

## NON-NATIVE SPEAKERS' PRODUCTION OF ADVICE ACTS: THE EFFECTS OF PROFICIENCY<sup>1</sup>

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**ABSTRACT.** *The present paper is part to the increasing research that has been devoted to interlanguage pragmatics over the last two decades. Different pragmatic aspects have been analysed, but in relation to the group of directive speech acts, requests have received a great deal of attention, in contrast to other speech acts, such as advice acts. Thus, we aim at investigating non-native speakers' production of advice acts from two different proficiency levels, determined by the educational setting they belong to. Results from our study show the effects of the proficiency level, since University students, the higher level group, produced not only a greater amount of appropriate advice acts, but also more modification devices, than Secondary School students, the group belonging to the lower level. However, both groups used a high number of strategies which were not identified in our proposed taxonomy, which seemed to be due to a process of pragmatic transfer. We finally suggest that further research should be carried out paying attention to this transfer phenomenon in the English foreign language learning classroom.*

**KEYWORDS:** *interlanguage pragmatics, advice acts strategies, proficiency effects.*

**RESUMEN.** *El presente artículo pertenece a la creciente investigación que se le ha dado al campo de la pragmática del interlenguaje en las últimas dos décadas. Se han analizado diferentes aspectos pragmáticos, aunque dentro del grupo de actos de habla exhortativos, se le ha prestado mucha atención a las peticiones en contra de otros actos de habla como el consejo. Por tanto, pretendemos investigar la producción de consejos por parte de hablantes no nativos, de dos niveles de lengua diferentes determinados por el contexto educativo al que pertenecen. Resultados de nuestro estudio muestran los efectos del nivel de lengua, puesto que los estudiantes universitarios, el grupo con mayor nivel, produjo no solo mayor cantidad de consejos apropiados, sino también más estrategias de mitigación, que los estudiantes de secundaria, el grupo de nivel más bajo. Sin embargo, los dos grupos usaron un gran número de estrategias que no se presentaban en nuestra taxonomía y que podría ser debido a un proceso de transferencia pragmática. Finalmente, se sugiere que investigaciones futuras deberían tener en cuenta este fenómeno de transferencia en la clase de inglés como lengua extranjera.*

**PALABRAS CLAVE:** *pragmática del interlenguaje, estrategias de los actos de habla del consejo, efectos del dominio de la lengua.*

## 1. INTRODUCTION

The relationship between pragmatics and the area of second language acquisition (SLA) has given rise to a new field known as interlanguage pragmatics (ILP). According to Kasper (1992: 203), interlanguage pragmatics is defined as “the branch of second language research which studies how non-native speakers [...] understand and carry out linguistic action in a target language, and how they acquire L2 pragmatic knowledge”. The increasing research on this specific field over the last two decades constitutes the framework of our study. Following Kasper and Rose (1999), this paper is centred on a foreign language setting, since the majority of the research carried out has been devoted to analysing learners in second language environments (Olshtain and Blum-Kulka 1985; Takahashi and DuFon 1989; Koike 1996; Hassall 1997; among many others). Moreover, different pragmatic aspects, such as interactional routines, discourse markers, implicature, or speech acts (requests, compliments, refusals, apologies, complaints) have been tackled in ILP research. However, taking into account the group of directive or exhortative speech acts, only requests have been widely examined, in comparison to other speech acts, such as advice. In this sense, we aim at investigating non-native speakers’ (NNSs) production of advice acts in a foreign language learning setting. In order to carry out the present paper, we shall first start by presenting the concept of advice. Secondly, we will examine those few studies that have dealt with this particular speech act. Finally, the study itself will be analysed paying attention to the participants and the procedure followed to conduct it.

Advice acts are considered directives in Searle’s (1976) classification of illocutionary acts. Moreover, focusing on Haverkate’s (1984) distinction between impositive and non-impositive exhortative speech acts, advice belongs to the latter group, since speaker’s imposition over the hearer is not so strong as in requests. Another characteristic underlying all directive speech acts refers to their face-threatening nature. Giving advice is also regarded as a face-threatening act, although the speaker’s intentions do not hinder hearer’s freedom of action (Brown and Levinson 1987). Taking into consideration the nature of advising as a face-threatening act, and following Wardhaugh’s (1985) and Tsui’s (1994) assumptions about the speech act of advising, Hinkel (1997: 5) proposes the following definition for advice acts:

the giving of advice is a complex speech act that should be performed with caution when the speaker is reasonably certain that the hearer is likely to do what is being advised, that all advice must be hedged and never given explicitly to avoid offending the hearer, and that the speaker is presupposed to have the right or the authority to give advice

All these characteristics define advising as a directive speech act, although it is important to distinguish it from other directives. The main feature that differentiates the speech act of advising from other exhortative speech acts, such as requests or suggestions, refers to the fact that advice acts imply a future course of action which is in the sole interest of the hearer (Tsui 1994; Trosborg 1995; Mandala 1999). On the contrary, in

requests the benefit is exclusively for the speaker, and suggestions may imply benefits for both interlocutors. Nevertheless, there is no sharp division among these directives, since Wunderlich (1980) claims that certain speech acts can only be treated at a pragmatic level, and advising is included within this group. The author states that this particular speech act cannot be distinguished from other speech acts taking into account only grammatical or formal rules. In this line, Thomas (1995) also suggests that speech acts may overlap, and thus, other criteria than merely formal aspects should be considered in order to differentiate them. She points out that speech acts may be affected by culturally-specific or context-specific aspects on the one hand, and interactional factors, on the other hand.

Additionally, Thomas (1995: 103-104) makes a distinction between what she calls "two different types of warning, with different grammatical forms and different conditions". According to this author, the first type relates to situations where the speaker can do nothing to avoid the event itself. On the one hand, it includes situations in which it is possible to take steps to avoid some of the worst consequences of the event (i.e. *She wouldn't take an umbrella with her, although I warned her it would rain later*). On the other hand, it also refers to situations where there is really nothing to be done except to wait for the unpleasant event (i.e. events like adverse medical prognosis). This type of warnings takes the grammatical form of declarative or imperative. Regarding the second type, it is designed to advise the hearer on possible consequences of his/her actions, and linguistic forms for this type of warning imply the negative imperative and the conditional. These two types of warning have been adopted in the taxonomy of advice acts that we have used in the present paper.

Concerning the studies dealing with advice acts, there has been little investigation for this speech act. In fact, only cross-cultural studies have paid attention to advice (Altman 1990; Wierzbicka 1991; Hu and Grove 1991; Hinkel 1994, 1997; Kasper and Zhang 1995), whereas studies within the field of interlanguage pragmatics, account for only one longitudinal study (Matsumura 2001). However, it seems relevant to mention Hinkel's (1997) cross-cultural study of Chinese and American participants' production of advice acts, since both Matsumura's (2001) and our own typology of advice acts have taken into consideration Hinkel's classification of advising. Hinkel (1997) focused on the differences between speakers of Chinese and NSs of English when dealing with the appropriateness of advice speech acts on the one hand, and the differences between employing distinct research instruments, namely those of Discourse Completion Tests (DCTs) and Multiple Choice (MC) questionnaires, on the other hand. Regarding her classification of the speech act of advising, the author relied on the theoretical frameworks established by Brown and Levinson (1987), Li and Thompson (1981), Lii-Shih (1988), Wardhaugh (1985) and Wierzbicka (1991), and classified advice into direct, hedged, and indirect advice acts. Results showed that NSs of English employed direct and hedged advice acts when responding to the DCT situations, whereas Chinese subjects used indirect advice acts or nothing. In contrast, Chinese participants preferred more direct strategies when responding to the MC

questionnaire. According to Hinkel (1997), responses to the MC indicated what the author had previously hypothesised, since advice acts in Chinese are regarded as acts of solidarity. As the author claimed, these findings might have been due to the fact that for Chinese NNSs of English the MC questionnaire, which focuses on awareness, could have been easier than the DCT, which implies production. Following Hinkel's (1997) study, Matsumura (2001) carried out a longitudinal study comparing two groups of Japanese learners of English in two different learning environments, namely those of the target speech community (ESL setting), and their home country (EFL context). The research focused on the degree of change over time in the perception of social status in advice acts. The data were collected by means of a MC questionnaire, with 12 scenarios and four response choices for each scenario, which was administered four times during the academic year. Results indicated that living and studying in an ESL setting had a positive impact on students' pragmatic development, since ESL Japanese students' perceptions of social status in advice acts improved considerably more as opposed to EFL students. In view of her results, the author suggests that learners in an EFL context may require some pedagogical intervention to become pragmatically competent.

As has been observed, there is a necessity to conduct more developmental studies in the field of interlanguage pragmatics dealing with the speech act of advising. Moreover, findings from those studies that have focused on the effects of learners' proficiency level for the acquisition of pragmatic aspects (Takahashi and DuFon 1989; Trosborg 1995; Hassall 1997; Hill 1997) have showed that with increasing proficiency, non-native speakers approximated their production of particular speech acts to target-like forms. Taking into consideration all the previous assumptions, the present study explores the production of advice acts by EFL learners distributed into two levels of proficiency determined by the educational setting they belong to: (i) students from the University context, considered to have a higher level of proficiency; and (ii) students from Secondary Schools, with a lower proficiency level. The research questions underlying the present study aim at ascertaining whether non-native speakers of English are affected by their level of proficiency when producing advice acts:

- (a) Does the level of proficiency influence non-native speakers' production of advice acts in both quantitative and qualitative terms?
- (b) Do both groups of students employ peripheral modification devices when advising?

## 2. METHODOLOGY

### 2.1. *Subjects*

Subjects for our study consisted of 232 non-native speakers of English who were students in a foreign language learning context. They were classified into two different

levels of proficiency according to the educational setting they belonged to. The first group, considered to have a higher level of proficiency in English, consisted of 117 university students. They were chosen from six different degrees at Universitat Jaume I (Castellón), where they had English as a compulsory subject, and their ages ranged between 18 and 26 years old. Our second group of 115 participants were learning in the two last courses of *1st* and *2nd Bachillerato*<sup>2</sup> from four different Secondary Schools situated in the province of Castellón. This group had a lower level of proficiency than the previous group of participants, and their ages ranged between 15 and 18 years old.

## 2.2. Procedure and Material

The material used in the present study was created by the LAELA<sup>3</sup> research group for the purposes of conducting research in interlanguage pragmatics. It consisted of a written production test of 20 situations which elicited learners' production of particular exhortative speech acts, namely those of requesting, suggesting and advising. However, for the purposes of the present study, we shall only deal with the speech act of advising. Thus, we only took into account the nine situations from this production test that required an advice (see Appendix 1). By means of this test, on the one hand our analysis was quantitative, that is, it examined learners' amount of production of the speech act of advising. On the other hand, it was qualitative, as we analysed what kind of linguistic realisation strategies participants employed when producing this particular speech act.

In order to classify the linguistic realisations employed by our participants, we have adopted Alcón and Safont's (2001: 10) suggested typology of advising, since it is built on the basis of previous research in the field of pragmatics (Wunderlich 1980; Leech 1983; Thomas 1995) and interlanguage pragmatics (Kasper and Schmidt 1996). Alcón and Safont (2001) compared the realisation of advice acts in both an oral corpus containing real-life speech and several EFL textbooks, and found that native speakers used direct strategies, particularly declaratives and performatives, which amounted to a 62%. Regarding conventionally indirect strategies, conditional expressions, and to a lesser extent probability formulae, were also employed accounting for a 38%. Moreover, the authors pointed out that advice acts included mitigation devices, such as *just*, *I think*, *perhaps* or *maybe*. In contrast, advice occurrences in the EFL textbooks examined were frequently confused with suggestions, and appeared totally decontextualised, since natural conversational models were not observed. Apart from Alcón and Safont's (2001) taxonomy, we have also considered Hinkel's (1997: 11-12) classification of advice. Thus, as may be observed in Table 1 below, advice acts are distributed into indirect, conventionally indirect, and direct strategies, to which we have decided to include the extra group of other types of strategies.

TYPE	STRATEGY	STRUCTURE	MITIGATION
Indirect	Hints	You want to pass, don't you?	
Conventionally indirect	Conditional	If I were you, ...	
	Probability	It might be better for you...	
	Specific formulae	Why don't you...? Isn't it better for you...?	
Direct	Imperative	Be careful!	
	Neg. imperative	Don't worry!	
	Declarative	You should...	
		You ought to...	
Performative	I advice you to...		
Other types of strategies			

Table 1. *Advice linguistic realisation strategies typology (adapted from Alcón and Safont 2001: 10, Hinkel 1997: 11-12)*

Indirect advice acts refer to those hints in which the speaker's intentions are not made explicit (Brown and Levinson 1987), such as in *You want to pass, don't you?* The second type of strategy, that is conventionally indirect advice acts, is distributed into three substrategies, namely those of conditional, probability and specific formulae. The first two strategies belong to Alcón and Safont's (2001) typology, and imply the speaker's giving an advice to the hearer's benefit. In this sense, conditionals of the second type (i.e. *If I were you, I would study more*), and modals indicating probability, such as *might* (i.e. *It might be better for you to study a little more*) refer to these two conventionally indirect advice linguistic realisations. The third strategy, which has been taken from Hinkel's (1997) assumptions about hedged advice, involves the use of specific formulae. Thus, *Why don't you study a little bit more?* would be an advice in a situation in which the learner has a problem to pass a particular exam or a course. Direct advice acts are pragmatically transparent expressions, which are classified into four different strategies, namely those of imperative, negative imperative, declarative and performative. The use of imperative or negative imperative strategies clearly implies that the hearer is being advised to do something immediately. Examples from these two strategies would include: *Study!* or *Don't go out until late! You have an exam tomorrow.* The other two direct strategies include declarative and performative structures. Declarative strategies are performed by means of the modal verbs *should* and *ought to*, such as *You should study more for that exam.* Regarding performatives, they imply the use of a performative verb indicating advising, as in *I advice you to study more.* Finally, it should be mentioned that advice acts, as face-threatening acts, are usually employed

with peripheral modification devices that mitigate their force and threat on the hearer's face, especially in direct advice acts. For this reason, we shall also pay attention to instances of mitigation in advice acts.

### 3. RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Focusing on our first research question, we were interested in ascertaining whether our participants' level of proficiency influenced their production of advice acts both in quantitative and qualitative terms. In this sense, Figure 1 presents the amount of advice acts produced by each group of non-native speakers.

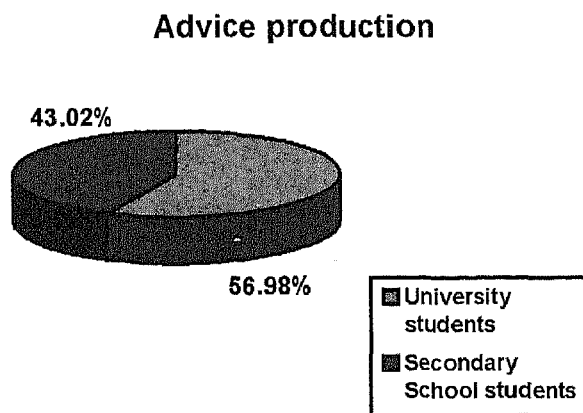


Figure 1. *Comparison of University and Secondary School students' production of advice acts.*

As can be observed in Figure 1, University students produced more advice acts than Secondary School students. The former group produced a 56.98% of appropriate advice acts, whereas the latter group of students' percentage amounted to 43.02%. These findings, in line with previous studies which have focused on proficiency effects (Takahashi and DuFon 1989; Trosborg 1995; Hassall 1997; Hill 1997), seem to indicate that students with a high level of proficiency, that is, the group which belonged to the University, performed better than those students from a lower level, namely those from the Secondary School setting.

Moreover, apart from examining the amount of appropriate advice acts in quantitative terms, we shall now pay attention to the type of advice realisation strategies employed by the two groups of students. Figure 2 shows the comparison between University and Secondary School students' percentages of the specific advice linguistic formulae.

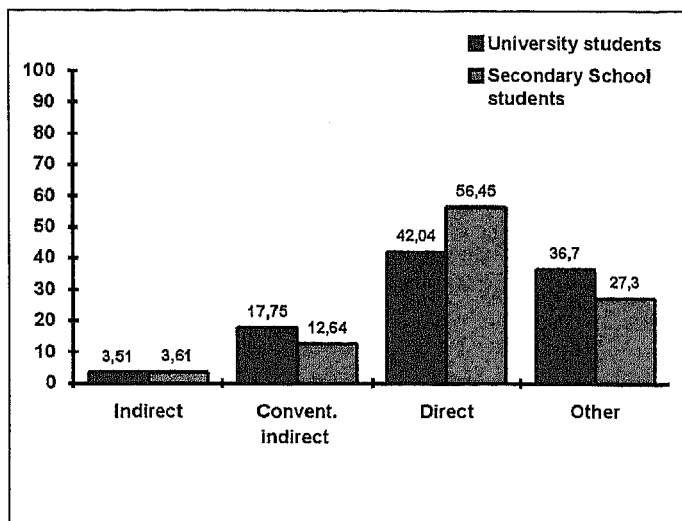


Figure 2. *University and Secondary School students' production of advice realisation strategies.*

As illustrated above, the type of advice strategies most frequently employed by all students was the direct type, which amounted to 42.04% in University students, and to 56.45% (more than half of the overall strategy use) in the case of Secondary School students. The next most employed type of strategy to express advice corresponded to the group of other types of strategies, amounting to 36.7% in University students, and a 27.3% in Secondary School students. As far as indirect and conventionally indirect strategies are concerned, students did not employ a high percentage of these particular formulae when advising.

In order to perform a more thorough examination of which structures were involved in the four groups of strategies, Table 2 displays a more detailed analysis of the different advice formulae performed by both University and Secondary School students following Alcón and Safont's (2001) and Hinkel's (1997) taxonomies of advice linguistic realisation strategies.

As indicated in Table 2, University students employed all the strategies stated in the taxonomy, except for probability structures. Among them, the most frequently used strategy to express advice referred to the use of the modal verb *should*, which belonged to the declarative strategies from the direct type, amounting to 29.81%. Other direct strategies employed included the use of imperatives (4.69%), negative imperatives (3.85%), and performatives (3.02%). Conditional sentences from the conventionally indirect type were also used with a percentage of 13.73%, and specific formulae accounted for a 4.02%. Regarding the use of indirect strategies or hints, only 21 occurrences were found (3.51%). Apart from these strategies which belong to the three main groups, namely those of indirect, conventionally indirect and direct, what is



surprising is the high percentage of formulae employed by University students to express advice acts that were not considered in the above-mentioned three types of strategies. Thus, the use of the modal verb *must* amounted to 14.41% of the overall strategy use (more than the conditional structure which only accounted for a 13.73%), which might have been due to a situation of transfer from their L1 (Spanish) to the L2, that is, English:

EXAMPLE (1)

Situation 7 (see Appendix 1)

Your brother has failed all subjects this year. He does not want to tell your parents.

You say to him:

*You must tell it to our parents.*

TYPE	STRATEGY	STRUCTURE	University students			Secondary School students		
			O	P	M	O	P	M
Indirect	Hints	You want to pass, don't you?	21	3.51%		16	3.61%	
Conventionally indirect	Conditional	If I were you, ...	82	13.73%		53	11.96%	
	Probability	It might be better for you...						
	Specific formulae	Why don't you...? Isn't it better for you...?	24	4.02%		3	0.68%	
Direct	Imperative	Be careful!	28	4.69%		29	6.55%	
	Neg. imperative	Don't worry!	23	3.85%		3	0.68%	
	Declarative	You should...	178	29.81%	77	205	46.28%	2
		You ought to...	4	0.67%	2	6	1.36%	
Performative	I advice you to...	18	3.02%		7	1.58%		
Other types of strategies		I recommend that you ...	22	3.69%		8	1.8%	
		You need to...	18	3.02%	3	5	1.13%	2
		You must...	86	14.41%	4	71	16.02%	
		You have to...	37	6.20%	1	20	4.51%	
		You could...	36	6.03%	3	14	3.16%	2
		You'd better...	20	3.33%	3	3	0.68%	2
<b>TOTAL</b>			597	100%	93	443	100%	8

Table 2. Comparison of University and Secondary School students' advice strategy types<sup>d</sup>

The use of the modal verb *must* in the previous example is not appropriate, since the speaker does not mean to express obligation over the hearer, and the benefit is not for the speaker. In contrast, since this situation clearly implies benefits for the hearer

(s/he has a problem), other strategies expressing advice should have been employed. Similarly, the use of the expressions *I recommend that you ...* (3.69%) or *You have to...* (6.20%) may also have been used as a transfer process from their L1 to the target language.

As far as Secondary School students' use of particular advice linguistic formulae is concerned, we may observe in Table 2 above that nearly half of the overall strategy performance also involved the use of the modal verb *should* (46.28%). However, it must be taken into account that some students had problems with its correct use, since they added a verb with *to* after the modal verb.

#### EXAMPLE (2)

Situation 3 (see Appendix 1)

A person sitting next to you has written a message using his/her mobile phone but s/he does not know how to send it. You say to that person:

*You should to press this botton\*<sup>5</sup>*

Moreover, like University students, the second most frequently employed advice strategy by Secondary School students also implied the use of the modal verb *must* amounting to a 16.02%, and the third structure involved conditional sentences with a percentage of 11.96%. This group of students also presented a variety of use belonging to the group of other types of strategies, which might have also been attributed to a situation of pragmatic transfer from Spanish to the target language.

On the one hand, this qualitative analysis of advice linguistic realisations showed that our participants did not differ considerably in their use of the different types of advice acts, namely those of indirect, conventionally indirect and direct, this last type being the most frequently employed by both groups of non-native speakers. Similarly, considering the study carried out by Alcón and Safont (2001), in which natural speech was examined, the authors found that native speakers also employed a high percentage of direct advice strategy types (62%). However, students from a higher level of proficiency, those from the University, showed a more elaborate use of advice strategies.

On the other hand, one relevant aspect observed from the previous analysis illustrates that both groups of students employed a high percentage of strategies belonging to the group of other types of strategies. The structures used in this group did not belong to any of the three main types described in the taxonomy proposed for our study. This result might have been due to the fact that students transfer their knowledge of advising in their L1 to the target language (English). Previous research dealing with pragmatic transfer (Takahashi and Beebe 1987; Takahashi 1996) has not found proficiency effects when focusing on this particular aspect. Similarly, our findings seem to indicate that transfer occurred in the two non-native speakers' groups.

Drawing our attention to the second research question proposed in our study, our interest focused on analysing whether students from both levels of proficiency used peripheral modification devices when advising. As can be seen in Table 2 above,

University students employed a considerable number of mitigators (93 out of 597 situations were mitigated) in opposition to Secondary School students, who only used 8 modification devices from the total number of 443 advising situations. In order to better illustrate this difference in mitigation use, Figure 3 presents the comparison of both groups of students.

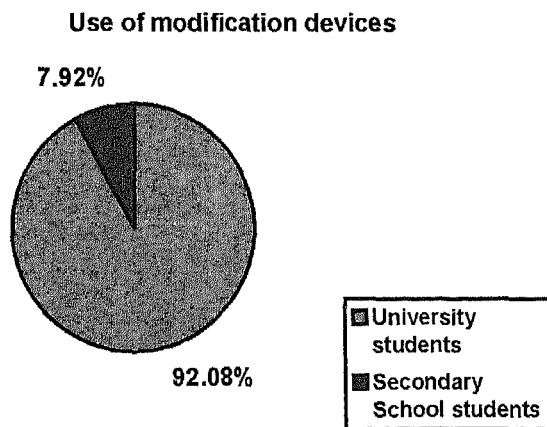


Figure 3. *University and Secondary School students' use of peripheral modification devices.*

The previous figure illustrates that from all the utterances produced by both groups of students, those from a higher level of proficiency (University students) obtained a 92.08% in contrast to Secondary School students whose percentage of mitigators amounted to only a 7.92%. These outcomes seem to indicate that the proficiency level of both groups affected their use of peripheral modification devices. Moreover, the students with a lower level only employed the mitigator *I think*, whereas University students varied their use of mitigators using not only *I think*, but also *maybe* and *perhaps*.

#### EXAMPLE (3)

Situation 1 (see Appendix 1)

You have an important exam next Friday. There is a great party the night before and you do not know what to do. Your friend tells you:

*Perhaps you should study for your exam and leave the party for another day.*

This analysis of modification devices use when advising has showed that the group of University students, those with a higher level of proficiency, not only employed more mitigators than students from a lower level, but also used more variety by making use of different types of mitigators.

#### 4. CONCLUSION

The present study was aimed at analysing the effects of proficiency by non-native speakers' production of one particular exhortative speech act that has not received a great deal of attention in the interlanguage pragmatic studies carried out so far, that of advising. Moreover, we also attempted to examine its occurrence in a foreign language learning context, since most of the research conducted to date has been placed in second language environments. In this sense, we dealt with two groups of EFL students, whose proficiency varied according to the educational level they belonged to, namely those of University and Secondary School. Results from our study showed that the learners' proficiency level affected both the amount of appropriate advice acts produced and also the peripheral modification devices employed when advising. Thus, the group of learners belonging to a higher level of proficiency performed better than those from a lower level.

Moreover, since a high percentage of advice strategies did not belong to any of the three main types proposed in our taxonomy, it seems that these outcomes might have been due to a process of pragmatic transfer. In fact, it occurred in both groups of students, from both levels of proficiency. In this sense, since positive or negative pragmatic transfer may affect learners' degree of pragmatic competence in the target language, more studies should be conducted analysing this phenomenon in the context of the foreign language classroom. According to Bou-Franch (1998), particularly in the foreign language setting, it is necessary that teachers make learners become aware of the pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic differences between their native and target language. The author states that the design of awareness raising activities and the fact of making learners conscious of those differences would give them the chance of developing their pragmatic competence.

To sum up, despite some limitations that might be attributed to our study, such as the employment of only one elicitation method or gender factors, as we only used female subjects, we believe that our study has further examined a particular pragmatic aspect, that of advice production, in the foreign language classroom.

#### NOTES

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2. "Bachillerato" refers to the last two years of the Secondary School educational system in Spain. 1st Bachillerato comprises students from ages between 16/17 years old, and 2nd Bachillerato comprises students from ages between 17/18 years old. It could therefore be compared to the lower and upper sixth forms in the English school system.
3. LAELA stands for "Lingüística Aplicada a l'Ensenyament de la Llengua Anglesa" (Linguistics Applied to English Teaching).

4. This table illustrates the different advice strategy types showing the information in three columns. Thus, the first column marked with an "O" refers to the Occurrences found of this particular speech act. The second column represented by a "P" consists of the Percentage of that particular strategy used. Finally, the third column addresses the Mitigation employed when advising, and is represented by an "M".
5. This sentence is ungrammatical because of the use of an infinitive + to after the modal verb. However, the use of *should* to express advice is appropriate in this situation.

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APPENDIX 1

**Read these situations and write down what you would say in English:**

1. You have an important exam next Friday. There is a great party the night before and you do not know what to do. Your friend tells you:
2. A person you have just met tells you that s/he suffers from stress. You tell that person:
3. A person sitting next to you has written a message using his/her mobile phone but s/he does not know how to send it. You say to that person:
4. At a restaurant a person does not know whether to have soup or paella. The waiter says:
5. You have decided to study one year in England, and you need to choose four subjects from a list of ten. You visit your tutor and s/he tells you:
6. You work at the post office and a person comes to your desk and says that his/her letter should reach its destiny in 24 hours. You tell that person:
7. Your brother has failed all subjects this year. He does not want to tell your parents. You say to him:
8. You work at the information desk in Manises airport and a person that has just arrived (13:00h) tells you that s/he needs to meet a friend in the city centre (Valencia) at 13:30h. You say to this person:
9. Your boyfriend/girlfriend is not happy with his/her studies. S/He does not like any of his/her subjects and s/he fails all his/her exams. You tell him/her: