgraduate student, do you believe your pragmatic competence of routines is stronger than that of your less-proficient peers? (Only for G2 students)
7. What tactics or approaches do you think will help you considerably increase your pragmatic competence of routines?

As previously stated, during the data collection phase, each learner in both non-residence groups was asked six questions in total, with an additional question specifically designed for G2 students. As a result, if learners had faithfully followed the directions to respond to each question, there would have been 719 responses (110 learners * 6 questions + 59 G2 learners * 1 question). However, students did not always cooperate, resulting in fewer responses (575 total in reality) that may be obtained. The parts that follow will exemplify each of the objectives in succession.

6.5.1 Learners' Cognitive Processes

As shown in Table 6.20, the data in the table just verify that contextual information plays a critical part in the production modality, with the appropriateness level receiving the greatest attention. Meanwhile, the attention of question in each item and the intricacies of routines continue to influence participants' responses to some extent.

Concerning the difficulty ratings of each task modality, all participants were asked to identify which task they are relatively adept at and which is the least acceptable for them. We added up the relevant frequency of each task based on the answers (some learners raised two tasks at the same time) and summarized the results in Table 6.21. We may further rank the degree of difficulty across all tasks by removing the first two frequencies (easiest through hardest). In accordance with the previous findings, the ratings range from the easiest recognition to the most difficult perception.

In Table 6.22, 94 responses out of 110 learners were successfully gathered for the level of L1 or L2 preference. Only around 14% of learners favor L2 (here is the target language, English), while almost half of the students were still influenced by L1 negative transfer, with 38.30% of students affected by both languages at the same time. This could add to the evidence that all at-home peers have more deviated

Table 6.20 Descriptive statistics of learners' cognitive processes

Item	Selective coding		Reference point	Examples
	Context		28	Contexts
	Question		11	Questions
	Differences of routines		8	What does routines mean and what is the difference between their similarities
	Answer	Self	10	The first thing that comes out of the mouth
		Collocability	3	The use of individual words; different words have different effects
		Value	1	Whether it's valuable or not
		Succinctness	1	I focus more on being concise
		Appropriateness	17	I am much closer to native-like norms
		Politeness	1	What would be a more polite and appropriate response
		interchangeability	1	Whether the expression can be replaced, and whether the answer can be changed according to the close relationship with the other person

Table 6.21 Descriptive statistics of task difficulty ratings

Task modality	Easiest	Hardest	Difference value (E–H)	Rating
Production	35	25	10	2
Recognition	35	4	31	1
Comprehension	7	10	−3	3
Perception	8	26	−18	4

Table 6.22 Descriptive statistics of self-reported L1 or L2 preference

Item	Language preference	Reference point	%	Examples
1	English	13	13.83	It tends to be in English because it is different from the literal translation into Chinese
2	Chinese	45	47.87	Maybe more Chinese
3	Both	36	38.30	Fifty-fifty

routine performances than their study-abroad counterparts, owing to L1-dominated norms and practices.

92 replies were provided throughout the data collection phase about the source of context knowledge. Similarly, 5 prospective themes were then constructed (see Table 6.23). The input source of target routines for non-native learners in the at-home setting was highly dependent on watching American dramas rather than the infrequency of classroom education and regular practice, which resulted in less guidance correcting, and instant feedback by professional teachers. When taking foreign teachers' lessons, G1 students have more opportunities to communicate with native speakers. However, this was not the case for G2 learners, since English masters at Chinese universities were expected to gain more training in academic ability with little linguistic ability and much less pragmatic instruction. This might demonstrate once again that at-home learners receive less exposure to native-like norms favored by local community members. Furthermore, the basic encounter with routines in specific segments of American TV shows appeared to be inadequate to promote the ASC-PC mappings, although being available to some amount.

6.5.2 Self-reported Factors Affecting Learners' Routine Performance

From a personal perspective, 90 replies representing the impact of proficiency and 103 equivalents reflecting the impact of study-abroad experience were gathered. Only over 20% of the learners indicated that proficiency would have had a significant impact on routine competence, validating the negligibly beneficial function of proficiency discovered in this study. Meanwhile, the majority of participants who hold

Table 6.23 Descriptive statistics of source of context knowledge

Item	Selective coding	Reference point	%	Examples
1	Original American dramas, and so on	52	56.52	Watch American TV series, watch foreign TV, life sitcom
2	At-home instructional classroom	11	11.96	There are no other ways. It's all in class, you know
3	Textbooks	18	19.57	Through these years of English learning, the knowledge on the textbook
4	Communication with NSs	24	26.09	Communicate with foreigners, practice oral English
5	Daily personal practice	10	10.87	More listening to the radio, retelling some of the contents of their speech, listening and reading

unfavorable beliefs believe that exposure to the target language or frequent encounters with local community members will result in native-like target production rather than superior command of linguistic knowledge. Indeed, the frequent ratings of study-abroad experience by non-residence learners may corroborate the above-mentioned assumption. Approximately 90% of the learners had very few strong associations with such commonly used routines in their daily lives, resulting in a lesser establishment of psychological saliency and internationalization of PC and ASC knowledge. Table 6.24 contains more details.

6.5.3 Self-reported Methods for Improving Learners' Routine Performance

Diverse approaches (92 out of 110) have been proposed and collected for the strategies that learners deemed to be effective in formulaic promotion. Following the primary coding, 5 prospective themes were established. As shown in Table 6.25, the answers offered by learners subjectively might be classified into five groups, numbered from highest to lowest: (1) excellent interactions with local community members (foreign language instructor); (2) frequent exposure to American dramas or original novels; (3) more oral practice in daily life; (4) more travel or going overseas if feasible; and (5) more possibilities for classroom instruction. Practice approaches are not restricted to the method outlined here. However, as a reference point, these approaches might give insight into future English teaching and learning routines in the at-home context.

Table 6.24 Self-reported effect of proficiency and study-abroad experience

Item	Variable		Reference point	%	Examples
1	Proficiency	Positive	15	16.67	Learners with high proficiency will have high pragmatic ability, because they will have deeper understanding than those with low proficiency and will be exposed to expressions in different situations
		Negative	75	83.33	Not necessarily, English level is reflected in vocabulary, grammar knowledge, academic level is relatively high, but will not be as good as the low English level of NS has a lot of contact with native-like norms
2	Study-abroad experience	None	72	69.90	No. Because I seldom know foreigners
		Little	23	22.33	There are fewer opportunities to use English in real life and in class, and procedural discourse is generally produced in everyday conversation. The language in class is not quite the same as that in real life
		Frequent	8	7.77	Yes, there will be more chances to meet foreign guests or translate for them

6.5.4 Summary

In conclusion, this chapter has highlighted many aspects of the mechanism behind learners, including individual cognitive processes of production, recognition, comprehension, and perception of routines via the instant retrospective report. Furthermore, at the end of the interview, the retrospective review allowed learners to subjectively explain their source of context knowledge and suggest several realistic strategies to further develop Chinese EFL learners' pragmatic competence of routines. As a moderate factor, proficiency had no effect on overall routine competence, while exposure to target norms both at home and abroad has had the opposite

Table 6.25 Self-reported feasible methods for routine development

Item	Methods	Reference point	%	Examples
1	American dramas/books, and so on	34	36.96	Watch more original movies and American TV series; Simulate the environment and the conversation
2	Communication with NSs	55	59.78	Communicate with NS more, get more opportunities to express yourself, pay attention to these aspects consciously
3	Studying abroad	15	16.30	More contact with native speakers, more overseas exchanges, communication with foreigners; out of the textbook, close to the authentic communication
4	Classroom training	4	4.35	Given the use of these routines in class, they learned less by themselves and had less understanding of native-speaker thinking patterns and cultural conventions
5	Daily practice	21	22.83	Increase the chances of practice. There are many such scenes in life, and it is not effective to simply encounter a specific scene

effect. During routine task completion, learners' attention was primarily focused on contextual information and reminders, as well as the propriety of their responses in particular. Even for high-level at-home students with excellent command of language resources, L1-driven negative transfer remained dominant in routine competence. In terms of task modalities, the pragmatic perception test was deemed the most difficult to complete, whereas recognition was considered the easiest according to all participants. The overwhelming source of the target norms' exposure, especially for at-home learners, was grounded throughout American dramas, books, and other types of original electronic resources; however, at-home learners were extremely lacking in daily practice inside or outside the classroom, leading to strong expectation of consistency with the native-like norms through guidance and correction by both native speakers or their teachers in the classroom. These discoveries have the potential to create a robust basis.

References

Bardovi-Harlig, K. (2009). Conventional expressions as a pragmalinguistic resource: Recognition and production of conventional expressions in L2 pragmatics. *Language Learning, 59*, 755–795.

Bardovi-Harlig, K. (2010). Exploring the pragmatics of interlanguage pragmatics: Definition by design. In A. Trosborg (Ed.), *Handbook of pragmatics: Pragmatics across languages and cultures* (pp. 219–259). Mouton de Gruyter.

Bardovi-Harlig, K. (2014). Awareness of meaning of conventional expressions in second-language pragmatics. *Language Awareness, 23*(1–2), 41–56.

Bardovi-Harlig, K., & Bastos, M. T. (2011). Proficiency, length of stay, and intensity of interaction and the acquisition of conventional expressions in L2 pragmatics. *Intercultural Pragmatics, 8*, 347–384.

Duff, P. A. (2012). Identity, agency and second language acquisition. In S. M. Gass & A. Mackey (Eds.), *The Routledge handbook of second language acquisition* (pp. 410–426). Routledge.

Halenko, N. (2018). Using computer-assisted language learning (CALL) tools to enhance output practice. In C. Jones (Ed.), *Practice in second language learning* (pp. 137–163). Cambridge University Press.

Kecskes, I. (2000). A cognitive-pragmatic approach to situation-bound utterances. *Journal of Pragmatics, 32*(6), 605–625.

Kecskes, I. (2007). Formulaic language in English Lingua Franca. In I. Kecskes & L. Horn (Eds.), *Explorations in pragmatics: Linguistic, cognitive and intercultural aspects* (pp. 191–219). Mouton de Gruyter.

Kecskes, I. (2013). *Intercultural pragmatics.* Oxford University Press.

Kecskes, I. (2015). How does pragmatic competence develop in bilinguals? *International Journal of Multilingualism, 12*(4), 419–434.

Kecskes, I., Obdalova, O., Minakova, L., & Soboleva, A. (2018). A study of the perception of situation-bound utterances as culture-specific pragmatic units by Russian learners of English. *System, 76*, 219–232.

Kim, H. Y. (2014). Learner investment, identity, and resistance to second language pragmatic norms. *System, 45*, 92–102.

Ortactepe, D. (2012). *The development of conceptual socialization in international students: A language socialization perspective on conceptual fluency and social identity (advances in pragmatics and discourse analysis).* Cambridge Scholars Publishing.

Pawley, A., & Syder, F. (1983). Two puzzles for linguistic theory: Native-like selection and native-like fluency. In J. Richards & R. Schmidt (Eds.), *Language and communication* (pp. 191–226). Longman.

Ren, W. (2015). *L2 pragmatic development in study abroad contexts.* Peter Lang.

Roever, C. (2005). *Testing ESL pragmatics: Development and validation of a web-based assessment battery.* Peter Lang.

Roever, C. (2012). What learners get for free: Learning of routine formulae in ESL and EFL environments. *ELT Journal, 66*, 10–21.

Roever, C., Fraser, C., & Elder, C. (2014). *Testing ESL sociopragmatics: Development and validation of a web-based test battery*. Peter Lang.

Taguchi, N. (2011a). The effect of L2 proficiency and study-abroad experience in pragmatic comprehension. *Language Learning, 61*, 904–939.

Taguchi, N. (2011b). Teaching pragmatics: Trends and issues. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics, 31*, 289–310.

Taguchi, N. (2013). Production of routines in L2 English: Effect of proficiency and study-abroad experience. *System, 41*, 109–121.

Taguchi, N. (2018). Contexts and pragmatics learning: Problems and opportunities of the study abroad research. *Language Teaching, 51*(1), 124–137.

Taguchi, N., & Roever, C. (2017). *Second language pragmatics.* Oxford University Press.

Taguchi, N., Li, S., & Xiao, F. (2013). Production of formulaic expressions in L2 Chinese: A developmental investigation in a study abroad context. *Chinese as a Second Language Research, 2*, 23–58.

Wang, Y. (2020). Empirical research on Chinese non-English majors' pragmatic competence of routines. *Journal of University of Shanghai for Science and Technology (Social Sciences Edition), 1*, 1–9.

Chapter 7
Conclusion

Abstract In this final chapter, an overview of the major findings will be generalized and consolidated, and a conclusion (Sect. 7.1) will be drawn based on the present study's findings. Sect. 7.2 will discuss the implications for learning and teaching routines. Finally, Sects. 7.3 and 7.4 will discuss the present study's constraints as well as future possible L2 research on pragmatic routines.

Keywords Major findings · Implications · Learning and teaching routines · Constraints · Future suggestions

7.1 Summary of the Findings

The present study was a cross-sectional, snapshot-design investigation into pragmatic competence of routines among Chinese English learners. The objective of this study was to examine the influence of English proficiency and study-abroad experience on multiple facets of pragmatic competence of routines, such as routine production, recognition, comprehension, and perception.

The contextualized productive pragmatic competence of routines among all participants involved is quite excellent, as evidenced by the advanced establishment of ASC-PC mappings altogether. In productive tasks, all learners' mastery of ASC knowledge greatly exceeded that of PC knowledge, displaying as greater access to ASC reminders but more limited retrieval of pragmalinguistic forms based on their PC knowledge. Furthermore, ASC information is a critical prerequisite for routine production, and any divergence will result in unsuccessful mappings. However, simply comprehending ASC reminders was not sufficient assurance for their PC equivalents. In contrast, learners' mastery of PC knowledge ultimately influences the pragmalinguistic target-likeness of their output, highlighting the significance of their interplay that much more. On the other hand, because of the formulaic nature of routine production, all aspects of learners' production of routines were almost independent of proficiency, including situational bound, constitutive shortness, and linguistic simplicity, but profoundly influenced by study-abroad experience, and both factors combined particularly made striking pragmatic gains in routine production. Its

Y. Wang, *L2 Pragmatic Competence in Chinese EFL Routines*,
SpringerBriefs in Education, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-19-6352-0_7

advantage stems mostly from a greater range of possibilities to observe local community members' preferred linguistic form selections and to rehearse those target-like patterns via daily involvement in social events.

In terms of contextualized routine recognition, the easiest task modality reckoned by all-group learners as a whole resulted in a pretty adequately higher recognition achievement. Prompts, embedded in the ASCs, are required for effective routine recognition. On the other hand, PC knowledge is also acknowledged to be a requirement for the ultimate accurate pragmatic recognition of target routines. A weaker role of proficiency in routine recognition was also observed, owing to routines being shorter and having less linguistic complexity. Routines, on the other hand, have proven to be much easier to acquire in study-abroad conditions, as they have great connections with colloquial communicative circumstances. More critically, these characteristics appear to have different effects on the acquisitional degree through different routines. Some features are taken up to a higher amount as a result of extensive immersion in target-like norms while overseas, whilst others do not necessarily require a long duration of residence to become completely absorbed.

In terms of decontextualized comprehension of routines, learners demonstrated a high level of confidence in providing plausible definitions based on their PC knowledge rather than specifying their functional use conditions in the specific ASCs, displaying learners still did not know how to map their precise PC knowledge onto a specific actual situational context. Similarly, comprehension of routines was almost unaffected by proficiency due to the syntactic simplicity, fixedness in terms of construction, and intrinsically situation-bound features of routines, but significantly correlated with study-abroad experience. Thus, the study-abroad environment would have many opportunities to encounter such situations in which routines might occur.

In terms of decontextualized routine perception, the learners performed the worst in this segment, as seen by the difficulties of formation into the PC-ASC mappings. That is, learners' PC knowledge does not develop concurrently with their acquisition of ASC traits; in other words, there is no direct mapping between pragmalinguistic forms and their sociopragmatic use conditions. Furthermore, proficiency is only marginally important in routine perception, because such perception modality prioritizes learners' sociopragmatic knowledge of cultural conventions and norms rather than more rigorous parsing of the target language. In contrast, study-abroad experience and the interaction of both factors revealed a somewhat substantial influence, because appropriately functional language use relies on conventions, norms, beliefs, and native-speaker norms, all of which are abundantly available in study-abroad contexts.

7.2 Implications of the Present Study

In terms of the implications for learning routines, this study addresses some of the approaches used to promote routine competence: (1) at-home students should (a) actively pay more attention to routine expressions and their use conditions both

inside and outside the classroom; (b) in their everyday life, a wider variety of practical methods, such as watching American dramas, original books, or other suck kind of online resources, will undoubtedly facilitate at-home learners' internalization process of accurate context knowledge; (c) quality practice or continuous communication with native speakers can strengthen their pragmatic awareness by providing quick feedback, modeling, modifying, and directing, thereby minimizing negative impact produced by the negative transfer of their L1; (2) from a motivational standpoint, proficient learners with abroad experience, in particular, ought to actively improve the frequency of effective and quality interaction with local community members, as well as participation in social communicative activities in the target language environment, thus emphasizing the significance of a pragmatic approach to enhancing communicative competence (Halenko, 2018).

Regarding pedagogical implications for routine teaching, (1) additional pragmatic intervention and explicit teaching on routines should be implemented in classroom instruction. Because, unlike the study abroad context, the classroom context may highlight the practice-learning relationship more explicitly as it is a confined space, students' pragmatic performances should be promptly rectified and given direct feedback (Taguchi & Roever, 2017). In other words, such salient linguistic forms from instructional observation in the at-home classroom setting can be tracked for a long time to see how at-home learners develop in routine competence and what factors in the at-home classroom (e.g., teacher guidance and correction, or peer interaction) motivate their pragmatic development; (2) computer-animated simulation assignments should be widely used in routine instruction and evaluation to increase the quality and efficiency of target language input practice and output while also cultivating students' meta-pragmatic awareness.

Throughout individual characteristics, learner identity can be added to the list presented by Bardovi-Harlig (2001) of factors that affect L2 pragmatic development, which includes a broader range of factors such as input, instruction, proficiency, duration of stay in the target language community, and L1 language and culture. In reality, the study-abroad setting is not a consistent notion (Taguchi & Roever, 2017), since learners' particular traits and the attributes that the context affords will decide whether or not they may use their study-abroad experiences for routine promotion. However, just accessing natural knowledge while studying or living in the target language countries cannot always increase students' pragmatic competence (Ren, 2019), with the intensity of interaction being more important.

7.3 Limitations of the Present Study

The limitations of the present study are acknowledged in this section and are so highlighted as follows. The first constraint is related to the overall study-abroad participant selection. The 33 high-level students engaged in the present study (as a comparison group for high-level individuals without study-abroad experience) were all master's and doctorate students pursuing diverse majors in the US, without

recruiting more less-advanced study-abroad peers. As a result, it would be welcome news to include an additional experimental group for possible statistical analyses, where study-abroad participants are from a range of lower proficiency levels, in order to provide a more comprehensive picture of the effect of study-abroad experience on learners' pragmatic competence of routines.

A second limitation is incorporated in the snapshot design used in this cross-sectional empirical investigation, as no longitudinal observations or follow-up examinations on routine use circumstances have been conducted by all groups at home and abroad. Furthermore, the study-abroad context is operationalized as pure exposure to the target language, ignoring other features such as intensity of interaction (Bardovi-Harlig & Bastos, 2011).

Finally, the cross-sectional analysis raises the question of whether the between-group disparities may be due to proficiency and study-abroad effects. It should be noted that the influencing factor in the present study was solely focused on these two major factors, with no intention of eliciting data on other vital individual variables, such as individual motivation or personal willingness, as well as the socio-cognitive factor in terms of conceptual socialization.

7.4 Suggestions for Future Research

Regarding the limitations discussed above, several suggestions for research consideration are summarized and proposed in this section in order to ascertain feasible possibilities in L2 pragmatic competence of routines.

To begin with, one potential route for future research should be to include a larger variety of study-abroad individuals with varying L2 proficiency levels to evaluate the generalizability of empirical findings in this study. More multidimensional empirical investigations, rather than being limited to snapshot designs, should be encouraged to investigate both productive and receptive pragmatic competence of routines throughout time. Furthermore, more research is needed in this area to determine the effectiveness of predominantly multifaceted factors, such as intensity of interaction, conceptual socialization, or individual willingness and motivation, on multi-dimensional pragmatic modalities from various theoretical perspectives, such as the combination of the complex dynamic systems theory and L2 pragmatic research (i.e., Li & Ren, 2020), or the application of the socio-cognitive approach into L2 pragmatic research.

Furthermore, only a limited number of routine situations with low production and reception derived from earlier studies were used to assess learners' pragmatic competence in routines. Future research in the field should be broadened to include more diverse and conventional routines of this type. Future study should also use increasingly difficult routine tasks to explore the development of pragmatic competence of routines in both proficient and less-advanced learners.

Finally, based on the findings described in this study, the use of the computer-animated elicitation task throughout the routine testing phases has proven to be a

stimulating alternative to traditional patterns of input and evaluation. This pattern also provides practitioners with various particular methods in which the computer-animated tool and technology may be maximized in usage and significantly contribute to varied routine learning and pragmatic testing in the future experiment. Practitioners should also consider the importance of incorporating this type of pragmatic training and instruction into study-abroad courses, as indicated by research findings that a portion of routines were not merely acquired by learners during their abroad stay.

References

Bardovi-Harlig, K. (2001). Evaluating the empirical evidence: Grounds for instruction in pragmatics? In K. Rose & G. Kasper (Eds.), *Pragmatics in language teaching* (pp. 13–32). Cambridge University Press.

Bardovi-Harlig, K., & Bastos, M. T. (2011). Proficiency, length of stay, and intensity of interaction and the acquisition of conventional expressions in L2 pragmatics. *Intercultural Pragmatics, 8*, 347–384.

Halenko, N. (2018). Using computer-assisted language learning (CALL) tools to enhance output practice. In C. Jones (Ed.), *Practice in second language learning* (pp. 137–163). Cambridge University Press.

Li, C., & Ren, W. (2020). The complex dynamic systems theory and second language pragmatic development research. *Journal of Foreign Languages, 3*, 46–54.

Ren, W. (2019). An investigation into international students' Chinese pragmatic competence in the study-abroad context. *Foreign Languages and Their Teaching*, *2,* 2–13+146.

Taguchi, N., & Roever, C. (2017). *Second language pragmatics.* Oxford University Press.

Appendix 1
Survey for Personal Background Information

Thank you so much for participating in this questionnaire. This questionnaire is only used for scientific research, and we will strictly abide by the research specifications and keep your answers confidential. Please feel free to fill in the questionnaire. When you fill in the questionnaire, it is assumed that you voluntarily participate in this research survey.

Seat Number：_____

Gender：_____

Age：_____

Major：_____

Grade：_____

L2 proficiency：TEM-4 ☐；TEM-8☐；TOEFL☐；IELTS☐

L2 proficiency grades：_____

Length of studying English (year)：_____

Recent motivation for learning English：_____

Study-abroad experience：Yes☐；No☐

If Yes, length of studying abroad：_____

Y. Wang, *L2 Pragmatic Competence in Chinese EFL Routines*,
SpringerBriefs in Education, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-19-6352-0

Appendix 2
Scenarios and Target Response Set for Initiating Utterances

Item	Scenario	Target (NSs') responses	Frequency (N)
1	You see your friend standing on a chair trying to reach a book at the top of a bookshelf. You know that the chair she is standing on has a broken leg	Be careful!*	75.6% (31)
		Watch out!	12.2% (5)
		Stop!	9.8% (4)
		Get down!	2.4% (1)
2	Your mid-term exams are next week. You and some friends have decided to study together. You have the biggest apartment, so you want to invite everyone to study there	{(Let's) (Come (over and) Study/Meet/Do this at}/{Come (over)/Let's go to}/Use My place {to study}?	100% (41)
3	After class you're walking to the library with a friend. It's been raining all morning, and you notice that your friend is about to step into a big puddle	Watch out {for the/that puddle}!	85.4% (35)
		Look out!	4.9% (2)
		Watch (the puddle/your step)!	4.9% (2)
		Wait!Walk around that	2.4% (1)
		Don't step on the puddle	2.4% (1)
4	You are in the library and you see an old friend who you have not seen for a long time. You talk for a little while and as you are leaving you say	{It's} Nice/Good/Great to see/seeing you (again)*	75.6% (31)
		See/Catch you/ya (later)	14.6% (6)
		{It's} Good/Great to catch up (soon/with you)	7.3% (3)
		Hope to see you soon	2.4% (1)
5	Many of your friends are going to the movies, but you don't have a car. You ask one of your friends for a ride in his car	Can/Could I get a ride/lift/roll {with you/in your car}?	73.2% (30)
		Can/Would/Do {it work for} you {mind} give/giving/pick me a ride/lift/up?	26.8% (11)

(continued)

Y. Wang, *L2 Pragmatic Competence in Chinese EFL Routines*,
SpringerBriefs in Education, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-19-6352-0

(continued)

Item	Scenario	Target (NSs') responses	Frequency (N)
6	You had a birthday party in your home yesterday. The apartment is untidy and you are just cleaning up. Your friend, John, comes by. You invite him in	{I'm so} Sorry for/Excuse/Pardon/Ignore/Don't mind the mess	100% (41)
7	Your roommate is standing in the kitchen by the cupboard. You ask him for a glass	Could/Can/Will/Would you mind pass/hand/get/grabbing me a glass (please)?	87.8% (36)
		Pass me the/a glass{, will you}!	7.3% (3)
		Can I have a glass?	2.4% (1)
		Where do you keep your glasses?	2.4% (1)
8	You made an appointment with your teacher. Unfortunately, you arrive 25 min late for the meeting, and the teacher is already leaving	{I'm (so/terribly)} Sorry {I'm (so) late/for being (so) late}	95.1 (39)
		I apologize for being late	4.9% (2)
9	You are in the theater. There is a group of young teenagers sitting behind you. They are talking so loudly that you cannot hear a word	Shut up!/Quiet Down!/Be quiet!/Keep it down!	100% (41)
10	You stop by your teacher's office to ask a question about the assignment. She takes time to answer your question. You know she is very busy, so before you say good-bye, you say	Thanks/Thank you (so much) for {taking (up)} your/the time {to answer my question/help me}	95.1% (39)
		Thanks/Thank you	4.9% (2)
11	You are at the bus stop. While waiting, you are talking with your friend on your cell phone. The bus arrives and you need to hang up	{I} gotta go {, call/talk to/see you/ya later/bye}!	80.5% (33)
		I'll talk to/call you later/back	7.3% (3)
		I have/need to go (now)	7.3% (3)
		I have to hang up	2.4% (1)
		See ya	2.4% (1)
12	You and a friend are about to cross the street when you see the campus bus coming. Your friend does not see the bus and is about to step in front of it	Watch out!*	90.2% (37)
		Stop!	9.8% (4)
13	You call your friend. His roommate answers the phone and tells you that your friend is not home. You would like the roommate to tell your friend something	Can I/you leave/take a message {for me}?*	85.4% (35)
		Can you pass a message {to him}?	9.8% (4)
		Could you tell my friend something for me?	2.4% (1)
		Tell her to call me back later	2.4% (1)

Appendix 3
Scenarios and Target Response Set for Responding to Utterances

Item	Scenario for ASCs	Target (NSs') responses	Frequency (N)
1	You're talking outside with your longtime neighbor and she tells you about her dog's accident. She says, "Last Sunday my dog got hit by a truck."	I'm (so) sorry {to hear that}. 16	95.1%
		Sorry about that. 1	2.4% (1)
		That's terrible. 1	2.4% (1)
2	You need to pick up a book at the bookstore, but you don't have any free time today. Your friend says, "I can pick it up for you."	Thank you/Thanks (so much)!12	85.4% (35)
		That'd be great 3	7.3% (3)
		Thanks/Thank you very much {I (really) appreciate that}. 2	4.9% (2)
		I'd be so grateful. 1	2.4% (1)
3	There is a reception on campus. The organizer invited you and a few other students as well. It is getting late, and you decide to leave. You go over to the organizer and says, "Thanks for coming."	Thanks/Thank you (so much) for inviting/having me/the invitation.*	82.9% (34)
		Pleased/Glad to be here	9.8% (4)
		It was a lovely/happy time	4.9% (2)
		Thanks	2.4% (1)
4	You go to a clothing store and you need to find a new shirt. A salesperson approaches you. You want the salesperson's assistance. She says, "Can I help you?"	I'm looking for…*	56.1% (23)
		I need…	19.5% (8)
		Could you help/direct me find/to…?	12.2% (5)
		Do you know where… is?/Where can I find…?/Do you have…in …size?	9.8% (4)
		Yes please!	2.4% (1)

(continued)

Y. Wang, *L2 Pragmatic Competence in Chinese EFL Routines*,
SpringerBriefs in Education, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-19-6352-0

(continued)

Item	Scenario for ASCs	Target (NSs') responses	Frequency (N)
5	You are waiting in line at the movie theatre and the person in front of you says, "Could you hold my place in line? I'll be right back."	No problem	80.5% (33)
		Sure!	14.6% (6)
		Okay!	4.9% (2)
6	You are in the supermarket. After you pay, you are ready to pick up your bags. The cashier says, "Have a nice day!"	You too!	100% (41)
7	You made an appointment with your teacher. Unfortunately, you arrive five minutes late for the meeting. Your teacher says, "Hello. Come on in."	I'm sorry {I'm late}	100% (41)
8	You borrowed a book from your friend, Kate. You promised to return it today. She needs it for her presentation in class tomorrow. However, you left the book at home. You meet her in class. "By the way, did you bring my book? I really need it for my presentation tomorrow."	{I'm (so)} sorry	92.7% (38)
		I'm sorry, I forgot it	7.3% (3)
9	You give your classmate a ride home. He lives in the building next to yours. He gets out of the car and says, "Thanks for the ride."	No problem!*	65.9% (27)
		Anytime!	21.9% (9)
		You' re welcome	7.3% (3)
		No worries!	4.9% (2)
10	Your teacher invites the whole class to dinner at her house. The dinner is on Friday evening. You would actually prefer to spend time with your friends that night. She asks you if you can come to her house, "Can you come on Friday evening?"	I (already/actually) have (some) other plans ((for) that night).*	60.9% (25)
		I have a (previous/prior/another) commitment or engagement	24.4% (10)
		I'm not available (that night)	9.8% (4)
		I (already) arranged an event (at home)	4.9% (2)
11	You and your classmates are deciding where to study for the upcoming exam. After some discussion, everyone seems to agree on the library, which is good for you because you live near there. "So, is the library ok for everyone?"	{It/That} Works (best/great) for me!*	73.2% (30)
		Sounds good/great {to me}!	19.5% (8)
		Absolutely!	4.9% (2)
		Good for me!	2.4% (1)

(continued)

(continued)

Item	Scenario for ASCs	Target (NSs') responses	Frequency (N)
12	You go to a clothing store and you need to find a new shirt. A salesperson approaches you. You don't want the salesperson's assistance. She says, "Can I help you?"	{I'm} (Just) Looking (around)/browsing.*	65.9% (27)
		No, thank you/thanks	21.9% (9)
		I'm fine/okay/good	12.2% (5)
13	You need to talk to your teacher. You go to his office during office hours to see if he has time to talk. His office door is open, you knock. He says, "Come in."	Do you have a minute?*	73.2%(30)
		I have a few questions {for you}	12.2% (5)
		Do/Would you have/take (the) time for/to answer some/my questions?	12.2% (5)
		Can I bother you for a moment?	2.4% (1)
14	Your teacher invited the whole class to his house next Saturday. You are very happy that he has invited you, and you would like to go. When you are leaving the class, the teacher says, "How about you? Will you be able to join us this Saturday?"	{Yes,} I'd love to! 8	75.6% (31)
		{Yes,} Of course! 3	7.3% (3)
		Absolutely! 2	4.9% (2)
		Yes! 2	4.9% (2)
		Yes, I'll be there!1	2.4% (1)
		For sure. 1	2.4% (1)
		You betcha! 1	2.4% (1)
15	Your friend introduces you to his new roommate, and says, "This is my new roommate, Bill."	{It's} Nice/Good to meet you!15	92.7% (38)
		What's up?1	2.4% (1)
		Hi! 1	2.4% (1)
		How's it going? 1	2.4% (1)
16	You go to ask your teacher if he will be having office hours tomorrow, and he tells you about his father. He says, "I won't be having office hours tomorrow. My father died, and I have to go to the funeral."	{I'm} (so) Sorry {for your loss/to hear that}	100% (41)
17	You have been studying very hard for your test. But on the morning of the test, your alarm does not go off and you oversleep. You ask your teacher for a make-up test. She says, "Okay. I'll give you a make-up test this time, but don't let it happen again."	Thank you (so/very much) {for understanding/this opportunity}	92.7% (38)
		It won't happen again	2.4% (1)
		I'm so sorry for the inconvenience	2.4% (1)
18	It's raining really hard and you are walking to the bank. A friend pulls his car over to offer you a ride. He says, "Hey, want a ride?"	Thank you/Thanks (so much)	87.8% (36)
		Yes, please!	7.3% (3)
		That would be great!	2.4% (1)

(continued)

(continued)

Item	Scenario for ASCs	Target (NSs') responses	Frequency (N)
		Sure!	2.4% (1)
19	You are having dinner at a friend's house. Your friend offers you more food, but you couldn't possibly eat another bite. He says, "Would you like some more?"	No, thanks/thank you, {I'm full/staffed}.*	92.7% (38)
		No, I'm (really) stuffed/okay	4.9% (2)
		I'm absolutely stuffed	2.4% (1)

Appendix 4
Scenarios and Target Selection for Routine Recognition

Item	Scenarios for ASCs	Selection items
1	Jack was just introduced to Jamal by a friend. They're shaking hands. What would Jack probably say?	A. Glad to see you
		B. Good to run into you
		C. Happy to find you
		D. Nice to meet you ☑
2	Carrie has done some shopping at a grocery store. The man at the cash register has just finished packing her groceries and gives her the bags. What would the man probably say?	A. All yours
		B. Here you go ☑
		C. Please
		D. There they are
3	Tom ordered a meal in a restaurant and the waitress just brought it. She asks him if he wants to order additional items. What would the waitress probably say?	A. Would you like anything extra?
		B. Is there more for you?
		C. What can I do for you?
		D. Can I get you anything else? ☑
4	Sam is having dinner at a friend's house. His friend offers him more food but he couldn't possibly eat another bite. What would Sam probably say?	A. No, thanks, I'm full ☑
		B. No, thanks, I've done it
		C. No, thanks, I've finished it
		D. No, thanks, I've eaten
5	The person ahead of Kate in line at the cafeteria drops his pen. Kate picks it up and gives it back to him. He says, "Thank you." What would Kate probably reply?	A. Don't bother
		B. Thank you
		C. You're welcome ☑
		D. Please
6	The phone rings. Stan picks it up. What would Stan probably say?	A. Hello ☑
		B. Hi
		C. How are you?
		D. It's me

(continued)

Y. Wang, *L2 Pragmatic Competence in Chinese EFL Routines*,
SpringerBriefs in Education, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-19-6352-0

(continued)

Item	Scenarios for ASCs	Selection items
7	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. What would Claudia probably say?	A. Can I give you information?
		B. Can I leave a message? ☑
		C. Can you take a note?
		D. Can you write something?
8	Candice is talking to her friend Will from a payphone on a noisy city street. She can't hear something. Will said because a large truck passed by. What would Candice probably say?	A. Repeat yourself, please
		B. Say that again, please ☑
		C. Say that another time, please
		D. Restate what you said, please
9	In a crowded subway, a woman steps on Jake's foot. She says, "I'm sorry." What would Jake probably say?	A. Don't mention it
		B. It's nothing
		C. No bother
		D. That's okay ☑

Appendix 5
Target Responses for Routine Comprehension

Routines	Definitions	Examples
Here you go	Well done./That's it	"Here you go! Just relax."
	Here you are	The cashier said, "Here you go!" when she handed you food
All yours	It's your turn and help yourself	After using the drinking fountain, he/she said, "All yours."
	Give it all or you can take it away	– "Can I have that last piece of fried chicken?"—"All yours!"
That works for me	Affirmative response to a proposal that fits your schedule	– "Avengers this weekend?" – "That works for me!"
For here or to go?	Asking whether eating at a restaurant or taking away	After ordering, a waiter said, "For here or to go?"
Do you think you can make it?	Extending an invitation for a planned engagement later	"Do you think you can make it to my birthday party?"
	Asking whether a difficult task can be completed successfully	"It's a difficult math problem. Do you think you can make it?"
Excuse the mess	Apologizing for a messy dwelling to an invited guest	"Excuse the mess. I've been busy lately."
Thanks for having me	Expressing gratitude to the host for inviting you	"It's a great party. Thanks for having me."

Y. Wang, *L2 Pragmatic Competence in Chinese EFL Routines*,
SpringerBriefs in Education, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-19-6352-0

Appendix 6
Target Responses for Routine Perception

Item	Paired expressions	Functional usage in specific actual situational context
1	"Nice to meet you."	Used between strangers when first encountering
	"Nice to see you."	Used between familiar people when greeting or leaving
2	"Hello."	Greetings on the phone
	"Hi."	Face-to-face greetings
3	"Watch out!"	In a more urgent, dangerous, or life-threatening situation
	"Be careful!"	In some sort of very minor danger
4	"No problem."	Deflection of thanking; granting request; or no questions
	"You're welcome."	Acceptance of thanking
5	"Do you have the time?"	What is the time for the time being?
	"Do you have a minute?"	Can you spare some time or are you available right now?

Y. Wang, *L2 Pragmatic Competence in Chinese EFL Routines*,
SpringerBriefs in Education, https://doi.org/10.1007/978-981-19-6352-0