PRAGMATIC AWARENESS AND ENGAGEMENT WITH LANGUAGE FROM A MULTILINGUAL PERSPECTIVE

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MULTILINGUAL PERSPECTIVE

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To my family and friends

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ALA – Association of Language Awareness

CLA – Critical Language Awareness

CLT – Communicative Language Teaching

CP – Cooperative principle

CR – Consciousness- raising

DCT – Discourse completion test

DST – Dynamic Systems Theory

EAL – English as an Additional Language

EFL – English as a Foreign Language

EMI – English as a medium of instruction

ENS – English native speaker

ESL – English as a Second Language

ESP – English for Specific Purposes

EWL – Engagement with Language

FL – Foreign language

FTA – Face-threatening act

GSP – Grand strategy of politeness

KAL – Knowledge about Language

L1 – First language

L2 – Second language

L3 – Third language

L4 – Fourth language

LA – Language Awareness

LRE – Language-related episodes

NAR – Negative affective requests

NCLE – National Council for Language Education

PAR – Positive affective requests

PEPLI – Programa d'educació plurilingüe i intercultural

PEV – Programa d'educació en valencià

PIP – Programa d'incorporació progressiva

PIV– Programa d'immersió lingüística

PP – Principle of politeness

PPEC – Programa plurilingüe d'ensenyament en castellà

PPEV – Programa plurilingüe d'ensenyament en valencià

PRE – Pragmatic-related episode

QPT – Oxford Quick Placement Test

SLA – Second Language Acquisition

UJI – Universitat Jaume I

UK – United Kingdom

US – United States

ZPD – Zone of proximal development

INTRODUCTION

Introduction

The present study focuses on the pragmatic awareness of multilingual learners by describing their Engagement with Language (Svalberg, 2009; 2012) during the resolution of a collaborative writing task. As argued by Cenoz (2003b), Safont (2005) and Portolés and Safont (2018), the description of multilingual learners' pragmatic knowledge and awareness in request making exchanges should adopt a multilingual perspective that moves away from a monolingual bias. The most recent views on the development of learners' pragmatic competence and awareness have criticised the long-established monolingual tradition of form-function-context mapping that has dominated the field of L2 pragmatics (van Compernolle, 2014; McConachy, 2019). Hence, there is a need for a more realistic portrait of learners' understanding of pragmatic phenomena from a multilingual perspective (McConachy, 2019; McConachy & Spencer-Oatey, 2020). In addition to this, the newest conceptions on pragmatic norms rely on research that encourages the development of learners' subjectivity and awareness in pragmatic-decision making through collaboration and negotiation (McConachy & Liddicoat, 2022). In an attempt to cover the above-mentioned research gaps, we have examined multilingual learners' awareness during the co-construction of request making exchanges by attending to their engagement with Spanish, Catalan and English in collaborative dialogue. In doing so, we intend to provide fresh insights into the way multilingual learners' engagement with the languages contribute to the negotiation of pragmatic-related notions and the development of their pragmatic awareness.

This study will focus on the opportunities that multilingual learners have to develop and promote their pragmatic awareness when engaged in the resolution of a collaborative email writing task. These opportunities are understood as instances where learners reinforce their existing pragmatic awareness and/or co-construct new pragmatic knowledge when engaged in the resolution of the collaborative writing task. In order to describe these pragmatic-related episodes (Taguchi & Kim, 2016; Kim & Taguchi, 2015, 2016), the construct of Engagement with Language (Svalberg, 2009; 2012) will be employed for both: the assessment of learners' engagement with the languages during the collaborative task and the breakdown of pragmatic-related discussion in student-student interaction.

In this sense, this study will attempt to cope with current issues of interest in the fields of foreign language teaching and learning as well as multilingual education. Firstly, the present study will address the increasing significance that the notion of engagement has gained in the last decade (Philp & Duchesne, 2016; Oga-Balwin, 2019) and, in particular, the call for further research around the construct of Engagement with Language (Svalberg, 2018). Secondly, this work will attempt to contribute to filling the gap that exists around collaborative practices to promote engagement and, in particular, pragmatic awareness (Taguchi & Kim, 2016) and the development of sociopragmatic notions (McConachy, 2019; van Compernolle, 2019; Myrset, 2021). Finally, this study is also guided by the importance attributed to the learning of English in bilingual and multilingual communities, oftentimes neglected in second language acquisition research (Cenoz, 2009; Safont, 2017).

This dissertation is grounded in three important and interrelated ideas. In the first place, the "multilingual turn" (May, 2015) and the way it has had an impact on the

conceptualisation of multilingual education and research motivate this study. The importance attributed to multilingualism as a phenomenon has redefined the way applied linguistics approaches language learning and acquisition as a field of study. One of the most evident changes is the new tendency towards the holistic approach to teaching and research in multilingual education. This is theorised in a focus on multilingualism (Cenoz & Gorter, 2011) which gives multilingual speakers the ability to navigate their whole language repertoire without barriers and to benefit from their language resources when learning additional languages (Cenoz, 2009; Cenoz, 2013). These new advancements no longer stick to a monolingual bias which tends to conceive language learning as a 'hermetic process uncontaminated by knowledge and use of one's other languages' (May, 2015 p. 2). Considering the sociolinguistic context of the Valencian Community where this research takes place, it is of relevance to approach the current study by acknowledging the multilingual reality of the learners: the speaking of Spanish and Catalan together with the learning of English as a foreign language. With this in mind, attention will be paid to multilingual learners' whole language repertoire and the "soft boundaries" (Cenoz & Gorter, 2011) between their language systems when engaging in opportunities for the co-construction of their pragmatic awareness.

The second idea guiding the current study is multilingual learners' enhanced metalinguistic awareness (Cenoz, 2009; Jessner, 2008). The studies conducted around this matter mainly focused on cross-lexical consultation (Jessner, 1999, 2006), grammatical awareness (Kemp, 2001; Gibson and Hufeisen, 2006) and phonological awareness (Wrembel, 2015), which provided compelling evidence about the qualitative differences of multilinguals

when learning additional languages. The need to continue further with exploring this research line has widened the scope to new areas of interest. For example, the focus on pragmatic behaviour in relation to awareness has been steadily growing over the last decades (Safont, 2003, 2005; Portolés, 2015, Portolés & Safont, 2018). Looking at the literature on pragmatic awareness, recent lines of research have emphasised the importance of the sociopragmatic domain (McConachy, 2019) and the positive effect of scaffolded reflection (McConachy & Spencer-Oatey, 2020, van Compernolle, 2014) in the learning of new pragmatic knowledge (van Compernolle & Kinginger, 2013; van Compernolle, 2019; Myrset, 2021). In an attempt to link multilingual and L2 pragmatic research, the current study will describe the way collaborative talk can foster opportunities for the development of multilingual pragmatic awareness.

Finally, students' Engagement with Language (Svalberg, 2009; 2012) provides a theoretical framework for the exploration of learners' pragmatic awareness. While for the most part learners' engagement has been studied in its more cognitive sense (Storch, 2008; Edstrom, 2015), a more holistic and complex view defines it as multidimensional (Svalberg, 2009, 2012; Philp & Duchesne, 2016; Oga-Baldwin, 2019). The construct of Engagement with Language as proposed by Svalberg (2009; 2012) attributed a key role to the cognitive, affective and social states of engagement in the development of language awareness. With this in mind, the construct has mostly been implemented to approach learners' engagement and construction of their awareness in student-student interaction (Ahn, 2016; Baralt, Gurzynski-Weiss & Kim, 2016; Zhang, 2021; Zabihi & Grahramanzadeh, 2022). The insights provided by these studies further support the relevance of engagement in the development

of learners' awareness of language, especially when immersed in collaborative practices. Furthermore, the research conducted so far has also highlighted the dynamic and interrelated nature of the different states of the construct of Engagement with Language. There is a need to extend this line of research to other formal properties of the language besides grammatical knowledge, such as the pragmatic functions (Svalberg, 2018). Therefore, this study will implement the construct of Engagement with Language to shed light on engagement in relation to the development of awareness but with a focus on pragmatic awareness in collaborative practices.

The current study will draw attention to the opportunities for the development of pragmatic awareness of Spanish/Catalan bilingual learners of English as a foreign language at university level. Responding to the need to move away from monolingual ideologies in language research (Cenoz, 2013) and to approach pragmatic awareness from a multilingual perspective (Portolés & Safont, 2018; McConachy, 2019), this work will assess learners' engagement with languages, namely, Spanish, Catalan, and English in pragmatic-related episodes. In addition to this, learners' use of their language repertoire when facing pragmatic-related phenomena will be looked into with the aim of providing support to the holistic view of multilingual teaching and research.

The following objectives are set for the current study:

1. Assess learners' engagement with the languages when working on a collaborative email writing task in Spanish, Catalan and English.

2. Report, if any, differences in levels of cognitive, affective and social engagement between languages.

3. Observe the interrelationship existing between the three dimensions of the construct of Engagement with Language within the same language as well as between languages.

4. Analyse the opportunities for the development of learners' awareness of pragmalinguistic forms and sociopragmatic notions when engaged in collaborative writing practices.

5. Describe the use of learners' whole language repertoire when facing pragmatic-related episodes when engaged in collaborative writing practices.

Having introduced the rationale and motivation of the study, we will now explain its structure. The current investigation is presented into two main sections. In the first, consisting of three chapters, we provide the theoretical framework that shapes the study. In the second section, which consists of four chapters, the empirical study is described, results are reported, together with the corresponding discussion, and the study is concluded with some final remarks. We will now briefly present the contents of each chapter.

Chapter 1 reviews the relevance of language awareness in language learning from an educational and psycholinguistic perspective. Section 1.1 provides an account of the different definitions for language awareness and compares it with similar terminology found in the literature. Section 1.2 presents research conducted on language awareness together with studies that first attempted to understand it from a more multilingual point of view. This research contributed to the view of metalinguistic awareness as an intrinsic characteristic that defines multilingual individuals (Herdina & Jessner, 2002; Jessner, 2008). Linking language awareness with pedagogical practices, Section 1.3 states the relationship existing between

awareness and engagement. When defining engagement as a multidimensional framework, the construct of Engagement with Language (Svalberg, 2009; 2012) is described as a clear example of a more holistic and dynamic approach to engagement. Svalberg's framework for engagement analysis has been tested in different contexts and levels, showing its validity as a point of reference for the study of language awareness and engagement (Svalberg, 2009; Kearney & Ahn, 2013; Kearney & Barbour, 2015; Ahn, 2016; Baralt *et al*. 2016, Svalberg & Askham, 2020; Toth, 2020, Zhang, 2021; Zabihi & Grahramanzadeh, 2022). Finally, Section 1.4 summarises the main ideas from Chapter 1.

Chapter 2 introduces the field of L2 pragmatics. In Section 2.1 the different models of communicative competence that have contributed to the notion of pragmatic competence are described. Section 2.2 addresses the Speech Act Theory (Austin, 1962; Searle, 1976) and Politeness Theory (Brown & Levinson, 1978, 1987), together with other approaches to politeness, as key in L2 pragmatic research. Narrowing down the scope of this study, Section 2.3 refers to pragmatic awareness as a specific case of language awareness and illustrates research conducted on this matter with a special focus on pragmatic awareness development in collaboration and multilingual pragmatic awareness (Nightingale & Safont, 2019). Summarising the main ideas from Chapter 2, Section 2.4 provides an account of the topics developed throughout this chapter.

Chapter 3 introduces the speech act of request and links it with collaborative writing practices in the language classroom. Section 3.1 focuses on this speech act by providing an account of the different request realization strategies and modification devices. In addition to this, this section refers to collaborative writing as helpful in the development of requestive

behaviour. A review of studies on collaboration shows the need to implement collaborative writing tasks to foster opportunities for pragmatic awareness development. Section 3.2 profiles email correspondence as ideal for research on requestive behaviour among foreign language learners given the characteristics of this medium of communication. This chapter concludes with a summary as presented in Section 3.3.

Chapter 4 briefly summarises the motivation behind the current study for later moving to Section 4.1 where the rational of the study is presented. The main research described in the theoretical framework which shapes the current investigation is summarised. This leads to Section 4.2 where the research questions and hypotheses that guide the study are formulated.

Chapter 5 presents the sociolinguistic setting where the study is conducted, the Valencian Community, and the methodology employed in the research. Important features regarding language and educational policies are described in Section 5.1 which help in the understanding of the context of the study. Following the description of the research setting, Section 5.2 thoroughly describes the participants that took part in this research by providing information concerning age, gender, languages spoken and proficiency. Section 5.3 describes the data collection process with a description of the instrumentation employed and data analysis. The research instruments presented are introduced, namely, the background information questionnaire, the self-perceived engagement with language questionnaire, the collaborative task in Spanish, Catalan and English and the framework for Engagement with Language episodes as adapted from Svalberg (2009; 2012). Quantitative and qualitative approaches to data analysis are described including the tests for statistical analysis and the

justification for the use of semi-naturalistic data. A detailed account of data codification for statistical analysis and the unit of analysis for qualitative examination are provided as well. Having described the methodology, the following chapter tackles the results and discussion of the research conducted.

Chapter 6 reports the findings of the current study by responding to each research question and hypothesis and discussing the results obtained. Section 6.1 corresponds to the first research question and hypothesis which presents an account of participants' engagement with the languages through descriptive and inferential statistics as well as representative examples of learners' social, affective and social engagement. Section 6.2 responds to research question and hypothesis two. The interrelationship and mediating effect of the different dimensions of the construct of Engagement with Language within and across languages are reported through Spearman's rank order correlation test and a qualitative description of the most salient language-and pragmatic-related episodes. Finally, Section 6.3 focuses on research question three and hypotheses three and four. The opportunities for the development of learners' pragmatic awareness when engaged in collaborative practices are qualitatively described together with instances of learners resorting to their language repertoire to tackle English-pragmatic related issues.

Chapter 7 summarises the study by referring to the main findings and outcomes as well as the contribution to the field of language teaching and learning and multilingual education. Section 7.1 reintroduces the hypotheses and provides a brief account, together with conclusions, of the main findings linked to each of them from the present study. Section 7.2 describes the implications that this study has for the multilingual language classroom and

language pedagogy, emphasising the importance of collaboration to foster engagement with language and the development of learners' pragmatic awareness. In addition to this, the relevance of including multilingual practices in the language classroom are highlighted. Finally, Section 7.3 suggests future research directions when investigating engagement and its multidimensionality, and pragmatic awareness from a multilingual perspective. Following this final chapter, the references are listed and the appendices illustrating the questionnaires, collaborative writing tasks, and framework for analysis employed are also attached.

PART I:

THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK

Chapter 1. Language Awareness in the Classroom

Chapter 1 attempts to present and define the notion of language awareness and review the research conducted on this topic in the field of applied linguistics. Moreover, the chapter deals with the construct of engagement as related to the construction and development of language awareness. In Section 1.1 the notion of language awareness is presented together with its difference to similar terminology used in the field, as well as the scope of the term. Section 1.2 reviews research conducted so far in relation to language awareness and language learning. Section 1.3 explains the connection between language awareness and engagement, the definition of this term, and research conducted so far. Furthermore, a focus on the construct of Engagement with Language provides the framework that will guide this study. Finally, section 1.4 presents a summary of the content discussed in this chapter.

1.1   Understanding language awareness

This first section presents the array of definitions for language awareness as well as the competing terms that exist in the literature. After developing the evolution of the term, two main perspectives to language awareness are explained, that of an educational strand and of a psycholinguistic strand. Finally, a working definition is provided in order to conceptualise language awareness for the purpose of this thesis.

1.1.1 Definitions and terminology

By taking a quick look at the literature on language awareness (henceforth, LA), one could be given the impression that different terminology is being used for dealing with a more or less similar phenomenon. Depending on the authors and approaches, the definitions to the study of LA may also vary. Therefore, it is relevant for the sake of this study to clearly state the conceptualisation given to LA and the perspective that will be adopted to conduct research.

A historical review of the origins and evolution of the notion of LA would help in the current understanding of this term. The beginnings of the interest aroused by LA lead back to the United Kingdom (henceforth, UK) educational system. An often-cited work is that of Hawkins' (1981; 1984) proposal of linking the teaching of English (as a mother tongue) and foreign languages in what he called a 'bridging subject' (Hawkins, 1999, p. 124) from primary to secondary in UK schools. Such a proposal is a reaction against school dropouts and poor literacy achievements in both the first language (henceforth, L1) and foreign language (henceforth, FL) of British pupils (see National Child Development Study [Davie *et al.*, 1972], the Bullock Report [1975] and the Rampton Committee [1981]). The main reason attributed to dropouts and low literacy was social and home background differences among primary and secondary students. Advocating LA as a solution to this inequality, Hawkins (1984) provided one of the first definitions which, as explained by James and Garrett (1991), was mainly utilitarian as it stated the objectives of LA:

> Awareness of language is intended to bridge the transition from primary to secondary education language work; to provide a meeting place and common vocabulary for the different fields of language education (MT English, FL, English as a Second Language,

Community Languages); to prepare the way for child-care courses in the fourth and fifth years of secondary education; to facilitate discussion of linguistic diversity (on the assumption that discussion and the greater awareness it engenders are the best weapons against prejudice); to develop listening skills (as a prerequisite for efficient foreign language study), along with confidence in reading and motivation for writing (p. 4).

As can be seen, Hawkins (1984) saw in LA the potential for the organisation of the different languages presented in the school curriculum, understanding language learning from a holistic perspective. Hawkins' (1999) criticism was that there was no connection or coordinated work towards a common goal (i.e. language teaching and learning) among the different language teachers within the same educational institution and across educational levels. That was the reason why in its origins LA was perceived as a point of contact between all the different language subjects, that is, English as first or mother tongue learning, second language learning and foreign language learning.

Another often-cited definition of LA is the one provided by the National Council for Language Education (NCLE) Working Party on Language Awareness which describes it as 'a person's sensitivity to and conscious awareness of the nature of language and its role in human life' (Donmall, 1985, p. 7 as seen in James & Garrett, 1991, p. 4). Compared with Hawkins' (1984) definition, Donmall's took as a starting point the individual as responsible for his or her LA due to his or her sensitivity and consciousness towards languages. Van Lier (1995, p. xi) defined LA as 'an understanding of the human faculty and its role in thinking,

learning and social life'. Van Lier's explanation of this phenomenon went beyond the language classroom to include other equally important facets of human experience like social interaction, cultural aspects and cognitive processes as influenced by language.

The idea behind the implementation of LA as a bridging course was to 'examine the functions of language… learning about language acquisition, as future parents… analyse linguistic prejudices… study by means of field work the effectiveness of language in a variety of contexts…' (Perren, 1974, p. 62 as seen in Hawkins, 1992, p. 9). Therefore, the content of an LA program would include language talk, linguistic diversity and confidence boosting in terms of the different language skills, all framed within language comparison and debates (Garrett & James, 1993). Such enthusiasm towards LA is often referred to as the *British Language Awareness Movement.* The force of which materialised with the creation of the *Association for Language Awareness* (also known as ALA) in the UK in 1992 as well as the publication of the *Language Awareness* journal in the same year.

Since then, LA has grown and expanded to different areas such as foreign language learning, English for specific purposes or even beyond the language classroom to cover wider areas of social and work life. This broadening of scope is found on the ALA's website (n.d) current understanding of LA as 'explicit knowledge about language, and conscious perception and sensitivity in language learning, language teaching and language use'. The ALA expanded on LA by stating that it covers a wide range of different fields and social spheres such as cultural relationship enhancement and language use in professional environments.

It is also relevant to highlight that besides the many definitions of LA found in the literature, there are also some other competing terms such as *Knowledge About Language,*

Linguistic Awareness or *Metalinguistic Awareness* that might lead to confusion. Regarding

Knowledge About Language (henceforth, KAL), such term can be said to be emerging from

the dichotomy *knowing the language* (i.e., knowing how to use it) and *knowing about the*

language (i.e. awareness of language use) (Cots, 2001). The use of KAL was seen in the

Kingman's Report (1988) which inquired into the teaching of English in British schools and

related to the British Language Awareness Movement.

Hawkins (1992) stated that The Kingman Report's reaction to "knowledge about

language" as an element in the curriculum was positive. Later, other authors made use of the

term such as Professor Cox (1989) who led the committee supporting the teaching of KAL in

schools (Hawkins, 1992). Therefore, KAL and LA are terms which are often used

interchangeably as seen in Alderson, Clapham and Steel (1997, p. 95) who define KAL as 'what

has come to be known as LA'. More evidence of the interchangeable use is seen in Little (1997)

who used the notion of KAL as a way to define LA from an educational perspective and in

order to differentiate it from a more psycholinguistic approach. An opposite view was

provided by Carter (2003) who mentioned that KAL is preferred when dealing with language

learning in mother tongue contexts rather than foreign or second language contexts. Cots

(2017) opted to refer to KAL as an inclusive term for related terminology such as LA,

metalinguistic knowledge or even explicit knowledge.

Other competing terms often found in the literature are those of linguistic awareness

and metalinguistic awareness. Cazden (1976) provided a complex definition of metalinguistic

awareness: as an ability and as a special type of language performance requiring cognitive

demands and not easily acquired universally. In this sense, it could be understood as a skill

that involves cognitive engagement and some level of formal training. Masny (1997) stated the importance of making a distinction between LA and linguistic awareness as she did not conceive them as equal terms. Masny (1997) placed LA within the fields of applied linguistics and pedagogy while linguistic awareness as more related to psycholinguistic and cognitive theories:

> Linguistic awareness, or metalinguistic awareness, (…) refers to individuals' ability to reflect on, and match intuitively, spoken and written utterances with their knowledge of the language. This tacit knowledge is made explicit through outward expression ranging from spontaneous self-correction to explicit reflection in the production of utterances. This means that individuals are able to extract themselves from the normal use of language and focus their attention on the functions and forms of the language being manipulated (p. 106).

On top of this, as can be observed in Masny's definition, she also saw the term, metalinguistic awareness, as a synonym of linguistic awareness. After a review of the different competing terminology, Jessner (2006, p. 42) defined metalinguistic awareness as 'the ability to focus attention on language as an object in itself or to think abstractly about language and, consequently, to play or manipulate language'. From both definitions concerning linguistic and metalinguistic awareness, one could state that both concepts make reference to the same phenomenon and, therefore, they can be used in equal terms. With regards to LA and metalinguistic awareness, Alderson *et al.* (1997) referred to metalinguistic knowledge as both language awareness and knowledge about language, therefore, equating all these terms.

Similarly, Little (1997) who came to the same conclusion, understood LA – in a psycholinguistic tradition – as unconscious metalinguistic knowledge.

In line with all these different terms, others can be found coming from varied language traditions. An example of this would be German and the terms *Sprachbewußtsein, Sprachbewußtheit, Sprachbetrachtung* and *Sprachreflexion* (James 1999), the Italian language and the notions of *consapevolezza* and *conscienza* (Jessner, 2006) or Paulo Freire (1972) in Brazil and his use of the term *conscientização.* Nonetheless, as explained by James (1999), despite the subtle differences between these terms, all of them coincide in the fact that there are more benefits on focusing on language beyond its communicative purposes.

Another often-cited term in relation to awareness is that of consciousness-raising. First coined by Sharwood-Smith (1981), it refers to directing the focus of the learning into a specific linguistic form. As explained by Eckerth (2008, p. 120) while making reference to Sharwood-Smith's work, 'rather than explicit knowledge *per se*, it is the potential effect of such knowledge on input perception, language processing, and output monitoring which can be conductive to second language acquisition, an effect which has been referred to as consciousness raising'. The result of this pedagogical perspective is materialised in consciousness-raising tasks. They are defined as 'a pedagogic activity where the learners are provided with L2 data in some form and required to perform some operation on or with it, the purpose of which is to arrive at an explicit understanding of some linguistic property or properties of the target language' (Ellis, 1997, p. 160). Research on consciousness raising tasks has explored its effect on grammar acquisition (Fotos & Ellis, 1991; Sheen, 1992; Fotos, 1993, 1994; Nitta & Gardner, 2005; Ó Laoire, 2007; Eckerth, 2008), communicative skills

(Nobuyoshi & Ellis, 1993), learners' and teachers' attitudes (Mohamed, 2004, Svalberg, 2005) and pragmatic competence (Takimoto, 2006; Alcón-Soler, 2007) among other topics.

Even though LA and consciousness raising seems to be tackling the same issue, that is, explicit language knowledge, there are differences in the ways these two terms are approached. As explained by James (1999), on the one hand, consciousness raising refers to the learners' noticing of a mismatch between his/her language knowledge and an ultimate and desirable goal knowledge. On the other hand, LA is described as 'having or gaining explicit knowledge about and skill in reflecting on and talking about one's own language(s), over which one hitherto has had a degree of control, and about which one has also a related set of intuitions' (James, 1999, p.102). From James' perspective, LA is a skill of those who already have a degree of mastery or control over the language(s) while consciousness raising aims at developing that control or mastery. In other words, James (1999) saw LA as metacognition, where the individual's intuitions and reflections lead to a connection with the already acquired language knowledge. On the contrary, consciousness raising is a cognitive ability where one learns about the language and attempts at personalising such knowledge.

In an attempt to set boundaries between the many labels for LA, Sharwood-Smith (1997) provided an alternative. As explained by the author, despite the general and multiple uses of the term LA, there is a common denominator: 'awareness of what a language is' or 'awareness of language as an important phenomenon in our lives' (Sharwood-Smith, 1997, p. 25). In order to narrow down the meaning attributed to LA when conducting research or teaching, Sharwood-Smith (1997, pp. 25-26) proposed to take into account the following definitional options:

1. which people are supposed to become aware (teachers, learners, government officials, the media, the general public),

2. which out of the many aspects of language that may be distinguished they are supposed to become aware of (accent, grammar, communicative function, language loyalty, etc.) and

3. which people, or other agencies, are to be responsible for bringing about the awareness.

Due to the many labels used to refer to LA and the different ways to approach it, it is extremely important to limit the scope and mark some boundaries for the purpose of the current study. Following Masny (1997), LA is understood as guided by theory and pedagogy deriving from applied linguistics while linguistic awareness is strictly grounded in psycholinguistics and cognitivism. Cots (2001) opted for using the term awareness as an umbrella term including KAL and consciousness raising. For the sake of this study, LA is to be understood as part of applied linguistics and, as done by Cots (2001), is to be used as an umbrella term. Nonetheless, as suggested by Masny (1997), LA does contemplate linguistic awareness as a source of research. Finally, following Jessner's (2006) explanation, linguistic awareness is seen as a synonym for metalinguistic awareness, an ability highly developed in multilinguals. Therefore, we will be using the notion of LA as an inclusive term deriving from applied linguistics and which conceives linguistic awareness as its direct source from a psycholinguistic perspective.

1.1.2   Educational and psycholinguistic perspectives in defining LA

This section intends to illustrate two perspectives on LA, namely, an educational and a psycholinguistic point of view. Broadly speaking, there are two main strands in relation to LA. As distinguished by Cots (2017), there is an "educational" line of research with the ultimate aim of improving language teaching, and a "psycholinguistic" line of LA research concerning the individual and the learning process. These lines are developed in detail.

1.1.2.1   Educational strand

This subsection introduces the educational strand, related with the origins of modern LA with authors such James and Garrett (1991) and van Lier (1995; 1998). To start with, James and Garrett (1991) proposed five different dimensions into which LA teaching and research could fall. These dimensions are:

1. *Affective domain:* The authors saw the affective dimension as one of the core elements when dealing with LA. This claim was made on the basis that previous research addressed learners' affective domain as the key to success (or failure) when learning a language. For example, as seen in James and Garrett (1991, p. 13), Rinvolucri (1984) saw language learning not only as a cognitive activity but also an affective one. Borg (1994), in his description of LA as a pedagogical approach, made reference to engaging learners at a cognitive and affective level. Schumann (1997), when referring to emotions as the force driving language learning success (as seen in Gabryś-Barker, 2013 p.100), provided further evidence in relation to the role of affection. Nowadays, there is no doubt about the role of affective factors in language learning and teaching.

2. *Social domain:* As explained by James and Garrett (1991, p. 13), the social dimension of LA is concerned with 'social harmonisation' due to the existence of multicultural and multilingual realities, not only within the classroom but in society. The authors quoted Donmall (1985, p. 8) to explain that LA can be beneficial for creating 'better relation between all ethnic groups, by arousing pupil's awareness of the origins and characteristics of their own language and dialect and their place in the wider map of language and dialects used in the world beyond'.

An exemplification of the effect of LA on developing a social conscience was provided by Clark, Fairclough, Ivanič and Martin-Jones (1990, 1991) in their two-part paper on what they called Critical Language Awareness (henceforth, CLA). The authors addressed sociolinguistic issues that were not fully covered in an LA program. For instance, they criticised the 'natural order' and the 'social relationships' (Clark *et al.* 1990, p. 250) surrounding language learning and language use. Therefore, they proposed a change from 'operational and descriptive knowledge of the linguistic practices' to a 'critical awareness of how these practices are shaped, and shape social relationships and relationships of power' (Clark *et al.* 1991, p 252). Other research dealing with the social dimension of LA include linguistic diversity and identity in the classroom (Merchant, 2001; Martin, 2012; Krulatz, Steen-Olsen & Torgersen 2018), social tolerance (Leets & Giles, 1993) and cultural awareness (Byram, 2012) to name but a few.

3. *Power domain:* James and Garrett (1991) mentioned that LA has the potential of forewarning learners of the manipulative techniques in which language can be employed by particular individuals or groups (e.g. governments, the media, etc.). Thanks to LA work, learners can develop sensitivity towards these practices and, therefore, empower themselves. An example of this power dimension is the work conducted by Freire (1972) and the term *conscientização,* previously mentioned. Freire attempted to prepare people for the understanding of hidden messages and rhetorical uses that some make when using the language for manipulative purposes (James & Garrett, 1991). The book published by Janks, Dixon, Ferreira, Granville and Newfield (2014) concerning critical literacy for teachers and students clearly exemplifies this power dimension. Finally, previous work related to CLA and the social sphere could also fall under the domain of power.

4. *Cognitive domain:* This dimension relates to the cognitive advantages that LA work has on learners. When listing the objectives of an LA approach, Bolitho, Carter, Hughes, Ivanič, Masuhara and Tomlinson (2003, p. 252) stated that LA helps 'learners to develop (…) cognitive skills as connecting, generalizing, and hypothesizing'. Such cognitive skills are not unique to language learning, but the promotion of an LA approach can result in the development of abilities that move beyond the language classroom. Particularly, cognitive advantages resulting from awareness have been largely documented in the literature concerning bilingual and multilingual development. Among the relevant researchers that support the cognitive benefits of

LA on cognition in relation to bi- and multilingualism we find Jessner (1999, 2008), Cenoz (2003a) and Bialystok, Peets, and Moreno (2014) among many others.

5. *Performance domain:* This dimension is concerned with whether an individual's LA can be directly translated into a better performer in such language. As put forward by James and Garrett (1991, p. 17): 'whether an analytical knowledge impinges on language behaviour'. This aspect of LA is further developed in Section 1.2 with a review of the different studies tackling this issue.

As can be seen, research has been conducted within each of the dimensions proposed by James and Garrett. However, and as expected, there are some blurred lines between these dimensions as with the case of the power and social domains and the interface of CLA studies. Even though in its origins a separation of such spheres was useful to have a more precise and analytic view, nowadays an integration of the different dimensions from a more holistic perspective might provide a more complete picture.

Van Lier (1998) provided another major classification for the understanding of LA from a pedagogical point of view. This author had the idea that a person could have different levels of LA. As explained by Cots (2001), these levels operate hierarchically, involving increasing social interaction and language development as well as analytical capacities and a certain degree of sensitivity:

Level 1: Intransitive: The mere fact of being alive and awake is the first basic level towards awareness.

Level 2: Transitive: This level relates to the ability to perceive objects and events in our surroundings. Van Lier included within this level, the act of paying attention, focusing and vigilance.

Level 3: Practical: At this level, people can treat the language as an object in order to manipulate, control or adapt it based on their needs. People should also be able to provide an explanation for their language choice.

Level 4: Technical: Producing a linguistic analysis that is methodological and based on scientific principles. Cots (2001) mentioned as an example of awareness at this level the provision of metalinguistic knowledge as found in grammar books.

Level 5: Critical: This level of awareness involves the interrelationship existing between language and society. As a social tool, language can be used for both manipulative and control purposes but also as a tool for liberation and power.

These levels attempt to classify LA in order to illustrate the different dimensions and perspectives that can be adopted. They are of great help for language teachers as they serve as a guide for the design of their classes with a focus on awareness depending on the needs and individual characteristics of the group.

Having reviewed LA in relation to a more educational approach, the following subsection deals with research conducted from a psycholinguistic perspective in the field of Second Language Acquisition (henceforth, SLA).

1.1.2.2 Psycholinguistic strand

This subsection illustrates work conducted on LA from an SLA perspective. In order to exemplify this, Schmidt's (1983, 1990, 1994) and Schmidt and Frota's (1986) work is mentioned to explain the role of awareness. Moreover, Tomlin and Villa's (1994) research provide further support with their view on attention. Finally, explicit knowledge and instruction in relation to awareness is developed.

The bulk of research on LA from a psycholinguistic strand is large. The work that has been done in the field of SLA includes studies on explicit knowledge and explicit or formal instruction. As has happened with the notion of LA, SLA research has made use of a wide and varied range of labels to address awareness in language learning and teaching. As explained by Schmidt (1994), there has been a lack of consensus over terms such as "conscious", "awareness" or "consciousness".

The work done by Schmidt (1983, 1990, 1994) and Schmidt and Frota (1986) represents an interesting starting point to understand the role of awareness in second language learning and teaching. *The Noticing Hypothesis* proposed by Schmidt attempted to shed light on the debate around the role of attention and awareness as potential conditions for language learning and acquisition. Broadly speaking, the *Noticing Hypothesis* established that there must be a level of attention and noticing of the linguistic elements in the language input learners are exposed to, in order for it to become intake. However, terms such as attention, detection and noticing generate confusion and, therefore, it is relevant to make a distinction among them. Schmidt (1994) explained that attention is a requisite of detection, which can occur with or without awareness. Attention is also necessary for noticing linguistic

features, but it is only with the occurrence of conscious awareness of such features what leads to learning. In other words, noticing is a necessary condition for language learning to take place. As can be seen, equating attention with awareness or detection with attention would result in an inappropriate use of the terminology.

Nonetheless, SLA has an ongoing debate around the role of consciousness, and both attention and awareness are at the core of it. Tomlin and Villa (1994) dug into the role of attention in perception and learning. Even though the authors acknowledged the importance attributed to attention in Schmidt's *Noticing Hypothesis*, Tomlin and Villa (1994) believed that other processes such as detection or orientation are far more important than just noticing. The idea behind this premise was given by Posner and Petersen (1990) and their discussion on the human attention system. Posner and Petersen (1990) understood attention as composed of 1) alertness (being ready to respond to the external stimuli or input), 2) orientation (directing the focus of attention to a particular stimuli or input) and 3) detection (registration of the stimuli or input). In the interplay between these three components of attention, awareness may (or may not) play a role in enhancing alertness, orientation, or detection. However, Tomlin and Villa (1994) stated that awareness is not necessary for learning but detection in itself. Therefore, attention is conceived as a necessary condition for learning to take place and it can be 'theoretically and empirically differentiated from consciousness and awareness' (Tomlin & Villa, 1994, p. 187). In response to this, Schmidt (2001) proposed a differentiation between 'noticing', understood as registration of the language forms, and 'understanding', more related to awareness and higher cognitive skills. Despite the notorious relationship existing between attention and awareness, these two

processes as described in SLA research are more related to the cognitive mechanisms of language learning, and not so much with an explicit, conscious perception of the language and sensitivity towards it (i.e. language awareness).

Continuing developing the notion of noticing in relation to awareness, special attention must be paid to the idea of explicit knowledge and explicit instruction. Understanding linguistic awareness as a way of operationalising explicit knowledge and instruction, research focuses on the role played by explicit knowledge and the benefits of explicit instruction. Explicit knowledge refers to the 'conscious analytic awareness of the formal properties of the target language' (Sharwood-Smith, 1981, p. 159), opposite to what is known as implicit knowledge, conceived as unconscious knowledge on the part of the learner and manifested in actual performance (Ellis, 1994). For example, Green and Hecht (1992) observed that German secondary and university students learning English, when faced with ungrammatical sentences, were able to correct 78% of such sentences but only explain the correct rule in 46% of the cases thanks to the provision of explicit knowledge. Macrory and Stone (2000) results showed a mismatch between what learners explicitly explained about the use of the French perfect tense (self-report) and its actual use (fill-in-the-gaps, interview and free writing). This sort of research inquires into the potential benefit of explicit knowledge and the way it should be exploited.

Ellis (2005) drew attention to the connection between explicit knowledge and awareness. Ellis differentiated between explicit and implicit knowledge according to the "degree of awareness", understood as 'the extent to which learners are aware of their own linguistic knowledge' (Ellis, 2005, p. 152). Another well-known author on this topic, Ellis

(2009), conceived explicit knowledge as conscious and declarative, involving controlled processing of the linguistic knowledge. In addition to this, Ellis (2009) understood explicit knowledge as learnable, imprecise and verbalised. From what has been described so far, it is clear that in the case of explicit knowledge, SLA literature understands it as linguistic or metalinguistic knowledge, that is, what we have come to name LA.

Having reviewed the evolution and the two different perspectives to approach LA, we will conceive LA as a deeper understanding of the language, resulting from previous experience, intuition and developed sensitivity which promotes reflection and the conscious manipulation of an already acquired language system. We understand LA as dynamic and in constant change as influenced by both internal factors – number of languages in the linguistic repertoire, language learning experience, aptitude, proficiency, affective variables and the like – and external factors – language and task demand, time and sociocultural-related aspects.

The following section presents research conducted on LA with special emphasis on bilingual and multilingual studies.

1.2   Research on language awareness

After reviewing the origins and evolution of what has come to be known as LA and the two different perspectives that have contributed to its development, this section presents research conducted in relation to LA and language learning. In particular, most research described in the current study addresses the learning of English as a foreign language. Nonetheless, the learning of other languages such as French, German or Polish are also mentioned due to the relevance of their contribution to the study of LA. This section reviews studies dealing with

the role of bilingualism in relation to LA by authors such as Thomas (1988), Bialystok (1988) or Ricciardelli (1992). With a multilingual profile in mind, Lasagabaster (1997), Williams and Hammarberg (1998) and Jessner (1999) conducted a series of studies to observe the role played by LA in multilingual language learning. Other studies such as Cots (2001) encourage an LA pedagogy in the classroom. Finally, a specific line of LA research is that of teacher awareness as exemplified by the work of Wrembel (2015).

Thomas (1988) compared English-Spanish bilingual university students learning French as a third language with English monolinguals learning it as a second language. Results showed an advantage of bilingual learners over monolinguals when performing certain classroom activities. The author attributed this to the development of an awareness towards languages in bilinguals due to previous formal instruction on Spanish (as opposed to those who acquired Spanish at home). Bialystok (1988) reported on two different studies which investigated bilingual performance in relation to linguistic awareness. In the first study, she compared French-English bilingual (partial and fully bilingual) and English monolingual children's responses to metalinguistic tasks. Fluent bilinguals displayed higher levels of metalinguistic awareness than partial bilinguals and monolinguals. The second study by Bialystok (1988) concerned Italian-English bilinguals in a within-group design. She found that the level of bilingualism can have a positive effect when dealing with metalinguistic problems. Bild and Swain (1989) observed that bilingual children speakers of a minority language (Italian and non-Roman languages) and English outperformed English monolinguals in the learning of French. The authors attributed this to a highly developed metalinguistic awareness thanks to their previous language exposure.

Ricciardelli (1992) studied the relationship between bilingualism and cognitive development. Drawing from the *threshold theory* (see Cummins 1976; 1978), Ricciardelli compared 57 Italian-English bilingual children and 55 English monolingual children in terms of proficiency, creativity, metalinguistic awareness and other cognitive areas. Her results showed that bilinguals were advantaged in specific areas, that is, divergent thinking, imagination, grammatical awareness, perceptual organization and reading achievement (Ricciardelli, 1992, pp. 313-314). McCarthy (1994, pp. 4-5) advocated for the exploitation of Irish primary school pupils' already developed LA in the learning of a third language. He proposed the promotion of such LA in two ways: 1) by developing effective conscious use of learning strategies and 2) by developing the already existing metalinguistic awareness from prior language knowledge. McCarthy (1994, p. 7) concluded that omitting 'some comparative/contrastive dimension where pupils already have experience of learning a second language is to ignore a very valuable resource'. Klein (1995) tested 17 monolingual and 15 multilingual high school learners acquiring English as an additional language (henceforth, EAL). The research was focused on the learning of lexis and syntax. Klein reported an advantage of multilingual learners over monolinguals in terms of metalinguistic skills, lexical knowledge and learning procedure.

Lasagabaster's (1997) study observed a positive relationship between level of proficiency and level of bilingualism. By comparing bilingual and monolingual children in the Basque country in relation to their level of proficiency and other variables (socioeconomic status, language exposure and motivation), Lasagabaster attributed higher levels of metalinguistic awareness to bilingual learners. Baiget, Irun and Llurda (1997) explored the

metalanguage of Spanish-Catalan speakers learning EAL while performing language tasks in the three languages. The authors identified three operations when learners made use of metalanguage, namely, categorising, judging and analysing. Moreover, Baiget, Irun and Llurda (1997) assigned higher levels of proficiency and fluency to the learners' capacity to reflect about the language.

In their case study, Williams and Hammarberg (1998; see also Hammarberg, 2001; Hammarberg & Williams, 1993) analysed the audio recordings of conversations between Sarah Williams, the subject of the study, and Hammarberg. Sarah had a varied linguistic repertoire, consisting of English as her L1, German as her L2, French and Italian as L2s and, finally, Swedish as her third language (henceforth, L3). The authors identified seven types of switches – expressions in a language other than the one being employed in a given moment – being two related to metalinguistic awareness. The first one corresponded to meta comments on the communicative encounter or the text while the second one was labelled as metaframe, (as seen Jessner, 2008). Jessner (1999, see also Jessner, 2005; 2008) analysed data resulting from think-aloud protocols provided by Italian-German bilingual university students of EFL. While conducting an academic writing activity, participants display metalinguistic comments and questions using all their three languages. On top of this, Jessner (1999) observed the activation of prior knowledge as a facilitative tool for language learning.

Overtime, LA has steadily moved beyond the bilingual/trilingual vs. monolingual research design to include studies about learners' and teachers' attitudes and preferences towards LA. An example of this type of research is Aronin and Ó Laoire's (2003) proposal of exploring multilingual learners' opinions on their L3 language teachers. Among the many

findings of this study, the authors reported that multilingual learners with high linguistic awareness were capable of assessing their teachers' contributions to their own learning process. In addition to this, such high levels of metalinguistic awareness led them to be more demanding with their teachers in terms of linguistic knowledge. Edwards, Monaghan and Knight (2000) proposed the use of bilingual multimedia technology to create learning situations in which students could make use of both Welsh and English. By running a storybook software, children between the age of 6 and 11 responded to a series of questions which promoted improved levels of LA.

In the Spanish context, Cots (2001) encouraged secondary school teachers to move from traditional approaches to the teaching of EFL to an LA pedagogy. By highlighting the link between the curriculum and classroom practices, Cots proposed some classroom activities that do not only include LA for the teaching of grammar but also of other language aspects such as pragmatics or critical analysis. Kemp (2001) investigated multilingual's metalinguistic awareness in relation to language learning experience. She observed that multilingual English-speakers learning Basque as a second language presented better levels of metalinguistic awareness in the form of grammatical awareness. Her results suggested that language learning skills were to be associated with heightened levels of explicit grammatical metalinguistic awareness.

Gibson and Hufeisen (2006) explored multilingual university students' judgement on metalinguistic tasks while learning EFL. By making participants focus on both meaning and on form when searching errors, the authors exposed learners to a short story through the oral

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and written medium. Results showed that their metalinguistic awareness represented an advantage when processing meaning and form in EFL.

Araújo e Sá and Melo (2007) explored the use of chat conversations to foster LA between participants from distinct linguistic background – French, Italian, Portuguese and Spanish among others. The authors observed that chat interaction promoted, in particular, the social and power dimensions of LA as proposed by James and Garrett (1991). For example, they highlighted the social dimension presence with comments of language acceptance among participants: '*Penso que cada uno deve falar o que quer… Eu Falo português…/ I think that everybody should speak the language they want to… I speak Portuguese…*)' (Araújo e Sá & Melo, 2007, p. 18). In a school context where Irish was the minority language and English the majority one, Dillon (2009) observed that balanced bilinguals displayed higher levels of proficiency, metalinguistic awareness and cross-linguistic transfer.

El Euch (2010) explored the relationship existing between language attitudes and metalinguistic awareness. Thirty French speaking university students consisting of 17 bilinguals and 13 trilinguals took part in the study. They were asked to complete a series of questionnaires on attitudes and motivation towards the learning of English as an L2 and Spanish as an L3, together with a metalinguistic test. Attitudes and motivation had no significant effect on the development of metalinguistic awareness. Moreover, no difference was found in terms of metalinguistic awareness between groups, suggesting that participants' bilingual competence attained was similar.

Bialystok and Barac (2012) explored the characteristics of the bilingual experience of 180 children that promoted metalinguistic and executive functions. Results showed that

metalinguistic performance correlated with level of proficiency, that is, the higher the proficiency, the more developed the metalinguistic awareness. Corcoll (2013) promoted the use of the L1s (Spanish and Catalan) of young learners into their L3 English classroom. By following a qualitative-quantitative approach, translation activities and codeswitching were part of 25 young learners' daily classroom routine during a school term. Corcoll (2013) reported on the positive impact it has on learners' LA and plurilingual competence in general.

Gabryś-Barker and Otwinowska (2012) observed that Polish pre-service teachers with an advanced level of proficiency in L3 French tended to reflect more on cross-linguistic similarities among languages. Otwinowska (2014) claimed that in order to promote learners' LA, first teachers needed to work on their own LA. In this sense, Otwinowska explored teachers' factors that contribute to a plurilingual awareness in Polish in-service and pre-service EAL teachers. Results showed that teachers' plurilingual awareness was influenced by teaching experience and their own learning experience. Moreover, pre-service and in-service teachers' plurilingual awareness also depended on the multilingual factor. Findings showed that multilingual teachers display higher levels of awareness than bilingual ones.

Wrembel (2015) found a strong interrelationship existing between metaphonological awareness, metalinguistic awareness and cross-linguistic awareness as key components of students learning Polish as an L3. From a qualitative and quantitative perspective, Wremble analysed the role of metaphonological awareness as manifested by multilingual learners through self-repair on the pronunciation of Polish, together with their metalinguistic analysis of their oral performance and metacognitive control. A similar work was conducted by Kopečková (2018) who exposed German learners of Spanish as a foreign language to the

recording of a reading task they had done three years ago. Participants' comments regarding their prior pronunciation performance included noticing pronunciation problems and cross-linguistic awareness.

Angelovska (2018) investigated the possible influence of metalinguistic reflections and L3 proficiency of 13 university learners of EAL with different proficiency levels. Through a series of controlled writing tasks and semi-structured interviews, Angelovska dug into participants metalinguistic reflections for later analysing and classifying them (e.g. metamorphological awareness, metasemantic awareness, metasyntactic awareness, and so on). Results showed that instances of metalinguistic awareness were found in all participants independently of their level of proficiency – contrary to the general belief that it was only displayed in higher levels. Furthermore, it was suggested that ability for metalinguistic reflection was a complex phenomenon involving the interaction of 'metalinguistic awareness, cross-linguistic awareness, metalinguistic knowledge, self-repair, detecting violations, and conscious analysis of linguistic features' (Angelovska, 2018, p. 149).

All in all, these previous studies have shown the important role that LA plays in both the individual – as a metacognitive tool when learning a language – and in the language classroom – a pedagogical practice in promoting language learning. Research on LA has evolved along the years to include other areas of research beyond the acquisition of linguistic forms. Therefore, LA can be understood as cross-sectional, allowing for the investigation of different topics in relation to current concerns of applied linguistic research. One topic of interest is learners' engagement with the language and the extent to which being engaged can promote the reinforcement and emergence of LA.

1.3   Engagement in language awareness research

This last section introduces the notion of engagement in applied linguistics together with the multiple layers that make up this concept. Major research on engagement is presented, showing how the conceptualization of this term has evolved and has been redefined along the years until becoming multidimensional. Finally, the construct of Engagement with Language as proposed by Svalberg (2009) and its connection with LA is explained in detail as the framework that guides this thesis.

1.3.1   Defining engagement

When dealing with an LA approach, one can observe that the notion of engagement, or at least the promotion of it, has always been part of an LA pedagogy. Wright and Bolitho (1993, p. 299) in describing key features of awareness-raising tasks stated that LA 'has an affective element, it engages and helps to evolve attitudes and values'. Furthermore, when discussing good LA activities, they referred to processes 'which the trainee engages in while performing tasks on the data: cognitive, affective, social' (Wright & Bolitho, 1993, p. 300). Borg (1994, p. 62) in proposing key features of an LA pedagogical approach claimed that 'effective awareness-raising depends on engaging learners both affectively and cognitively'. In addition to this, he added that 'LA challenges teachers to make it a motivating experience by engaging learners in both the cognitive and affective domains' (Borg, 1994, p. 64). As a result of this, the role of engagement in relation to learners' LA should be contemplated and further studied in an attempt to describe the relation between the two.

Research on engagement has been on the rise in the last couple of decades (See Section 1.3.2). The term has been largely used and, recently, it has drawn the attention of many scholars. Nonetheless, a quick look at the literature reveals that the conceptualisation of engagement has not been coherent throughout the different studies. As explained by Svalberg (2007, p. 1) 'its meaning is, however, usually assumed rather than defined raising the possibility that one writer might not mean the same as another'. When conducting research, the notion of engagement is thought of as a 'given', without the need for clarification. However, this open interpretation is usually confused and equated with similar terminology such as involvement, motivation, commitment and the like (see Svalberg, 2009). There are subtle differences among them and an agreed definition and a clear-cut conceptualisation of engagement for conducting research is crucial.

Philp and Duchesne (2016, p. 51) defined engaged as 'a state of heightened attention and involvement, in which participation is reflected not only in the cognitive dimension, but in the social, behavioural and affective dimensions as well', in an attempt to reach an agreement in understanding engagement. Embedded in the definition is the multidimensional aspect of the concept which addressed cognitive, social, behavioural, and affective states when being engaged. Similarly, Lawson and Lawson (2013) interpreted engagement as a construct of three different but interrelated dimensions:

1. *Cognitive engagement*: students' psychological investment in the academic task (Fredricks, Blumenfeld & Paris, 2004; as seen in Lawson and Lawson, 2013, p. 436). This engagement relates to thinking, meaning-making, self-regulating and metacognitive strategies. Philp and Duchesne (2016, p. 53) referred to Helme and

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Clarke (2001) to provide indicators of cognitive engagement: questioning, completing peer utterances, exchanging ideas, making evaluative comments, giving directions, explanations or information, justifying an argument and making gestures and facial expressions. An example of cognitive engagement was provided by Kong and Hoare (2011) when conducting research in content-based language lessons. They observed that challenging and complex academic activities foster deeper cognitive engagement. Such engagement promotes the use of more academic language and results in better learning.

2. *Affective/emotional engagement:* This describes students' social, emotional and psychological attachments to school (Lawson & Lawson, 2013, p. 435). In the case of the language classroom, Philp and Duchesne (2016, p. 57) understood emotional engagement as related to motivation and the affective nature of learners' involvement. In addition to this, emotional engagement may also refer to the sharing of both positive and negative feelings in relation to learning with teachers and other peers (Riordan & Kreuz, 2010). Phung (2017) added not only emotions but also attitudes and evaluations when dealing with the affective dimension of engagement.

3. *Behavioural engagement:* This dimension is concerned with students' conduct, amount of time invested on homework or following school rules. Fredricks and McColskey (2012, p. 764) proposed a model of engagement consisting of two behavioural components: academics (time on task, credits earned and homework completion) and behaviour (attendance, class participation and extracurricular participation). Philp and

Duchesne (2016, p. 55) made reference to being "on-task", that is, time invested in the task or amount of participation, as another measure for behavioural engagement.

Another dimension not usually included in engagement constructs is that of *social engagement*. As explained by Philp and Duchesne (2016), the social dimension of engagement is relevant in the context of language instruction. Examples of the importance of social aspects in the language classroom are provided by research on collaboration (see Swain, 2000; Storch, 2005, 2008, 2011) and peer interaction (see Storch, 2002; Sato & Ballinger, 2012; Moranski & Toth, 2016), to name a few. Supporting this view, Svalberg (2009) included the social dimension as one individual component of her engagement construct (See Section 1.3.3).

Contrary to this view, Lawson and Lawson (2013), despite the sociocultural perspective adopted in their study of engagement, integrated the social component as part of the emotional one. Mercer (2019) stated that aspects related to cognition and affection are always socially attached and, therefore, to separately include a social dimension to engagement would not make sense. Nonetheless, as previously emphasised by Philp and Duchesne (2016), language learning research from a sociocultural perspective has provided strong evidence on the role of social interaction within the language classroom and the benefits for language learning. Approaches such as communicative language teaching or task-based language teaching rely heavily on peer and group work. Therefore, even though it may seem obvious that language learning is always surrounded and influenced by social relationships, when it

comes to engagement, a social dimension should be contemplated as an important aspect to analyse in the language learning context.

After reviewing the different dimensions, it is clear that engagement is to be understood as a multidimensional construct. What is still not clear is the number of dimensions to be included in such construct. As claimed by Lam, Wong, Yang and Liu (2012), the issue of which, and how many dimensions to consider, is rather confusing, with some scholars including either an academic dimension, a student antecedent dimension or an agentic dimension (Reeve, 2012) to their constructs. Therefore, clearly stating the position from which one is doing research on engagement is of importance as its analysis will depend on its conceptualisation and construct employed. Svalberg (2009) highlighted the relevance of defining and researching engagement from a holistic and dynamic perspective. In line with this, Philp and Duchesne (2016) acknowledged the multidimensional aspect of engagement and the interdependence of the different dimensions. Such interrelationship is illustrated in Table 1 (Philp & Duchesne, 2016, p. 60).

In this sense, each dimension might prompt or hinder the others depending on contextual factors. For example, a high cognitive engagement may prompt collaborative work as the individual wants insights from his or her peers in order to solve a certain task, resulting in social engagement. On the other hand, a highly socially engaged learner attempting to solve a task problem may find it difficult due to inefficient social cohesion in the classroom, with low levels of affective engagement as an outcome.

Table 1

Effect of Engagement Dimensions (Taken from Philp & Duchesne, 2016, p. 60).

Dimension of Engagement	Mediating Effect on Other Dimensions	Activating or Strengthening Engagement	Deactivating or Inhibiting Engagement
Behavioural	Cognitive	Task itself focuses attention, prompts deep thinking	Focused on task completion at a superficial level: surface approach to learning limits cognitive engagement.
	Emotional	Successful task completion prompts student to want to do more	Task is boring or frustrating to complete, so student approaches this kind of activity negatively in future.
	Social	Cooperative tasks strengthen social links.	Competitive tasks may disrupt social relations.
Cognitive	Behavioural	Students are intent on "solving the puzzle" and keep working until it is done.	Students are so focused on one aspect of a task that they neglect others.
	Emotional	Student's interest is caught by a particular idea or cognitive challenge.	Cognitive challenge results in frustration.
	Social	Students are prompted to work with or seek help from others by the ideas.	Student works on the task individually and doesn't want input from others.
Emotional	Cognitive	High interest in topic or task prompts concentrated thinking.	Student is so excited that she or he can't focus or so anxious that she or he can't think.
	Behavioural	Interest and excitement prompt student to keep working on the task in spite of difficulties	Boredom or frustration leads to no work on task.
	Social	One peer's excitement about or interest in a task draws others in.	Mismatch of emotional engagement leads to lack of social connection between peers on a task.
Social	Cognitive	Peers working together support each other's thinking (mutuality, reciprocity)	Students switches off from task because his or her partner isn't working with the student; or peers distract each other from thinking about the task.

	Emotional	Student enjoys the task because of the social element.	Student doesn't enjoy task because social relations are not working.
	Behavioural	Student spends time on task because of social aspect.	Social goals are more important that doing the task.

As can be seen, the construct of engagement can provide new insights in relation to language awareness research. Engagement allows for a holistic approach to research on language learning by including the cognitive, affective, behavioural and social aspects of language learners and of classroom dynamics. Mercer (2019) asked for an authentic and multidimensional understanding of engagement. Based on this need, the current study attempts to approach engagement by relying on the different dimensions that shape this construct.

1.3.2   Engagement in language learning research

It was not until recently that engagement was conceived as a multidimensional construct and research on this matter was encouraged. In this section, major research on engagement will be reviewed in order to analyse what is understood as engagement and its contribution to the field. The studies selected for this section are those which included the term 'engagement' in their titles. Even though there are other studies which have dealt with engagement in an indirect way by making reference to 'engaged students' or 'engaging activities', the focus is on those in which engagement is clearly stated as motivating the research.

Some early studies do not explicitly provide a definition for engagement. Batstone (2002) is a clear example when researching what he called *contexts of engagement* on intake

and pushed output. Batstone only mentioned the term engagement four times throughout the paper, without further clarification of what he meant. Hyland (2003) studied the relationship between feedback provision and students' revision of writing in her case study. Hyland stated that in the process of draft revision, students "engaged" with teachers' feedback. An analysis of student engagement with form-focused feedback was provided but, again, the definition of engagement is a given without further explanation of what is meant. Lo and Hyland (2007) investigated the effect of a writing programme on students' motivation and engagement. Even though the authors did not describe engagement explicitly, one can have an idea by analysing the questionnaire implemented to measure it. This questionnaire made reference to likes, feelings, attitudes and enjoyment (affective dimension) and, to a lesser degree, relevance of the writing and learning outcomes (cognitive dimension). In this study, the approach to engagement was limited to an almost purely emotional aspect, as throughout the article the word "engagement" mostly appeared accompanied by the word "motivation".

Among the authors that did provide a conceptualisation for engagement, Platt and Brooks (2002) analysed the specific case of task engagement. Platt and Brooks (2002, p. 373) understood task engagement as what 'learners display through either private or social speech, their own structuring of the task, say, to establish goals as they feel necessary to move from mere compliance with the task itself to actual engagement with it'. By explicitly referring to a specific type of engagement, Platt and Brooks provided a different line of research within engagement. Haneda (2007) used the idea of "modes of engagement" to refer to people's approach in literacy practices and their values and attitudes in the language learning process.

A step forward was given by Storch (2008) when investigating metatalk in relation to learners' level of engagement and its effect on language development. In Storch's (2008, p. 98) work, she referred to engagement with language to 'describe the quality of the learners' metatalk'. Storch (2008) provided not only a definition for engagement but also a link with the study of LA. Following Leow (1997) and Kuiken and Vedder (2002), Storch distinguished between elaborate (E) and limited (L) levels of engagement. Such engagement was measured in terms of language-related episodes (henceforth LRE) in which the provision of confirmation, explanations and alternatives were considered examples of, 'E' engagement, and the absence of these, 'L' engagement. Her findings showed that thanks to pair work, learners' engagement with linguistic choices fostered the learning and consolidation of structures – especially in the case of E engagement. The analysis of engagement provided by Storch (2008) was limited to the cognitive dimension, that is, the conceptualisation of engagement was that of a cognitive state. Even though this view is restrictive, Storch has provided a clear definition and a starting point for the analysis of engagement which motivated further research.

There has been an increase in the interest on studies addressing engagement in the last decade, especially in relation to online learning contexts. For example Yang (2011) explored the relationship between students' engagement and learning performance in an online environment. Yang resorted to Cole and Chan's (1994) definition of engagement, which was understood as involvement and active participation when students conduct learning activities. By doing so, Yang approached engagement as a three-dimensional construct: behavioural, emotional and cognitive. Results indicated that in synchronous communication,

students displayed high levels of cognitive and emotional engagement while in asynchronous communication cognitive engagement was also displayed.

Cho and Castañeda (2019) explored affective engagement in 82 L2 Spanish learners in the USA. The authors conceived engagement as 'students' subjectively perceived motivational and affective reactions to the L2 learning process, the learning materials, or the classroom' (Fredricks *et al.*, 2004; Yang, 2011; taken from Cho & Castañeda, 2019, p. 91). The focus of the research was on the use of game-like activities to improve grammar by using mobile applications. Cho and Castañeda reported an enhancement of affective engagement in terms of enjoyment but not in relation to anxiety, boredom or frustration. Other studies exploring online communication to promote language learning focus on social engagement and observing high levels of it (Barak, Watted & Haick, 2016; Li, 2012; Liu, Wang, & Diana Tai, 2016; Ferguson & Clow, 2015; Kizilcec, Piech & Schneider, 2013).

An example exploring all the previously cited dimensions of engagement was provided by Lambert, Philp and Nakamura (2017). The scholars focused on learner-generated content as opposed to fictitious teacher-generated content and its impact on engagement. The authors conceived engagement as a three-dimensional construct including behavioural engagement (effort and persistence), cognitive engagement (attention) and social engagement (affiliation). Findings showed that learner-generated tasks were more efficient in engaging students, and a post-performance questionnaire reported a better affective response as well.

Finally, Hiromori (2021) reported on the relationship existing between behavioural, cognitive, emotional and social states of engagement after analysing the audio recordings of

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60 Japanese university students learning English. Students worked in pairs to write a story based on picture prompts. Hiromori (2021) operationalised behavioural engagement as the number of words and turns exchanged, and cognitive engagement as the number of LREs. The emotional dimension was studied by looking at learners' responses to a questionnaire while social engagement was operationalised as patterns of interaction (collaborative, expert/novice, dominant/dominant and dominant/passive). The results from this investigation provided further support to the treatment of engagement as a holistic construct due to the mutual relationship observed between dimensions.

As can be seen, the study of engagement has been tackled in the field of applied linguistics for, at least, two decades. It seems that the notion has been evolving to include a more complex and multidimensional perspective as recent studies acknowledge more than one dimension for engagement. The above-mentioned research approaches engagement from different angles: as metatalk, as affection and motivation toward the learning process, the material or the classroom, as a reaction to feedback and so on. The following section narrows down the notion of engagement to the particular case of Engagement with Language/s which provides the framework for engagement analysis of the current study.

1.3.3   The construct of Engagement with Language

Engagement is understood as a multidimension and interrelated construct. Depending on the author, such construct may vary in relation to number and type of dimension. While Yang (2011) operated in a three-dimensional construct of engagement including behavioural, emotional and cognitive aspects, Lambert *et al.* (2017) substituted the emotional dimension

to include the social one. As can be inferred, any research on engagement should clearly state the construct and its dimensions as well as the way they are operationalised. The current study follows the construct proposed by Svalberg (2009, 2012): *Engagement with Language* (henceforth, EWL). This three-dimensional construct includes a cognitive dimension, an affective dimension and a social dimension. The model emerges from both research on engagement and LA studies. Svalberg (2009) explained that EWL provided LA – either in research or as a classroom practice – a coherence. The connection between EWL and LA studies was explained by Svalberg (2007):

> A shared concern, I would argue, of LA practitioners and researchers, is the notion of ENGAGEMENT WITH LANGUAGE (emphasis in original source). As collectively constructed over the last 15-20 years, LA does not refer to a purely intellectual awareness and is not passive (…) LA both engenders engagement with language and is constructed through it. An important manifestation of engagement is languaging, a prime site of knowledge construction. The engagement can be intellectual, affective, social or political, or usually, a combination of the above. Researchers are concerned much less with memorized or encyclopaedic knowledge than with LA as it encourages, facilitates discourages or hinders particular types of engagement with language, be it by language learners, gatekeeper, the general public or other groups (p. 302).

In order to fully understand the construct of EWL it is important to define it. The definition provided by Svalberg (2009, p. 247) is that of 'a cognitive, and/or affective, and/or social state and process in which the learner is the agent and language is object (and

sometimes vehicle)'. Such understanding of engagement requires an analysis. To start with, Svalberg (2009) referred to language as "object" of engagement as opposed to other more commonly used terms such as "form" or "system". Svalberg did so as she believed that the word "object" allowed for the inclusion of language aspects beyond formal linguistic structures such as social and non-grammar issues. Secondly, she conceived language as "vehicle" and not "language use" as the former seems to carry less constraints. In this distinction, Svalberg attributed to "language as object" a primary role while giving "language as vehicle" a secondary one. This was so because language as object, for example in doing a language task, is more likely to engage learners with the language than in language as vehicle – for instance when doing a communicative task with no attention to the language but to the communication itself (Svalberg, 2009).

Once defined and explained the construct of EWL and its relationship with LA, the characteristics of the different dimension that make up the construct are presented as follows (Svalberg, 2009, p. 6):

1) *Cognitive:* the engaged individual is alert, pays focus attention and constructs their own knowledge.

2) *Affective:* the engaged individual has a positive, purposeful, willing and autonomous disposition towards the object (language, the language and/or what it represents).

3) *Social:* the engaged individual is interactive and initiating.

As proposed by Svalberg (2009; 2012) these previously mentioned characteristics can be operationalized as seen in Table 2. Svalberg (2009) attempted to provide a framework for

the analysis of engagement and the different dimensions and characteristics of this multidimensional construct. The features of EWL are reformulated in the form of questions for language teachers and researchers to have a starting point for future work. Cognitive engagement is understood in terms of learners' alertness of the linguistic forms, how focused (or not) a learner is on the language and the level of learners' reflection about linguistic form to, say, infer, draw conclusions, compare or ask questions. Regarding the affective dimension, it is understood in terms of learners' willingness to participate, purposefulness and autonomy (regulation of learning experience and actions). Finally, social engagement is reflected in learners interacting with each other, supporting peers in the process of language learning (scaffolding) and in whether learners initiate the interaction or merely react to it.

In understanding the characteristics of the EWL construct, Svalberg (2009, p. 246) defined EWL as consisting of states and processes. Hence, cognitive engagement comprises a state of heightened alertness and focused attention, and a process of focused reflection and problem solving. An affectively engaged student is in a state of positive orientation towards the language and interlocutor and is reflected in a process of willingness to interact with the language and/or the interlocutor. Finally, a positive social state refers to being ready to interact as observed in the process of initiating and maintaining an interaction of good quality.

Table 2

Criteria for identifying EWL (Adapted from Svalberg, 2012, p. 378).

Cognitive	Affective	Social
How alert is the learner? (Does the learner (L) seem energetic or lethargic? Does L seem to notice language/interaction features?)	*How willing is the learner to engage with language?* (Is L withdrawn or eager to participate?)	*How interactive?* (Does L interact, verbally or otherwise, with others to learn?)
How focused? Is L's attention on the language (as object or medium) or not? (Does L's mind seem to wander?)	*How purposeful?* (Does L seem bored or not focused on the task, or to be focused?)	*How supportive of others?* (e.g. by verbal or other behaviours? Does L engage in negotiation and scaffolding?)
How reflective? Is L's reasoning inductive or memory/imitation based? Does L notice and reflect, or simply react? (With regard to the target language, does L compare, ask questions, infer/draw conclusions?)	*How autonomous?* (Is L's behaviour dependent or independent?)	*Leader or follower?* (Are L's interactions reactive or initiating?)

With regard to awareness, Svalberg (2009) considered LA from two different points of view, that is, as the outcome of such EWL and as a resource which EWL can draw on. As Svalberg (2009, p. 248) explained 'once some LA has been acquired it is a resource which can be drawn on when Engaging with Language, either as object and vehicle, or as object only'. Therefore, EWL can promote the development of existing LA or the creation of new LA which, at the same time, may foster more EWL (see Figure 1). That is why Svalberg (2018, p. 22) recently referred to EWL as 'the process through which Language Awareness (LA) is developed'.

Figure 1

The EWL and LA cycle (Adapted from Svalberg, 2009, p. 248).
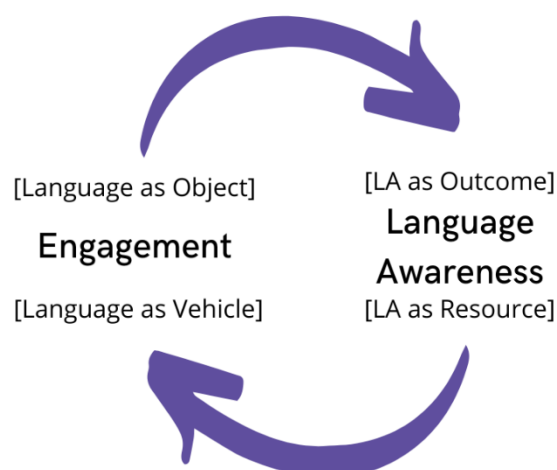
This connection between LA and EWL was further explained by Svalberg (2018) who stated that the EWL construct attempts to research conscious learning processes, learner construction and development of LA and conscious knowledge of L1, L2, and FL. Such knowledge should not be limited to formal properties of language but also enquire into others such as pragmatic and social functions (Svalberg, 2018).

Svalberg (2012) claimed that EWL was influenced by the immediate context and other factors such as place or time. This view of EWL refers to a more dynamic and complex perspective to the study of language learning as already posited by authors such as Larsen-Freeman (1997) and Herdina and Jessner (2002). Drawing on the branch of physical sciences, Larsen-Freeman (1997) used the Dynamic System Theory (DST) as a metaphor to understand the sometimes unpredictable and random nature of language learning and acquisition.

Systems, as Larsen-Freeman (1997) explained, are characterised by being: 1) dynamic, as they change with time, 2) complex, due to the large number of different components they have and the relationship among these components and 3) non-linear, with a disproportionate reaction to an initial cause. Given these characteristics, Larsen-Freeman (1997) showed the commonalities between the study of language and DST. To start with, language is seen as dynamics in the sense that grammar use in actual speech is an active process. Moreover, that language is perceived as a living organism, which grows, and changes. Regarding complexity, this feature can be seen in the various subsystems of a language, that of phonology, morphology, semantics, pragmatics and the like, and the interdependency among all of these subsystems. The non-linear nature of languages is also linked with its dynamism, as the changes a language suffers are related to its unpredictability. Language experiences change while it is being used, a change that cannot always be foreseen. Finally, systems are defined as open, in the sense that they are available to influences from the outside (Larsen-Freeman & Cameron, 2008).

Recently, Svalberg (2018, p. 23) explained that the EWL construct should take into consideration the interrelatedness of the different dimensions as well as the influence of factors such as 'tiredness, state of health, emotional state and task design'. Therefore, EWL is to be understood in its complex and dynamic sense (Svalberg, 2018). As a construct, it relies on the interrelationship of the different dimensions as contributing to higher or lower levels of engagement. For example, a highly cognitively engaged student may notice certain linguistic features and reflect upon them. However, when attempting to share such features in a dysfunctional group dynamic, it might result in failure to communicate with others- low

social engagement – and a reluctance to participate in language work – low affective engagement.

Another way in which this interrelationship between the different dimensions affects EWL and LA could take into account individual differences. For instance, a person defined as shy who struggles to interact and communicate with others – low social engagement – might find it difficult to have a sense of belonging within a certain group – low affective engagement. This could have a negative effect in cognitive engagement as certain classroom dynamics are created to promote reflection and noticing in pair or group work. These previous examples represent speculations of how external and internal factors might influence engagement and, at the same time, the driving force of the current study.

The presence of other languages in an individual's language repertoire is another relevant factor to attend to when considering EWL and LA. Svalberg (2009; 2012) mentioned that the effect of the multilingual experience on EWL could be a potential area of research. Already suggested by Herdina and Jessner (2002), there is a need to approach multilingual learners considering the dynamic interaction of their complex linguistic systems. We find in the EWL construct the possibility of studying multilinguals learning EFL by attending to the complex and dynamic interrelationship between the cognitive, affective and social states of engagement as well as analysing them adopting a holistic perspective. Moreover, the study of LA through the EWL construct acknowledges the importance placed on the developed metalinguistic abilities of multilingual speakers (Jessner, 2008; Cenoz, 2013). Finally, the current study also attempts to tackle the complex nature of languages (Larsen-Freeman,

1997) by researching the subsystem of pragmatics in the form of pragmatic awareness (see Chapter 2).

1.3.4   Research on Engagement with Language

The following subsection presents those studies that have adopted the EWL construct to conduct research. Svalberg (2009) conceived the construct and, as such, used it to exemplify its validity. Kearney and Ahn (2013) and Kearney and Barbour (2015) made use of the EWL model to analyse pre-school children's discourse. Ahn (2016) focused on language play used as a metalinguistic tool by elementary school children. Baralt *et al. (*2016) explored engagement in face-to-face and online communication by following the EWL construct. Svalberg and Askham (2020) employed the construct of EWL to assess the effectiveness of consciousness-raising tasks in different language classrooms. Toth (2020) investigated secondary students' level of LA by means of the EWL framework and Zhang (2021) reported on the mediation between dimensions of the construct. Finally, Zabihi and Grahramanzadeh (2022) explored the effect of proficiency over EWL.

There have been some attempts to implement the construct of EWL and test its validity. When proposing the EWL construct, Svalberg (2009) analysed field notes and a number of interviews of three adult ESOL groups together with their teachers. Svalberg explored the data in search of examples for the construction and use of LA considering the three dimensions: cognitive, affective, and social. In the interview extracts, there can be found examples of cognitive engagement in the form of noticing and reflection, affective engagement as in purposefulness and autonomy, and social engagement by maintaining interaction. Svalberg

(2009) concluded that the construct of EWL had the potential for analysing the complex context that a language classroom represents.

Kearney and Ahn (2013) made use of the construct of EWL to analyse classroom discourse at preschool level with participants between the age of 3 to 5 years old. These children were part of a programme in which they were taught a new language – Korean, Chinese or Spanish– as most of them were defined as monolingual English speakers. Kearney and Ahn analysed the transcripts of a year's data consisting of 23 visits and 13.5 hours of recordings. In total, 53 EWL episodes were identified.

In the first place, the most common form of EWL episode was labelled as "lexically focused, teacher-initiated" as it was common for teachers to resort to translations (from L1 English to L2 Korean, Chinese or Spanish and vice versa) of the vocabulary worked. This sort of episode, as the authors explained, focused on an explicit use of the language due to the noticing of a language element (object) that requires a translation (teachers asked questions like "how do you say X in Chinese?" or "do you remember what X means?", for instance). Moreover, during these instances, learners were cognitively (alertness to offer a translation accompanied with movements in some cases), affectively (willingness to engage in what teacher asked for) and socially engaged (in teacher-student interaction and games).

Secondly, Kearney and Ahn (2013) found examples of "student- initiated EWL" in which, for instance, students would ask for a translation of a word from English into Lx for later showing off their knowledge in front of the class. Finally, and to a lesser extent, there were "script-focused, student initiated EWL" with an example of a student engaging in negotiation with the teacher about the Korean writing system. The child asked for the spelling

of the teacher's name, her own name and other people's names from English into Korean. This student was cognitively engaged as she was alert and attentive to language features (different writing system). She was also affectively and socially engaged as she showed purposefulness and independence (asking for names and interacting with others to get such names written in Korean). The authors concluded that LA through EWL was present in young language learners and that it should be exploited as a useful resource.

Kearney and Barbour (2015) observed pre-schoolers interaction patterns in the language classroom over the course of four months in 2011 and another four months in 2012. The aim of the study was to gather data in relation to the children's' understanding of language, linguistic diversity and language learning when introducing a foreign language. When analysing both the use of foreign language and explicit talk about language, Kearney and Barbour used the EWL framework to assess the level of engagement in awareness-raising tasks. Findings showed more student-initiated than teacher-initiated inquiry regarding the "new" language in the form of cognitive, affective and social engagement. Moreover, the authors claimed that the process of development of LA was not linear as at one point a student might engage with a given language for later disengaging or rejecting such language. Signs of language rejection were understood as recognising linguistic differences between learners L1 and Ln. Moreover, such rejection -in the form of negotiation- regarding language use led to children's formulation of metalinguistic comments which foster engagement and LA.

Ahn (2016) explored the development of LA when children were engaged in language play. The ethnographic study explored Korean students between the age of 11 to 15 years old who were participating in an English immersion camp in Korea. Data consisted of field

notes and video recordings of the interaction between teacher-student and student-student. The camp divided participants into two groups: intermediate and beginner levels. 83 language play episodes were identified with 73% corresponding to attention to linguistic form and language rules and 27% to semantics.

Ahn (2016) reported that children noticed the similarities between English and Korean words at a phonological level. This episode displayed instances of focused attention (Cognitive EWL: noticing the similarity), willingness (Affective EWL: made use of Korean to show similarity) and interaction (Social EWL: verbally expressed similarity for others to hear). Regarding attention to semantics, there was an episode of students referring to their teacher as "good thinking" (limited level of proficiency) which resulted in the whole class laughing and building on that by referring to the teacher as "Einstein", "smarter than Einstein", "smartest in the world" and "very genius". Cognitive engagement was appreciated in the reflective use of the language to find synonyms and different structures to refer to the teacher as "intelligent". Affective engagement took the form of willingness, purposeful and voluntary participation and social engagement was observed in the co-constructed stream of words to describe their teacher. Ahn (2016) stated that the study provides evidence for the explicit and implicit learners' knowledge of the language as reflected in language play and its connection with LA and EWL.

Baralt *et al.* (2016) explored two different learning contexts: online and face-to-face. Forty intermediate level learners of Spanish completed collaborative dyadic tasks that were classified either as cognitively simple or complex. Those conducting the tasks, especially complex tasks, in a face-to-face context displayed more cognitive engagement in the form

of attention and reflection. Participants showed social engagement as well through supportive interaction, and affective engagement as reflected by learners' positive feelings. On the contrary, these three dimensions of engagement were highly diminished or did not appear at all in an online chat communication setting. The difference of results between the two learning contexts suggested that 'learners' affective engagement, e.g. their attitudes towards task performance as well as towards their partner, affected their cognitive engagement with form' (Baralt *et al.,* 2016, p. 233). Moreover, the authors reported on the positive effect of social engagement on cognitive engagement thanks to scaffolding. Svalberg and Askham (2020) explored the possibilities of consciousness-raising tasks by assessing their effectiveness in terms of EWL affordances. Research took place in four different language classes, namely, Arabic, French, Italian and Spanish. By means of teacher journals, interviews and audio-recordings, Svalberg and Askham (2020) analysed the effect of implementing consciousness-raising tasks. Results showed improvements of learners' cognitive, affective and social EWL due to the affordances provided by the tasks.

In the Italian context, Toth (2020) worked with two groups of secondary level students, general education and professional school students. Participants responded to LA questions and recorded their answers in the form of a tutorial video. By employing the construct of EWL in her analysis, Toth (2020) observed a variation of socio-affective engagement, being more stable in the case of general education students. Concerning cognitive EWL, professional school students focused more on meaning while general education students reflected upon linguistic features, displaying deeper cognitive engagement. Toth also reported on the

mediating effect of the socio-affective dimension over the cognitive one, providing further support to the interrelationship of the sub-systems of the construct of EWL.

The mediation between dimensions was further supported by Zhang (2021) in the study of 6 Chinese learners of Russian working collaboratively to write a short story in pairs. Zhang analysed the audio-recording of these three dyads together with their responses to a questionnaire assessing learners' attitudes towards collaborative practices. Drawing on the EWL, cognitive engagement was operationalised in terms of the outcome of the LRE episode ([in]correct or unresolved) and its quality (limited or elaborate). Affective engagement was measured through the emotional reactions of the pairs engaged in LREs as well as their responses to the questionnaire. Finally, social engagement was analysed by looking at equality and mutuality. Findings provided further evidence on the interrelationship of the dimensions of the construct of EWL. High levels of interaction and support between partners promoted cognitive engagement in the form of attention to language forms. As a result, learners assessed the task as beneficial and enjoyable, evidencing a positive affective engagement. Patterns of interaction that prevented social engagement resulted in disadvantages for the cognitive and affective dimension. For example, in fewer cases of negotiation and discussion between partners. Zhang (2021, p. 21) concluded by saying that 'social and affective aspects are evident in tasks interactions, and they play a critical role in generating or impeding students' cognitive attention to language use'.

Finally, a recently conducted study by Zabihi and Grahramanzadeh (2022) explored the potential effect of the interlocutor proficiency on learners' engagement when collaboratively working on a writing task. In the study, 54 Iranian English as a foreign language

learners were divided in low-low (L-L), low-high (L-H) and high-high (H-H) pairs based on their proficiency. Following the construct of EWL, findings showed higher cognitive and social engagement when learners were paired up with partners of similar proficiency. While Zabihi and Grahramanzadeh (2022) did not observe an effect of proficiency over affective engagement, low proficiency learners did report better affective engagement when working with other low proficiency students.

The construct of EWL provides researchers with a model that allows for an in-depth analysis of classroom discourse and interaction in relation to the construction and use of LA. In the last years, the EWL construct has been implemented to analyse the use of language in young learners and adults and in different contexts of instruction. We believe that research on EWL should further explore the construct and the different dimensions, especially in terms mediation. Together with this, the analysis of learners' interaction by means of the EWL construct could provide fresh, new insights regarding the role of LA in language development, in particular, in English as a foreign language (henceforth, EFL) learning.

With this is mind, this study attempts to tackle multilingual language learning in relation to engagement. Together with the multilingual perspective that this study adopts, one of the main aims of this dissertation is to further explore on affective and social factors that influence language learning. Svalberg (2018) stated that in the last couple of years there has been a wider recognition of the role played by affective factors together with a new interest for the debate around the role of affective and social engagement in relation to cognitive engagement. By following the construct of EWL, this dissertation aims to shed light on these issues by exploring and analysing the possible mediation of the different dimensions

of the EWL construct in language learning. In particular, the current study aims to analyse EWL and the different dimensions of the construct in relation to the use and development of pragmatic awareness in multilingual learners.

1.4 Summary

In this chapter, the notion of language awareness was introduced as well as its evolution throughout the years. Language awareness was distinguished from similar terminology and its scope was explained from an educational and psycholinguistic point of view (Section 1.1). After that, Section 1.2 reviewed major research on language awareness in relation to language learning with emphasis on the development of English as a foreign language. In Section 1.3, the notion of engagement and its relation with LA was explained. Finally, the specific construct of Engagement with Language was introduced as a useful framework that considers cognitive, affective and social states of engagement to the study of language awareness in language learning.

Chapter 2. Pragmatics in the Language Classroom

Chapter 2 introduces research on pragmatics in the language classroom. Section 2.1 focuses on the variety of models of communicative competence developed so far. Furthermore, pragmatics is conceptualised by reviewing the definitions that have shaped the field of second and foreign language pragmatics. In addition to this, the importance of developing learners' pragmatic competence is highlighted. In Section 2.2, teaching politeness in the language classroom is reviewed by presenting different approaches to the study of this phenomenon, with special emphasis on speech act theory and politeness. Finally, Section 2.3 narrows down the scope of study by targeting pragmatic awareness as a specific case of language awareness and reviewing major findings from research on awareness and pragmatics.

2.1   Pragmatics and language learning

This section will tackle the notion of pragmatic competence by addressing pragmatics from an L2 perspective. Subsection 2.1.1 will define and review different models of communicative competence that have had a major impact on the teaching and learning of languages. In Subsection 2.1.2 pragmatics is defined as an important discipline in language learning and acquisition, together with the mastering of pragmatic competence as key for any competent language learner.

2.1.1 *Communicative competence*

Within the field of second and foreign language learning, the importance of developing learners' communicative competence has led to the development of teaching approaches such as Communicative Language Teaching (henceforth, CLT). In this subsection, Hymes' (1972) understanding of communicative competence is explained together with the existing models found in the literature: Canale and Swain (1980), Canale (1983), Savignon (1983), Bachman (1990), Bachman and Palmer (1996), Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei and Thurrell (1995), Alcón-Soler (2000), Usó-Juan and Martínez-Flor (2006) and Celce-Murcia (2007).

Hymes (1972) approached the description of competence in language studies from a sociocultural perspective. The theoretical dichotomy between performance and competence (Chomsky, 1965) led Hymes to reflect on the change needed to the paradigm of that time. Chomsky's (1965) account of an ideal speaker with a static language knowledge could not respond to phenomena such as false starts or deviations from language rules. While linguistic competence is understood as the implicit knowledge of an ideal speaker-listener of the language structures (Hymes, 1972), linguistic performance is actual language use. The linguistic competence that Chomsky (1965) described was to be interpreted as grammatical knowledge of the language. Acknowledging the paramount role of sociocultural factors, Hymes (1972) introduced the term "communicative competence" which integrated Chomsky's (1965) "linguistic competence" but under the influence of the sociocultural context in the form of "sociolinguistic competence". Hymes' (1972) contribution to the field of applied linguistics reflected in the several models that have since been developed to explain communicative competence such as Canale and Swain (1980), Savignon (1983), Bachman (1990), Celce-

Murcia, Dörnyei and Thurrell (1995) or Usó-Juan and Martínez-Flor (2006). What all these models have in common is their attempt to integrate, some of them more explicitly, the relevance of pragmatic competence into language teaching.

Canale and Swain (1980, p. 6) proposed one of the earliest models of communicative competence. They defined it as 'the relationship and interaction between grammatical competence, or knowledge of the rules of grammar, and sociolinguistic competence, or knowledge of the rules of language use'. Based on this understanding of communicative competence, Canale and Swain (1980) proposed a theoretical framework which included: 1) grammatical competence, 2) sociolinguistic competence and 3) strategic competence. Within sociolinguistic competence, the authors distinguished between sociocultural rules of use, concerning appropriateness in language production, and understanding in a particular sociocultural context, and rules of discourse in the form of cohesion and coherence of utterances. Hence, this competence described pragmatic aspects of language production and comprehension. With regard to strategic competence, it called for verbal and non-verbal strategies in the act of communication when breakdowns occur. Years later, Canale (1983) added a fourth subcomponent to this model, that of discourse competence. He described it as the mastering of grammatical forms together with meaning in the act of generating spoken or written texts across genres – narratives, essays, reports and the like – as achieved by coherence and cohesion.

Savignon (1983) drew on Canale and Swain (1980) and Canale (1983) to develop her own model of communicative competence in accordance with classroom practices. Savignon (1983) attempted to tackle one of the limitations of the previous models, that is, the lack of

interconnection between the different competences. Savignon's model included grammatical, sociolinguistic, strategic and discourse competence as well, but differentiated from Canale and Swain's (1980) and Canale's (1983) in terms of the interrelation between these competences. In order to illustrate this relationship, her model adopted the form of an inverted pyramid to highlight the fact that the development of one particular competence influences the development of an individual's communicative competence as a whole.

As explained by Usó–Juan and Martínez–Flor (2006), the models that had been developed up to that point had been criticised on the basis of an absence of a specific pragmatic component. In order to fill this gap, Bachman (1990) and Bachman and Palmer (1996) created their own communicative competence model as influenced by language testing research. The authors considered pragmatic competence – or pragmatic knowledge as defined by the authors – as separate and distinct from sociolinguistic competence. In their description of pragmatic knowledge, three subcomponents were described: 1) lexical knowledge, as the knowledge of meanings and figurative language use, 2) functional knowledge in terms of understanding the relationship between an utterance and the intention of the speaker and 3) sociolinguistic knowledge in terms of appropriateness and sociocultural rules. As Eslami and Eslami– Rasekh (2008, p. 178) explained, in Bachman's model 'pragmatic competence is not subordinated to knowledge of grammar and text organization but coordinated with formal linguistic and textual knowledge and interacts with "organizational competence" in complex ways'.

Drawing on Canale and Swain (1980) and Canale (1983), Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei and Thurrell (1995) further developed the sociolinguistic component of the communicative

competence model by renaming it as sociocultural competence and adding actional competence as well. The latter was conceptualised as 'conveying and understanding communicative intent by performing and interpreting speech acts and speech act sets' (Celce-Murcia *et al.*, 1995, p. 9). A major difference of this new proposed model was the representation of the competences in a pyramid-shaped design (See Figure 2). At the core was found discourse competence in the form of a circle as shaped by linguistic competence – previously referred to as grammatical competence-, sociocultural competence and, finally, actional competence. Surrounding the pyramid, strategic competence provided the tools and skills to cope with potential communication fails in each and every competence. Under the actional competence label, two components were described: knowledge of language functions and knowledge of speech act sets (Celce-Murcia *et al.*, 1995). In doing so, the authors acknowledged the importance of pragmatics under the creation of actional competence as different from sociocultural competence and in response to the growing interest on speech act theory as part of the CLT approach.

Alcón-Soler (2000) contributed to the development of a communicative competence model by proposing one which included discourse competence, psychomotor skills and competences and strategic competence. As in Celce-Murcia *et al.*'s (1995) model, discourse competence was at its core, but it covered linguistic, textual and pragmatic components. Psychomotor skills and competences concerned the use of the four language skills – listening, speaking, reading and writing. Finally, the strategic competence dealt with both learning and communication strategies.

Figure 2

Schematic representation of Communicative Competence (Adapted from Celce-Murcia et al., 1995, p. 10).

Celce-Murcia (2008) further developed their previous model (Celce-Murcia *et al.,* 1995) as a response to the need to adjust the teaching practices to the evolution of the concept of communicative competence during the 21st century (see Figure 3). Hence, significant changes were made to the proposed original model. In the first place, actional competence was reconceptualised as interactional competence, consisting of 1) an actional component (similar to Celce-Murcia *et al.,* 1995), 2) a conversational component dealing with turn-taking and 3) a non-verbal/ paralinguistic component as related to body language. Secondly, a new competence was added to the model, that of formulaic competence. In doing so, Celce-Murcia (2008, p. 47) attended to the importance of 'fixed and prefabricated chunks

of language that speakers use heavily in everyday interaction'. Within this competence, Celce–Murcia (2008) included routines, collocations, idioms and lexical frames.

Figure 3

Revised schematic representation of Communicative Competence (Adapted from Celce–Murcia, 2008, p. 45).
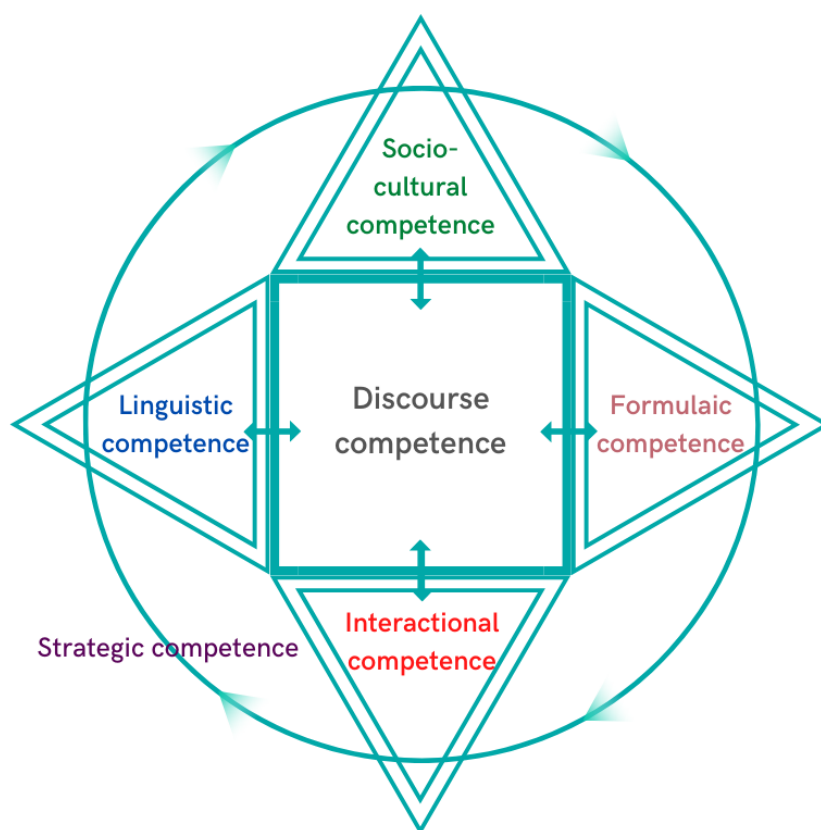
In this review of the model, pragmatic competence continued being part of the sociocultural component and did not represent a competence on its own. However, this was not the case for the model proposed by Usó-Juan and Martínez-Flor (2006), who also integrated the four language skills as key to communicative competence (see Figure 4).

Figure 4

Schematic representation of the communicative competence framework integrating the four skills (L= Listening; S= Speaking; R= Reading; W= Writing) (Adapted from Usó-Juan and Martínez-Flor, 2006, p. 16).

Hence, as done in previous models (Celce-Murcia *et al.* 1995; Alcón-Soler, 2000), discourse competence was placed at the core but with the main difference of including the four language skills. The rest of the competences, namely, linguistic, pragmatic, intercultural and strategic competence, surrounded the discourse competence. As explained by Usó-Juan and Martínez-Flor (2006), this model showed the relationship existing between the different competences and acknowledged the need to include pragmatic competence on its own. Moreover, they highlighted the importance of the four language skills as necessary for the

development of discourse competence. Drawing on Bachman's (1990) pragmatic competence and Celce-Murcia *et al.*'s (1995) actional competence, Usó-Juan and Martínez-Flor (2006) considered pragmatic competence as composed of illocutionary and sociolinguistic knowledge. Finally, it is of relevance to mention that the proposed model included the intercultural component which dealt with cultural and non-verbal communication.

In sum, the notion of communicative competence has allowed for the creation of different models that have evolved to adapt to the reality of the linguistic and pedagogical paradigm of the time. Pragmatic competence, – either explicitly referred to as such or not – being a key component in current models, the following subsection moves deeper into such competence and its importance in foreign language teaching and learning.

2.1.2 *Pragmatic competence in language learning*

The development of communicative competence models shows the need to conceive pragmatic competence relevant for language learning. Taguchi (2011a) explained that moving away from the mastery of grammatical forms in the language classroom led to the consideration of pragmatic competence as essential. This subsection focuses on defining pragmatics from a second or foreign language perspective for later moving to the notion of pragmatic competence.

Pragmatics as a discipline is considered to be relatively new in comparison to well-established areas such as phonetics and syntax (Schauer, 2009). According to Taguchi (2019, p. 1), 'pragmatics studies the connection between linguistic form and a context, where that form is used, and how this connection is perceived and realized in social interaction'. This

definition of pragmatics brings several factors into play: namely, those of linguistic form, context, language use, interaction and society. Even though it is a straightforward definition of the discipline, arriving at such conceptualisation has taken decades of development and research. Scholars usually adopted, as a starting point, the contribution of Morris (1938, p. 6) to the field of semiotics, who understood pragmatics as part of such field together with syntax and semantics and defined pragmatics as 'the study of the relation of signs to interpreters'.

Interest in the field of pragmatics emerged during the second half of the 20th century due to the work of language philosophers such as Austin (1962), Searle (1969; 1975) and Grice (1975). These scholars reflected on the study of linguistic forms in relation to the contextual circumstances that surround the act of communication. In other words, they opted for considering language as part of a social activity in which certain shared rules govern the realisation of such language forms. This approach contradicted the linguistic paradigms of the time which understood the study of linguistic forms in isolation, that is, the structuralist paradigm (Saussure, 1959) and generative-transformational grammar (Chomsky, 1965). These perspectives conceived language as operating at different levels – phonemes, morphemes, phrases, clauses, and sentences – and analysed language as a fixed system of interconnected units. This view of language disregarded the social variables that intervene in the corpora under observation.

The origins of pragmatics as such were shaped by the work of the above-mentioned language philosophers. Austin's (1962) Speech Act Theory (See Section 2.2.2) proposed that words were to be used for action and not only for the conveying of information. He referred to *performatives* as sentences used for the doing of such actions as opposed to simply

describing the state of affairs. Put in Austin's (1962, p. 12) words: 'to *say* something is to *do* something; or in which *by* saying something or *in* saying something we are doing something' (emphasis as in the original). Searle (1975) revised Austin's (1962) ideas on illocutionary acts and proposed his own criteria for classifying them. Stating that Austin (1962) based his classification on illocutionary verbs and not illocutionary acts, Searle (1975) developed a different classification taking what he called the "illocutionary force" as the starting point. Finally, a major contribution to the field was provided by Grice (1975) and the notion of *implicature*. By referring to "what is implied", Grice (1975) claimed that the actual meaning of a produced utterance was implied, and such meaning was beyond the superficial meaning of what was actually said. Such understanding of meaning was the result of a cooperative effort on the part of the speakers in the construction and comprehension of exchanges. This is what Grice (1975) called the *Cooperative Principle* which is guided by four maxims. By following the Maxim of Quantity, speakers contribute to the conversation being as informative as expected (no more or less informative) while the Maxim of Quality expects speakers to contribute with real and factual information as believed to be true by the speakers. The Maxim of Relation states that speakers' actual contributions must be relevant, and the Maxim of Manner describes interaction as being precise (avoiding ambiguity), brief and in order.

The field of pragmatics has been developed throughout history thanks to the work conducted by different scholars. For example, Leech (1983) distinguished between *sociopragmatics* and *pragmalinguistics*. The former deals with pragmatic aspects as influenced by culture and language communities within society while the latter is understood as 'the more linguistic end of pragmatics' (Leech, 1983, p. 11) which takes into account the

linguistic resources for the production of illocutions. Therefore, pragmatics should consider the knowledge of language forms to produce utterances and the knowledge of the necessary means according to the social situation (Alcón-Soler, 2008). As explained by McConachy (2019), pragmalinguistic norms are a conventionalised way of understanding mapping between linguistic forms and functions while sociopragmatic norms entail an association – normative according to native speakers and their conception of appropriate language use – between the selection of a certain form and contextual features such as age, gender, or role among others. Taguchi (2011a) perceived the sociopragmatics and pragmalinguistics distinction as offering a form-function mapping interpretation of the field; that is, knowledge of forms as related to the functional intention embedded in a particular context.

Brown and Levinson (1978) contributed to the field with their *Politeness Theory* and the description of those social variables that language users consider when performing speech acts (See Section 2.2). Such theory placed pragmatics as serving a social function, putting the concept of "politeness" at the core of it. According to Levinson (1983), context was to be considered a defining feature of pragmatics as it influences language choice. Levinson (1983, p. 9) referred to pragmatics as 'the study of those relations between language and context that are grammaticalized, or encoded in the structure of language'. Thomas (1995, p. 22) described the relationships among the different actors of interaction when describing pragmatics as 'negotiation of meaning between speaker and hearer, the context of utterance (physical, social, and linguistics), and the meaning potential of an utterance'. Key to her interpretation of pragmatics was the introduction of *negotiation of meaning:* 'pragmatics is

not about meaning; it is about making meaning, about meaning potential, showing how people negotiate meaning in interaction' (Thomas, 1995, p. 183).

In a similar vein, Yule (1996, p. 4) conceived the study of pragmatics as attending to four areas: meaning, contextual meaning, the way meaning is communicated and expression of relative distance. Yule (1996) saw pragmatics as the relationship existing between linguistic forms and the users of such forms. In comparison to syntax, the study of linguistic forms, and semantics, the connection of linguistic forms with entities in the world, pragmatics allowed for the analysis of the "human" component. In analysing language from a pragmatic perspective 'one can talk about people's intended meanings, their assumptions, their purposes or goals and the kinds of actions (for example, requests) that they are performing when they speak' (Yule, 1996, p. 5). Another often-cited definition was provided by Mey (2001) who understood pragmatics as the study of language use in the act of communication as influenced by the social context. In this sense, Mey (2001) referred to the societal determinants that influence language choice in people's personal attempt to achieve a certain goal (Taguchi & Roever, 2017). LoCastro (2003, p. 15) not only considered linguistic cues but also non-linguistics in the speaker-hearer meaning creation process in a given sociocultural context.

One of the most cited definitions is the one provided by Crystal (1997) who described pragmatics as:

The study of language from the point of view of users, especially of the choices they make, the constraints they encounter in using language in social interaction and the

effects their use of language has on other participants in the act of communication (p. 301).

Schauer (2019) broke down Crystal's definition of pragmatics by analysing it in depth. In the first place, the author highlighted the importance attributed to the word *users* which allowed a broader interpretation going from native speakers to L2 learners. By referring to *constraints*, Crystal (1997) acknowledged grammar and lexis as determinant in pragmatic production (Schauer, 2019) as determined by language proficiency. Finally, the focus of Crystal's (1997) definition was not only on the producer but also on the *effect* it had on *participants*. Hence, Schauer (2019, p. 9) explained that pragmatics is interested in 'what a speaker/reader/signer is actually producing and how it relates to the individual context of a social interaction and also how a listener/reader/recipient of sign language is perceiving and interpreting what is being said/written/signed to them'.

Finally, the literature refers to the subdiscipline of *interlanguage pragmatics* to describe the study of L2 teaching and learning of pragmatics (see Selinker [1972; 2013] for a discussion on interlanguage). Nonetheless, this understanding of L2 pragmatic learning and development implies a conception of languages as individual entities isolated from other language systems a given learner may possess. As interlanguage, per se, is a system on its own, independent from other language systems, this would contradict the stand point of this dissertation: the multilingual learner relying on his or her language systems as a whole in the process of learning a language. As explained by Schauer (2019), other authors such as Taguchi and Roever (2017) opted for the term *L2 pragmatics* or *second language pragmatics*.

However, by making use of them one may fall, once again, into a monolingual conception of language learning in which a learner only has one language, the so-called mother tongue, and a second language, in this case English, is added. Therefore, based on the perspective adopted in this thesis, the current study would better fall under the recent and under-researched area of *multilingual pragmatics* as conceived by Nightingale and Safont (2019).

Summing up, the wide range of definitions found on pragmatics share some common features, namely, 'language, meaning, context and action' (Taguchi & Roever, 2017, p. 2). The intricate interplay between all these features should be taken into account when defining and analysing pragmatic production and comprehension as well as when teaching and learning pragmatics in the language classroom. Given the relevance of Crystal's (1997) definition and its frequent use in the literature, we will be adopting such conceptualisation for the understanding and study of pragmatics.

Moving now to the specific component of pragmatic competence as part of current communicative competence models, Taguchi (2015, p. 1) defined it as 'an ability to deal with a complex interplay of language, language users and context of interaction'. Taguchi (2019, p. 3) stated that current understanding of pragmatic competence should not be based on 'one-to-one correspondence among form, function and context of use' as has been done in the past. This is so as the form-function-context might not be preestablished or fixed but rather dependent and co-constructed between participants in communication (Taguchi, 2019).

A more current interpretation of pragmatic competence is subjected to participants' understanding and shaping of the communicative situation as dependent not only on the

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context but also on individual preferences and perceptions. That is, each communicative encounter should be understood as unique with its own properties, and pragmatic production and interpretation may vary depending on the dynamics of the interaction. In line with a DST approach, a pragmatic encounter can be conceived as complex, due to the interrelationship between form, function, and context (and other internal and external factors); dynamic, as it is built and adapted based on participants' needs and subjectivity; and open to external influence. Support for this idea was provided by McConachy (2019, p. 169), who resorted to Kádár and Haugh (2013), to explain that language use was to be understood as a 'highly dynamic and situated phenomenon that is actively *constructed* and *interpreted* by participants on the basis of morally charged expectations about language use relative to roles, relationships and situational context'. In a similar line, Taguchi (2019) explained that:

> Pragmatic competence in the current era is best understood as a multi-dimensional and multi-layered construct that involves several knowledge and skill areas: 1) linguistic and sociocultural knowledge of what forms to use in what context; 2) interactional abilities to use the knowledge in a flexible, adaptive manner corresponding to changing context; and 3) agency to make an informed decision on whether or not to implement the knowledge in the community (p. 4).

Because of this, the teaching and understanding of pragmatics in the language classroom is an intricate but necessary task. In the specific case of multilingual learners, one potential advantage is their developed metalinguistic awareness which seems to facilitate the learning of new languages. As posited by Savignon (2017), teaching with a communicative

aim in mind does not exclude focusing on the development of metalinguistic awareness. To our understanding, this could also apply to the development of pragmatic awareness by resorting to both learners' existing language systems and awareness-raising tasks.

As can be seen, many models of communicative competence refer to the importance of mastering sociocultural rules of language use. Moreover, the development of pragmatic competence entails an intricate interplay of skills and knowledge. Hence, appropriateness in communicative exchanges can be achieved by raising foreign language learners' awareness of politeness strategies as conceived in certain communicative acts. This thesis focuses on the understanding and production of the speech act of request determined by the social variables of social distance, power and imposition, among other contextual features, as illustrated in detail in the following section.

2.2   Politeness in the language classroom

Addressing politeness is of importance when dealing with the development of language learners' pragmatic competence. This section tackles politeness by reviewing major contributions to this field of study: the face-saving view of politeness as proposed by Brown and Levinson (1978, 1987), the social-norm view of Leech (1983) and a more current interpretation of the first-and-second-order distinction as explained by Kádár and Haugh (2013).

2.2.1 *Approaches to the study of politeness*

Lakoff (1979, p. 64) defined politeness as 'a device used in order to reduce friction in personal interaction'. In this sense, one can relate politeness to manners, protocol or the avoidance of rudeness. Therefore, politeness can be approached from different angles: adopting an anthropological or cultural perspective, or a sociological approach, for example. In this line, a key area of study for the understanding of politeness is that of linguistics and applied linguistics. Politeness can be exhibited in communication, and the analysis of the display of those linguistic resources communicators in (im)polite exchanges is crucial. Throughout this dissertation, every time we refer to politeness, we imply *linguistic politeness*. Pratama (2019, p. 5) summarised the key points that characterise it:

(1) Linguistic politeness refers to verbal politeness.

(2) Politeness is used primarily for building trust instead of transferring.

(3) Communication is prone to conflicts and politeness is a failsafe.

(4) Politeness is a working social norm to be applied whenever necessary.

(5) Politeness is cultural-dependent.

Politeness has been studied from different perspectives, providing findings that contributed to the literature on this topic. Brown and Levinson's (1978; 1987) seminal work on politeness theory is considered the most influential one found in the field. This theory conceived politeness as a diplomatic protocol that aims to disarm a possible aggression in order to facilitate communication between potentially aggressive parties. Defined as the "face-saving view" of politeness (Fraser, 1990), Brown and Levinson proposed in their

politeness theory a number of assumptions treated as universals. Firstly, they referred to the notion of *face* (Goffman, 1967), as 'the public self-image that every member wants to claim for himself' (Brown & Levinson, 1978, p. 311). When interacting, participants are expected to maintain each other's faces as they must be recognised and acknowledged.

Brown and Levinson (1978) distinguished between *negative face,* people's freedom to act as they please and free from any imposition, and *positive face,* referring to people's personality and self-image as positively perceived, appreciated and recognised. The notion of face is equated to the idea of "wants". In doing so, Brown and Levinson (1978) explained that recognising someone's face is crucial in achieving a certain communicative goal – or want –, for example, when asking for something. In this specific case, that of requesting, Brown and Levinson considered this sort of act as a threat – a face threatening act (henceforth, FTA) – to the hearer/reader's negative face. This is so, as the speaker/writer is attempting to make the hearer/reader do something that they would not normally do. Hence, it is expected that when performing a request, a competent language user will either avoid an FTA or attempt to soften its impact on the hearer/reader. As a way to achieve the latter, strategies are employed to address the hearers' negative face such as conventionally indirect requests: *could you send me more information?* Apart from requests, Brown and Levinson (1978) explained that orders, suggestions, advice, reminders, threats, warnings, and dares were to be included within the category of FTAs that threaten people's negative face.

Brown and Levinson (1978; 1987) described a set of strategies that speakers can adopt when performing a FTA (See Figure 5) . Participants may opt to do it *on record* or *off record.* The former refers to participants conveying intentions in a clear and unambiguos way while

in the latter participants express their intentions by using hints or in an indirect way. When

participants go on record, they can either do the FTA *with* or *without a redressive action*, that

is, taking into consideration, or not, the other's face. Doing the FTA baldly, without redressive

action, 'involves doing it in the most direct, clear, unambiguos and consice way possible'

(Brown & Levinson, 1978, p. 74). In the case of requests, this would translate into making use

of direct strategies such as imperatives. On the other hand, when there is redressive action,

participants can use *positive* or *negative politeness* strategies. The first option addresses the

hearers' positive face in the search of approval while the second option partially satisfies the

hearer's negative face (Brown & Levinson, 1978). Finally, and as a last resort, there is also the

option of not conveying the FTA at all.

Figure 5

Strategies for performing FTAs (Adapted from Brown and Levinson 1987 [1978], p. 60)
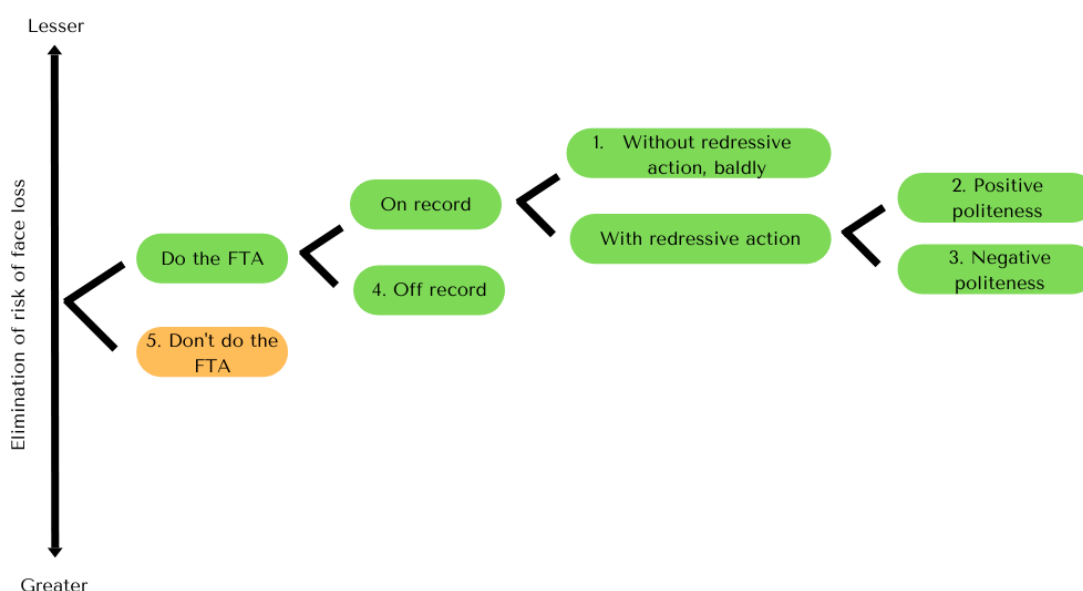
The choice of one strategy over another depends on three main sociological variables that users contemplate in order to assess the level of politeness to be employed in a communicative encounter, namely, power, social distance and degree of imposition (Brown & Levinson, 1978; 1987). Power is described as the degree to which the speaker/writer can make the hearer/reader do something for the benefit of that speaker/writer. Social distance is understood as 'how well the interactants know each other' (Taguchi & Roever, 2017, p. 25). As for degree of imposition, it is defined as the potential cost for the hearer/reader when accepting the request. Such variables are not absolute, as their degree will vary according to the actors of the communicative situation. In fact, Brown and Levinson consider them as context dependent and, at the same time, independent variables one from the other. McConachy (2019) referred to the interplay of these variables as more complex than "appropriate" or "inappropriate". The scholar pointed out that speakers approach pragmatic and metapragmatic decisions on the basis of subjective social and moral judgements. McConachy (2019, p. 170) explained that speakers' interpersonal evaluations draw from a series of assumptions concerning 'interpersonal rights and responsibilities of individuals in roles and relationships, which are constantly calibrated by cultural discourses and ideologies around notions such as care, kindness, fairness, loyalty, authority, and a range of other moral foundations'. Therefore, the evaluation of language use as "impolite" is not only the result of unconventional language use but also of a moral violation in not attending to face, dignity, status or gender, among others (McConachy, 2019).

Brown and Levinson's (1978; 1987) theory is not exempt from criticism. Meier (1997) summarised the main critiques their view on politeness has received: 1) no proper definition

of politeness is presented, 2) "face want" is conceived from a Western perspective and not considering other cultural backgrounds, 3) universality in showing a straightforward correlation between indirectness and politeness and 4) problems when following the taxonomy of strategies when researching speech acts. Despite major criticism, Brown and Levinson's (1978; 1987) work is still a point of reference for research not only on pragmatics but also on other areas of study such as anthropology. Kádár and Haugh (2013, p. 1) explained that Brown and Levinson's theory is conceived 'as the definitive work on linguistic politeness, a point which is evident from it being referred to as "politeness theory" in many circles as if there were no other plausible approach to theorising politeness in existence'. This tendency is especially appreciated on research on pragmatics and language learning and acquisition. As stated by Wolfson (1989; as seen in Taguchi, 2019, p. 2), L2 sociocultural norms are difficult to acquire as noticing the link between linguistic form and appropriate levels of politeness and formality are difficult to perceive by language learners. On this note, several scholars have adopted Brown and Levinson's theoretical framework to explore and provide further explanation to research on several aspects of L2 pragmatics, such as teaching and learning requests.

Leech's (1983) approach to the understanding of politeness was defined as the social-norm view to politeness (Fraser, 1990). Leech proposed what he called "The Principle of Politeness" (henceforth, PP) which was based on Grice's maxims and attempted to complement Grice's Cooperative Principle (henceforth, CP). Leech (2007, p. 173) explained that PP is 'a constraint observed in human communicative behaviour, influencing us to avoid communicative discord or offence, and maintain communicative concord'. By communicative

discord, Leech meant incompatible communicative goals between two parties while communicative concord was exactly the opposite. The PP was composed of six maxims that refer to the polite interaction or behaviour of what Leech (1983) calls *self* and *other*. *Self* alludes to the speaker or individual who benefits from the communicative exchange in, say, a request, while *other* might refer to the hearer or third parties. The maxims of PP are briefly summarised as follow (Leech, 1983, p. 132):

1. Tact maxim (in impositives and commissives): (a) Minimize cost to *other* and [(b) maximize benefit to *other*].

2. Generosity maxim (in impositives and commissives): (a) minimize benefit to *self* [(b) maximize cost to *self*].

3. Approbation maxim (in expressives and assertives): (a) minimize dispraise of *other* [(b) maximize praise of *other*].

4. Modesty maxim (in expressives and assertives): (a) minimize praise of *self* [(b) maximize dispraise of *self*].

5. Agreement maxim (in assertives): (a) minimize disagreement between *self* and *other* [(b) maximize agreement between *self* and *other*].

6. Sympathy maxim (in assertives): (a) minimize antipathy between *self* and *other* [(b) maximize sympathy between *self* and *other*].

Even though Leech's (1983) maxims and PP represent a major contribution to the literature on politeness, they have been criticised for being laden with a Western bias. The six maxims that Leech proposed were questioned on the basis of quantity, due to the large

number of them, and of strictness as one cannot create a maxim for every norm found in language (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Based on these criticisms, Leech (2007) reformulated his ideas by substituting the word "maxim" for the term Grand Strategy of Politeness (henceforth, GSP). According to the GSP, and as explained by Leech (2007, p. 181), the '*S*[elf] expresses or implies meanings which place a high value on what pertains to *O* (*O*= other person[s], [mainly the addressee]) or place a low value on what pertains to *S*'. Hence, GSP, understood as a super-maxim, covered the above-mentioned maxims but in the form of pragmatic constraints (Leech, 2014, p. 91):

Table 3

The component maxims of the Grand Strategy of Politeness (Taken from Leech, 2014, p. 91).

Maxims (expressed in an imperative mood)	Related pair of maxims	Label for this maxim	Typical speech-event type(s)
(M1) give a high value to O's wants	*Generosity/Tact*	Generosity	Commissives
(M2) give a high value to S's wants		Tact	Directives
(M3) give a high value to O's qualities	*Approbation/Modesty*	Approbation	Compliments
(M4) give a low value to S's qualities		Modesty	Self-devaluation
(M5) give a high value to S's obligation to O	*Obligation*	Obligation (of S to O)	Apologizing, thanking
(M6) give a low value to O's obligation to S		Obligation (of O to S)	Responses to thanks and apologies

(M7) give a high value to O's opinions	*Opinion*	Agreement	Agreeing, disagreeing
(M8) give a low value to S's opinions		Opinion Reticence	Giving opinions
(M9) give a high value to O's feelings	*Feeling*	Sympathy	Congratulating, commiserating
(M10) give a low value to S's feelings		Feeling reticence	Supressing feelings

Apart from this, Leech clarified that further research was needed when it came to the understanding of these constraints. Moreover, he further added they may not represent the whole list of constraints but the 'most observable manifestation of the GSP' (Leech, 2007, p. 188).

Leech (2014) understood politeness in terms of benefit or value to the other person(s) and as a form of communicative behaviour intrinsic to the human experience when conversing. From this perspective, politeness in communicative exchanges may be characterised by:

1. Being not *obligatory*. If there is no reason, people will not be polite.

2. Displaying *gradations*: from small to big polite behaviour.

3. Being associated with *a sense of what is normal* in a given situation: with cases of overpoliteness and underpoliteness perceived as out of the ordinary.

4. The extent of politeness taking place *depending on the situation.*

5. Being a *reciprocal asymmetry* between two parties: 'to give high value to the other party or to attribute low value to oneself is felt to be polite' (Leech, 2014, p. 6)

6. Manifesting *repetitive behaviour*. An example of this might be offering water to a guest, the guest declining it and the host offering water again or some other drink.

7. Involving a *transaction of value* between parties: This value might be material (such as requesting for a pen) or abstract (as in thanking someone for a favour).

8. Preserving *balance* of value between parties: A balance in a sense of 'repaying debt' (Leech, 2014, p. 8). For example, thanking someone for an act of kindness, repays debt.

A second wave of politeness research focused more on the individual perspective rather than on universal rules of politeness behaviour. As Kádár and Haugh (2013) explained, this change promoted the development of two perspectives, namely, first-order and second-order politeness (see Watts, Ide & Ehlich, 1992). The former refers to the way politeness phenomena are perceived and described by users while the latter is related to a more scientific and abstract description of such phenomenon. Hence, first-order politeness includes the ideas and conceptions about polite behaviour as portrayed by a certain group of people who share a common sociocultural background. On the other hand, second-order politeness would describe polite behaviour from a more scientific and academic perspective within a theory of social behaviour (Watts *et* al., 1992). As summarised by Kádár and Haugh (2013, p. 5), there is a first and second wave of politeness research which showed that 'politeness is always situated: in particular societies, cultures, in various institutional, interpersonal or public contexts, in certain interaction types or genres, as well as in various different relational networks'.

In line with recent research on politeness, Kádár and Haugh proposed an approximation to the analysis and study of politeness from a more ontological and epistemological perspective framed within a social approach (see Figure 6). According to Kádár and Haugh (2013), a first-second- order distinction of *users* and *observers* can be reinterpreted to account for a more social approximation to the study of politeness. The first order distinction counts on *participants*, who take part in the communicative encounter in which polite behaviour is displayed, and *meta-participants*, viewers of, for example, television, who develop evaluations of polite behaviour. The second-order distinction includes the *lay observer* who observes evaluative moments in politeness and the *analyst*, with a more scientific approach to the observation of politeness.

Figure 6

First-second-order distinction framework (Adapted from Kádár and Haugh, 2013, p. 10)
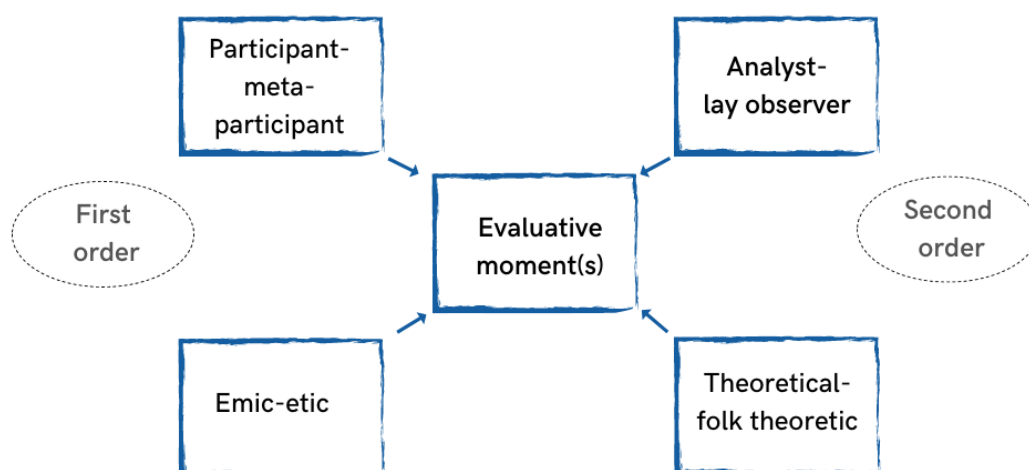
In addition to the above mentioned, Kádár and Haugh (2013, p. 9) further developed what they called 'two loci of understanding'. Regarding the first order distinction, the authors explained that a differentiation between *insider* perspective – *emic* understanding – and *outsider* perspective – *etic* understanding was necessary. The former involves individual/s with certain expectations regarding the polite exchange, that is, the 'moral order' (Garfinkel, 1967 as seen in Kádár & Haugh, 2013, p. 9) while the latter represents the understanding of people outside such moral order. As for the second order distinction, Kádár and Haugh (2013) explained that *folk theoretic* refers to the explicit understanding of the general public to what accounts for polite and impolite behaviour. *Theoretical* understanding, on the contrary, is the formalised and scientifically defined understanding of politeness shared among a scientific community. In proposing such framework, Kádár and Haugh (2013) attempted to approach the study of politeness from one of these epistemological bases in order to avoid confusion when formulating research questions. Hence, in doing so, researchers would conduct studies on politeness avoiding theoretical and methodological incoherencies.

After having reviewed some of the major contributions to the study of politeness, we incline towards adopting the theoretical framework proposed by Brown and Levinson (1978; 1987). Despite criticism, Brown and Levinson's theory has been adopted as a starting point for research on pragmatics, especially employed for the design and understanding of studies dealing with speech acts. This is observable in research conducted in the last couple of decades which treated requests as FTAs and resorted to the sociological variables of Brown and Levinson's theory to better comprehend the more pragmalinguistic end. Nonetheless, we also acknowledge the new insights in relation to pragmatic awareness development that

highlight the importance of individual assumptions and evaluations in the meaning-making process (McConachy, 2019). This connection between speech acts and politeness is further illustrated in the following subsection.

2.2.2   *Speech acts in teaching and learning politeness*

As mentioned earlier, Speech Act Theory represents one of the solid theoretical bases around which the field of pragmatics is built. The idea behind this theory lies on the understanding of sentences and utterances as having the force to achieve an effect out in the real world (Taguchi & Roever, 2017). Austin's (1962) main idea can be summarised as *to say something is to do something*, and he provided a classification of utterances, that of locutionary, illocutionary and perlocutionary acts. The former is understood as the actual saying of something with its corresponding meaning. The illocutionary act is described as the force of the utterances, that is, the action in saying something. Finally, the perlocutionary act represents the effect the utterance has on the real world. Emphasis on illocutionary acts has been placed by Austin (1962, p. 150) as he developed five categories:

1. *Verdictives:* The giving of a verdict (i.e. estimating, convicting, appraising)

2. *Exercitives:* Exercising one's power, rights or influence (i.e. appointing, warning, advising)

3. *Commissives:* Committing someone to do something (i.e. promising, agreeing)

4. *Behabitives:* Referred to as miscellaneous groups, it includes speakers' attitudes and social behaviour (i.e. apologising, congratulating, cursing).

5. *Expositives:* Include examples like 'I assume' or 'I postulate'.

Despite being highly criticised due to the fact that it is based on intuitions and decontextualized sentences (Martínez-Flor & Usó-Juan, 2010), Austin (1962) himself recognised that this classification represented a first attempt in categorising illocutionary acts and acknowledged the difficulty in classifying them. Contributing to Austin's work, Searle (1976, pp. 10-16) reviewed such classification of illocutionary acts for later proposing his own:

1. *Representatives (assertives):* commitment to the hearer the proposition is true (i.e. describing)

2. *Directives:* Attempt by the speaker to get the hearer to do something (i.e. commanding, requesting)

3. *Commissives:* Commitment by the speaker to some future course of action (i.e. promising).

4. *Expressives:* Expressing the psychological state about the state of affairs (i.e. thanking, apologising, congratulating)

5. *Declarations (declaratives):* the propositional content changes the real world (i.e. nominating, declaring)

As can be seen, Searle (1976) acknowledged Austin's classification as reflected in the category "commissives". Nonetheless, drawing on Austin, he further developed the classification departing from the idea of illocutionary force, and not illocutionary verbs as Austin did. Even though there are other classifications of speech acts such as Fraser (1978) or Bach and Harnish (1979), Searle's (1976) work is the one that has a greater impact on the

field of pragmatics. Chapter 3 further develops and describes the speech act of request as it represents the object of study.

It is not surprising that much research on teaching and learning politeness was conducted through the lenses of speech acts as they 'provide a useful foundation for teaching politeness, because they categorize utterances according to their function and enable teachers to discuss different options for the same function' (Schauer, 2019, p. 49). The literature on pragmatics contains a large bulk of examples in which speech acts are studied and analysed taking into account the theoretical framework proposed by Brown and Levinson (1978, 1987). For example, Taguchi (2006) made use of role plays to elicit request responses in order to assess the appropriateness of such production. The role play-scenarios varied in terms of power difference, social distance and degree of imposition, from the sociological variables explained by Brown and Levinson. Among her findings, Taguchi (2006) explained that grammatical inaccuracy and discourse errors, especially in low level proficiency students, make requests inappropriate.

When exploring the study abroad context, Taguchi (2011b) employed a pragmatic speaking test to study the production of requests and opinions by high- and low-proficiency learners with and without stay abroad background. Once again, variability in the situations presented was based on imposition, that is, low-and high-imposition scenarios (Brown & Levinson, 1978; 1987). Speech acts were assessed against three aspects, namely, appropriateness – politeness, directness and formality –, grammaticality and fluency. Findings showed that proficiency had a greater impact on appropriateness and grammaticality than a study-abroad experience when producing requests and opinions. A study conducted by

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Halenko and Jones (2011) also relied on social distance and status variability to create a discourse completion test (henceforth, DCT). They presented said questionnaire to a group of Chinese EFL learners while studying abroad in the United Kingdom. The authors explain that previous instruction of requests facilitated pragmatic development during their period abroad. Nonetheless, this development was not sustained along time as on its own the context abroad was not sufficient, suggesting the need to provide further instruction while studying in an English as an L2 context.

When addressing the issue of teachability of speech acts in the language classroom, Taguchi (2007) explained that the sociolinguistic variables of social distance, power and imposition could be employed as useful criteria for task design. Taguchi investigated oral performance on the production of request and refusals while varying role play complexity by adapting from low to high the social variables proposed by Brown and Levinson. Participants found difficulty at the oral level – production and speech rate – when faced with high social distance, power and imposition situations. This implied that learners at a low level of proficiency would benefit from tasks that display low levels of these social variables. Martínez-Flor (2008) used an inductive-deductive approach to teach request modifiers to EFL university students. Among the different materials employed for this purpose, role-plays varying in social distance, power and imposition were used to assess its effect on the choice of pragmalinguistic forms, including modifiers. After instruction following an inductive-deductive approach, participants employed a greater and more varied number of modifiers when producing requests.

Economidou-Kogetsidis (2010) attempted to explore the relationship between the sociological variables proposed by Brown and Levinson and the level of directness when producing requests. Greek, English as a second language (henceforth, ESL) learners and native speakers of English are interviewed and asked to complete a written discourse completion task for later comparing answers between groups. Variability of requesting behaviour was dependent on the three sociological variables of social distance, power and imposition, which at the same time, are cultural and situational dependent. Generally, requesting behaviour across cultures followed a more or less similar trend as observed in the pragmalinguistic forms employed. Nonetheless, in some instances, directness level varied across groups, depending more on participants' interpretation of social reality and other contextual factors than on the social variables proposed by Brown and Levinson (1978, 1987).

Contradictory findings concerning the influence of the social variables were also mentioned by Fukushima (2000). Even though a positive correlation was observed between power and imposition in relation to request directness, it was not the case for social distance which showed a negative tendency. Similarly, Brown and Gilman's (1989) analysis of Shakespeare plays using Brown and Levinson's (1978, 1987) framework for social variables, found positive correlations between power and imposition but not for social distance between characters.

Adopting a multilingual approach to the analysis of requests, Portolés and Safont (2018) explored the requestive nature of young children combining authentic and elicited data. Following Brown and Levinson's level of directness, Portolés and Safont observed that there was a tendency to employ direct strategies in the first place, followed by conventionally

indirect and indirect forms. A closer look to each language system revealed that direct strategies were used in English, followed by Spanish and Catalan. Conventionally indirect strategies predominated in English, Catalan and, finally Spanish. As for indirect request, young learners employed them in Spanish and Catalan and, to a lesser extent, in English.

As can be seen, these are some of many examples of studies that have opted for Brown and Levinson's theory for the analysis and interpretation of speech acts in the language classroom. This provides support for continuing to use in this case, the sociological variables as key when understanding request production and comprehension. On the one hand, even though it is now known that other contextual factors might come into play in requestive behaviour, the variables of social distance, power and imposition represent a solid starting point. On the other hand, Portolés and Safont (2018) acknowledged the criticisms to Brown and Levinson's theory concerning universality and not taking into consideration other languages besides English. Nonetheless, the authors also explained that the other two languages under analysis – Spanish and Catalan- fit into Brown and Levinson's theory and justifies their theoretical framework. As this research also works with English, Spanish and Catalan, we also consider that Brown and Levinson's theory serves for the purpose of the study.

The following section narrows down the scope of this study by presenting pragmatic awareness as a specific case of language awareness. Research on awareness includes Brown and Levinson's understanding of politeness in the language classroom. In addition to this, the traditional mapping of form-function-context is reassessed. The understanding of the

sociological variables and other sociopragmatic notions is presented with reference to the learner's analytical thinking and reflection.

2.3   Pragmatic awareness

As stated in Chapter 1, the scope of LA is wide, allowing for the adoption of a cross-sectional approach that involves not only specific linguistic aspects of the language but others equally relevant such as the study of pragmatics. In particular, pragmatic awareness is of interest as it represents one of the driving forces of this thesis. As posited by Garcia (2004), pragmatic awareness is considered of importance as it allows for speakers' evaluation of context when formulating speech acts. Moreover, she explained that pragmatic awareness is a unique ability which develops independently of grammatical awareness. As happens with LA, pragmatic awareness also competes with similar terminology, mainly with the notion of metapragmatic awareness. The former is mostly employed in studies that explore learners' perceptions of (in)appropriateness while the latter is concerned with learners' verbalisations of their understanding of pragmatic phenomena (McConachy & Spencer-Oatey, 2020). Throughout this dissertation, and in line with the concept of language awareness, the term pragmatic awareness is understood as an umbrella term which includes the term metapragmatic awareness. In this subsection, pragmatic (and metapragmatic) awareness is defined and research investigating the speech act of request is reviewed.

Several definitions have been provided for the notion of pragmatic and metapragmatic awareness, considering the purpose of the study (see for instance Ifantidou, 2011a; 2011b). However, some scholars attempted to provide a more all-purpose definition of this

phenomenon. For example, Safont (2003) explained that meta-pragmatic awareness entails the acknowledgement of certain contextual features that may determine a linguistic routine as appropriate in a given situation. Kinginger and Farrell (2004, p. 20) defined metapragmatic awareness as the 'knowledge of the social meaning of variable L2 forms and awareness of the ways in which these forms mark different aspects of social contexts'. These definitions have helped in the operationalisation and understanding of pragmatic awareness when conducting research.

In the last decade, there has been a shift in the conceptualisation of pragmatic and metapragmatic awareness. As put forward by McConachy (2012), metapragmatic awareness has been equated with a static notion of pragmatic knowledge as possessed by a native speaker. This view is considered restrictive and unsensitive to the multilingual and multicultural reality of learners. Hence, McConachy (2012, p. 3) proposed approaching metapragmatic awareness as 'a view of language as a contextually contingent social tool in which individuals orient towards pragmatic phenomena based on culturally situated frames of reference'. This understanding of awareness focuses on the individual's ability to interpret and reflect on pragmatic-related issues as influenced by his or her cultural frames.

Firstly, by placing the spotlight on the individual, importance is given to 'learners' conceptual understanding of sociopragmatic notions such as politeness, power, social distance, formality, etc.' (McConachy & Spencer-Oatey, 2020, p. 403). Hence, the binary treatment of appropriate or inappropriate is no longer dependent exclusively on the before-mentioned sociological variables but also on the individual's orientation to pragmatic phenomena based on their 'sociocultural schemas and concepts' (McConachy, 2019, p. 169).

Secondly, by considering culture, this definition also acknowledged the influence exerted by the L1/Lx in the understanding of pragmatic phenomena of the target language. In this sense, this conceptualisation of awareness leaves behind the dominant interlanguage perspective to become immersed into a more multilingual and multicultural one. As explained by McConachy (2019):

> the tendency to operationalise pragmatic awareness primarily in terms of learners' awareness of L2 pragmatic norms has marginalised the role of learners' L1-based pragmatic awareness and the influence that cultural assumptions associated with the L1 (and any other additionally acquired languages) has on how language learners come to understand L2 pragmatic phenomena as meaningful (p. 169).

This understanding of pragmatic awareness is highly relevant as the specific context of the study gathers data from a multicultural and multilingual university community in which the language used on a daily basis is that of Catalan and Spanish with the addition of English as a foreign language. Therefore, the production and interpretation of speech acts should be understood in this specific context of production and not against monolingual English native parameters. Throughout this thesis, pragmatic awareness will be the term employed to refer to both awareness of (in)appropriateness and to the developed ability to verbalise awareness of language forms and social meaning as influenced by learners' understanding of pragmatic phenomena. Even though the literature makes a distinction between pragmatic and metapragmatic awareness, we prefer to employ the term pragmatic awareness to be coherent with the language awareness line of research.

Such an understanding of pragmatic awareness is backed up by scholar researching from a sociocultural perspective. Van Compernolle and Kinginger (2013, p. 284) see metapragmatic awareness as 'the knowledge of the social meaning of variable second language forms, how they mark different aspects of social contexts or personal identities, and how they reference broader language ideologies'. This conceptualisation also places an important role on individual and social aspects of pragmatic production and comprehension. That is, language forms have a social meaning which is to be produced and interpreted according to several aspects, namely, social context, agency and language ideologies. This definition moves away from more fixed ways of understanding pragmatic awareness as the term is seen as dynamic and context specific.

The bulk of research on pragmatic awareness is large, consisting of studies that explore learners' pragmatic awareness of specific speech acts, such as requests, and the effect of certain awareness-raising tasks in the development of such pragmatic awareness. An often-cited study is the one conducted by Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnyei (1998) where they explored learners' awareness of accuracy – pragmalinguistics – and appropriateness – sociopragmatics – of a number of utterances in specific contexts. The authors operationalised awareness at the level of noticing, assessing utterances in terms of (in)appropriateness. The context of acquisition was also relevant as Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnyei (1998) questioned whether the level of awareness in an EFL and ESL context was different. In order to do so, they recruited 173 ESL learners and 28 teachers from a university program in The United States (henceforth, U.S), 370 EFL learners and 25 teachers from secondary school level and adult English courses in Hungary, and 112 pre-service teachers from Italy. Regarding the

instruments employed in data collection, Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnyei (1998) used a grammatical judgment task in video format comprising situations presenting sentences which were: 1) pragmatically appropriate but ungrammatical, 2) grammatically correct but pragmatically inappropriate and 3) grammatically and pragmatically correct.

In Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnyei's (1998) study, all of the 20 scenarios proposed represented one speech act, either a request, a suggestion, an apology or a refusal, and participants were instructed to judge utterances as appropriate/correct and rate the severity of the problem, if any. Results showed that EFL learners tended to identify more grammatical deviations than pragmatic ones. On the contrary, ESL learners considered pragmatic inappropriateness as more relevant. A similar pattern was observed when comparing EFL and ESL teachers' responses, with EFL teachers rating more severely ungrammatical and inappropriate utterances. On top of this, Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnyei (1998) also observed that variables such as proficiency play a role in grammatical and pragmatic awareness. The authors concluded that a high level of pragmatic awareness did not always translate into proper pragmatic production and asked for further research. In addition, they suggested the implementation of awareness-raising and noticing activities in EFL contexts. This study supposed a point of reference for further research which employed Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnyei's (1998) research design and questions to explore other EFL and ESL contexts (see Niezgoda and Röver, 2001; Schauer, 2006; Tanaka & Oki, 2015). The relevance of this study relies on its originality as well as on the exploration of pragmatics from a different perspective, that of awareness.

Some studies on pragmatic awareness have explored request production and comprehension of native speakers of English with that of EFL/ESL learners. Cook and Liddicoat (2002) passed a written questionnaire to 150 participants, 50 undergraduate native English speakers and 100 non-native speakers (Japanese and Chinese speakers) studying ESL in Australia. The multiple-choice written questionnaire was used to test participants' ability to interpret the expected meanings – the most appropriate answer given a specific context – of requests. 15 scenarios were described together with four potential answers for participants to choose only one. High proficiency learners' answers, as well as those of native speakers, were closer to the expected meanings of direct and conventional indirect requests. On the contrary, less proficient learners tended to perform better when it came to direct requests but not when interpreting indirect ones. Cook and Liddicoat (2002) attributed these results to level of proficiency and to the differences in processing and accessing contextual knowledge between native and non-native speakers.

Garcia (2004) adopted a corpus-analysis perspective in her study of nonconventional indirect speech acts. Three groups of participants (n=56), high and low ability learners and native English speakers, were asked to identify a variety of speech acts, including requests, presented in the form of authentic spoken dialogues. Garcia (2004) operationalised pragmatic awareness as the recognition and identification of speech acts, which she believed would vary according to proficiency. As expected, low proficiency learners scored lower than high proficiency learners and native English speakers, attributing this to linguistic contextual factors such as explicit agency identification and lexical signals.

Studies from the last decade attempted to examine the effectiveness of instruction in the development of pragmatic awareness. Takimoto (2012) investigated consciousness-raising instruction in the form of problem-solving with and without metapragmatic discussion on learners' recognition and production of request downgrades (e.g. *please, perhaps, possibily*). Undergraduates (n=45) from a university in Japan were divided into two treatment groups and a control group to observe the effect of metapragmatic discussion. Both treatment groups outperformed the control group in the completion of a DCT and an acceptability judgment test. On top of this, the group in which metapragmatic discussion was promoted performed statistically significantly better than the other two groups.

In a similar line, Nguyen, Do, Nguyen and Pham (2015) explored the use of metapragmatic feedback and metapragmatic instruction in writing email requests to faculty members. Three groups of students, namely, the control group, the metapragmatic feedback group and the direct feedback group were compared in terms of performance and improvement in a pre-post-test design. Even though both treatment groups performed significantly better than the control group, no specific type of feedback appeared to be more effective in the teaching of email requests. However, the effect of metapragmatic feedback was observed in learners' gains to a recognition task. The authors pointed out that metapragmatic feedback tackled sociopragmatic aspects of request formulation while direct feedback dealt with the pragmalinguistic of it. Nguyen *et al.* (2015) explained that the lack of difference between the two types of feedback groups was given by the revision process both groups were engaged in. In other words, pragmatic instruction had improved treatment groups' pragmatic awareness as opposed to the control group.

Li and Gao (2017) conducted a study with ten undergraduate students participating in a weekly discussion group in Hong Kong. Participants performed eight open role-plays in which requests were necessary and, later, took part in retrospective interviews. Findings showed that self-monitoring and self-evaluation behaviours contribute to develop learners' metapragmatic awareness. The former operated at a pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic level while the latter was employed to assess cognitive demand and learners' subjectivity.

Of particular interest for the current thesis are those studies that have approached pragmatic awareness development in teacher-student and student-student interaction. McConachy (2012) analysed classroom interaction to show the way learners collaboratively construct their pragmatic awareness. The qualitative analysis of participants' oral interaction during classroom debate illustrated their engagement in the discussion of sociopragmatic aspects of the language as highly influenced by their own evaluation and cultural assumptions. McConachy (2012) proposed to understand pragmatic awareness beyond form-function-context mapping and appropriateness. Instead, his argument was that 'more recognition is needed of the fact that the interpretation and learning of L2 pragmatics is closely linked to broader processes of interpersonal evaluation' (McConachy, 2012, p. 173).

The work of van Compernolle and Kinginger (2013) tackled the assessment of learners' metapragmatic awareness while also promoting its development. The authors implemented a concept-based approach for the instruction of L2 pragmatics where sociopragmatic concepts were the starting point for later relating them to pragmalinguistic forms. Along six weeks, eight learners of French from a USA university program met weekly with an instructor on a one-on-one session. The instruction consisted in concept explanation, problem-solving and

spoken-interactive tasks for the development of the notions of self-presentation, social distance and power when using the forms of *tu/vous.* Van Compernolle and Kinginger's reported that their instructional approach fostered the identification of ambiguity and the impossibility of applying rules of thumb when facing pragmatic-related decision. Moreover, the assistance provided by tutors through prompting and re-orientation of learners' explanations showed the key role of the instructor in promoting learners' development of their awareness of sociopragmatic notions.

Also implementing a concept-based approach to learn L2 Spanish sociopragmatics, van Compernolle, Gomez-Laich and Weber (2016) followed 19 students pre-and-post-metapragmatic explanations when facing *tú/usted* choice. Among their findings, the authors commented on qualitative changes when learners justified the use of both pragmalinguistic forms. In particular, learners relied more on sociopragmatic meanings and their conceptual knowledge to explain the use of *tú/usted* after the implementation of the concept-based approach.

The development of metapragmatic awareness was also studied in young learners. Myrset (2021) investigated the use of scientific concepts to address pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic concepts when requesting. Two groups of classes, including in total 46 learners between the age of 12 to 13, were instructed on requestive behaviour following a concept-based approach. Along four weeks, participants received instruction on pragmalinguistic resources first, and sociopragmatic notions afterwards. The employment of concepts to express metapragmatic ideas was evidenced when learners collaboratively engaged in group discussion to justify a request proposed in a hypothetical situation. This

discussion was guided through semi-structured, open-ended questions by the researcher. In addition to this, Myrset commented that the learning of scientific concepts allowed the development of learners' L1 pragmatic awareness as well. Myrset (2021, p. 208) concluded by stating that 'the conscious use of scientific concept in mediation may facilitate learners' (meta)pragmatic development'.

In summary, studies on pragmatic awareness, mostly following an interlanguage approach, observed the need to provide instruction in order to overcome the pragmatic deficit of learners. Those studies that included metapragmatic discussion in their instruction reported on the benefits of it. Finally, in the last decade, studies drawing from sociocultural tenets have shown the importance of interaction and mediation to develop learners' awareness of sociopragmatic notions that can later be mapped to pragmalinguistic forms. To follow, we will deal with pragmatic awareness studies which adopted a multilingual approach.

2.3.1 *Pragmatic awareness in multilinguals*

The benefit of the multilingual experience over the acquisition and learning of language has been largely documented (see Cenoz, 2013). Particularly, Jessner (2008) referred to metalinguistic awareness as one of the main qualitative traits developed in multilingual users. Jessner (2008, p. 277) broke down this idea into four main categories, namely, 1) divergent and creative thinking, 2) interactional and/or pragmatic competence, 2) communicative sensitivity and flexibility and 4) translation skills. By focusing on the second aspect highlighted by Jessner (2008), that of pragmatic competence, this dissertation intends to analyse multilingual learners' construction and development of their pragmatic awareness

through their engagement with the languages. On the one hand, this responds to the need to further explore the role of LA in multilingual development by narrowing down its scope to pragmatic awareness, a supposedly intrinsic characteristic of multilingual users. On the other hand, recent claims of approaching pragmatic awareness 'from an enlarged multilingual and intercultural perspective' (McConachy, 2019, p. 170) motivated this study.

Research has tackled pragmatic awareness in third language acquisition (henceforth, TLA) and multilingual language learning. A pioneering study is the one conducted by Safont (2003) who explored the effect of bilingualism on TLA pragmatic production and awareness. In the study, 160 female undergraduates, classified as Catalan-Spanish bilinguals ($n = 80$) and Spanish monolinguals ($n = 80$), completed a Discourse Evaluation Test (henceforth, DET) assessing and justifying the appropriateness of requests in English. Moreover, participants also engaged in open role-plays and open discourse completion tests in order to gather data regarding pragmatic production. After analysing participants' responses to the DET, Safont (2003) explained that bilingual learners outperformed monolingual ones in the recognition of requestive pragmatic failure as well as in the provision of alternatives to incorrect forms and in justifying pragmatic deviations. Regarding pragmatic production, bilinguals tended to use more request formulation, especially the conventionally indirect type, than their monolingual counterpart. This led to the conclusion that 'knowing more than two languages seems to benefit the development of pragmatic competence and the degree of metapragmatic awareness' (Safont, 2003, p. 60).

Cenoz (2003b) explored the difference between 'fluent in English' and 'non-fluent in English' Spanish-Basque bilingual undergraduates in the Basque Country. By resorting to a

DCT which elicited requests in both English and Spanish, Cenoz (2003b) explained that L1 Spanish speakers who were fluent in English tended to formulate requests similarly in both languages as seen in the qualitative analysis of the pragmalinguistic elements. Moreover, qualitative and quantitative differences were observed when comparing both groups. Fluent in English speakers showed a tendency to make use of the interlocutor's first name as well as relying more on indirect request strategies and syntactic and lexical downgrades, and mitigation devices. Cenoz (2003b) concluded that it was a case of bi-directional interaction between languages as opposed to a simple case of transfer from the L1 to the L2. Safont and Alcón (2012) focused on the use of English request modifiers by Catalan-Spanish bilingual undergraduates. After instructional treatment, their findings displayed a higher use of internal and external modifiers by bilingual participants, contributing to the idea that bilingual learners develop a higher metapragmatic awareness.

Trebits (2019) delved into the pragmatic awareness of 105 L1 German speakers and 39 bilingual German-heritage language speakers studying EFL at an intermediate level. Statistical analysis showed that pragmatic awareness correlates with degree of multilingualism, intensity of target language contact and the frequency of code-switching. Trebits (2019, p. 11) explained that there was an advantage to 'students who had a frequent and deep engagement with languages for reaching higher levels of pragmatic awareness in an additional foreign language'. This study shed lights on the already acknowledged multilingual advantage as it provided evidence that bilingual code-switching helps in the development of English L3 pragmatic awareness. Trebits (2019, p. 13) concluded by explaining that findings reported 'evidence that a high degree of multilingualism, frequent

code-switching behaviour and an intensive contact with the target language facilitate pragma-linguistic awareness in an EFL context'.

There are other studies which have dealt with different aspects of pragmatic awareness as well as different population. For example, Alcón-Soler (2012) focused on the speech act of refusal on third language learners. The author explored refusal development after instruction and the influence of learners' degree of bilingualism on metapragmatic awareness. Participants were 92 undergraduates from a Valencian university who vary in their degree of bilingualism (Catalan and Spanish) and are learning EAL. The instructional treatment consisted of a combination of audio-visual material in the three languages – Spanish, Catalan, and English– together with explicit instruction and online pragmatic-focused tasks. Following a pre-test-post-test research design, findings showed that after receiving instruction, participants focus more on pragmatic aspects – pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic issues– than during the pre-test. Regarding the impact of learners' degree of bilingualism, statistical differences were found between receptive and productive bilinguals in terms of metapragmatic awareness. That is, productive Catalan-Spanish bilingual learners benefited more from instruction as measured in their metapragmatic awareness.

Portolés (2015) investigated pragmatic comprehension and awareness of a younger population, that of preschool learners (age 4-5) and primary education learners (age 8-9). The researcher focused on the three languages: Catalan and Spanish, as part of the Valencian Community, as well as English as a third language. Her results showed that despite an underdeveloped pragmatic ability, young learners displayed high levels of pragmatic awareness when producing requests in all three languages. Portolés (2015) explained that

this was so because of a multilingual proficiency, that is, a previous bilingual language experience and background reinforcing the pragmatic system of English as an L3.

As can be seen, the bulk of research on pragmatic competence and awareness is large. Nonetheless, studies adopting a TLA and multilingual approach are limited. This lack of studies acknowledging the multilingual experiences of learners 'has had a significant constraining effect on the development of a theoretical lens for the understanding of the nature of pragmatic awareness and its development from a more multilingual and intercultural perspective' (McConachy, 2019, p. 170). In addition to this, most studies have conceptualised pragmatic awareness as static knowledge that allows for an "appropriate" form-function-context mapping. Nonetheless, few studies have looked at awareness in terms of development that consider learners' whole language repertoire. As explained by McConachy and Spencer-Oatey (2020, pp. 397-398), 'the development of pragmatic awareness is an inherently cross-linguistic phenomenon, as the acquisition of L2 pragmatic knowledge leads to enhanced awareness of the pragmatic features and mappings of both languages'. With this in mind, this study intends to investigate multilingual learners' pragmatic awareness and provide a qualitative description of opportunities for development by employing the construct of Engagement with Language.

2.4   Summary

This chapter reviewed pragmatics from a second and foreign language learning perspective. Section 2.1 focused on the different communicative models proposed with special emphasis on those that acknowledge the importance of pragmatics in the EFL classroom. Pragmatics

was defined and importance was placed on the idea of pragmatic competence, a key component to any communicative competence model. Section 2.2. reviewed the different approaches to the understanding of politeness, an important theory in the field of pragmatics, and its relation to speech acts and language learning and teaching. Special emphasis was placed on Brown and Levinson's conceptualisation of the sociological variables of social distance, power and imposition. Finally, Section 2.3 introduced the notion of pragmatic awareness as an area of study within language awareness and highlighted the need to conduct further research. In particular, the need to focus on the comprehension and production of the speech act of request in written communication by multilingual learners.

Chapter 3. Teaching and Learning Requests at the Written Level

Section 3.1 describes the speech act of request together with a taxonomy for the classification of the realisation strategies and peripheral elements that accompany this speech act. The importance of written pragmatic development is highlighted and the benefits of implementing writing tasks in the classroom are explained. Particularly, the relevance of employing collaborative writing tasks is described. In Section 3.2, emphasis is placed on the specific case of request production and comprehension in email communication in the academic context. Moreover, E-politeness between student-professor in email exchange is explained together with the research conducted so far. Finally, section 3.3 summarises the content presented throughout this chapter.

3.1   The speech act of request in writing

This section will focus on the speech act of request by providing a description of the head act and peripheral elements that accompany this speech act (Subsection 3.1.1). Subsection 3.1.2 will present the importance of writing in the language classroom, together with a description of collaborative writing tasks. Research on the use of this type of task which encourages pragmatic development around requestive behaviour will be reviewed.

3.1.1   Request realisation strategies

Austin (1962) highlighted the idea of utterances having the force to produce repercussions in the real world and suggested the classification of locutionary, illocutionary and perlocutionary acts. Searle (1976) expanded on Austin's taxonomy of illocutionary acts, those that represent the action of saying something, and explained that directive illocutionary acts are those in which a speaker attempts to make the hearer do something for the benefit of the speaker. A clear example of a directive illocutionary act is the speech act of request.

Within the category of directive illocutionary acts proposed by Searle (1976), requests have received much attention in research. Schauer (2019, p. 21) defined a request as 'a speech act in which a speaker or writer asks someone to do something'. This definition incorporated request production in both written and oral mode. Safont (2008, p. 42) referred to requests as 'performed by the speaker in order to engage the hearer in some future course of action that coincides with the speaker's goal' and added that they also represented pre-events as they anticipate an action. According to Brown and Levinson's (1978, p. 66) Politeness Theory in which the notion of *face* (see Goffman, 1955) is used to refer to 'the public self-image that every member wants to claim for himself [or herself]', requests are classified as face-threatening acts. These sorts of acts suppose a 'threat' to an individual's negative face, that is, 'the want of every "competent adult member" that his [or her] actions be unimpeded by others' (Brown & Levinson, 1978, p. 62). Thus, the speaker/writer is attempting to make the hearer or reader do something that they would not normally do. Hence, it is assumed that when performing a request, a competent language user will avoid FTAs or will attempt to soften their impact on the hearer or reader. In order to do so, different strategies can be

employed to address the hearers' negative face, such as conventionally indirect requests: *could you send me more information?* As posited by Biesenbach-Lucas (2007), in performing the face-threatening act of requesting, a certain degree of politeness is necessary. She explained that when dealing with requests, a lack of politeness is perceived in the use of direct strategies, presence of intensifiers, aggravating moves, and an absence of mitigating devices. On the other hand, Biesenbach-Lucas (2007) considered the use of indirect strategies, syntactic and lexical modifiers, and non-hearer-oriented request strategies, as positively responding to politeness norms.

Félix-Brasdefer (2019) stated that the Speech Act Theory has provided the foundations for language interaction analysis from a social perspective. As explained by Schauer (2019), the illocutionary act, in particular, is the one that has received most attention, and, therefore, has been highly researched. Safont (2008) referred to request acts as composed of two main parts, that is, the head – or core – of the request and peripheral elements. The former is the one that conveys the request, and the latter plays the role of mitigator or aggravator of the illocutionary force of the request. Trosborg's (1995) proposed three main categories for classifying request realisation based on the politeness continuum as proposed by Brown and Levinson (1987): 1) indirect, 2) conventionally indirect and 3) direct request strategies. Indirect strategies comprise declarative sentences, also called hints, in forms such as '*I'm kind of thirsty.*' In this sort of strategy, the hidden meaning – the illocutionary force – is to be interpreted by the hearer/reader, in this case, that the person wants some kind of drink. As explained by Safont (2008), indirect strategies are considered opaque expressions that the

speaker/writer makes use of with the purpose of not explicitly showing the real intention of the utterance/sentence.

Conventionally indirect requests can be performed in the form of an interrogative such as '*Can I have some water?*', a declarative as '*I would like you to give me some water*', or in the form of negative constructions like '*I would not mind some water'.* Conventionally indirect requests are employed when considering the threatening nature of the request. Hence, the speaker/writer acknowledges the hearer/reader's negative face. In turn, this category is subdivided into hearer-oriented and speaker-oriented strategies. Hearer-oriented strategies tackle the hearer/reader's ability, willingness or permission for the speaker/writer to perform the action. Examples include (1) *Would you give me some water?* as in willingness, (2) *Could you give me some water?* resorting to hearer/readers' ability, (3) *May I have some water?* for permission and (4) *How about giving me some water?* used as a suggestatory formulae. On the other hand, speaker-based strategies include wishes and desires/needs such as *I would like some water* and *I want/need some water.* Safont (2008) referred to wishes as polite ways of modifying the hearer's behaviour while desires/needs are less indirect and polite.

Finally, direct request strategies are performed by means of obligation, performatives, and imperatives. The first category involves the use of modals such as *must* or *have to* (e.g. *You must give me some water*). Performative request realisations are expressed by resorting to performative verbs such as *ask*, *request* or *demand* which are understood as authoritative and impolite depending on the content (Safont, 2008). Finally, imperatives represent the most direct way of performing a request with no attention to the hearer's negative face as in '*Give me some water'.*

Regarding peripheral elements, Alcón-Soler, Safont and Martínez-Flor (2005) proposed their own taxonomy. Understanding that requests represent an FTA, users might resort to modification devices in order to mitigate the request. This softening implies an acknowledgement of the hearer/readers' negative face and, therefore, is considered more appropriate and polite. Safont (2008) clarified that these modification devices may precede and/or follow the request head act without changing the propositional content of the actual request. Alcón-Soler *et al.* (2005) distinguished between internal and external modification. The first category is made up of *openers, softeners, intensifiers,* and *fillers* while the second category comprises *preparators, grounders, disarmers, expanders, promise of rewards* and *please.* Table 4 illustrates such classification.

Table 4

Typology of peripheral modification devices in requests (Taken from Alcón-Soler et al., 2005, p. 15).

Type	Sub-type		Example
Internal Modification			
	Openers		- *Do you think* you could open the window?
			- *Would you mind* opening the window?
	Softener	Understatement	- Could you open the window *for a moment?*
		Downtoner	- Could you *possibly* open the window?
		Hedge	- Could you *kind of* open the window?
	Intensifier		- You *really* must open the window

			- *I'm sure* you wouldn't mind opening the window.
	Fillers	Hesitators	- I *er, erm, er – I wonder* if you could open the window.
		Cajolers	- *You know, you see, I mean*
		Appealers	- *OK?, Right?, yeah*
		Attention-getters	- *Excuse me...; Hello...; Look...; Tom...; Mr. Edwards...; father...*
External modification			
	Preparators		- *May I ask you a favour? ...* Could you open the window?
	Grounders		- *It seems it is quite hot here.* Could you open the window?
	Disarmers		- *I hate bothering you, but* could you open the window?
	Expanders		- Would you mind opening the window? *...Once again, could you open the window?*
	Promise of reward		- Could you open the window? *If you open it, I promise to bring you to the cinema.*
	Please		- Would you mind opening the window, *please?*

Research on peripheral elements has been conducted, for example, from a cross-cultural perspective, comparing English native speakers and learners of English (Kasper, 1981; Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1986, Faerch & Kasper, 1989, Barron, 2003) with contradictory findings regarding the preference for native speakers to use internal modification (Kasper, 1981) while no such difference is found in Blum-Kulka and Olshtain's (1986) study. Similarly, Faerch and Kasper (1989) also found no difference between native speakers and EFL learners in the use of internal modification apart from learners' overuse of the marker *please* as in Barron (2003). Kobayashi and Rinnert (2003) saw an increase of supportive moves as proficiency improved. Finally, other studies focused on the teachability of peripheral

elements, claiming the important effect of instruction (Fukuya, 1998; Fukuya & Clark, 2001; Safont, 2003; Martínez-Flor, 2008, Safont & Alcón, 2012).

The following subsection focuses on the development of request production and comprehension at the written level. In particular, the use of collaborative writing tasks to offer opportunities for the development of pragmatic awareness.

3.1.2   Collaborative writing tasks to foster pragmatic awareness

Pragmatic written production and comprehension have been largely disregarded in the literature. A focus on collaborative writing could be employed as a pedagogical resource when researching and teaching pragmatics. Studies dealing with the use of collaborative writing tasks in L2 pragmatic and multilingual research is limited and further research could provide useful insights. This subsection refers to the importance of writing in the language classroom for later describing collaborative writing tasks and research conducted in relation to different variables that affect task complexity and efficacy. Finally, those few studies that make use of collaborative writing tasks to tackle request teaching and learning are presented and provide the research gap that this thesis attempts to fill.

Even though the development of a high level of communicative competence involves the mastery of the four language skills, the teaching and learning of writing as an ability that considers pragmatic aspects have often been ignored. Manchón and Roca de Larios (2007) proposed the rationale for using writing for language learning. Firstly, they referred to writing tasks as characterised by problem-solving cognitively demanding processes which result in learners exercising their language in order to reach an outcome (that is, a piece of writing).

This would contribute to learners' language learning process in 'knowing more about the language' and 'becoming more competent at using the language' (Manchón & Roca de Larios, 2007, p. 106).

Secondly, the authors resorted to the output hypothesis (Swain, 1985) which explained its three functions in relation to the importance of writing. To start with, the *hypothesis-testing function* entails that feedback contributes to learners' language development. Manchón and Roca de Larios (2007) explained that the writing process is made up of different steps which give room for internal feedback. External feedback is provided by teachers' corrections and comments on the piece of writing. In second place, the *metalinguistic function* is observed in learners' cognitive processing in an attempt to choose the best linguistic resources to convey meaning. This triggers learners' awareness of their FL knowledge and promote language reflection. The last function that provides support to output is the *noticing function* in which learners notice a gap between what they want to say or write and what they actually produce. Manchón and Roca de Larios (2007, p. 108) explained that 'in the case of writing, "noticing the gap" may encourage learners to look for alternative ways to express their intentions, either by searching from their existing knowledge or relevant/expert sources, which in turn may lead to expanding one's own learning resources'.

As described by Manchón and Roca de Larios (2007), writing has the potential for language development by means of metalinguistic and complex cognitive processes that foster language learning. Promoting writing activities can contribute to the development and acquisition of pragmatic-related aspects of the language, which are often disregarded. In the current thesis, collaborative writing tasks are proposed as a possible pedagogical technique

that could foster pragmatic development. Collaborative writing is described as 'an activity where there is a shared and negotiated decision making process and a shared responsibility to produce a single text' (Storch, 2013, p. 3). The key word is that of collaboration, meaning sharing a certain task and coordinating to achieve a common goal, as opposed to cooperation which involves the division of such labour (Storch, 2013). Therefore, a group written project or text-reconstruction in pairs would not count as collaborative writing. Hence, Storch (2013, p. 2) stated that the outcome of a collaborative writing task is the 'jointly produced and shared text, a text that cannot easily be reduced to the separate input or individuals'. Nonetheless, due to the compelling evidence provided by research focusing on, say, text reconstruction or dictogloss, studies dealing with these sorts of tasks will be considered. Already in the 90s, authors such as Dale (1997) highlighted the benefits of collaborative writing, for engagement, negotiation and considering affective factors critical for efficient group work.

Collaborative writing draws on cognitive and sociocognitive theories of language learning in order to explain the rationale behind it. On the one hand, from a cognitive perspective, Long's (1983, 1985) interaction hypothesis provides the basis for the relevance of verbal interaction as a tool for language learning. Furthermore, Swain's (1993) pushed output hypothesis redefines the role of output to focus not only on fluency but also on accuracy, and as a way to promote language reflection (Storch, 2013). Understanding collaborative writing as a process, the emergence of collective cognition is expected in this sort of task as it leads to language learning. On the other hand, the notions of *languaging* and collaborative dialogue provide support from a more sociocultural framework. In general terms, the sociocultural theory conceives learning as a social process as influenced by society

and culture. Language learning is not excluded from this social process and, as such, this learning should take place in interaction with others within the Zone of Proximal Development (henceforth, ZPD) (Vygotsky, 1978). This metaphorical ZPD represents a state in which a learner is cognitively prepared to move forward with the support of others – more experienced peers or adults – through scaffolding.

As explained by Storch (2013), sociocultural theory serves as the rationale behind the fostering of verbal interaction in the language classroom. In this interaction between participants, language represents the tool that leads to higher cognitive abilities in the learning process (Vygotsky, 1978). In this line, Swain and Lapkin (2011, p. 105) use the term 'languaging' to refer to 'the activity of mediating cognitively complex ideas using language' which is also perceived as a process. Lapkin, Swain and Pysllakis (2010) explained that languaging mediates not only higher mental processes but also affective ones. Languaging can be manifested through collaborative dialogue, which is understood as a sort of dialogue which engages speakers in problem solving and the building of knowledge (Swain, 2000).

Storch (2013) saw in collaborative writing, as opposed to collaborative talk, an opportunity to explore verbalised thoughts in detail, the co-authoring of texts and linguistic choices and organisation. For example, Storch (2002) analysed pair interaction in the completion of three collaborative writing tasks: a short composition, an editing task and a text reconstruction task. The author observed four distinct patterns of dyadic interaction emerging from pair collaboration: collaborative, dominant/dominant, dominant/passive and expert/novice. This research provided further evidence on the important factors to consider when implementing a collaborative writing task, in this case, learners' roles. In fact, Storch

(2013) mentioned those factors that affect 'languaging' during a collaborative writing task, namely, task type – meaning- or language-focused-, grouping learners – number of students participating and their proficiency – and relationship formed – dyadic interaction as previously explained. As summarised by Storch (2013), such factors have an impact on the quantity of the languaging episodes, the focus of such languaging, the quality of the engagement in an attempt to solve LREs, and the outcomes of such LREs.

An example of the effect of such factors is provided by Leeser (2004) who investigated the impact of grouping learners according to proficiency in the reconstruction of a written passage in a content-based course. According to Leeser (2004), grouping participants according to high-high, high-low and low-low proficiency had an impact with regards to the amount, type and outcome of the LREs. High proficiency learners produced more LREs while problems in understanding meaning is associated with low proficiency learners, leading to a decrease in LREs. Pairing learners into high-low proficiency was beneficial for the latter group as they had more chances of focusing on form together with the resolution of the LRE. In a similar vein, Watanabe (2008) explored ESL learners as they engaged in essay composition. Three core participants interacted with other participants of different proficiency level in the completion of the task. Findings show that high proficiency learners helping less proficient partners did not always translate into language learning and that the nature of the relationship between participants might have a greater impact than that of proficiency. Watanabe (2008, p. 627) explained that 'the way individual learners interact with their partners affects the way their partners interact with them, regardless of their proficiency differences'.

Also related with grouping but in terms of number of participants, Shehadeh (2011) compared individual and pair writing and observes clear gains, particularly in content, organisation and vocabulary, in those cases in which learners had worked collaboratively. Shehadeh (2011) mentions that one of the pedagogical implications of her study is students' engagement in cognitive and social processes that foster L2 learning.

In a similar vein, Fernández-Dobao (2012) compared the collaborative written work done in groups of four, pairs and individual learners. It seems that despite both groups and pairs focusing on language, the former provided qualitative and quantitatively distinct LREs, together with the corresponding solving of such episodes. As a result, group written compositions differentiated in terms of a more fine-tuned use of grammar and lexis than pair and individual texts. Edstrom (2015) observed that triads tended to produce and resolve more LREs than pairs. However, this was highly dependent on the on-task behaviour, members' engagement, and the nature of participants' exchanges.

Mozaffari (2017) further explored the group factor but from a different perspective, that of student-selected and teacher-assigned partners. Results showed that teacher-assigned partners lead to an increase in the generation of LREs in comparison to student-selected partners, though no statistically significant difference was found in terms of patterns of interaction. Moreover, student-assigned pairs displayed greater measures of fluency, accuracy, organisation, grammar, and vocabulary.

Storch (2005) explored group differences in terms of individual and collaborative writing tasks. Although no statistically significant difference was observed between groups, collaboratively written compositions were shorter and richer in terms of grammatical accuracy

and linguistic complexity. Moreover, the opportunity to work collaboratively was perceived as positive as it promoted interaction and the generation of ideas. Wigglesworth and Storch (2012) focused on the provision of feedback, after pairs have completed a collaborative written task, as a technique to elicit discussion about language and feedback engagement. Feedback was provided in two different forms: one group of participants received a reformulated version of their text and the other group received edited feedback in the form of symbols signalling errors. A control group received the original report without alterations. After discussing the feedback (if any), participants were asked to rewrite the written report. Wigglesworth and Storch (2012) pointed out that editing feedback prompted more discussion about the language than reformulated feedback.

Collaborative writing has been explored in other contexts of instruction such as online environments. Li and Kim (2016) implemented Wikis for the promotion of negotiation, engagement with other people's ideas, co-construction of written texts, scaffolding, and interaction. Participants were organised in small groups of three or four attending to proficiency, cultural background, and free choice of partners. Findings showed that groups differed in terms of patterns of interaction as proposed by Storch (2002). Differences in terms of scaffolding, engagement and co-construction of written texts were perceived across groups. Li and Kim (2016) concluded that even though Wikis represent a useful collaboration tool, it did not translate into participants adopting a collaborative approach. The authors explained that 'multiple factors, such as the participants' life trajectories, the instructional context, members' communicative strategies, personal circumstances, and the affordances of

the technology mediate students' participation in computer-based collaborative writing projects' (Li & Kim, 2016, p. 39).

In line with the exploration of psychological factors, Chen and Hapgood (2019) compared groups of learners who received explicit collaborative writing instructions with groups who did not. Results showed that explicitly instructed learners produced and resolved significantly more LREs as well as showing higher patterns of collaborative interaction. Another finding reported in this study was the possibility of changing learners' beliefs regarding the language learning process. As explained by Chen and Hapgood (2019, p. 21), 'planning instruction to include materials designed to influence students' beliefs about collaborative may be of benefit to many learners because whether learners believe an activity is likely to facilitate their language learning influences their engagement and participation with the activity'.

Regarding the learning of pragmatic-related aspects of the language, to the best of our knowledge, fewer studies have made use of collaborative writing to promote pragmatic development. In a computer-mediated environment, Li (2012) analysed the discussion between three participants while working collaboratively in a writing task. Such discussion was examined following Brown and Levinson's taxonomy of politeness strategies. A close examination of participants' interaction showed that positive politeness strategies predominate (51%), followed by negative politeness (37%) and bald on record strategies (12%). Li (2012) explained that these results suggested that a proper use of politeness strategies foster cooperation and the construction of social interaction while solving a writing task via Wikis.

Exploring task complexity in the formulation of requests, Kim and Taguchi (2015) divided 73 Korean junior high school into three groups, namely, simple, complex and control. Using Brown and Levinson's contextual variables – social distance, power and imposition – to operationalise requests, participants conducted a series of collaborative writing tasks. The simple group was given a detailed description of a situation together with pictures with speech bubbles to fill-in. The complex group was given the same pictures without further details regarding relationship between characters. Kim and Taguchi (2015) used pragmatic-related episodes (henceforth, PREs) as a unit of analysis for the interaction data. PREs were defined as 'any discussions on, questions about, or corrections of pragmatic-related language production' (Kim & Taguchi, 2015, p. 664). A further level of analysis consisted in targeting sociopragmatic factors as well as pragmalinguistic forms. Both groups showed similar requestive behaviour – head act and modification devices – with no statistical difference, but the complex group displayed more PREs which acknowledged the context of the communicative situation, the request head act and the use of preparators. An immediate and delayed-post-test showed that the complex group outperforms the other two in terms of head act forms.

Similarly, Kim and Taguchi (2016) explored the effect of task complexity in terms of cognitive and pragmatic task demand. Participants were 49 Korean females from two intact high school classes who took part in the collaborative writing of four tasks (simple and complex task, and high and low imposition pragmatic task) dealing with request-making expressions. Kim and Taguchi's (2016) analysis showed that tasks of higher complexity and pragmatic demand fostered pragmatic-related episodes around sociopragmatic factors. At

the same time, such episodes led to a discussion about the most appropriate pragmalinguistic forms. Taguchi and Kim (2016) evaluated the effect of grouping and metapragmatic instruction in the creation of a collaborative written dialogue with a focus on requests. Comparing pair work, individual work and a control group with no metapragmatic instruction, findings displayed more PREs and target-like requests when working in pairs than individually. However, for both groups, the effect of learning disappeared a month after the completion of the task and no group difference was found in terms of request modification device.

Finally, studies dealing with collaborative writing while attending to bi-and multilingual aspects of the learning experience are even more limited. Payant and Kim (2015) analysed L1 Spanish, L2 English and L3 French during oral and written modalities of collaborative tasks in a case study with four participants. L3 mediation predominated over L1 or L2 when solving collaborative tasks, especially at the level of meaning. L1 was usually employed to mediate language and task-related issues in order to solve metalinguistic and semantic episodes and organise and plan task development. Payant and Kim (2015) also observed that less proficient learners tended to resort to L1 to address language gaps in comparison to more proficient learners.

In a similar vein, analysing the task modality effect of Spanish-English bilinguals learning French as an L3, Payant and Kim (2019) worked with decision-making, ranking, dictogloss and text reconstruction tasks. The written modality promoted the appearance of LREs much more frequently (65%) than in the oral modality (35%). Moreover, the resolution of such episodes predominated more in the written (58%) than in the oral mode (32%). Regarding

language use, the written mode exhibited the use of L3 LREs (59%) while the rest was done using Spanish. Even though the use of L2 English was not very frequent, some L1 and L3 LREs displayed some instances of English use, suggesting the activation of the whole linguistic repertoire.

Zhang (2018) adopted a multilingual perspective when comparing groups of students who were allowed to use their L1 Chinese in the production of an argumentative essay in L2 English, and those who were not. Findings show that the only statistically significant difference between groups was in terms of mean length of clause. The group that could make use of their L1 produced clauses of higher complexity than those only using the L2. From a pedagogical perspective, Zhang (2018) explained that allowing the use of the L1 in the L2 classroom seems to have a facilitative effect in the production of more syntactically complex structures when working on collaborative writing tasks.

Storch (2005) stated that findings on collaborative writing provide support for its implementation as it promotes reflective thinking thanks to learners' engagement. Moreover, Swain and Watanabe (2013) called for research on the mediating effect of collaboration in the learning of L2 pragmatics. Finally, Chen and Hapgood (2019) suggested the need to explore collaborative writing and learning during and from engaging with the task.

Attaining to the above-mentioned studies, this thesis attempts to use a collaborative writing task to foster opportunities for pragmatic awareness development when engaging multilingual learners with the languages under analysis. In the next subsection, the focus of this dissertation is narrowed down to EFL learners' requestive behaviour when addressing

faculty members via email, a common medium of communication and interaction between student and professor.

3.2   Email communication in the academic context

This section describes the specific case of email communication between student and professor by addressing the main traits of this type of interaction. In particular, the focus is placed on emails that contain requests, which are perceived as the most common speech act that arises in this sort of student-professor communicative exchange. Due to the natural occurrence of requests, this medium allows for further research on the teaching and learning of this speech act. In order to be able to provide a proper account of requestive behaviour in academic emails, politeness and etiquette issues are described together with some of the difficulties that EFL learners may experience from a more sociopragmatic perspective. Evaluating multilingual learners' pragmatic awareness when producing and comprehending requests can add new insights concerning the role of contextual features and individual assumptions in the writing process. Finally, research on email communication to faculty members is reviewed to show the characteristics of this communicative exchange.

3.2.1   E-politeness in email request production

Email communication between student and professor has been on the rise for the last couple of decades. Nowadays, the exchange of information via this means has established itself as the accepted form of student-professor interaction (Biesenbach-Lucas, 2007). One of the reasons for the popularity of email exchange as a customary medium in the academic

environment is its intrinsic formal trait (Pratama, 2019, p. 43). In fact, students are expected to display this formality through proper language use which balances familiarity and professionalism (Lewin-Jones & Mason, 2014). Regarding the production of requests, this turns the email into an FTA, which the sender, usually the student, should be aware of in order to employ the right politeness strategies to ensure compliance on the part of the professor. That is, the student should attempt to address the faculty member's negative face in order to minimise the FTA and acknowledge the other person's face. Hence, a certain level of formality and politeness is expected from students when emailing their professors.

Students' perceptions of emails also contribute to the popularity of this means of communication. Félix-Brasdefer (2012) explained that students rely on email messages as they can be written at any time in a more or less informal manner while expecting a fast response. Students see in email communication 'the convenience to obtain feedback, clarification and information as soon as they need it' (Economidou-Kogetsidis, 2011, p. 3193). Nonetheless, in doing so, students tended not to pay attention to the interlocutors' face, failing at addressing issues concerning politeness, appropriateness and expected behaviour. When reaching authority figures, as in the case of professors, a high level of pragmatic competence and awareness is required as well as an email etiquette (Economidou-Kogetsidis, 2015).

Even though at first glance it may seem that email communication responds to the norms of the written medium, this specific case of interaction has its own characteristics. In fact, email communication is perceived as a 'hybrid' between the written and oral mode. Baron

(2002) said that the extent to which an email is more likely to have features corresponding to the written or spoken medium highly depends on individual's perceptions about emails.

First, it is conceived as an asynchronous form of communication (Félix-Brasdefer, 2012), meaning that responses are not always automatic as in oral communication. In fact, receiving some sort of feedback after sending an email highly depends on the receiver's availability, access to internet or frequency of inbox checking, among many others. Moreover, Félix-Brasdefer (2012) also referred to turn-taking in email exchange. Email messages are usually comprised of different moves at the same time, such as, greeting and formulation of request, all in one paragraph or text. Hence, unlike face-to-face interaction, email messages 'do not reflect simultaneous pair adjacency' (Félix-Brasdefer, 2012, p. 89).

Economidou-Kogetsidis (2011, p. 3194) described emails by referring to their 'dynamic, interactive and ephemeral nature' as happens in oral speech. However, due to the fact that emails allow for planning, editing and rewriting, they cannot be considered entirely equal to spoken messages. Finally, at the more structural end, formal emails, as is the case between student-professor interaction, should contain a proper greeting, opening, content, closing and salutation.

In the specific case of request production in email communication, research (See Section 3.2.2) has provided a series of expected features that account for politeness in student-professor communication. Politeness in this sort of communicative exchange is conveyed by formality and directness as perceived in the presence (or lack) of greetings, a proper closing and the correct formulation of the request (Pratama, 2019). Digging into request production as it represents the focus of our study, Félix-Brasdefer (2012) explained

that mitigation and politeness in request emails vary according to the nature of such request. Hence, request for information, feedback or social action carries different degrees of imposition (Brown & Levinson, 1987) which would affect the linguistic form of the request. High imposition requests demand the use of mitigating devices which are usually reflected in the use of conditional sentences, past tense and progressive aspect as they denote formality (Félix-Brasdefer, 2012). Biesenbach-Lucas (2007) referred to this etiquette as *e-politeness*, characterised by indirectness and lexical and syntactic strategies that mitigate the force of the request.

Despite the clear expected conventions regarding e-politeness in request emails, students often fail in conveying the above-mentioned strategies. This leads to a lack of compliance towards the request on the part of the professors as well as the construction of a poor student profile as conveyed by the language choice. At the level of content of the request, Biesenbach-Lucas (2007) mentioned that requesting to read drafts, copy notes because of missing classes or information already available as inappropriate moves. At the more linguistic end, the inclusion of inappropriate salutations such as 'Hey', abbreviations, errors at the level of grammar and orthography and an impolite tone all help when considering an email as inappropriate.

Biesenbach-Lucas (2007) further explained the possible reasons for the lack of consensus between student and professor when exchanging emails. Firstly, it might simply be that students are unaware about the existence of an email etiquette due to the fact that it is not normally taught. Secondly, a lack of experience is also mentioned by the author, especially in those cases where the interplay of the sociological variables of social distance

and power between student and professor, and the weight of the imposition of the request are not clear. Finally, the fact that students do not have appropriate models of faculty emails as exchanging emails with other peers is more common, makes the task a matter of trial and error.

If all the above-mentioned is considered from the perspective of EFL learners, the situation becomes even more intricate. Taking into account that request emails not only require a certain level of linguistic competence but awareness of the sociopragmatics behind request production, EFL learners tend to struggle when coping with these aspects. In fact, Nguyen *et al.* (2015, p. 3) explained that 'limited linguistic proficiency, lack of pragmatic sophistication as well as incognisance of how discourse shapes and reflects power relations in the TL culture' makes the writing of emails to faculty members challenging. In the specific case of emails from students to professors, this relationship is conceived as one of unequal power where the professor has an elevated status and institutional power (Economidou-Kogetsidis, 2011). Therefore, students are expected to acknowledge this interplay of status and power by resorting to the right face-saving strategies when formulating a request.

Biesenbach-Lucas (2007) suggested the need for training as it seems that students are left on their own when it comes to appropriately composing emails that satisfy e-politeness. Moreover, the fact that each professor might have their own interpretation of appropriateness, formality and politeness makes it even harder for students to succeed (Biesenbach-Lucas, 2007). Hence, EFL learners need to properly develop a sophisticated pragmatic competence in order to avoid pragmatic failure and violate social norms (Economidou-Kogetsidis, 2015). The following subsection reviews research conducted on

request production in the academic context by exploring studies that deal with both native and non-native speakers of English, and EFL/ESL learners when formulating request emails.

3.2.2 Requestive behaviour in academic emails

Communication between student and professor via email is commonly characterised by the communicative function of requesting. The bulk of research on emails to faculty members is large, as seen in the research by Hartford and Bardovi-Harlig (1996), Chen (2001, 2006), Lee (2004), Duthler (2006), Biesenbach-Lucas (2002, 2004, 2007), Zhu (2012), Burgucu-Tazegül, Han and Engin (2016), and Economidou-Kogetsidis (2011, 2016). As explained by Nguyen (2018), the act of writing to faculty members entails addressing individuals with a higher status, requiring both pragmatic sophistication and critical language awareness to be pragmatically appropriate.

The research conducted by Hartford and Bardovi-Harlig (1996) is considered a pioneering study on the use of requests via email from students to faculty members. The scholars analysed email interaction in terms of linguistic form, the use of mitigation devices, the acknowledgement of degree of imposition, content, time frames and students' explanations for requesting. Emails were divided into negative affect requests (henceforth, NAR), as those not attending to rights and obligations of both parties and, therefore, considered inappropriate and rude, and positive affect requests (henceforth, PAR). Moreover, the study also compared email requests as produced by native and non-native speakers of English. Regarding the linguistic forms employed, findings showed that there was no significant difference between native and non-native speakers. When it comes to the use of

downgraders to mark politeness and mitigate the face-threatening nature of the request, native speakers' NAR and PAR rely on the use of interrogative, conditionals, tense and aspect as well as lexical and phrasal downgraders. However, non-native speakers' NAR tended to use less than one of these politeness markers per request.

Within the same study, a further step was given by Hartford and Bardovi-Harlig (1996) in classifying routine actions of academic life from low to high imposition. The group of low imposition activities included soliciting routine information such as setting appointments which do not require previous preparation, asking for a bibliography, borrowing books, and writing short memos. High imposition requests were those that bend the rules – requiring incomplete grades or the submission of a late paper – and out of time or extra preparation for the faculty member appointments. In this sense, Hartford and Bardovi-Harlig (1996) observed that the level of imposition may play a role in evaluating a request email as NAR or PAR, but only in the case of non-native speakers.

Regarding the content of the email request, non-native speakers' NAR were characterised by a more imposing and non-negotiable time frame, a lack of acknowledgement of the cost of the request and providing personal explanations to justify the request. Hartford and Bardovi-Harlig (1996, p. 67) concluded that in order to reach compliance for the request, 'acknowledgement of the imposition, downgrading the request with mitigators, and generally allowing room for negotiation helps achieve this end'. The lack of mitigation, providing non-institutional reasons and personal needs as well as imposing time frames is portrayed as negative as there is no awareness of the faculty member as a busy individual.

Chen (2001) compared request production by American and Taiwanese students in the USA when contacting professors via email. A total of 60 emails provided by Taiwanese students and 54 from American students were analysed. Following Hartford and Bardovi-Harlig (1996) guidelines for rating impositions, Chen (2001) observed that the main difference between groups when producing requests was found at the level of internal modification. American students resorted more often to past-tense modal verbs, modal verbs and downtoners. Chen (2001) suggested that the use of this sort of internal modification was associated with higher linguistic skills that Taiwanese students had not developed yet. Moreover, Taiwanese students' sociolinguistic background might have influenced their perception of politeness and indirectness. Attributed to the influence of Chinese culture and the use of external modification to achieve politeness, Taiwanese students relied more heavily on external rather than internal modification.

Lee (2004) investigated request production in emails by Chinese EFL university learners to Chinese-speaking and English-speaking teachers in the academic context. The author compared linguistic choice and strategies when formulating requests in English and Chinese by Chinese EFL learners. The analysis of 600 emails showed that participants relied on the use of more direct request strategies when it came to English. Lee (2004) attributed this to the cultural background of Chinese speakers. Moreover, participants' formulation of requests differed depending on the addressee. Results showed subtle differences when emails were sent to Chinese-speaking teachers or English-speaking teachers. Requests sent to the first group are characterised by a higher presence of hedges and explicit performatives while the second group received emails with polite markers such as 'please'. According to Lee

(2004), this email analysis revealed the traditional Chinese value of politeness in student-teacher interaction.

Duthler (2006) compared two mediums for request formulation, those of voicemail and email. 151 participants were randomly assigned to different conditions: email of low and high imposition request elicitation, and voicemail of low and high imposition request elicitation. The goal of the study was to measure the impact of communication in a technological environment in relation to the politeness of requests. Duthler (2006) explained that email communication was affected by the level of imposition of the request to be formulated, while voicemail messages were not affected by this variable. Moreover, participants' writing of emails displayed more adjunct phrases and words as well as more politeness strategies. Duthler (2006) explained this was due to the possibility of editing and planning emails while voicemails lack such possibility. By taking all these into consideration the author was led to suggest that email communication fostered politeness strategies usage.

Chen's (2006) longitudinal study explored the development of email literacy of a graduate Taiwanese student while completing her studies in a U.S. university for two and a half years. The author analysed 168 emails, from which 98 were addressed to faculty members. Findings showed that Ling, the participant, heavily relied on want statements during the early stages of her stay in the U.S. With time, she moved away from this sort of research strategy to query preparatory in the form of the interrogative. This last form moved closer to the target language pragmatic norm of indirectness and politeness. Regarding the use of aggravators and mitigation devices, Ling's early emails were characterised by external modification devices in the form of personal justifications for the request and time limit

impositions. This sort of aggravator portrays a negative image of the addresser and invites the addressee not to comply with the request. Regarding early mitigation devices, Ling relied on apologies and self-humbling. As time passed, Ling preferred to make use of institutionally oriented reasons which were more positively valued when making requests to faculty members. Even though apologising and self-humbling remained, Ling included time flexibility when requesting and imposition acknowledgement, attending to negative politeness.

The studies conducted by Biesenbach-Lucas (2002, 2004) showed that native and non-native speakers writing request emails to faculty members did not show significant differences in terms of directness. Even though this comparison did not reveal a great difference, non-native speakers resorted to direct strategies more frequently than native speakers. Moreover, non-native speakers' requests lacked syntactic modification, leaning toward lexical modification. Biesenbach-Lucas (2007) examined the formulation of request via email of native and non-native speakers of English to faculty members. Following Blum-Kulka, House and Kasper's (1989) speech act analysis, the author analysed email requests sent to American faculty members. In order to do so, 533 email messages from both American and Asian students were collected and examined. When native speakers were faced with low imposition context for email production – such as asking for an appointment or feedback – their tendency was to resort to direct strategies. On the other hand, high-imposition requests, such as extension of a deadline, led to the use of conventionally indirect requests as well as hints. Regarding non-native speakers, a similar trend was observed but with the main difference that fewer hints were used in high-imposition contexts.

Biesenbach-Lucas (2007) explained that students possessed awareness of situational factors when writing emails and that they did not consider all emails as equals. Furthermore, the author suggested that syntactic and lexical modification was subjected to the sort of request strategies employed. There was a tendency to use more politeness strategies when direct requests were produced and less when conventionally indirect were employed. Finally, even though no major differences were observed when analysing the use of request strategies, a qualitative analysis indeed showed differences. Non-native speakers' formulation of request differed in terms of linguistic flexibility, idiomatic expressions, transferring of letter conventions to emails and inappropriate lexical modification. Biesenbach-Lucas (2007) concluded by stating that pedagogical intervention could help non-native students to reach a more pragmatically acceptable use of requests in emails.

Zhu (2012) explored the pragmatic competence of Chinese EFL learners when addressing faculty members. Divided according to their majors, 67 non-English major and 64 English major university students completed a task of email-request elicitation. Findings showed that non-English major students resorted more to direct strategies than indirect strategies in comparison to English major students, making this difference statistically significant. Nonetheless, both groups presented low pragmalinguistic competence as most of the time strategy and modification choice was not appropriate for the context given. Zhu (2012) concluded by stating that proficiency in English might play a role in pragmalinguistic choice and sociopragmatic competence.

Burgucu-Tazegül *et. al* (2016) analysed Turkish EFL university students' emails to their non-native professors in an English as a Medium of Instruction (henceforth, EMI) environment.

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Results, in line with previous research mentioned, revealed an overuse of direct over conventionally indirect strategies when formulating requests as well as an overuse of direct questions and 'want' statements. Moreover, a lack of query preparatory questions and modification devices displayed emails as impolite and direct.

Economidou-Kogetsidis (2011) examined email requests by Greek Cypriot ESL university students to faculty members in terms of appropriateness and internal and external modification, as well as other aspects such as forms of address. 200 emails were collected and classified into two groups: request for information and request for action. Participants resorted to direct strategies – imperative, direct questions and want statements – (91.46%) when formulating requests, especially in the case of requiring information. In the case of requiring action, direct strategies predominated (50.58%) followed by conventionally indirect strategies (43.6%).

Regarding modification devices, internal modification was absent in 40.2% of cases. The use of 'please' was used in 31.5% of cases and consultative devices were employed in 5.5% of the requests. Interestingly, participants resorted to intensifiers to mark the urgency of the request. External modification was characterised by using grounders and 'pre-closing/thanks' (70%). Economidou-Kogetsidis (2011, p. 3206) explained that students' inappropriate use of request strategies and modification devices were perceived 'as out of status as they often fail to observe these deference principles and tend to assume compliance on the part of the addressee'. The author further explored emails by asking English native speaker lecturers their perceptions on such emails. A general trend was observed in evaluating

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the use of imperatives, the lack of mitigating devices and the use of time-intensifiers as negative.

In her follow-up study, Economidou-Kogetsidis (2016) presented the same emails to 24 English speaking lecturers and 25 Greek Cypriot EFL university students in order to compare these two groups' perceptions and evaluations of email politeness and perceived personality of the sender. Confirming what was previously observed (Economidou-Kogetsidis, 2011), lecturers considered these emails as impolite and of an imposing nature, while senders' profile were negatively evaluated. On the contrary, EFL university students assessed these emails more favourably than lecturers. In this sense, learners overlooked important pragmatic aspects such as the imposition and readers' freedom of choice to perform the request, meanwhile highlighting informality (addressing by the first name) as the main source of pragmatic failure. In the light of these findings, Economidou-Kogetsidis (2016, p. 15) concluded that 'learners' L2 pragmatic competence regarding email power-assymetrical requests differs considerably from the pragmatic knowledge of ENSs [English native speakers]'.

More recently, in a line of research addressing collaboration in email writing, Chen and Liu (2021) investigated the effect of reformulations when working in the production of a request email in EFL. More specifically, the focus of their investigation was on learners' deliberations when working in pairs and the effect of noticing over their pragmatic knowledge. One female and one male, both undergraduate students, collaboratively worked to compose an email answering to an internship advertisement. This collaborative writing task elicited the production of a request due to a "schedule conflict" to attend to work. Therefore, the request

act was categorised as being of high power and imposition and far social distance. In pairs, participants composed the email, and, on a later session, they compared it with a reformulated version and a model version, both written by different native speakers. In a final session, participants individually worked on the reformulation of their draft. Participants' deliberations during the collaborative composition and the noticing session – when comparing their draft with other versions – were audio-recorded for later analysis in terms of PREs. Chen and Liu (2021) reported that this pair exclusively focused on pragmalinguistic aspects of the language (address forms and modification devices) when collaboratively composing their email. When comparing their draft with the reformulated version, learners only noticed half of the reformulated aspects. In addition to this, Chen and Liu (2021) commented that this noticing led to progress as evidenced in the analysis of their individual writing (post-test) and the presence of more pragmalinguistic forms than in the pre-test. This study contributed with new insights concerning the role of collaboration in learners' noticing of pragmatic-related issues and the positive effect of this noticing over learners' pragmatic performance.

In summary, addressing requestive behaviour in email communication, that is, attending to learners' pragmatic awareness when facing requests in email communication is of interest. The review of studies on this particular speech act shows that learners of English as a second or foreign language can be highly influenced by their linguistic and cultural background when producing requests in emails. The general tendency is to observe an overuse of direct strategies with a lack of internal modification in cases of high-imposition request formulation. On top of this, learners fail in acknowledging the imposition of the request and tend to impose time constraints. All this leads to pragmatic failure, that is, the

addresser's profile is perceived as negative, and the addressee does not want to comply with the request. Considering these insights provided by research on email communication, we consider that the next step should focus on how learners tackle these pragmalinguistic-and sociopragmatic-related issues as described by the literature. Hence, the next step, as intended in this study, is to explore students' oral interventions when producing request emails to describe their pragmalinguistic choices and sociopragmatic ideas. In doing so, this dissertation considers learners' requestive behaviour by acknowledging the multilingual language background of the participants.

The interplay existing between the multilingual turn, sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic aspects of the language and learners' engagement with languages could provide new insights to the field of applied linguistics. Therefore, this dissertation intends to contribute to this area of study by exploring the pragmatic awareness of Spanish/Catalan speakers who are also learning English as a Foreign Language. In particular, this study approaches awareness through the construct of Engagement with Language as proposed by Svalberg (2009, 2012). In doing so, a more holistic and integrative perspective to learners' construction and use of their pragmatic awareness is being followed. Attention to request production and comprehension in academic email communication allows for further research in the area of written pragmatic production in the classroom as well as the impact of collaborative work on pragmatic awareness development. The main goal of this dissertation is to observe the effect of a collaborative writing task on learners' engagement with the languages and the collaborative opportunities offered for the development of their pragmatic awareness in relation to requestive behaviour in email communication.

3.3   Summary

Section 3.1 further explored the speech act of request by defining it and identifying the two different parts that make up a request: the head act and peripheral elements. Moreover, attention was placed on studies dealing with the use of requests at the written level. Collaborative writing tasks were presented as a potential tool for the teaching and learning of requests, especially for the promotion of pragmatic awareness when working at the written level. Section 3.2 narrows down the scope of research by focusing on academic email production, characterised by the speech act of request. Research on email request between students and faculty members highlighted the importance of addressing e-politeness issues, especially at the sociopragmatic level.

PART II: THE STUDY

Chapter 4. Motivation for the Study

This study is motivated by a number of different but interrelated reasons. Firstly, the LAELA research group, which we are part of, has been contributing to the field of L2 pragmatics for over 20 years (see Safont 2003, 2005, 2008, 2013; Martínez-Flor & Usó-Juan, 2006; Portolés, 2015; Alcón-Soler, 2017; Alcón-Soler & Safont, 2018; Codina-Espurz & Salazar-Campillo, 2019; Martín-Laguna, 2020). The research group's experience and interest on this matter drive the proposal of this doctoral thesis. Authors such as Taguchi (2011a) talk about the importance of distancing from a focus on grammatical competence to acknowledging the relevance of pragmatic competence in the language classroom. In fact, previous studies conducted around this issue reveal that high levels of grammatical awareness do not entail awareness of pragmatic-related phenomena (Bardovi-Harlig & Dörnyei, 1998). Given the importance of attending to the context in which language forms are produced, we consider the study of pragmatic awareness to be a key factor that contributes to learners' development of their communicative competence as a whole. Hence, the current study attempts to provide further insights regarding pragmatic phenomena in language learning and contribute to LAELA's research interest.

Secondly, over the last decades, there has been a growing tendency to consider multilingual development qualitatively and quantitatively different from SLA research (Safont, 2005; Aronin & Hufeisen, 2009). Authors like Cenoz (2003a), Jessner (2006) and Aronin

(2019) explain that the complexity in learners' multilingual language repertoire requires the exploration into multilingual language learners from a more dynamic and holistic perspective. Therefore, our interest in researching pragmatic awareness is also motivated by the need to account for the multilingual reality of our participants. On top of this, Jessner (2008) highlighted pragmatic competence and metalinguistic awareness as a highly developed trait of the multilingual mind. This idea motivates the current research as the need to further investigate pragmatic awareness from a multilingual lens has recently been mentioned by Portolés and Safont (2018) and McConachy (2019). Previous studies such as Safont (2003), Portolés (2015), Safont and Portolés (2016), and Portolés and Safont (2018) acknowledged the study of pragmatic phenomena by considering learners' whole language repertoire and called for more research on this matter.

Finally, we also consider the relevance attributed to learners' affective and individual factors in the study of pragmatic awareness. The notion of engagement has been on the rise for the last couple of years, including research showing the complexity and multidimensionality of this concept (Yang, 2011; Philp & Duchesne, 2016; Lambert, Philp & Nakamura, 2017). Moreover, Svalberg (2009; 2012) refers to the connection which exists between engaging with the language and the development of language awareness. Hence, we see an interface between pragmatic awareness, as a specific case of language awareness, as guided by learners' engagement with the languages (cognitively, affectively and socially) in relation to their multilingual experience. Svalberg's (2009; 2012) construct of Engagement with Language has previously been implemented (Svalberg, 2009; Kearney & Ahn, 2013; Kearney & Barbour, 2015; Ahn, 2016; Baralt *et al.* 2016, Toth, 2020; Svalberg & Askham,

2020; Zhang, 2021) showing its validity as a model. Nonetheless, to the best of our knowledge, the use of this construct from a more pragmatic and multilingual perspective has not yet been done. Therefore, our interest in engagement is moved by the multidimensionality of the concept that allows for the exploration of pragmatic awareness in line with the multilingual reality that language learners experience.

In order to further justify the motivation of the current research, the following subsection highlights key points from previous theoretical chapters. In this way, we provide a straightforward rationale for the study together with the research gaps that we intend to address.

4.1 Rationale for the study

This study approaches awareness from a pragmatic perspective and intends to contribute to the field of multilingual studies by investigating the opportunities for development and co-construction of multilingual learners' pragmatic awareness in collaborative writing through the construct of Engagement with Language.

On the one hand, pragmatic awareness is operationalised following Brown and Levinson's (1978; 1987) theory of politeness. In particular, awareness of the three sociological variables mentioned by the authors: social distance, power, and rank of imposition. In addition, attention is paid to the interpersonal evaluations of the learners (McConachy, 2019; Kádár & Haugh, 2013). The pragmatic feature under analysis is that of requests as they represent the most common speech act in student-professor email exchanges. Under the lens of politeness, requests represent face-threatening acts that require–learners' awareness of

the sociological variables involved when producing them, especially in a higher status kind of relationship (Nguyen, 2018). On the other hand, multilingual learners' engagement is analysed by employing the construct of Engagement with Language (Svalberg, 2009, 2012). This multidimensional and holistic approach to engagement allows for a deeper understanding and examination of learners' verbalisations in pragmatic-related discussion.

The literature on engagement has referred to this as a complex matter that should be approached from different angles. Philp and Duchesne (2016) understand this term beyond a pure cognitive dimension to also include social, behavioural and affective as well. Moreover, they also acknowledge the interdependence of these dimensions where one can be beneficial or detrimental for the other. Research on foreign language learning and engagement has moved away from the one-sided dimension posture, too. While Storch's (2008) study contributed to defining engagement in relation to language development, her stand point was unidimensional, in this case, from a cognitive dimension. Later studies have conceived engagement in its more multidimensional sense such as Yang (2011) and Lambert *et. al* (2017).

In line with the above-mentioned, the construct of Engagement with Language as proposed by Svalberg (2009, 2012) tackles cognitive, affective and social states and processes of engagement. The author highlights the importance of knowledge construction through languaging, perceived as engagement manifestation (Svalberg, 2007). This construction of knowledge is seen as 'the process through which Language Awareness is developed' (Svalberg, 2018, p. 22). Hence, the more engagement there is with the language, the more chances there are that language awareness can be constructed, and vice versa. One way of

promoting learners' languaging is through the use of collaborative writing tasks as they promote language reflection (Storch, 2013) as well as engagement (Shehadeh, 2011; Edstrom, 2015). With a focus on pragmatic-related aspects, collaborative writing tasks could provide further insights into learners' engagement with pragmatic notions as suggested by Swain and Watanabe (2013) and Chen and Hapgood (2019). Finally, the mediation between the three different dimensions of the construct makes Engagement with Language a complex system (Larsen-Freeman, 1997; Svalberg, 2020). To add more to this complexity, the presence of other languages when acquiring an L3, L4 or Lx, should also be accounted for. Therefore, researching Engagement with Language by attending to learners' multilingual profile is both of interest and needed.

Research approaching language awareness development through the analysis of learners' EWL has proliferated in the last decade. At pre-school level, Kearney and Ahn (2013) and Kearney and Barbour (2015) observed children's Engagement with Language at a cognitive, affective and social level as displayed in translation, participation and teacher-student interaction. This engagement adopted the form of both student-and teacher-initiated episodes. At secondary school level, Ahn (2016) found that language play promoted phonological awareness as seen in focused attention, willingness and social interaction among peers. Svalberg and Askham (2020) assessed the impact of consciousness-raising (henceforth, CR) tasks by means of exploring learners' engagement with the language. Among their findings, students reported that CR tasks provided a space for engaging with the language in the form of affordances. The exploration of adults' EWL in online and face-to-face contexts by Baralt *et al.* (2016) showed the effect of affective engagement as a promotor

of cognitive engagement. This interrelationship was also reported by Toth (2020) who claimed that low socio-affective engagement prevented her participants from cognitively engaging and, as a consequence, full exploitation of their language awareness. Further exploration of the mediation of the different dimensions of the EWL can help to throw light on the complexity of the language learning process.

A particular area of language learning and teaching that is frequently disregarded is the development of learners' pragmatic competence. Linguistic and sociocultural understanding of the communicative situation in order to comprehend and convey the implied meaning is key in language learning. Learners can show pragmatic awareness by overtly displaying pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic knowledge (Leech, 1983) to approach pragmatic phenomena. Engaging with language in pragmatic-related languaging can foster the development of learners' pragmatic awareness (see Kim & Taguchi, 2015, 2016). As posited by McConachy and Spencer-Oatey (2020), languaging can promote metapragmatic reflection as well as awareness thanks to the space created for learners' development of pragmatic norms and knowledge. Studies exploring learners' pragmatic awareness have found a need to further encourage this particular area of language learning (Bardovi-Harlig & Dörnyei, 1998; Cook & Liddicoat, 2002; García, 2004; Takimoto, 2012, Nguyen *et al.* 2015; Li & Gao, 2017).

A specific area of interest in pragmatic research is learners' understanding and production of requests. This speech act has received much attention as it requires sophistication and awareness of appropriateness due to its intrinsically threatening nature. In the academic context, the occurrence of requests is higher as seen in student-professor email

exchange. On the one hand, studies have shown a lack of pragmalinguistic knowledge as observed in an overuse of direct strategies and lack of mitigating devices. On the other hand, participants displayed little awareness of imposition and other contextual features at the level of sociopragmatic knowledge when producing requests in emails (Hartford & Bardovi-Harlig, 1996; Chen, 2001, 2006; Lee, 2004; Duthler, 2006; Biesenbach-Lucas, 2002, 2004, 2007; Zhu, 2012; Economidou-Kogetsidis, 2011, 2016).

Few studies have acknowledged the enhanced metalinguistic awareness in combination with the heightened pragmatic competence that characterise multilinguals. Those who have, reported bilinguals excelling in terms of requestive behaviour (Safont, 2003, 2005; Cenoz, 2003, Safont & Alcón, 2012, Portolés, 2015; Portolés & Safont, 2018). Concerning pragmatic-related languaging in multilinguals, Payant and Kim (2015, 2019) observed that in collaborative talk participants relied on their whole language repertoire for task-or language-related purposes. To the best of our knowledge, no studies have explored Engagement with Language as promoting pragmatic awareness. In order to fill this research gap, our goal is to explore learners' pragmatic awareness when developing English as an L3 but considering their other dominant languages as well, namely, Spanish and Catalan.

Attending to the multilingual reality of the study context, our sample consists of multilingual university learners. Seventy-six first year students from degrees in Computer Engineering and Computational Mathematics are taking part in the research. Sixty males and sixteen females aged between 17 to 26 are classified as multilingual due to the existence of, mainly, Catalan and Spanish in their language repertoire. English (Modern Language) is a compulsory subject for all first-year students. All participants have already been exposed to

English as a foreign language through instruction during the previous compulsory education years. Their level of proficiency varies from Elementary to Upper-Intermediate according to the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages.

This study follows a mixed-method approach to the analysis of engagement with languages and pragmatic awareness. As explained by Larsen-Freeman (1997) and Larsen-Freeman and Cameron (2008), research in applied linguistics involves paying attention to changes in complex systems and mixed-method research allows for the exploration of such systems (Hashemi, 2012). The multilingual experience is known to involve complexity and dynamism due to the existence of two or more languages in learners' language repertoire. When dealing with multilingual development, the interplay of social, psycholinguistic, individual factors and language learning mode (Jessner, 2008) all contribute to such complexity. Conducting research from a mixed-method approach enables the exploration and multi-analysis of a complex phenomenon by resorting to numeric information and specific details (Dörnyei, 2007). The combination of quantitative and qualitative data translates into a more detailed picture of the object of study by overcoming the weaknesses of approaching research from an exclusively qualitative or quantitative perspective. In addition to this, Portolés and Safont (2018) explained that mixed-methods research provides a deeper comprehension of findings thanks to triangulation of data. Even though quantitative research has a long history in applied linguistic studies, recent research trends in the field of multilinguals call for the use of qualitative research through techniques such as introspection (Gabryś-Barker 2019). Hence, we consider relevant the implementation of a mixed-methods

research in order to gain a more detailed and complete picture of multilingual learners' pragmatic awareness and EWLs.

For this reason, the research design of this thesis involves the combination of questionnaires, tasks and recordings. Regarding the first type of research instrument, a background information questionnaire is used for the collection of data concerning participants' languages, age of acquisition, attitudes, and other demographic variables. In order to include learners' perception regarding their own EWLs, a questionnaire tackling all dimensions of the construct is completed. Concerning tests, The Oxford Quick Placement Test (henceforth, QPT) (UCLES, 2001) determines participants' level of proficiency in English. In addition to this, a collaborative writing task is designed to elicit requestive behaviour in all languages of study: Spanish, Catalan and English as a foreign language. Learners' oral interaction during the completion of the collaborative writing task is recorded for later conducting a qualitative examination of pragmatic-related languaging through the use of the EWL construct.

4.2   Research questions and hypotheses

Based on the previously mentioned research gaps concerning pragmatic awareness and EWLs from a multilingual perspective, we may ask the following research questions:

- **RQ1:** What is the effect of a collaborative email writing task on multilingual university students' engagement with languages?

- **RQ2:** Do the different dimensions of the engagement with language construct interrelate and mediate each other when learners engage in a collaborative email writing task?

- **RQ3:** Do multilingual learners develop and co-construct their pragmatic awareness when engaged in the collaborative email writing task? If so, how?

The research questions proposed, together with the theoretical review conducted, lead us to suggest the following research hypotheses which will guide us throughout this study:

- **H1:** High levels of cognitive, affective and social engagement will predominate in collaborative work while participants engage with languages in a writing task (Storch, 2008; Shehadeh, 2011; Edstrom, 2015; Baralt *et al.*, 2016, Svalberg & Askham, 2020).

- **H2:** The three dimensions of the EWL construct will operate interdependently with a notable influence of the affective and social dimension on each other (Philp & Duchesne, 2016; Baralt *et al.*, 2016; Svalberg, 2009; 2018, Toth, 2020, Zhang, 2021) within and across languages.

- **H3:** The collaborative email writing task will promote multilingual learners' languaging (Storch, 2005; 2013) in the form of pragmatic discussion (Kim &

Taguchi, 2015; 2016) which will, in turn, offer opportunities for the development of learners' pragmatic awareness (McConachy & Spencer-Oatey, 2020).

- **H4**: Multilingual learners will resort to their whole language repertoire (Payant & Kim, 2015, 2019) to solve pragmatic-related episodes concerning pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic issues, offering opportunities for the development and co-construction of learners' pragmatic awareness across languages.

After having posited the research questions and hypotheses, an accurate description of the sociolinguistic context in which the current study takes place will be provided.

Chapter 5. Method

This chapter provides a description of the research methodology adopted in the current study.

As it is of importance in research adopting a multilingual approach, Section 5.1 describes the

sociolinguistic setting where this study took place. This section includes information

regarding language use in Spain and, more specifically, the Valencian Community. Having

explained the context of study, Section 5.2 introduces the participants and thoroughly

illustrates their characteristics in terms of language knowledge, proficiency, age, and gender.

Finally, Section 5.3 presents the procedure for data collection and the methodological

considerations taken for data analysis. In this section, the study instruments are presented,

and the different stages of data collection and coding are explained.

5.1 Sociolinguistic setting

Spain is a multilingual state due to the co-existence of many languages within its territory:

Spanish, Catalan, Basque, Galician, to name a but a few. The Spanish Constitution of 1978

recognised the official status of these languages spoken in the different autonomous regions.

At the educational level, the Organic Law 2/2006 established the learning of the official and

co-official languages of the territory as well as a foreign language. In the case of the latter,

English has gained strength as the foreign language to learn across all levels and ages. The

Bologna Process has contributed to the need to learn English as it is considered a requisite

not only at university level but also to have access to mobility programs such as Erasmus+.

Hence, multilingual Spain is characterised by the many languages spoken within its borders

and the effort invested by the educational system to teach and learn, mainly, English as foreign

language. Moving the focus now onto the Valencian Community, where our study takes place,

the sociolinguistic situation is quite complex.

Located on the east of the Iberian Peninsula, the Catalan-speaking region of the

Valencian Community (*Castelló, València* and *Alacant*) shows an intricate and sometimes

conflicting relationship between the co-existence of Spanish and Catalan. Historically, Catalan

has always been the main language of the region, spoken in all administrative and social

spheres. From the 16th century onwards, the spread of Spanish all over the state had a negative

impact on the status of Catalan.

Figure 7

Geographical location of the Valencian Community (source
https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Localitzaci%C3%B3_de_la_Comunitat_Valenciana_respecte_a
_Espanya.svg)

The latter became stronger in small towns and rural areas while the presence of Spanish was stronger in larger cities, attributed to higher social classes. Nonetheless, during the 20th century, the situation changed and the use of Catalan increased in formal and informal contexts. Even though this historical dispute between Spanish and Catalan might remain in the minds of some, people are now starting to appreciate the bilingual context in which they live. The following report written by the Valencian Government (2015) shows the language proficiency in Catalan of the population (See Tables 5 and 6).

Table 5

Catalan knowledge in Catalan-speaking region (Adapted from Generalitat Valenciana, 2015, p. 6)

	Understand	Can speak	Can read	Can write
Nothing	3.6%	16,7%	16,2%	36,2%
A little	18.7%	26,8%	26,5%	25,5%
Quite good	28,3%	19%	25,8%	15,5%
Perfectly	49,3%	37,4%	31,4%	22,8%

Table 6

Catalan knowledge in Spanish-speaking region (Adapted from Generalitat Valenciana, 2015, p. 6)

	Understand	Can speak	Can read	Can write
Nothing	23,3%	54,8%	45,9%	67,8%
A little	39,4%	30,5%	30,1%	20,8%
Quite good	28,3%	10,7%	19,1%	8,1%
Perfectly	9%	4%	4,9%	3,3%

Although such numbers seem discouraging, the key is in interpreting them according to regions. In those territories that have always had Catalan as their main language, more than 90% of its population can understand the language and almost 80% can speak it at a high level of proficiency. In the rest of the territory, these numbers vary but remain representative, from 65% to 85% understanding Catalan pretty well and from 44% to 65% being able to communicate properly in an oral way. As for reading and writing, 50% to 70% are able to read in Catalan while 32% to 52% have proficient writing skills. Hence, we can observe the strong presence of Catalan across the Valencian Community, especially in those regions where Catalan has been spoken historically.

The spread of English as an international language makes the Valencian Community a multilingual one. According to the Knowledge and Social Use of the Valencian Language Survey (Generalitat Valenciana, 2015), 36% of the population has some knowledge of the English language. As explained by Aronin (2019), the new linguistic dispensation relies on multilingualism as the principal component of the new sociolinguistic situation around the globe. The Valencian Community is no exception in this new arrangement. Spanish and Catalan have a long history of co-existence in the Valencian territory, and with the addition of English (and other foreign languages) in the school curriculum, this community represents a clear example of a multilingual society.

5.1.1   *Valencian educational system*

To fully comprehend the sociolinguistic situation of the Valencian Community, a description of the integration of languages in the educational system is necessary. The organic Law

2/2006 established two main objectives concerning language learning in Spain: 1) learning the official and, if any, co-official languages of the community and 2) learning one or more foreign languages. In the Valencian Community, a Law passed in 1983 regulated the teaching of Catalan across all levels. In those Valencian regions where Spanish was mainly spoken, such integration of Catalan would be done progressively. This led to the organisation of different linguistic programs in the Valencian educational system. Three main streams have predominated, namely, *Programa d'Incorporació Progresiva* (henceforth, PIP), *Programa d'Immersió Lingüística* (henceforth, PIV) and *Programa d'Educació en Valencià* (henceforth, PEV):

1. *PIP:* Instruction begins in Spanish for the later progressive introduction of Catalan.

2. *PIL:* Catalan is used as the means of instruction from the very beginning, and Spanish is later introduced.

3. *PEV:* Entirely in Catalan with only a 10% of Spanish in its syllabus.

In 2012, these streams were reduced to just two: *Programa Plurilingüe d'Ensenyament en Castellà* (henceforth, PPEC), in which the main language of instruction is Spanish, and *Programa Plurilingüe d'Ensenyament en Valencià* (henceforth, PPEV), being Catalan the vehicular language of instruction. The motivation behind these two new programs was the promotion of plurilingual practices in Valencian schools (from infant to secondary education and non-university levels). The English language was also incorporated into these programs as both: a foreign language subject and a language of instruction in a minimum of one content-subject. Nowadays, there is just one program as regulated by the new 4/2018 Law of the Valencian Government: *Programa d'Educació Plurilingüe i Intercultural* (PEPLI). Catalan

and Spanish are promoted together with one or more foreign languages, along with the acknowledgment of the home language of the students. As this program is quite recent, it is still being progressively introduced into the Valencian educational system.

Even though participants of this investigation study at university level, we consider it of importance to describe the educational system in which they were educated before accessing university. Based on the years they were in secondary education, PEV was most certainly the program they followed. Nonetheless, in practice, they were enrolled in either a Spanish-based or a Catalan-based learning program (PPEC and PPEV). Having explained the organisation of the linguistic programs in compulsory education, the following subsection describes the linguistic policy of *Universitat Jaume I.*

5.1.2   *University context*

The study takes place in Universitat Jaume I (henceforth, UJI), located in Castelló de la Plana in the northern part of the Valencian Community (see Figure 8). Castelló de la Plana is a Catalan-speaking region where around 90% of its population understand Catalan and 66% can speak it at high levels of proficiency. The UJI was founded in 1991 and has more than 13,685 students enrolled on the different degrees, masters, and doctoral programs as well as other university courses that are offered.

In matters of linguistic policy, the UJI follows three main principles:

1. *Linguistic equality:* Encouraging the use of Catalan as the language for teaching in order to reach linguistic equality with the Spanish language.

2. *Linguistic subsidiarity:* Making use of Catalan in the academic and institutional context.

3. *Linguistic guarantee:* Establishing beforehand the language to be employed in a subject in an open-access document that serves as a contract between professor and students.

The official university language is Catalan, therefore its use is encouraged at the administrative and educational level. Even though the language to be employed during the lessons can be determined by the teacher in the syllabus (previously accepted by the corresponding authorities of the different departments), there is enough flexibility to bring other languages into the classroom if needed (for example, material presented in the original language of publication).

The UJI promotes a multilingual university by integrating different languages in its daily academic, administrative and educational life. The knowledge and use of foreign languages are achieved by the inclusion of English as a language for teaching, researching and communicating within the university community. The educational model proposed by the UJI enumerates ten principles of which one directly refers to such commitment to multilingualism:

- *Commitment to Catalan as the institutional language and to multilingualism*: By applying the linguistic principle of subsidiarity, the university promotes the use of, firstly, Catalan as the official language for communication, teaching and researching, together with Spanish, English and all other languages of scientific and social interest.

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Figure 8

Geographical location of Castelló de La Plana and Universitat Jaume I (source https://commons.wikimedia.org/wiki/File:Localitzaci%C3%B3_de_Castell%C3%B3_de_la_Plan a_respecte_del_Pa%C3%ADs_Valenci%C3%A0.png).
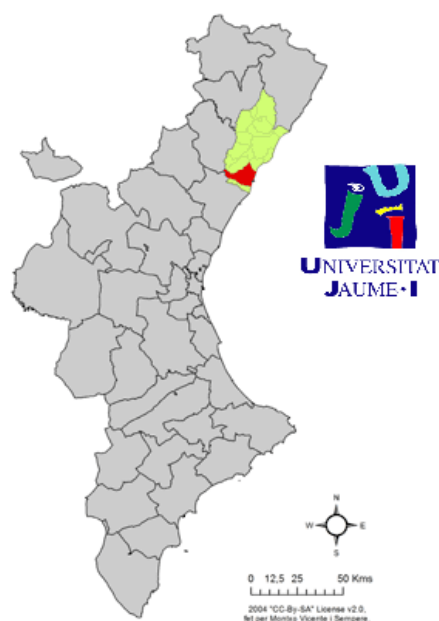
In order to promote and encourage the multilingual profile of the university, different programs provide support for the fostering of Catalan, Spanish and English. Firstly, there is a specific multilingual program for each degree devoted to regulating the use of all three languages. Spanish and Catalan are mainly employed but the use of English is highly encouraged. Secondly, the existence of a program dedicated to the training and certification of faculty staff. The University offers language courses for all levels of proficiency as well as the possibility of sitting for official language exams to obtain a language certificate. Finally,

professors' commitment to multilingualism by incorporating English and Catalan in their teaching is acknowledged and rewarded.

The promotion of the English language is not only achieved through English-Medium Instruction. Apart from English Studies, Translation and Interpreting and some other degrees, during the first or second year, English is taught as a language subject. The course adopts the shape of English for Specific Purposes (henceforth, ESP) and is common and compulsory to all students of each degree.
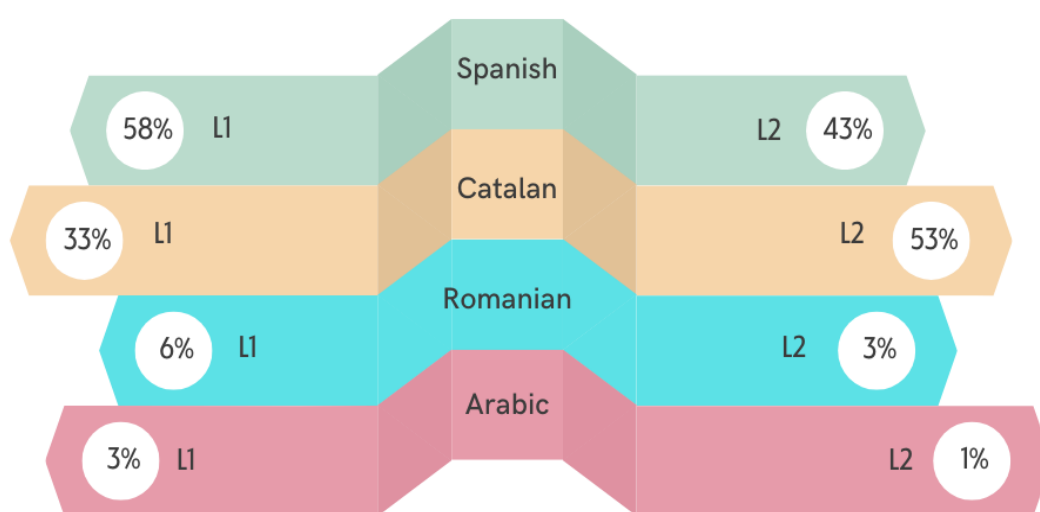
5.2   Participants

The current research project has undergone evaluation by the Ethics Committee of Universitat Jaume concerning the ethical considerations of the study. Participants were all communicated that their answers and deliberations were going to be source of data for a research project. They were given the option to either accept or decline their participantion. They all agreed on taking part on the study and, therefore, signed the corresponding documents as provided and approved by the Ethics Committee of Universitat Jaume I.

Participants were 76 first year university students from two degrees: Bachelor's Degree in Mechanical Engineering and Bachelor's Degree in Computational Mathematics. Convenience sampling made up the target sample and data were collected during students' daily sessions through their compulsory classroom activities with prior authorisation. They were all enrolled in the subject Modern English, which follows an English for Specific Purposes syllabus. The age of participants ranged from 17 to 26 years with a mean age of 18.39 years (SD = 1.684). The sample included 79% ($n = 60$) male and 21% ($n = 16$) female respondents.

With regards to their language background, 58% (n = 44) of the participants reported Spanish as their L1, 33% (n = 25) Catalan, 6% (n = 5) Romanian and 3% (n = 2) Arabic. Concerning L2, 53% (n = 40) spoke Catalan, 43% (n = 33) Spanish, 3% (n = 2) Romanian and 1% (n = 1) Arabic (See Figure 9).

Figure 9

L1 and L2 of sample.

English represented the L3 for 90% of the participants and the L4 for 10% of them. The level of proficiency in English ranged from Elementary to Advanced (A2 to C1 according to the Common European Framework of Reference) as indicated by The Oxford Quick Placement Test (UCLES, 2001) (See Figure 10). 80% of participants (n = 61) reported having learnt English at school while a 20% (n = 15) also complemented their learning with private academies. The hours of exposure to the English language varied a lot among participants, from 2 to 21 hours per week (M = 7.26, SD = 3.873). In addition to this, participants' motivation to learn English

was quite different with 41% (*n* = 31) strictly studying it as demanded by their degree and professional career, 32% (*n* = 24) to get a certificate, 16% (*n* = 12) because they considered the learning of English cultural enrichment and 10% (*n* = 8) just for pleasure. Only a 9% (*n* = 7) of the sample experienced a stay abroad in an English-speaking country of 1 to 8 months (*M* = 2.57, SD = 2.507). Finally, a 21% (*n* = 16) of the participants commented that they were learning or knew other foreign languages such as French, Italian or German.

Figure 10

Proficiency in English L3/L4 of sample.

A Lower intermediate
B Upper-intermediate
C Elementary
D Advanced
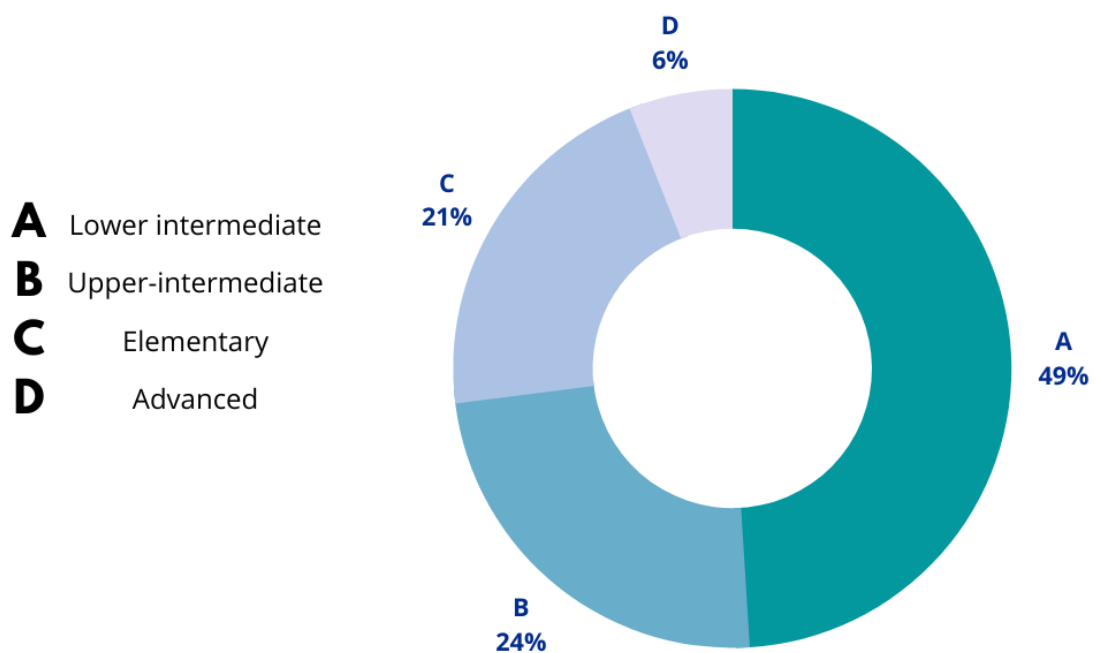
The current study considered participants to be multilinguals as all of them were at least bilingual speakers of Spanish and Catalan, and some of them even of a heritage language like Romanian or Arabic, while learning English as an L3/L4.

5.3   Data Collection and analysis

Prior to formal data collection and analysis, a pilot study was conducted. It took place in the second semester of the academic course 2018-2019 in Universitat Jaume I. A total of 14 participants from the Bacherlor's degree in Preschool Education volunteered for the pilot study. Thanks to it, the study design was reconsidered in relation to the steps and the timing needed to complete the questionnaires and the main task. In addition, instruments were reassessed to make them shorter and clearer regarding content. For example, questionnaires were rewritten to be more comprehensible and reader-friendly. Finally, EWL was originally going to be described holistically following a rubric, but the experience from the pilot study showed the need to design a proper EWL framework for the analysis of the transcriptions.

Formal data collection took place between the months of September and November of 2019 (academic course 2019-2020) during participants' timetabled English lessons. Participants were distributed into four groups according to the planning of the departments involved in the two bachelor's degrees. The researcher had no influence or power to modify these groups. Data gathering took two sessions (four hours) per group, that is, a total of 16 hours. All instruments employed were administered during class time.

The current study adopted a mixed-method approach, employing elicited and semi-naturalistic data. Research adopting a multilingual perspective commonly approaches data gathering and analysis following a mixed-method technique. This is so that the multilingual experience entails complexity and dynamism, which is best captured through the combination of elicited and naturalistic data. Moreover, the field of multilingualism has called for more qualitative research (Gabryś-Barker, 2019) in order to portray a real and accurate picture of

the multilingual learner. Regarding pragmatic awareness development, approaching data from a qualitative perspective allows for particularization (van Lier, 2005; as seen in van Compernolle, 2019) and the possibility of providing 'contextualized, situated accounts of individual developmental trajectories' (van Compernolle, 2019, p. 890). Hence, the current study stakes itself mainly on qualitative data for the description of participants' engagement with languages and pragmatic awareness.

In the first session, a background questionnaire was given out to gather information concerning participants' language learning history and language use as well as factual questions dealing with age, gender and level of education (see: Appendix 1). The questionnaire was created considering Dornyei's (2007) suggestions regarding length and time (4-6 pages maximum and no more than half an hour), layout (booklet format and a page not too crowded) and item sequencing, leaving sensitive information such as level of education for the end of the questionnaire. After the completion of the questionnaire, participants took The Oxford Quick Placement Test (UCLES, 2001) in order to assess their level of proficiency in English. The test consisted of 40 items addressing different language aspects, namely, grammar, vocabulary and text comprehension. Even though this language test mainly tackled linguistic competence, leaving other competences such as pragmatic competence aside, its implementation was necessary as proficiency is a relevant variable to consider. Data from both the questionnaire and the test was transferred into a database.

In the second session, students were paired up based on their level of proficiency in English in order to engage in a collaborative writing task (see: Appendix 2). Dyads consisted of students with the same level of proficiency, or at least one of them with a slightly better

proficiency. This was done in order to avoid a huge gap that could prevent low proficiency learners to engage due to intimidation or high proficiency learners taking over the task. During class time, participants were divided into two big groups based on their level of proficiency. Instructions were given so that a student from one group would work with a student from the other group. The researcher did not arrange the pairs but did mark an original division of the whole sample in two groups according to proficiency level in English. Due to the odd number of participants, in all four groups there was a trio. In total, four trios were part of the sample.

The collaborative writing task consisted of three different situations, one for each language under analysis, namely, Spanish, Catalan and English. Each scenario presented was controlled according to the three sociological variables mentioned by Brown and Levinson (1978; 1987). All situations were of high imposition, status and social distance as the interaction was between student and a faculty member. In each description, participants were asked to send an email that elicited a request regarding a situation that needed to be solved. Drawing on Hartford and Bardovi-Harlig's (1996) classification of routine actions of academic life of high imposition, the scenarios were based on situations that were likely to happen and related to the academic context of the university. For instance, the following prompt was presented for the task in English:

You are in England as part of the Erasmus programme. The first day of class at your new university, you realise that you have enrolled in a subject that you cannot validate when returning to the UJI. The enrolment period is closed and

*you cannot change the subject! You decide to email the **enrolment manager** of*

*your new university to explain the situation and **ask for a subject change.***

In the case of the task in Spanish, students were asked to write an email to a professor asking for a deadline extension for a final project. When working on the task in Catalan, students had to write an email to the head of the department asking for a change of dates for two exams that were placed on two consecutive days. Before the beginning of the task, participants received brief instructions on the collaborative writing tasks: a definition, its procedure and what is not part of a collaborative task. A handout with the three different prompts was given. Students were instructed to orally discuss and exchange ideas when writing the three different emails. However, they could only do so with their partner, not with other dyads. While solving the task, one student was in charge of handwriting the final version of the email. Students were encouraged to use whatever language they wanted, independently of the language of the task. The use of dictionaries or dividing the amount of work between the two partners was not permitted. The task had a duration of 30 to 45 minutes.

The main purpose of employing a collaborative task was to obtain semi-naturalistic data in the form of oral interaction and to analyse participants' requestive behaviour and its potential effect on their pragmatic awareness. The collaborative writing task served as a tool to elicit conversation between participants. Such interaction was recorded and later transcribed in order to explore learners' development and co-construction of their pragmatic awareness through the construct of EWL. Participants were asked to use their own mobile

phone devices to record their conversation while completing the task. The recordings were sent to the researcher once the task was finished.

This semi-naturalistic data allowed for a deeper understanding of the cognitive, affective and social processes that are undertaken in pragmatic-related decision making. Bardovi-Harlig (2010) encouraged the use of this type of interaction in pragmatic research as it blurs the line between elicited and naturalistic data. Furthermore, Nguyen (2019) called on the underrepresentation of this technique in L2 pragmatic research. In addition to this, this verbalized data is also of great use in multilingual research as it shows the different ways in which multilingual speakers process and activate their languages and for what purposes (Gabryś-Barker, 2019). Hence, the implementation of a collaborative writing task allowed for languaging that can be studied in terms of learners' pragmatic awareness and the cross-linguistic influences across language systems.

After students finished the collaborative writing task, they were asked to fill in a post-task questionnaire which dealt with their self-perception of their engagement with languages (see: Appendix 3). Such questionnaire was designed for the purpose of the study based on Svalberg's (2009; 2012) construct. The questionnaire consisted of 18 items that were developed from the three dimensions of the EWL framework, namely, cognitive, affective and social (See Table 2, Chapter 1). Each dimension was described in terms of their three features as proposed in the original construct. For each of the three stated traits, two questions were developed: one in the form of a "positive" statement and another in the form of a "negative" statement. In this way, that specific item could be double checked for reliability in

participants' responses. Hence, each dimension ($n = 3$) consisted of three traits ($n = 3$) from which two statements per trait were written ($n = 18$) (See Table 7).

Table 7

Statement on cognitive, affective and social engagement based on Svalberg (2009; 2012).

Cognitive engagement	Characteristic
1. I am alert when doing the task	Alert
2. I find it difficult to pay attention when doing the task	Alert
3. I can focus on the demand of the task	Focused
4. I tend to ramble when I try to focus on what the task requires	Focused
5. I can reflect in order to solve the task	Reflective
6. I avoid reasoning when doing the task	Reflective
Affective engagement	
7. I want to participate in the task	Willingness
8. I avoid participating in the task	Willingness
9. I am determined to do the task	Purposeful
10. I ramble when doing the task	Purposeful
11. I can control my contribution to the task	Autonomy
12. I barely control how I influence the task	Autonomy
Social engagement	
13. I interact with my classmate	Interactive
14. I avoid speaking with the other person during the task	Interactive
15. I want to share what I know with my classmate	Supportive
16. I avoid exchanging ideas with my classmate	Supportive

17. I want to be the first to start working on the task	Leader/follower
18. I avoid taking the first step when working on the task	Leader/follower

The original questionnaire was administered in Spanish and Catalan to make sure participants understood each statement properly. Moreover, the 18 items described above were presented in a different, random order. Participants were asked to complete it taking into consideration the task they had just done and how they have interacted with the other person. Each of the statements required a yes (✓) or no (X) answer, and for each of the languages they employed. Therefore, for each statement, three yes or no answers were expected.

An engaged student is one that agrees to those statements formulated in a "positive" way, including verbs such as "want", "determine" or "can". On the other hand, a disengaged student disagrees with the above-mentioned statements and opts for "negative" statements making use of verbs such as "avoid" or "ramble". The analysis of the questionnaire started by pairing each "positive" statement with its "negative" counterpart. If there is a match between agreeing with a positive statement and disagreeing with its negative counterpart, then a point (1) was given. For example, when one agrees with "sharing with the classmate" (social engagement, supportive) and disagrees with "avoid exchanging ideas" (social engagement, supportive), a point (1) was given. On the contrary, no points (0) were given if the participant agrees with a negative statement and disagrees with its positive counterpart or if they only agree or disagree within the same positive-negative pair. That is, when a participant mentioned that they agreed with "participating on the task" (affective engagement,

willingness) but at the same time they agreed with "avoid participating on the task" (affective engagement, willingness).

For each of the dimensions, participants could obtain a maximum of 3 points: 0 points meant "no engagement", 1 point "low engagement", 2 points "high engagement" and 3 points "full engagement". Then, an average between the three dimensions provided the punctuation for the overall engagement, that is, engagement analysed holistically taking into account the cognitive, affective and social dimension under one engagement. This is the codification employed in the SPSS programme. Once transferred to the database, a Wilcoxon signed-rank test was implemented in order to assess whether the mean ranks of engagement differed among dimensions and languages. This statistical procedure was chosen as engagement was coded following a rank order and the data did not follow a normal distribution. As we were comparing means, this non-parametric procedure was the appropriate one. Research on applied linguistics usually implements a Wilcoxon signed-ranked test as a non-parametric alternative to T-test. In both cases, these procedures are mostly employed in pre-post-test studies to observe differences in means. Even though we did not apply the test for this purpose, a Wilcoxon signed-rank test was useful as, ultimately, we were comparing means despite not being obtained in two points in time.

As a follow-up, participants' EWL values were correlated within and across languages in order to explore the extent to which the different dimensions interrelate. In order to do so, a Spearman's rank order correlation was applied as this non-parametric procedure allows for an examination of the relationship between variables. Moreover, as we were dealing with ordinal data, Spearman's rank order correlation was the most appropriate statistical analysis

to conduct. In order to interpret the strength of the correlation, we followed Hopkins' (2002) scale (See Table 8).

Table 8

Scale to interpret strength of correlation (Taken from Hopkins, 2002).

	Trivial	Small	Moderate	Large	Very large	Nearly perfect	Perfect
Correlation	0.0	0.1	0.3	0.5	0.7	0.9	1

We have opted to follow the above-mentioned scale as it captures effects that might be considered unexplored by Cohen's (1988) scale: 0.5 and above large, between 0.5 and 0.3 moderate, 0.3 and 0.1 small and 0.1 or less insubstantial.

Concerning the qualitative data, out of the 64 pairs and 4 trios, the oral interaction of 15 randomly chosen pairs (almost 40% of the total number of participants) was transcribed for its later analysis following transcription conventions in discourse analysis (see: Appendix 4). The total corpus consisted of 6 hours and 37 minutes including 34,725 words of audio-recorded interaction. Each pair provided three audio-recordings ($M = 08:49$), one per each language under analysis ($n = 45$). A framework for Engagement with Language episodes was proposed for the examination of students' co-construction and opportunities for development of their language and, in particular, pragmatic awareness. While the study of pragmatic awareness development entails a longitudinal investigation over time, this thesis approaches this development as 'the ways in which meta-pragmatic awareness can be

developed within relatively short stretches of classroom discourse' (Cazden, 2001 as seen in McConachy, 2012, p. 5). Hence, signs of development are evidenced in interaction as verbalised in participants' engagement with the languages.

The original version of the EWL construct was employed for the design of the self-perceived EWL questionnaire for the collection of quantitative data, while a framework following this construct was created for the specific examination of the co-construction of participants' awareness in discourse. The proposed framework followed the key characteristics of EWL and Svalberg's (2009) analysis of the three dimensions as states and processes as well as including insights from research on engagement (Philp & Duchesne, 2016; Baralt *et al.*, 2016; Oga-Baldwin, 2019). The purpose behind the adaptation of the construct responded to the need to provide a more straightforward description for the analysis and presentation of student-student interaction. The original EWL construct suggested to approaching each dimension in the form of questions such as "How alert is the learner?" (Svalberg, 2009; 2012). We considered that the possible answers to this type of question would be too general for proper analysis of classroom interaction. Therefore, we reformulated the description of each dimension by providing a definition for the cognitive, affective and social states and processes of engagement. Table 9 presents the proposed EWL framework for approaching student-student interaction.

Table 9

Proposed EWL framework for describing classroom interaction.

	Cognitive	Affective	Social
State	Heightened alertness and focused attention.	Positive and goal-oriented disposition towards the language	Eagerness to interact and support others.
Process	Reflective and critical approach to the language: noticing, comparing, offering alternatives, questioning and drawing conclusions.	Participating and interacting with the language displaying willingness and agency.	Initiating and maintaining interaction: negotiation and scaffolding.

This framework was implemented for the analysis of pragmatic-related episodes (PREs). In the current study, a PRE took place whenever participants engaged in discussing pragmatic-related aspects concerning email request writing. Students would engage in conversation addressing the pragmalinguistic forms or the sociopragmatic variables to consider when writing the request email.

Therefore, a PRE involved learners' verbalisation of both pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic issues (Kim & Taguchi, 2015; 2016). Due to the variability between pairs in their formulation of PREs, the length of the episode could consist of just one isolated turn or

several exchanges. The beginning of the episode was marked by the formulation of the

pragmalinguistic form or a comment, question or doubt concerning a sociopragmatic notion.

In the case of the pragmalinguistic form, the PRE could further develop in the negotiation of

that particular pragmatic feature or just consist of the co-construction of the form without

active deliberation. Independently of the pragmatic target, the PRE was perceived as a

pragmatic problem to solve. Two possible outcomes could mark the end of the episode: 1)

the (in)correct resolution of the episode or 2) a change of topic. The following interaction

illustrates a PRE targeting a pragmalinguistic aspect:

Example 1

Pragmatic-related episode.

```
01.      S95:  Thank you and I hope you:::
02.      S93:  I hope… No, no puedo poner "this could be solved"
               porque lo hemos puesto.
03.      S95:  No, espero tu respuesta. And I hope your answer.
04.      S93:  Vale. Ok.
05.      S95:  En la línea de abajo. Sí.
06.      S93:  And I will be waiting for your answer?
07.      S95:  Sí.
```

The beginning of the PRE was marked by the pragmalinguistic form addressing the

closing sentence of the email consisting of thanking and signalling the expectation of a reply.

The body of the episode developed around this form where both partners negotiated the final

structure throughout six turns. The end of the PRE was marked by their agreement in the final

pragmalinguistic structure.

Once the PRE was identified, each turn was described and examined following the EWL

framework for describing classroom interaction. Students' contributions were categorised as

evidence of cognitive, affective or social engagement. Taking Example 1 as a reference, the

episode was qualitatively examined as follows:

Example 2

PRE analysis through the EWL construct.

	Student–student interaction	EWL dimension
01.	S95: Thank you and I hope you:::	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives). ▪ Affective: Goal-oriented – Willingness.
02.	S93: I hope… *No, no puedo poner* this could be solved *porque lo hemos puesto.*	▪ Cognitive: Alert – Critical (noticing). ▪ Affective: Goal-oriented – Willingness. ▪ Social: Supportive – Negotiation.
03.	S95: *No, espero tu respuesta.* And I hope your answer.	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives). ▪ Affective: Goal-oriented – Willingness. ▪ Social: Interactive – Negotiation
04.	S93: *Vale.* Ok.	▪ Social: Interactive – Negotiation.
05.	S95: *En la línea de abajo. Sí.*	▪ Cognitive: Alert – Reflective (noticing). ▪ Affective: Goal-oriented – Willingness. ▪ Social: Supportive – Opportunity for scaffolding.
06.	S93: And I will be waiting for your answer?	▪ Cognitive: Alert – Reflective (questioning). ▪ Affective: Goal-oriented – Willingness. ▪ Social: Supportive – Opportunity for scaffolding.
07.	S95: *Sí.*	▪ Social: Supportive – Opportunity for scaffolding.

The implementation of the EWL construct in the analysis of S95 and S93 interaction illustrates the three dimensions of the framework. The cognitive dimension was exemplified in the provision of alternatives for the pragmalinguistic forms (lines 1 and 3), in noticing a problem with these forms (line 2) and layout of the request email (line 5), and in questioning language-related decisions (line 6). Affective engagement was evidenced in S95's and S93's willingness to interact with the language by adopting a goal-oriented attitude focused on the resolution of the pragmatic-related problem. Finally, both partners' social engagement mediated the resolution of the problem by engaging in negotiation (lines 2 to 4) and opportunities for scaffolding (lines 5 to 7) through active support and interaction between them.

Figure 11

Summary of data collection and analysis.
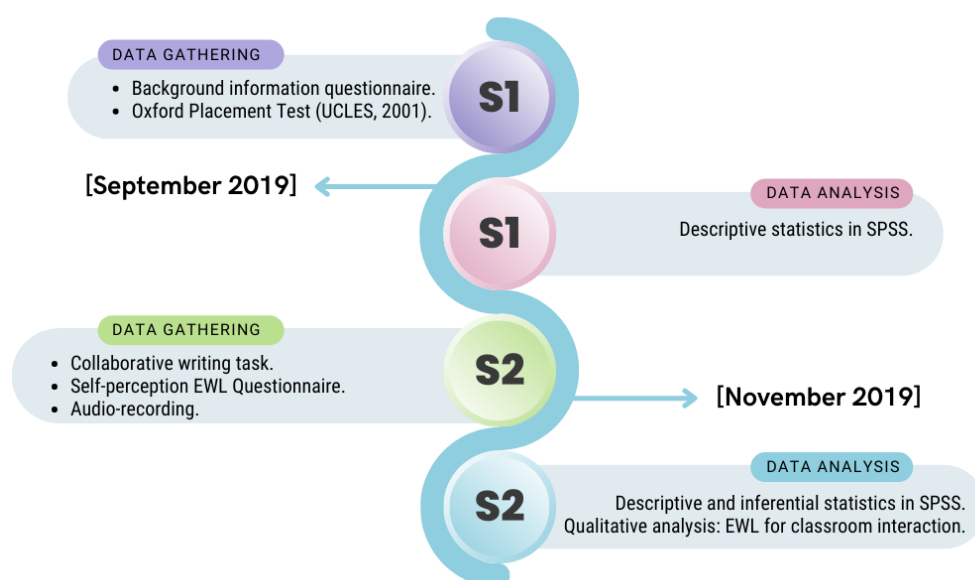
*S1: Session 1 ** S2: Session 2

In sum, the current research opted for the collection of data of a quantitative and qualitative nature (See Figure 11). By means of questionnaires, information related to language use, proficiency and demographic background as well as participants' self-assessment of their engagement with language was gathered. The implementation of three collaborative writing tasks in three different languages gave access to participants' verbalisation which was recorded and transcribed to be analysed in terms of EWL and pragmatic awareness. The following section presents the results of the present study together with the discussion of the findings.

Chapter 6. Study Results and Discussion

This chapter presents the results of the study and discusses findings. Section 6.1 responds the first research question where the answers given to the Self-Perceived Engagement with Language Questionnaire provide an image of learners' Engagement with Languages. The assessment of learners' engagement with Spanish, Catalan, and English is contrasted with the first hypothesis that predicted high levels of engagement in the resolution of the collaborative writing task. Section 6.2 responds the second research question whether there is mediation between cognitive, affective, and social states of engagement as reported by learners. The second hypothesis predicted an interrelationship between all dimensions and, in particular, the social and affective component of the construct of EWL. Section 6.3 describes the findings that respond to the third research question to whether multilingual students would engage in the co-construction of their pragmatic awareness while working on the collaborative writing task and how. Hypothesis 3 predicted languaging that would provide opportunities for the development of learners' pragmatic awareness. In line with this, Section 6.4 extends on the third research question and describes hypothesis 4 which suggested the use of learners' whole language repertoire when solving pragmatic-related episodes, which would benefit learners' pragmatic awareness across languages.

6.1 Results and discussion related to research question 1 and hypothesis 1

The first research question inquired into the effect that a collaborative email writing task has on participants' engagement with languages. In the first hypothesis it was predicted that high

levels of cognitive, affective and social engagement would be displayed as a result of participants working on the writing task (Storch, 2008; Shehadeh, 2011; Edstrom, 2015; Baralt *et al.*, 2016; Svalberg & Askham, 2020; Zhang, 2021). We resorted to two data sources to test this hypothesis: 1) the self-perceived EWLs questionnaire, and 2) the transcripts from student-student interaction in the collaborative writing task.

In the first place, the responses to the 18 different statements from the questionnaire were transferred to the database. For each of the three dimensions of the EWL construct, participants could obtain a maximum of 3 points for cognitive, affective and social engagement. Aside from the values of each individual dimension, we also obtained the "overall engagement", which represents one unique value resulting from the average of all three dimensions. Descriptive statistics showed that participants collaboratively worked with all three languages at a high level of engagement. The sample (n = 76) reported high levels of cognitive, affective and social engagement in all languages under investigation (See Table 10). A qualitative analysis of the transcripts provided further support of this. Based on these findings, the first hypothesis was confirmed, as we had expected high levels of engagement in all three dimensions of the EWL construct.

Table 10

Engagement overall and per dimension values.

	Engagement with Spanish	*Engagement with Catalan*	*Engagement with English*
Overall engagement mean	2.42	2.41	2.24
Median	2.5	2	2

Mode	3			3			2		
Engagement per dimension	Cog.	Aff.	Soc.	Cog.	Aff.	Soc.	Cog.	Aff.	Soc.
Mean	2.42	2.47	2.33	2.49	2.39	2.32	2.13	2.26	2.16
Median	3	3	2	3	3	2	2	2	2
Mode	3	3	2	3	3	2	3	3	2

* **Cog.** = Cognitive engagement; **Aff.** = Affective engagement; **Soc.** = Social engagement.

Firstly, the values for the overall engagement in each of the languages under analysis is presented in order to later provide a detailed description of each of the dimensions for each language. Finally, the means of each dimension of the EWL construct and the value of overall engagement are compared so as to assess differences across languages.

6.1.1   Spanish, Catalan, and English: "Overall engagement"

The values of the overall Engagement with Spanish, Catalan and English are presented and discussed. As previously explained, the overall Engagement with Language is represented as one unique value as a result of considering cognitive, affective and social engagement. The EWL construct is multidimensional and, even though its dimensions are presented and analysed in isolation, engagement should be approached holistically. Firstly, the values of the overall Engagement with Languages are explained. Later, the mean values are compared by applying a Wilcoxon signed-rank test, a non-parametric procedure to assess statistically significant differences when dealing with ranked data.

Considering the responses to the questionnaire, the mean for the overall Engagement with Spanish was of 2.42 (SD = .638), for Catalan of 2.41 (SD = .615) and, finally, for English of 2.24 (SD = .728) (See Table 11 and Figure 12). Hence, Engagement with Spanish, Catalan

and English presented high values. Despite this positive level of EWL, Engagement with English exhibited a lower value in comparison with Spanish and Catalan. In order to observe whether this difference was significant, a Wilcoxon signed-rank test was applied. Indeed, the test showed a statistically significant difference between Engagement with English and Spanish $Z = -2.105$, $p = .035$ with a low effect size $r = .24$, as well as with Catalan $Z = -1.962$, $p = .05$ also with a low effect size $r = .22$. Overall, participants were less engaged with English than they were with Catalan and Spanish, and this difference proved to be statistically significant.
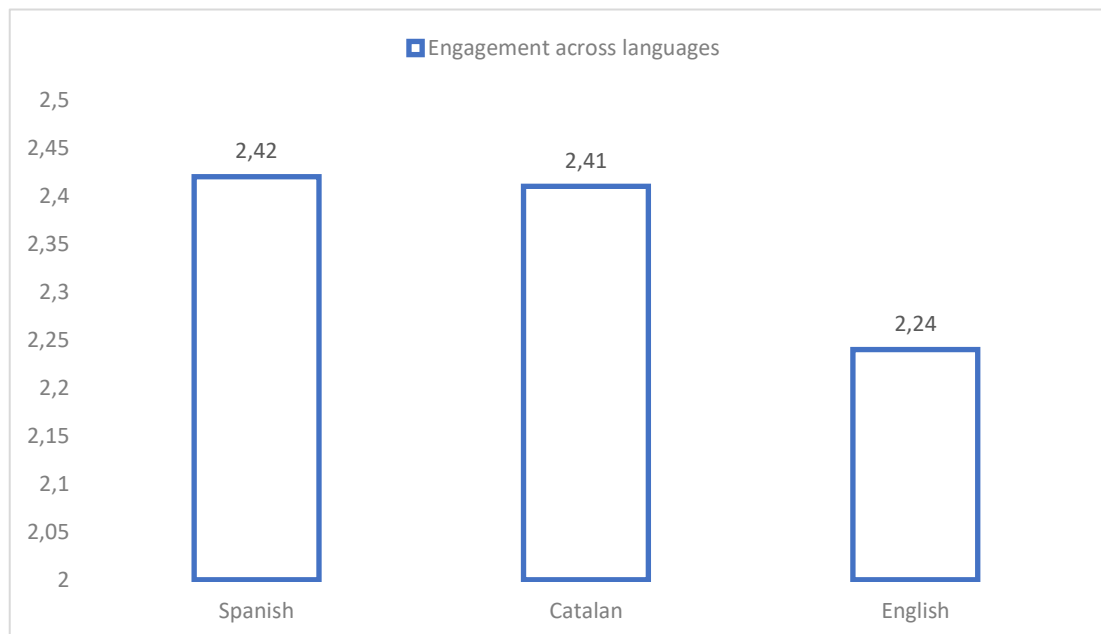
Table 11

Overall engagement across languages

	Overall Engagement with Spanish	Overall Engagement with Catalan	Overall Engagement with English
Mean	2.42	2.41	2.24
Median	2.50	2.00	2.00
Mode	3	3	2
Standard Deviation	.638	.615	.728

Figure 12

Values of overall engagement across languages.

6.1.2 Engagement with Spanish

After coding the answers provided to the self-perceived Engagement with Language questionnaire, the sample reported the following values with regards to Engagement with Spanish. In the case of cognitive engagement, one person (1.3%) showed no engagement at all. Low cognitive engagement was observed in 9.2% ($n = 7$) of participants and high engagement in 35.5% ($n = 27$). The remaining 54% ($n = 41$) of learners reported full cognitive engagement when working on the collaborative email writing task in Spanish. Regarding the affective dimension, low levels of engagement were observed in 10.5% ($n = 8$) of participants, high in 31.5% ($n = 24$) and full in 57.9% ($n = 44$). With regard to social engagement, one participant (1.3%) was categorised as having no engagement, 9.2% ($n = 7$) low engagement, and 44.7% ($n = 34$) high and full social engagement were equally displayed. Finally, approaching Engagement with Spanish in a more holistic sense, that is, the value of the overall engagement, 50% of the sample ($n = 38$) showed full engagement, while 42.1% ($n = 32$) high engagement and only 7.9% ($n = 6$) low engagement. Figures 13 to 16 summarise this data.
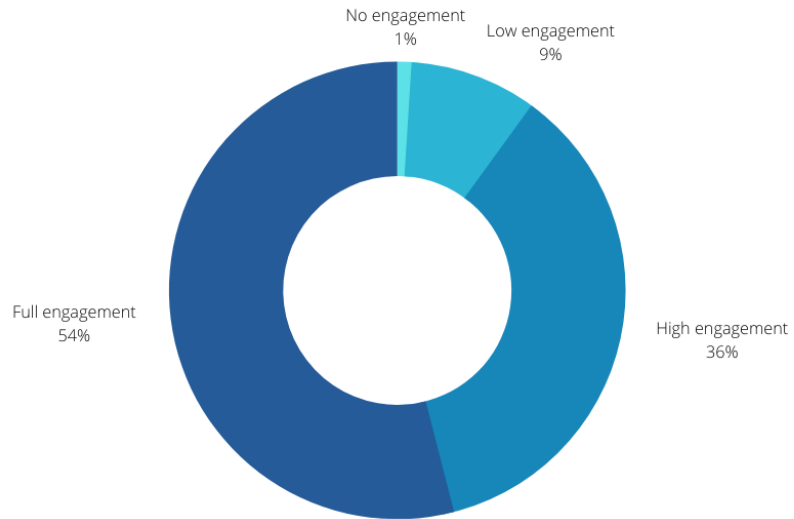
Figure 13

Spanish cognitive engagement.

Figure 14
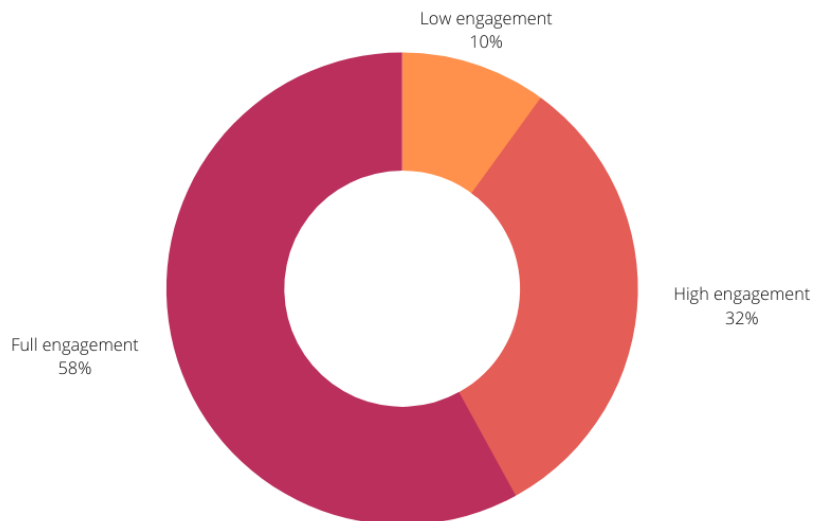
Spanish affective engagement.
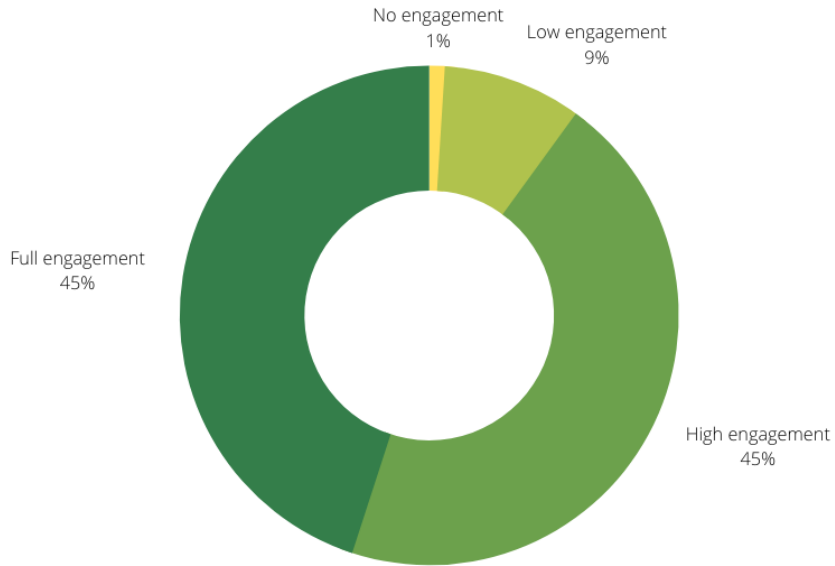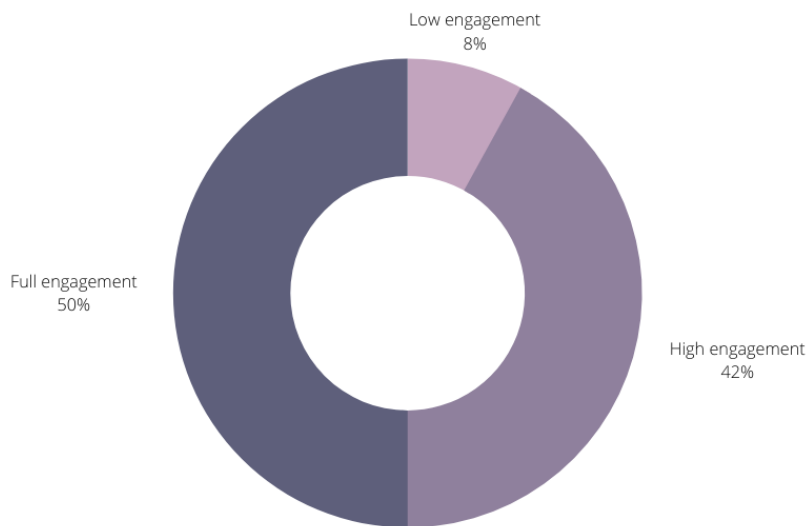
Figure 15

Spanish social engagement.

Figure 16

Spanish overall engagement.

An overview of the data showed that cognitive engagement with Spanish had a mean of 2.42 (SD = .717), affective engagement a mean of 2.47 (SD = .683) and social engagement of 2.33 (SD = .700) (See Table 12 and Figure 17). A Wilcoxon signed-rank test to compare the means of the three dimensions threw up no statistically significant differences.
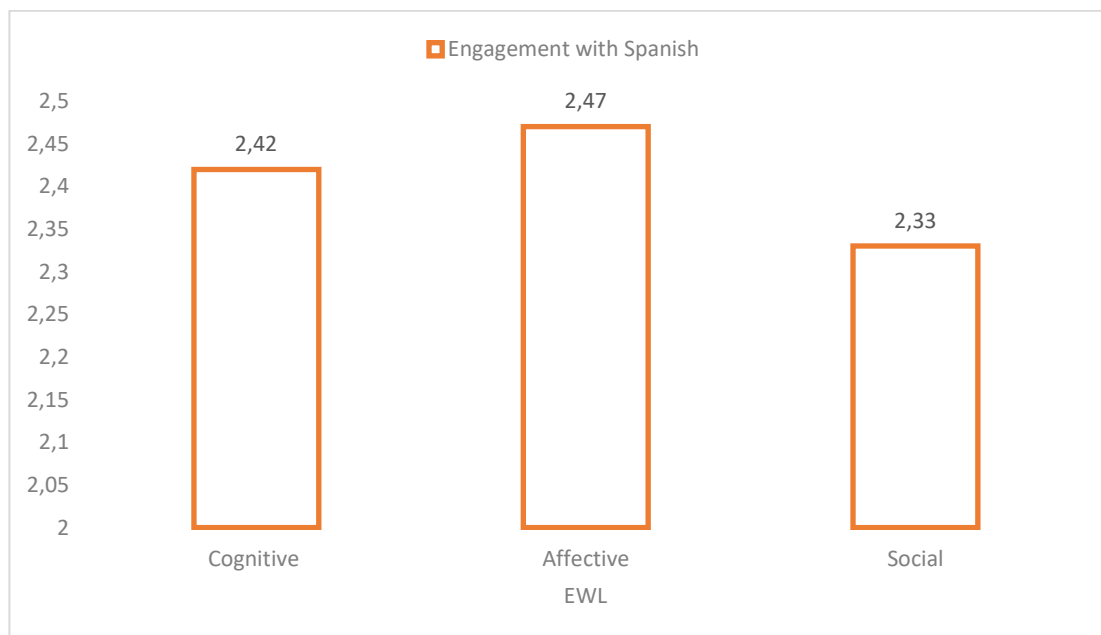
Table 12

Descriptive statistics of engagement with Spanish.

	Engagement with Spanish: Cognitive	Engagement with Spanish: Affective	Engagement with Spanish: Social
Mean	2.42	2.47	2.33
Median	3.00	3.00	2.00
Mode	3	3	2
Standard deviation	.717	.683	.700

Figure 17

Cognitive, affective, and social means for Engagement with Spanish.

After analysing the data concerning Engagement with Spanish, it can be said that participants reported high levels of Engagement with Language when working on the collaborative writing task. Moreover, no specific dimension stood out, implying a more or less equally distributed Engagement across cognitive, affective and social states. These results were similar to those reported by Toth (2020) when focusing on EWL in L1 Italian with secondary school students. While their level of cognitive and socio-affective engagement fluctuated from low to high, students enrolled in a general education school tended to display high-quality EWL in their L1. Similarly, Baralt *et al.* (2016) explained that their Spanish as a Foreign Language learners' engagement mainly predominated in the form of noticing and attention to language as an object. In addition to this, learners' affective and social engagement was evidenced in their positive attitude towards the language as well as interaction with partners. Even though our data did not derive from FL Spanish, we found the possibility of comparison with Baralt *et al.*'s (2016) study as they also employed the construct of EWL.

The next step in the analysis of participants' EWL consisted of a thorough examination of student-student interaction when completing the collaborative writing task. Each excerpt presented in the current study represents an EWL episode where the cognitive and/or affective and/or social dimension of the construct is evidenced. Following the adaptation of the EWL construct for discourse analysis, the turns in student-student interaction are described, first, in terms of EWL as a state and, second, as a process. For example, a cognitively engaged student can show a state of heightened alertness and/or focused attention that leads to a process of reflective and/or critical attitude towards the language.

When describing the EWL episode, turns can represent examples from more than just one dimension. However, in some instances, only one dimension is described with the aim of providing a straightforward explanation and to avoid saturation (Dörnyei, 2007). It must be noted that this omission of an explicit reference to the other dimensions is not intended to discredit the complex nature of engaging with the language but to simplify the description of the data analysis.

The following conversation between S35 and S42 exemplifies the way the cognitive dimension of engagement can act as the initiator of pragmatic-related discussion. In this exchange, participants were debating the appropriateness of the register employed when addressing their professor:

Excerpt 1

Student-student interaction	EWL dimension
01 S35: Buenas tardes debido a…	
02 S42: Pero a, a…	
03 S35: ¿Quieres hablar tan coloquial? Es que yo hablo muy así. Yo si escribo un correo a un profesor yo hablo así.	▪ **Cognitive: Focused - Reflective/Critical (Questioning)** ▪ Affective: Goal-oriented- Willingness and agency
04 S42: pero ¿coloquialmente?	▪ **Cognitive: Alert - Reflective/Critical (Questioning)** ▪ Social: Interactive - Negotiation
05 S35: Sí	▪ Social: Interactive - Negotiation
06 S42: Pero hombre sí	▪ Social: Interactive - Negotiation

07 S35: En plan "debido a… a las inoportunas…"	▪ **Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (Alternatives)** ▪ Affective: Goal-oriented - Willingness
08 S42: -Ah pero ¡eso es más culto!	▪ **Cognitive: Alert -Reflective/Critical (drawing conclusions)**
09 S35: Claro	▪ Social: Interactive - negotiation
10 S42: Más culto, más culto. Vale pero… antes de nada, ¿ponemos el nombre? O sea…	▪ **Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (Drawing conclusion)**

During this exchange, S35 questioned his own particular way of addressing professors by referring to it as "colloquial" (line 3). S42's reflective nature towards the register he wanted to employ led him to question what participant S35 meant by "colloquial" (line 4 to 8). S42 realised that his classmate was not using the right terminology (line 8) and corrected it. In the end, they both agreed on the more 'cultured' form as the most appropriate way to address a professor (line 9 and 10).

Cognitive engagement was highlighted in bold in the "EWL dimension" column. As can be observed, S35 evidenced focused attention towards the language that made him question his own language use (line 3) and motivated the provision of new structures and alternatives (line 7). In turn, S42 displayed a state of alertness in his reaction to his partner's comments (lines 4 and 8), as well as focused attention (line 10). Thanks to this, S42 was able to adopt a reflective and critical attitude as portrayed in the formulation of questions (line 4) and the drawing of conclusions (line 8 and 10).

Affective engagement was addressed as a positive state and goal-oriented disposition towards the language. In terms of process, high affective engagement is observed in learners'

willingness to participate and interact with the language. When it comes to this dimension of the EWL construct, it can be difficult to identify as it relates to positive attitudes and the emotional state of a person, aspects which are not easily observable in oral interaction (Baralt *et al.*, 2016). Nonetheless, some participants' comments and expressions gave us a clue to their possible affective engagement. For example, in Excerpt 2, participants S35 and S42 did not know what to include as the 'subject' when writing an email. After much debate, they decided to go for "urgency with the submission", referring to the project they had to hand in:

Excerpt 2

Student-student interaction	EWL dimension
01 S35: Urgencia con la entrega	
02 S42: Vale… urgencia	
03 S35: ¿eso está bien escrito? ¿urgencia con la entrega? Me chirría	▪ Cognitive: Alert – Reflective (questioning)
04 S42: ¡Sí, sí!	▪ **Affective: Goal-oriented - Willingness**
05 S35: ¿Seguro?	▪ Cogntive: Focused – Reflective (questioning)
06 S42: No se puede acceder a ningún… claro si, cambiamos urgente, ponemos urgente problema con la entrega	▪ **Affective: Goal-oriented - Willingness** ▪ Cognitive: Focused - Reflective (noticing)
07 S35: Problema con la entrega. Quita lo de urgencia.	▪ **Affective: Goal-oriented- Willingness** ▪ Cognitive: Focused - Reflective (Alternatives)
08 S42: Urgente, dos puntos, problema con la entrega.	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (Alternatives)
09 S35: ¡Claro! ¡Eso es! Ahí, ahí está.	▪ **Affective: Positive disposition and goal-oriented – Willingness**

After having doubts between using "urgency" and "urgent", S42's willingness to engage with the language was observed in lines 4 and 6 as a result of his classmate's doubts (line 3). The goal-oriented nature of the interaction, attempting to solve the problem, denoted an affective commitment with the language. S35 also exhibited a positive and goal-oriented disposition (lines 7 and 9). This enabled him to come up with a new structure and, as a result of collaborating with his classmate, they agreed on a final form (line 8). S35 showed excitement about reaching a final decision, which is interpreted as a sign of high affective engagement.

A similar example was seen in the interaction between participant S51 and S49 when co-constructing the reason (the grounder) why they could not hand in their assignment on time:

Excerpt 3

Student-student interaction	EWL dimension
01 S51: Se ha visto reducido	
02 S49: Se ha visto reducido… considerablemente	▪ **Affective: Goal-oriented - Willingness** ▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives)
03 S51: ¡Oye, oye! (ríe)	▪ **Affective: Emotional reaction and Positive disposition – Willingness.**
04 S49: Así para dar más pena (3)	▪ **Affective: Goal-oriented – Willingness** ▪ Cognitive: Focused – Critical

Not only can we see a willingness to participate thanks to the co-construction of the sentence (line 2) but also in the expression 'hey, hey' (line 3) which shows excitement and approval of participant S49's suggestion of adding the adverb "considerably". Moreover, laughter proceeded, a sign of S51's positive emotional state. As seen in previous research such as that of Svalberg (2009) and Baralt *et al.*, (2016), we considered laughter and any other type of manifestation of emotional state as cues to identifying affective engagement. Participant S49's commitment to the email was also a sign of affective engagement by attempting to reflect an emotional state in their own writing (line 4).

Finally, a positive state of social engagement entails an eagerness to interact and support each other when solving the task. This is reflected in the process of initiating and maintaining the—interaction between partners as well as engaging in negotiation and scaffolding concerning language-related aspects. Excerpt 4, an exchange between participants S12 and S13, exemplifies social engagement:

Excerpt 4

Student-student interaction	EWL dimension
01 S12: pe, pero ¿para qué? ¿qué le ponemos? ¿para comentarte una situación? Normalmente no vas directo al punto ¿no? de, de "oye me cambias la fecha de entrega" ¿sabes? No sé, como que das algún rodeo ¿no? Digo yo.	**Social: Interactive – Initiating interaction** - Cognitive: Focused - Reflective and critical (questioning and drawing conclusions) - Affective: Goal-oriented – Agency
02 S13: Mmm(afirmando)te escribo para preguntarte del tal o… o sea si podrías cambiarme la fecha	Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternative)

200

```
de::: de la entrega de trabajo
em::: del trabajo.
```

03 S12: Primero, primero ¿le explicas por qué necesitas que te la cambie o primero le pides que te la cambie?	▪ **Social: Interactive – negotiation** ▪ Cognitive: Focused -Reflective (Questioning)
04 S13: Primero le pides que te la cambie, después.	▪ **Social: Interactive – negotiation**
05 S12: – Le dices por qué ¿no?	▪ **Social: Interactive – negotiation**
06 S13: [Le explicas ¿no? En plan… claro	▪ **Social: Interactive – negotiation**
07 S12: Vale, bien. Me parece bien. (5)	▪ **Social: Interactive - negotiation** ▪ Affective: Positive and goal-oriented - Willingness

High levels of social engagement are observed in this episode. Firstly, S12 opened up this conversation by asking how to introduce the request (line 1). In this sense, S12 was showing a positive disposition to interact and initiate a discussion around this pragmatic-related issue. S12 formulated questions for his partner, from whom he expected feedback, denoting that he considered his ideas to be relevant. In addition to this, S12 was looking for some kind of support from his classmate. S13 suggested a way to formulate the request (line 2) but S12 was not so sure whether to introduce first the request or the justification for making this request (line 3). From line 4 to 6, both learners continued with this debate until S12 agreed with his partner, showing support for his ideas.

Throughout this episode, we see the interactive and dynamic way of working of these two learners. Between lines 3 to 7, they both engaged in negotiation concerning the best path

to take to introduce the request. As a result, they reached an agreement. The constant formulation of questions and collaborating to achieve a common goal portrayed the importance of maintaining social interaction, which is highly valued and needed for language learning (Svalberg, 2009).

6.1.3 Engagement with Catalan

Concerning engagement with Catalan, low cognitive engagement was observed in 9.2 % (n = 7) of participants, high cognitive engagement in 32.9% (n = 25) and full cognitive engagement in 57.9% (n = 44). With regards to affective engagement, one participant (1.3%) displayed no engagement with Catalan and 11.8% (n = 9) low engagement. 32.9% (n = 25) of students reported having high affective engagement and 54% (n = 41) full affective engagement. Half of the sample (n = 38) showed high social engagement while 40.8% (n = 31) reported full engagement. Low social engagement was observed in only 9.2% (n = 7) of participants. As a whole, 6.6% (n = 5) of participants showed low engagement with Catalan, 46% (n = 35) high engagement and 47.4% (n = 36) full engagement. Figures 18 to 21 illustrate these numbers.

The mean for cognitive engagement with Catalan was of 2.49 (SD = .663), for affective engagement of 2.39 (SD = .750) and for social engagement of 2.32 (SD = .637) (See Table 13 and Figure 22). No statistically significant difference was observed among the values of the three dimensions of engagement with Catalan after implementing the Wilcoxon signed-rank test. Participants displayed high Engagement with Language across dimensions when dealing with the collaborative email writing task in Catalan.

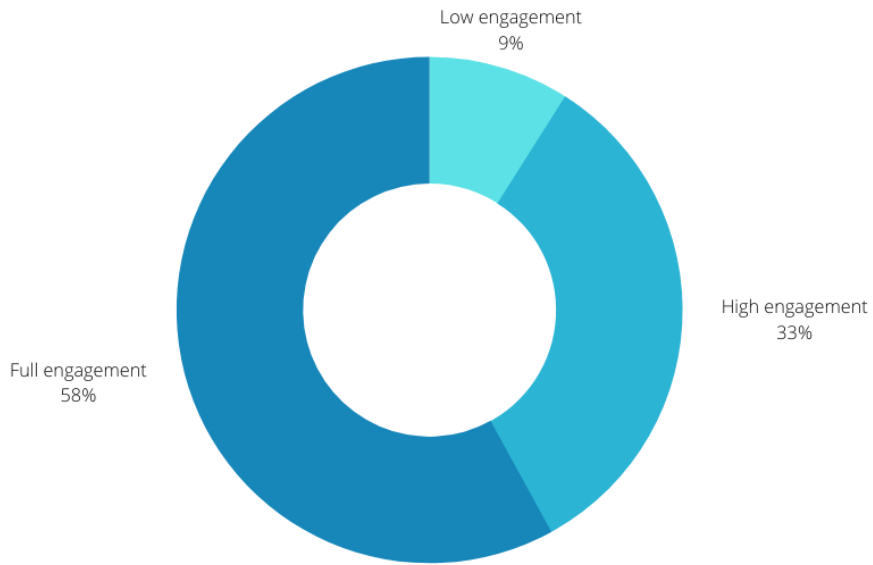**Figure 18**

Catalan cognitive engagement
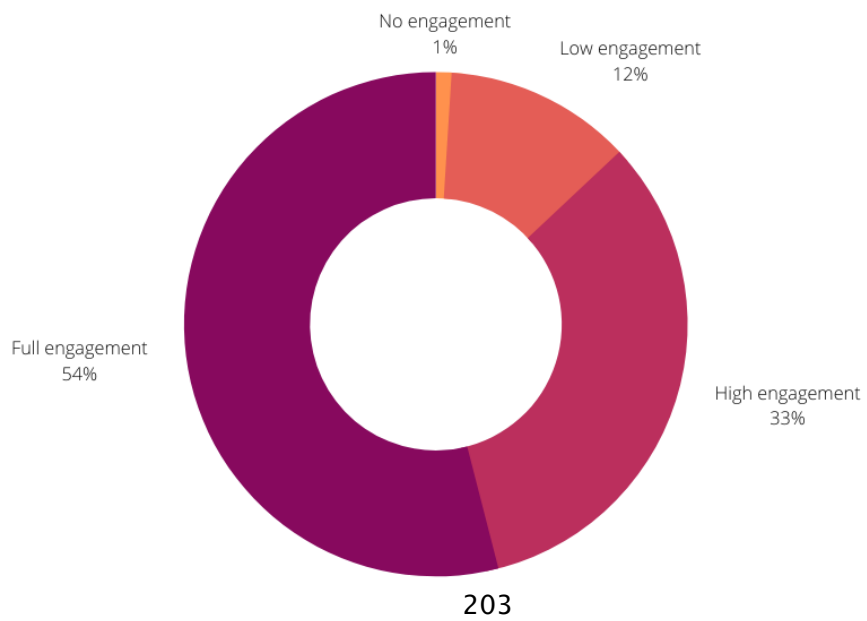

Figure 19

Catalan affective engagement

203

Figure 20

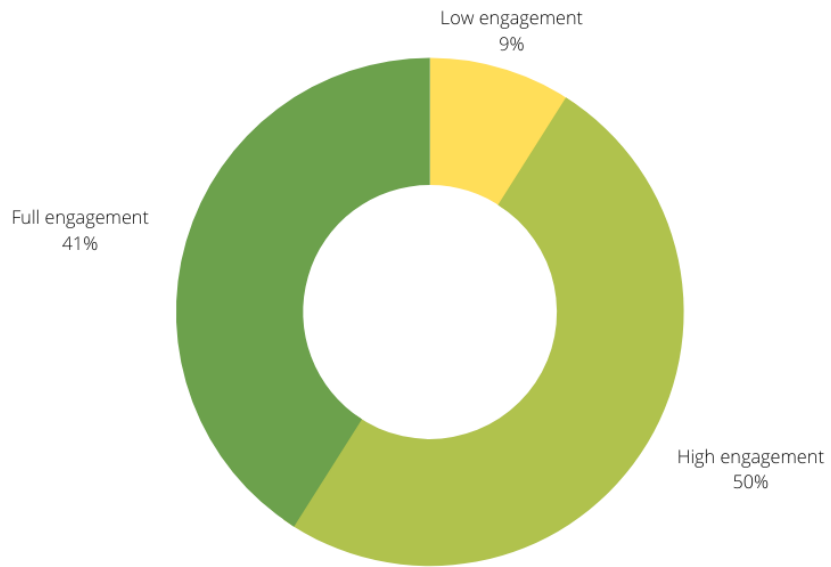*Catalan social engagement*

Figure 21

Catalan overall engagement
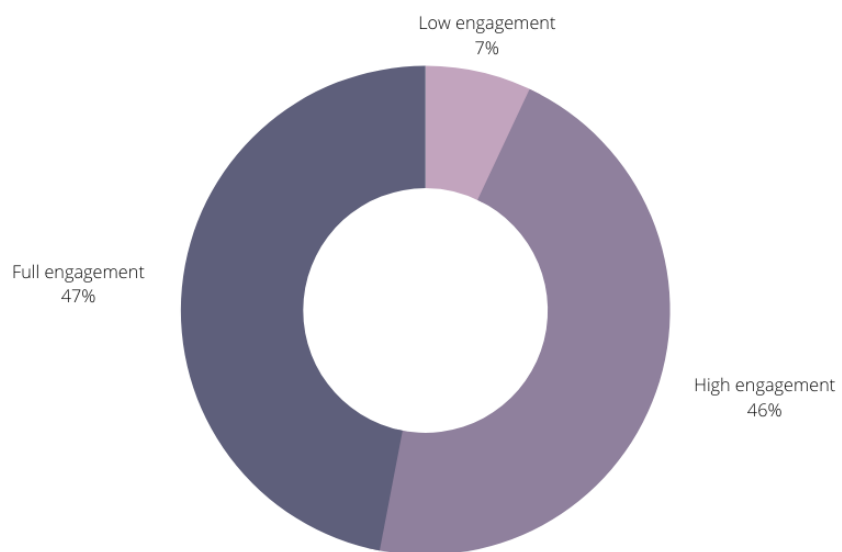
Table 13

Descriptive statistics of engagement with Catalan.

	Engagement with Catalan: Cognitive	Engagement with Catalan: Affective	Engagement with Catalan: Social
Mean	2.49	2.39	2.32
Median	3.00	3.00	2.00
Mode	3	3	2
Standard deviation	.663	.750	.637

Figure 22

Cognitive, affective, and social means for engagement with Catalan.
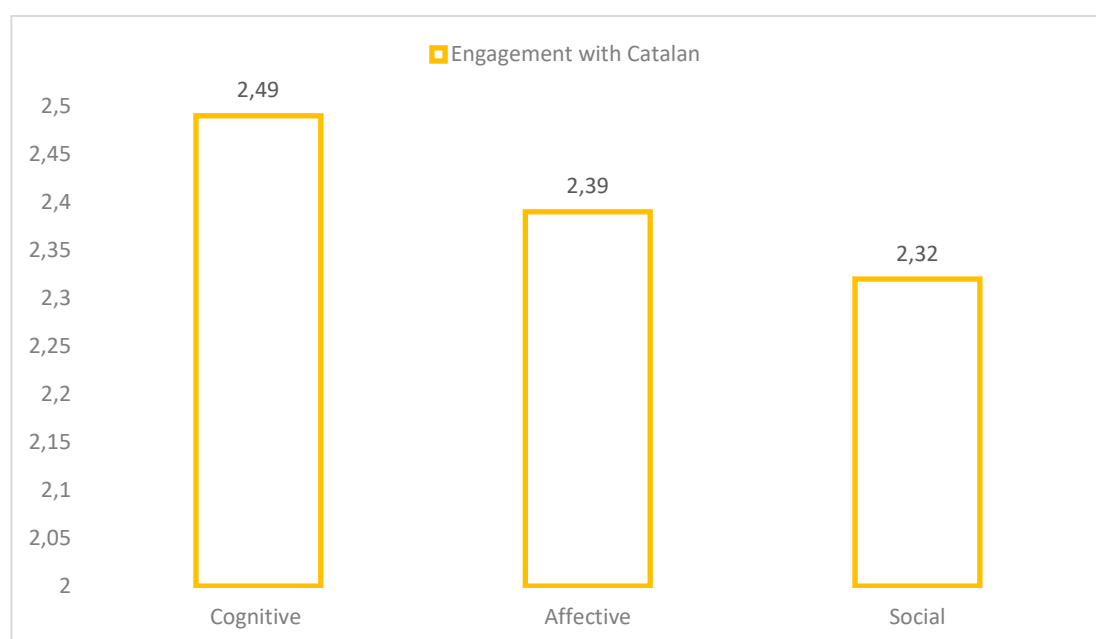
As happened with engagement with Spanish, no dimension of the EWL construct played a more relevant role than the other. Participants showed a more or less equally distributed level of cognitive, affective and social engagement, which is in line with what has already been mentioned by *Baralt et al.* (2016).

Participants' interaction elicited examples of EWL episodes that illustrate the above-mentioned values. An example of high cognitive engagement was seen in an exchange between participants S58 and S74 (Excerpt 5). In this interaction, they were deciding on the nature of the email they had to write to the head of the department:

Excerpt 5

Student-student interaction	EWL dimension
01 S74: Clar. Si en aquest cas també deuria de ser formal	▪ **Cognitive: Alert – Reflective (noticing)**
02 S58: Hmmm (afirmant)	
03 S74: Solament que eh: excusant-te menys supose perquè es algo per sentit comú com ens han posat tant exàmens... eh: no, no és possible per a nosaltres complir amb tot. Ademés que a la directora del departament també le interesa perquè vore que un curs han tret tan mala nota és... és pitjor per al departament.	▪ **Cognitive: Alert - Reflective and critical**

S74's pragmatic awareness was evidenced in his explanation of the task. To start with, he noticed that the email had to be addressed to the head of the department. This fact made S74 conclude that the email should be formal due to the status of the addressee (line 1). Moreover, S74 thought that as there were two exams in a short space of time, this gave them the right not to "excuse" themselves when requesting (line 3). That is, they both believed they were within their right to ask for a change of dates (line 3). Despite the fact that their ideas were not precisely correct (concerning politeness and appropriateness), their cognitive

engagement with the language was visible in S74's alertness of sociopragmatic notions. This positive state of alertness promoted noticing as displayed in S74's reflective approach towards the language.

Regarding affective engagement with Catalan, S80 and S72 talked about how to begin the first paragraph of the email. When doing so, S72's agency was made explicit when defending his posture:

Excerpt 6

Student-student interaction	EWL dimension
01 S80: Em: bona vesprada	▪ Cogntive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives)
02 S72: Posa *ahí*: com vostè ja sap.	▪ **Affective: Goal-oriented - Agency**
03 S80: No perquè això ja ho hem ficat abans.	▪ **Affective: Goal-oriented - Agency** ▪ Cognitive: Alert – Reflective (noticing) ▪ Social: Interactive – Negotiation
04 S72: I que més dona *vamos a ver*, estem canviant d'idioma.	▪ Social: Interactive - Negotiation
05 S80: Ch... anem a ficar una cosa mes interessant	▪ **Affective: Goal-oriented – Agency** ▪ Social: Interactive – Negotiation
06 S72: Mes interessant... és que això ficaria jo. *O sea*, si jo fora el que faria el email realment és el que ficaria al email, ficaria allò al email.	▪ **Affective: Goal-oriented – Agency** ▪ Social: Interactive - Negotiation

In this EWL episode, positive, affective engagement is observed in the goal-oriented purpose of the dyad. Both partners were committed to engaging with the Catalan language in

order to write the email. They showed agency in the offering of input (line 2), in indicating a

preference (line 3 and 5) and in attempting to personalise and relate to the content and

language of the task (line 6). Particularly, S72 made explicit reference to how he would convey

the message, adding personal relevance to the process of solving the task. All in all, high

affective engagement was shown by both partners.

With regards to social engagement with Catalan, S51 and S49 wrote their email relying

on each other when doubts arose:

Excerpt 7

Student-student interaction	EWL dimension
01 S49: Amb amb, amb una diferència d'un dia (3) i els quals...	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives)
02 S51: - diferència té accent obert?	▪ **Social: Support - Scaffolding** ▪ Cognitive: Focused- Reflective (questioning)
03 S49: Diferència, si obert.	▪ **Social: Support - Scaffolding** ▪ Cognitive: Alert – Reflective (noticing)
04 S51: D'un dia, no?	▪ **Social: Support- Scaffolding**
05 S49: D'un dia.	▪ **Social: Support - Scaffolding**
06 S51: Dia en valencià no porta accent.	▪ Cognitive: Alert - Reflective (noticing) ▪ Affective: Goal-oriented – Willingness
07 S49: No, no. Això és en castellà.	▪ **Social: Support – Scaffolding** ▪ Cognitive: Focused- Reflective (comparing across languages)
08 S51: Val	

The interaction between S51 and S49 was marked by high levels of social engagement.

S51 engaged in an episode of scaffolding in which she resorted to her classmate to solve a

doubt (line 2). S49 showed supportiveness by providing the right answer (line 3). Throughout consecutive turns (lines 4 to 8), both partners displayed the same dynamic of question and answer where S51 benefited from S49's support.

6.1.4   Engagement with English

When looking at the degree of engagement with English, 7.9% ($n = 6$) of participants showed no cognitive engagement, 11.8% ($n = 9$) low cognitive engagement, 39.5% ($n = 30$) high cognitive engagement and 40.8% ($n = 31$) full cognitive engagement. Concerning affective engagement, only one person (1.3%) showed no engagement. Low engagement was observed in 17.1% ($n = 13$) of participants, high engagement in 35.5% ($n = 27$) and full engagement in 46.1% ($n = 35$). No social engagement was reported by 2.6% ($n = 2$) of participants while 13.2% ($n = 10$) displayed low engagement. Half of the students ($n = 38$) reported high engagement and 34.2% ($n = 26$) full social engagement with English. The overall engagement with English is of 1.3% ($n = 1$) showing no engagement, 13.2% ($n = 10$) low engagement, 46.1% ($n = 35$) high engagement and 39.5% (30) full engagement. Figures 23 to 26 provide a graphic representation of these percentages.

Figure 23
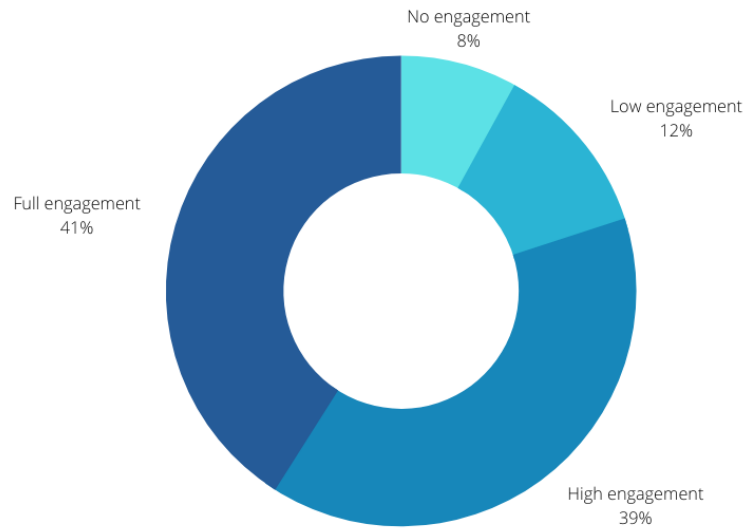
English cognitive engagement.

Figure 24

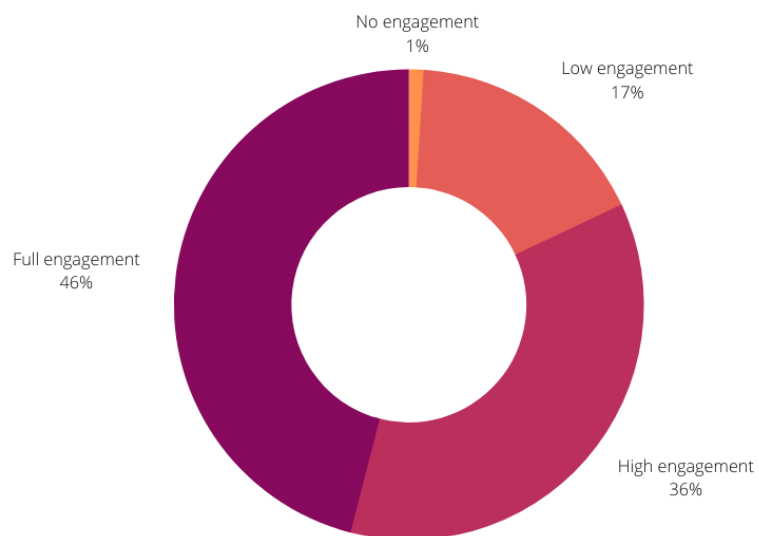*English affective engagement.*

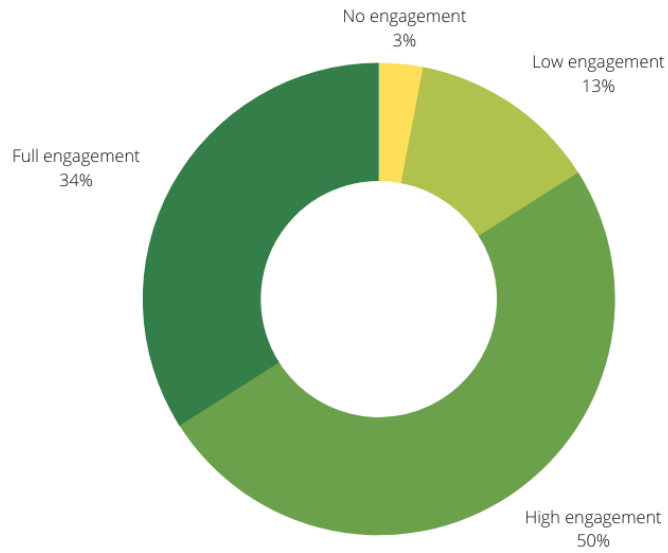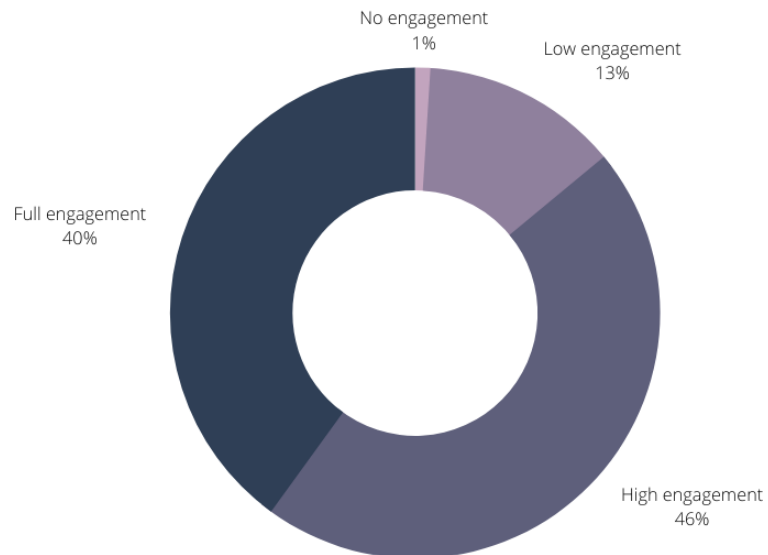**Figure 25**

English social engagement.

Figure 26

English overall engagement.

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The means for each of the different dimensions were as follows: cognitive engagement with English presented a mean of 2.13 (SD = .914), affective engagement a mean of 2.26 (SD = .789) and for social engagement a mean of 2.16 (SD = .749) (See Table 14 and Figure 27). A Wilcoxon signed-ranked test compared the means of each dimension and no statistically significant difference was observed among them, leading to the conclusion that no specific dimension of the EWL construct stood out.

Participants reported high levels of engagement with the English language. It was remarkable the fact that affective engagement scored higher in comparison to cognitive and social engagement (although no statistically significant difference). The relevance of affective engagement was highlighted by Baralt *et al. (*2016) who explained that willingness and purposefulness contribute to learners' cognitive and social engagement. Hence, affective engagement seemed to play a key role within the construct as the promotor of the overall engagement. In the case of cognitive engagement, these results go in line with studies like those of Storch (2008), Baralt *et al.* (2016) and Zabihi and Grahramanzadeh (2022) who observed that the sort of interaction that arises from collaborative tasks promotes cognitive engagement to a great extent. In the current study, focusing on pragmatic-related aspects of the languages promoted learners' alertness towards the pragmalinguistic forms as well as sociopragmatic notions. Furthermore, learners reported being focused on the language and adopting a critical and reflective attitude when it came to completing the collaborative task.

Concerning social engagement, studies such as Shehadeh (2011), Edstrom (2015) and Zabihi and Grahramanzadeh (2022) commented on the benefits of collaborative tasks as a promotor of positive social atmosphere and engagement with peers. Out of all three

languages, social engagement with English showed the lowest value. This could imply that when using or dealing with a foreign language, as is the case of English L3/L4, participants might not feel so inclined towards adopting an interactive and supportive attitude. Svalberg and Askham's (2020) study also described how some students preferred working on their own and abstaining from socially engaging. However, this social cohesion is needed to foster awareness as well as cognitive and affective engagement. Baralt *et al.* (2016) explained that good rapport arising from interaction fostered scaffolding and, therefore, cognitive engagement. Taking this into consideration, such low values in social engagement might also explain the lower value of cognitive engagement. Despite these subtle differences among values, participants reported high levels of engagement with English.

Table 14

Descriptive statistics of engagement with English.

	Engagement with English: Cognitive	Engagement with English: Affective	Engagement with English: Social
Mean	2.13	2.26	2.16
Median	2.00	2.00	2.00
Mode	3	3	2
Standard deviation	.914	.789	.749

Figure 27

Cognitive, affective, and social means for engagement with English.
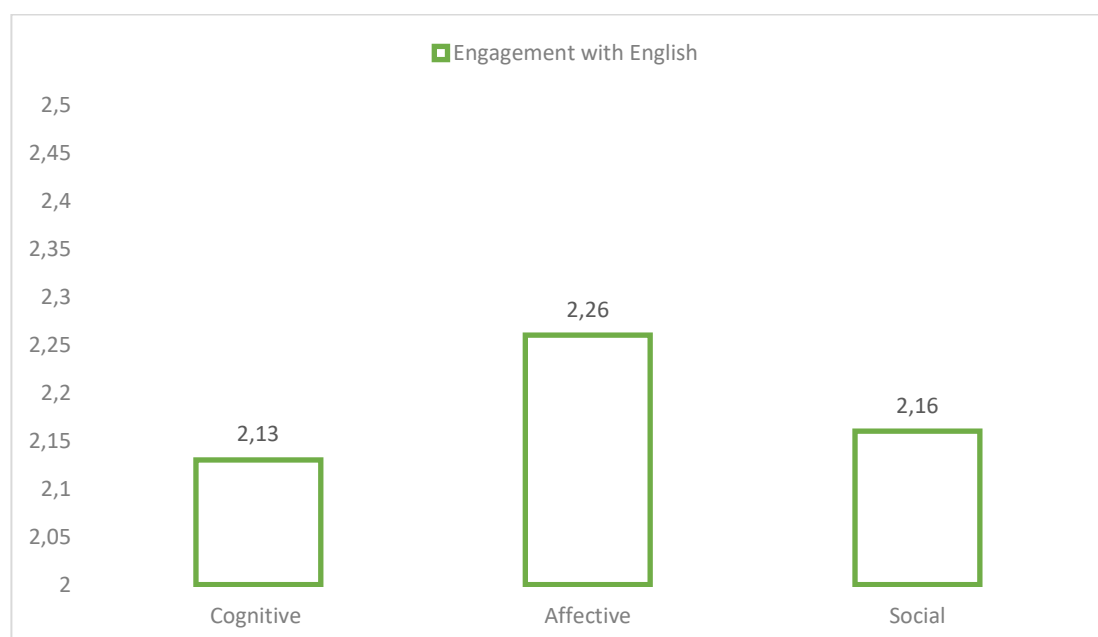
Participants' cognitive engagement with English is exemplified in a number of episodes. In the following Excerpt 8, S12's alert state towards the language was observed in his rectification:

Excerpt 8

Student-student interaction	EWL dimension
01 S13: I'm the student X ¿sabes? *Procedente de…*	▪ **Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives)**
02 S12: *de* I'm, I'm, I **am** … a… Erasmus…program… student… (writes)	▪ **Cognitive: Alert – Reflective (noticing)**

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In line 2, S12 was trying to structure an introductory sentence. He first employed 'I'm' as previously proposed by his partner. However, after repeating it twice, in his third attempt he employed the full form 'I am', noticing that it was the correct structure in formal writing. In this sense, S12 was alert which allowed him to notice this particular language feature.

A very similar episode took place between S35 and S42 (Excerpt 9). In this case, the former provided explicit instructions on the use of contractions (line 2). This type of EWL episode represents a sign of language awareness as manifested by participant S35's cognitive engagement with the English language.

Excerpt 9

Student-student interaction	EWL dimension
01 S42: Good life. I'm… I am… [name]…	▪ **Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives)**
02 S35: I'm, I am [name]… yeah, one one very important thing about this is you don't have to make contractions	▪ **Cognitive: Alert – Reflective (noticing)** ▪ Social: Supportive - scaffolding
03 S42: Ok	▪ Social: Supportive - scaffolding
04 S35: Just reminded, just remind it.	▪ Social: Supportive- scaffolding
05 S42: Ok, thank you	

Concerning affective engagement, explicit manifestation of satisfaction with the decisions taken denote a positive mental state and willingness to engage with the language. For example, in Excerpt 10, S35 and S42 agreed on the name of a fictitious addressee for their email:

Excerpt 10

Student-student interaction	EWL dimension
01 S35:- Scott! For example	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives)
02 S42: Scott	
03 S35: Scott is an England name	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (noticing)
04 S42: Scott	
05 S35: To Scott	
06 S42: Scott Williams	
07 S35: Scott Williams, it's perfect	▪ **Affective: Positive - Willingness**
08 S42: Very cool name	▪ **Affective: Positive - Willingness**
09 S35: And a real… a really, very cool name	▪ **Affective: Positive - Willingness**

From line 7 to 9, both participants expressed their satisfaction after their agreement by means of positive adjectives. This can be considered an indicator of their positive, affective state and their commitment with the task.

Excerpt 11 represents another example of affective engagement. When writing the introductory sentence, S139's suggestions made S21 quite happy:

Excerpt 11

Student-student interaction	EWL dimension
01 S21: – I am writing you to explain eh…	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives)
02 S139: To explain ah….	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives)
03 S21: Eh… about	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives)
04 S139: My situation	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives)

05 S21: My situation!	▪ **Affective: Positive - Willingness** ▪ Cognitive: Alert – Reflective (noticing)
06 S139: Ok, first of all	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives)
07 S21: First of all… *bien, bien, bien, ¡conectores!*	▪ **Affective: Positive and goal oriented – Willingness**

None of them knew how to continue with the second part of the sentence (line 1 to 3) until S139 suggested "my situation". S21 repeated the phrase with a rising intonation which can be interpreted as happiness or excitement over the proposed structure (line 4). Moreover, S139 introduced a second sentence by using a connector (line 6) and his partner gave him positive feedback by saying "good" three times and exclaiming "connectors" (line 7). This is portrayed as a sign of his affective engagement. Moreover, S21 was able to identify the linguistic feature as a "connector" which stands as a moment of clarity where he was able to reinforce his language awareness, more specifically, grammatical awareness.

Finally, social engagement was observed in interactions where partners relied on each other. For example, participants S93 and S95 were working on the introduction of their email (Excerpt 12) and S95 had some doubts about a particular structure:

Excerpt 12

Student-student interaction	EWL dimension
01 S95: *Así.* Good afternoon Dominique. I'm in England as part of the Erasmus programme.	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives)
02 S93: *Aquí, ¿no?*	▪ **Social: Support- Scaffolding**
03 S95: *Sí* (7) and… *"me he dado cuenta"* sería "I've seen? I have seen?" *Eso es ser visto. ¿Cómo sería "darse cuenta"?*	▪ **Social: Support - Scaffolding** ▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (noticing and questioning)
04 S93: *A ver…* I have noticed? *¿Me he dado cuenta?*	▪ **Social: Support - Scaffolding** ▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives)
05 S95: *¿Cómo?*	▪ **Social: Support - Scaffolding**
06 S93: I have noticed.	▪ **Social: Support - Scaffolding**
07 S95: *¿Eso existe?*	▪ **Social: Support - Scaffolding** ▪ Cognitive: Alert – Reflective (questioning)
08 S93: No… eh::: Noticed, *que me he dado cuenta*	▪ **Social: Support - Scaffolding** ▪ Cognitive: Alert – Reflective (noticing)
09 S95: *¿eso existe? Bueno vale si,* I have noticed. *Perfecto.* That… (5) I am… I am…	▪ **Social: Support – Scaffolding** ▪ Cognitive: Focused – reflective (alternatives) ▪ Affective: Goal-oriented - Willingness

A state of supportiveness conducive to opportunities for scaffolding characterise this

EWL episode. S95 attempted to translate a structure from Spanish into English but realised

she needed help and explicitly formulated a question to her classmate (line 3). S93 showed support by providing the translation his partner required (line 4). During the next turns (lines 5 to 9), both partners engaged in the construction of the structure, with S95 benefitting from S93's comments as she was unaware of the existence of the verb "to notice".

6.1.5 Engagement with languages: cognitive, affective and social values across languages

The research question inquired as to the effect of a collaborative writing task on learners' engagement with languages. Once these values were obtained and analysed, the following step consisted of a comparison of such values among languages. In order to do so, the means of cognitive, affective and social engagement with Spanish, Catalan and English were compared by applying a Wilcoxon signed-rank Test.

As a general trend, engagement with the English language presented lower values in comparison to Spanish and Catalan across all dimensions. Concerning cognitive engagement (See Figure 28), after applying a Wilcoxon signed-rank test there was a statistically significant difference $Z = -2.385$, $p = .017$ with a low effect size $r = .27$ between Spanish and English cognitive engagement. A similar tendency was observed between Catalan and English cognitive engagement, showing a statistically significant difference $Z = -3.095$, $p = .002$ with a low effect size $r = .35$. Participants were less cognitively engaged when working on the collaborative writing task in English than they were in Spanish and Catalan.

As previously mentioned, studies like the one conducted by Storch (2008) showed more limited than elaborate cognitive engagement. One of the possible explanations for this difference between Spanish/Catalan and English might be related to the fact that participants

displayed higher proficiency in their L1/L2 and felt more confident when engaging with those languages than they did with English L3/L4.

Figure 28

Cognitive, affective, and social means for engagement across languages.
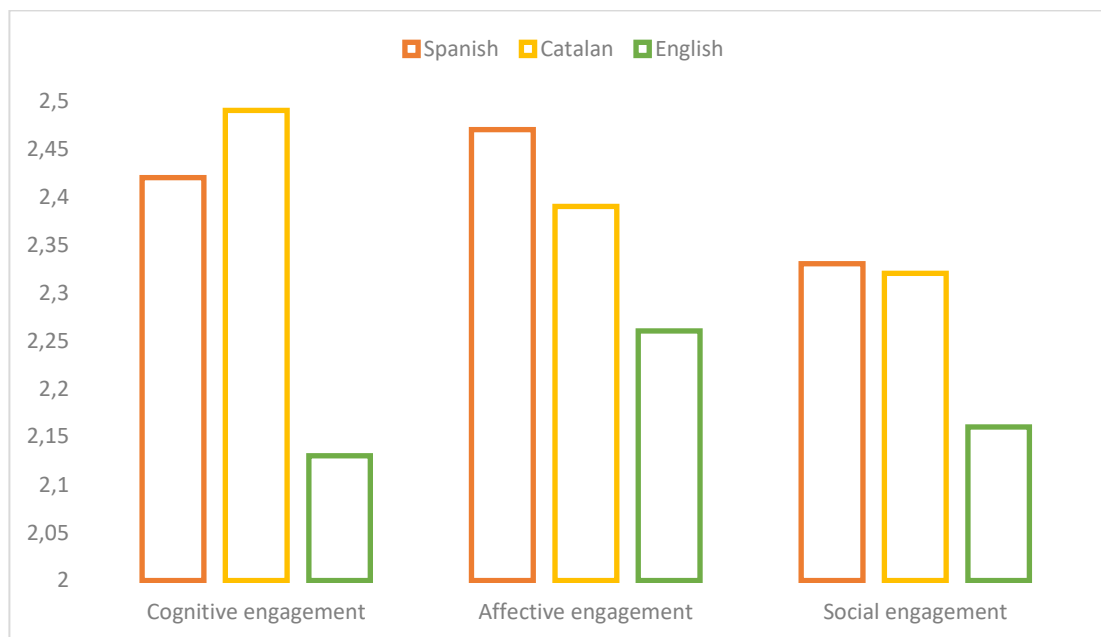
When comparing Spanish and English affective engagement, statistically significant differences were observed Z = –2.484, p = .013 with a low effect size r = .28. Participants were more affectively engaged when doing the Spanish task in comparison with the English task. This difference can also explain the previous Spanish/Catalan vs. English cognitive engagement difference. Studies like Baralt *et al.* (2016) suggested the importance of affective engagement as a facilitator of cognitive and social engagement. Moreover, Shehadeh (2011) and Edstrom (2015) considered social engagement as fostering a positive environment

between participants. Once again, the relevance of Spanish in the sociolinguistic context in which the study took place might account for the statistically significant difference in terms of affective engagement. That is, participants might find a clearer purpose, display willingness and show more autonomy when working on an email in their own language than writing it in a foreign language.

Thus, in conclusion, what students reported after the completion of the collaborative writing task translated into high engagement across all languages and dimensions. To the best of our knowledge, few studies have dealt with Engagement with Spanish and Catalan. One exceptional study that could be mentioned includes Baralt *et al.* (2016) reporting full engagement with Spanish as a foreign language across all dimensions in face-to-face interaction. Concerning English as an L3/L4, some studies mentioned high cognitive engagement during collaborative tasks (Storch, 2008; Baralt *et al.*, 2016, Svalberg & Askham, 2020; Zabihi & Grahramanzadeh 2022). We find that our participants were cognitively engaged in English but not as much as they were in Spanish and Catalan. The same applies for affective engagement with lower values in comparison with Spanish. One of the possible answers for this difference is related to the status of Spanish in relation to English and the place it occupies in the wider sociolinguistic setting (Safont, 2007).

Finally, high values of social engagement were reported across languages with no statistically significant differences. Nonetheless, it is interesting to comment on this particular dimension as the values of social engagement were always lower than the other two dimensions in all three languages. This might imply that social interaction within the classroom is not only a matter of being cognitively or affectively engaged but other variables

might come into play. When referring to the effect of engagement dimensions, Philp and Duchesne (2016) explained that social engagement was subject to, for example, partners not allowing input from others or a mismatch of affective engagement between partners. In line with this, Svalberg (2018) talked about EWL in ecological terms, stating that social engagement is sensitive to the sort of friendship, power differences and shared values partners have. We are aware that other variables may play a role that might explain the values obtained. However, these go beyond the scope of this thesis, and therefore it is only possible to acknowledge the existence of other internal and external factors. As a whole, the EWL construct allows for a holistic approach to the interpretation of participants' interaction, enabling an analysis of their exchanges that embraces cognitive, affective and social states.

After having discussed hypothesis 1, which confirmed that the collaborative writing task fosters high levels of engagement, this research will continue by attempting to explore the interrelationship which exists among the three dimensions of the EWL within and across languages. This will be the focus of the second research question and hypothesis.

6.2   Results and discussion related to research question 2 and hypothesis 2

The second research question explored whether the three dimensions of the EWL construct influence and interrelate with each other. Hypothesis 2 stated that cognitive, affective and social states would operate interdependently, and that this relationship would be more notable between the affective and social dimensions (Philp & Duchesne, 2016; Svalberg, 2009; 2018; Toth, 2020). Moreover, we suggested that this interrelationship would be observable

within and across languages. This hypothesis was tested by resorting to the answers provided to the EWL questionnaire together with samples from the transcriptions.

Our statistical analysis consisted of conducting a Spearman's rank order correlation among the three different dimensions of the EWL construct. We considered it appropriate to run a correlation coefficient as we wanted to observe the relationship among variables as already mentioned when explaining methodological decisions. This non-parametric procedure was employed as the data from the questionnaire was codified in a rank order (0: no engagement, 1: low engagement, 2: high engagement, 3: full engagement). Hence, Spearman's rank order correlation was the correct analysis when working with ordinal data. In order to interpret the strength of the correlation coefficient, we have followed Hopkins' (2002) scale (see Chapter 5).

After conducting the above-mentioned analysis, we have observed that the values of each dimension of the EWL construct correlated, suggesting mediating effects and an interdependence. Concerning the correlation analysis within languages, large ($r = .58$, $p < .01$) to moderate ($r = .35$, $p < .01$; $r = .45$, $p < .01$) values were observed across all three dimensions in English as an L3/L4. Regarding Spanish, small ($r = .25$, $p < .05$; $r = .26$, $p < .05$) to moderate ($r = .42$, $p < .01$) correlations between dimensions were found. Finally, correlation values in Catalan were also small to moderate and only between cognitive and affective ($r = .42$, $p < .01$) and affective and social ($r = .29$, $p < .01$). As for the potential interdependence of the different dimensions of engagement across languages, engagement with English and with Spanish showed a moderate effect of the correlation ($r = .43$, $p < .01$) as was also true with Catalan ($r = .36$, $p < .01$). On the other hand, engagement with Spanish

and with Catalan showed a very large effect of the correlation ($r = .72$, $p < .01$). In the following sub-sections, a more detailed explanation of how each dimension correlates with each other is provided.

6.2.1 Interrelationship in Engagement with English, Spanish and Catalan

A Spearman's rank order correlation coefficient was run to observe the mediating effect and the interdependence existing between cognitive, affective and social engagement with English (See Table 15). As expected from existing literature on engagement documenting the influence and the interrelationship of the dimensions, positive correlations were observed. Cognitive engagement positively correlated with affective engagement ($r = .58$, p $< .01$) and to a lesser extent with social engagement ($r = .35$, p $<.01$). Affective and social engagement also displayed a positive correlation ($r = .45$, $p < .01$). The cognitive and affective dimension of engagement showed a large correlation while, in the case of cognitive and social engagement, it was moderate. When correlating affective and social engagement, the effect was moderate to large. All correlations considered, we suggest that a certain level of engagement in one of the dimensions could positively benefit the levels of engagement in the other two. While acknowledging that this is a bold conclusion to draw, these findings go in line with previous research on Engagement with Language that provided support to the dynamic and interrelated nature of the different dimensions (Zhang, 2021; Hiromori, 2021; Toth, 2020; Baralt *et al.*, 2016). Furthermore, the qualitative description of the interactions between participants complements this quantitative analysis and provides further support to the mediating effects and the interrelationship among dimensions.

Table 15

Correlation between dimensions in engagement with English.

	Cognitive engagement	Affective engagement	Social engagement
Cognitive engagement	-	.58**	.35**
Affective engagement	.58**	-	.45**
Social engagement	.35**	.45**	-

** p < .01.

Concerning engagement with Spanish, correlations across dimensions were found but with a weaker strength when compared to engagement with English (See Table 16). Cognitive and affective engagement positively correlated ($r = .42$, $p < .01$) as well as cognitive and social engagement but its strength was less substantial ($r = .25$, $p < .05$). The correlation between affective and social engagement was also low ($r = .26$ $p < .05$). The correlation between cognitive and affective engagement was moderate to large while cognitive and social engagement together with affective and social engagement was minor.

Table 16

Correlation between dimensions in engagement with Spanish.

	Cognitive engagement	Affective engagement	Social engagement
Cognitive engagement	-	.42**	.25*
Affective engagement	.42**	-	.26*
Social engagement	.25*	.26*	-

** $p < .01$. * $p < .05$.

Finally, engagement with Catalan only showed correlations between cognitive and affective engagement ($r = .42$, $p < .01$) and affective and social engagement ($r = .29$, $p <$

.01). No correlation was observed between cognitive and social engagement with Catalan (See

Table 17).

Table 17

Correlation between dimensions in engagement with Catalan.

	Cognitive engagement	Affective engagement	Social engagement
Cognitive engagement	-	.42**	x
Affective engagement	.42**	-	.29*
Social engagement	x	.29*	-

** $p < .01$.

This relationship among the different dimensions was suggested by Svalberg (2009)

who claimed that separating them was artificial but could help when analysing engagement

in more detail. In the same line, Philp and Duchesne (2016) referred to engagement as

multidimensional and interdependent when addressing the components of the construct.

Similarly, Hiromori (2021) approached engagement in terms of behavioural, cognitive,

emotional and social aspects and observed a mutual relationship among these dimensions.

Therefore, approaching EWL from its three dimensions and acknowledging their

interdependence allowed for a more complex and dynamic picture. We first opted for

analysing each of the three dimensions in isolation as observed in previous research such as

that of Svalberg (2009) or Baralt *et. al* (2016). In this way, we were able to provide a detailed

analysis of each state of the engagement construct with each factor contributing to

engagement as a whole. Nonetheless, in the following stage, we took into account the overall

engagement with language value. In doing so, we attempted to capture the holistic nature of the EWL construct.

The interaction and influence between dimensions is also found in the literature on complexity and dynamism of the learning process as explained by Larsen-Freeman (2006) and Larsen-Freeman and Cameron (2008). In the particular case of the EWL construct, previous research commented on the importance of affective engagement as a promotor of cognitive and social engagement (Baralt *et. al*, 2016; Toth, 2020). In our study, particularly in the case of engagement with the English language, the moderate to large significant correlation between affective engagement and cognitive and social engagement provided further evidence for this relationship. Even though we are aware that correlation coefficient does not indicate a causal relationship, we might be inclined to interpret the results in such a way based on previous research. In this sense, our second hypothesis was confirmed after observing the correlation values across dimensions within each language under analysis. However, the strong interrelationship predicted between affective and social engagement was not found.

An analysis of the transcripts evidenced the mediation of the different dimensions. As previously mentioned, cognitive, affective and social states were distinguished in order to analyse engagement in detail. Despite this detailed analysis, the EWL construct was understood as holistic and dynamic, and data should be interpreted as such. The separation of cognitive, affective and social episodes is somehow artificial, as they tend to occur all together, one promoting the other. In Excerpt 13, S40 and S33 provided one example that

illustrated this interaction among dimensions. They were working on their email in Spanish

and had some doubts concerning the opening:

Excerpt 13

Student-student interaction	EWL dimension
01 S33: Eh: como tenemos que hacer una carta formal porque es para un profesor, no es para un amigo, tenemos que poner… a ver señora Lluch… no (ríe), ¡no!	▪ Cognitive: Alert – Reflective (noticing) ▪ Affective: Positive disposition and goal-oriented – Willingness ▪ Social: Interactive – Initiate interaction
02 S40: (ríe) ¡no!	▪ Affective: Positive disposition – Willingness
03 S33: A ver	
04 S40: Es que no vamos a poner tipo "estimada tal" (tono jocoso)	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Critical (drawing conclusions) ▪ Social: Interactive – Maintaining interaction ▪ Affective: Goal-oriented – Willingness
05 S33: No	▪ Social: Interactive – Maintaining interaction
06 S40: No (ríe)	▪ Affective: Positive disposition – Willingness
07 S33: Eh: ¿saludos? Ay eso es el final (ríe)	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives) ▪ Affective: Positive disposition – Willingness ▪ Social: Interactive – Negotiation
08 S40: Ya. A ver… hola tampoco	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Critical (drawing conclusions) ▪ Social: Interactive – Negotiation
09 S33: Emmm	

10 S40: Querida (ríe)	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives) ▪ Affective: Positive disposition – Willingness ▪ Social: Interactive – Negotiation
11 S40 & S33: No	▪ Social: Interactive – Negotiation
12 S40: ¡Ay! ¿Qué ponemos? ¿Cómo empezamos?	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (questioning) ▪ Social: Interactive – Negotiation
13 S33: Eh… señora Lluch (ríe)	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives) ▪ Social: Interactive – Negotiation
14 S40: ¿Si? Es que… ¿es señora o…?	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (questioning) ▪ Social: Interactive – Negotiation
15 S33: Mister… (ríe) no lo sé… a ver…	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives) ▪ Social: Interactive – Negotiation ▪ Affective: Positive disposition – Willingness
16 S40: Es em: vale vamos a ir pensando qué vamos a poner…	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective ▪ Social: Interactive – Maintaining interaction
17 S33: Buenas tarde igual también…	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives) ▪ Social: Interactive – Negotiation
18 S40: Vale pues	▪ Social: Interactive – Negotiation
19 S33: – O buenas	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives) ▪ Social: Interactive – Negotiation

20 S40: `[Buenas buenos días`	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives) ▪ Social: Interactive – Negotiation
21 S33: `Sí, buenos días (4) Buenos días Ann Mary`	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives) ▪ Social: Interactive – Negotiation
22 S40: `Buenos días Ana`	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives) ▪ Social: Interactive – Negotiation

When writing an email in Spanish, the formula Dear Sir/ Madam (*Estimado/a or Querido/a señor/señora*) is associated with high levels of formality that do not often occur in daily academic life. Even though we are speaking about addressing a professor, the semi-formal structure good morning/afternoon (*Buenos días, Buenas tardes*) is not frowned upon in this kind of situation when writing in Spanish.

The interrelationship between the different dimensions of the construct is evidenced throughout the episode. In line 1, S33's initial comment portrayed high cognitive engagement by reflecting on sociopragmatic notions concerning roles (professor and friend) and formality. The explanation of the type of register needed for the correct development of the email indicated the positive and goal-oriented disposition towards the language and the task. In addition, initiating the interaction by explaining her ideas to her partner and the use of the first-person plural (e.g. tenemos) also signify social engagement.

The pragmatic-related problem revolved around the greeting. Throughout the whole episode, cognitive engagement was mainly displayed in the reflective attitude of both students

when providing alternatives (lines 7, 10, 13, 15 and 17 to 22), drawing conclusions (lines 4 & 8), questioning (lines 12 and 14) and noticing (line 1). Laughter together with their willingness to manipulate the different pragmalinguistic forms showed the affective dimension of these students' engagement. The social component of the construct was evident in the negotiation of the pragmalinguistic form, developed during the entire episode until reaching an agreement on the use of "Buenos días".

As can be seen, this episode portrayed cognitive, affective and social states of engagement that led to an appropriate resolution of the initial problem. Participants' reflective attitude towards the language, their positive, goal-oriented disposition and the negotiation of the pragmalinguistic form evidenced high levels of Engagement with Language. Moreover, the interrelationship and interaction of the different dimensions of the construct was observed in every step towards the resolution of the pragmatic-related problem. In fact, cognitive, affective and social engagement overlapped within a single turn, making the isolation of each of these dimensions appear forced.

Another example where the relationship between the different dimensions was reflected upon was given by the following exchange between participants S35 and S42. In Excerpt 14, these students were working on their email in Spanish and co-constructing the opening line of the message:

Excerpt 14

Student-student interaction	EWL dimension
01 S35: [le escribo… (pensando) este mensaje	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives)
02 S42: -este mensaje	▪ Cognitive: Alert – Reflective (alternatives) ▪ Social: Support – Maitaining interaction
03 S35: Este email, como quieras llamarlo	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives) ▪ Social: Interactive – Negotiation
04 S42: Vale, este mensaje. Eh: y decimos "para informarle"	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives)
05 S35: - con mis más sinceras emmm intenciones… es que yo hablo así tío	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (noticing) ▪ Affective: Goal-oriented – Agency
06 S42: (tono riendo) tampoco falta…	▪ Affective: Positive disposition – Emotional reaction
07 S35: Estoy mal de la cabeza	
08 S42: Tampoco falta, es un profesor, pero tampoco o sea alguien tipo el rey ¿sabes?	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Critical (drawing conclusions) ▪ Social: Interactive – Negotiation
09 S35: Ya lo sé ya (riendo), ¿cómo?	▪ Social: Interactive - Negotiation
10 S42: O sea no vas a escribirle al rey	▪ Social: Interactive - Negotiation
11 S35: Yo al rey no le hablaría así	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Critical (drawing conclusion) ▪ Social: Interactive – Negotiation ▪ Affective: Goal-oriented – Agency
12 S42: ¿Y cómo le hablarías? (riendo)	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (questioning) ▪ Social: Interactive – Negotiation ▪ Affective: Positive disposition – Willingness
13 S35: Ese ya es otro tema (riendo)… escribo este mensaje	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives)

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S35 opened up the episode by suggesting an introductory sentence (line 1). Silences as well as "ehhh" and "emmm" sounds were considered signs of cognitive engagement as they denoted thinking (line 1, 4 and 5). S42's instructions on what to write (line 4) and S35's completion of S42's utterance (line 5) were also clues of cognitive engagement (Helme and Clarke, 2001). In line 5, S35 made explicit reference to the way he spoke. This shows cognitive engagement at the level of noticing, and affective engagement in displaying agency and adding personal relevance. In the following turns, both students engaged in a discussion concerning roles and status by comparing "professor" and "king" to assess the level of politeness that should be reflected in the pragmalinguistic form. This episode is marked by cognitive and social engagement as observed in their critical attitude towards the language and in the negotiation of sociopragmatic issues. Affective engagement was also portrayed in lines 11 to 13. S35 displayed agency and S42 showed willingness to continue interacting with the language as evidenced by the question formulated.

As part of the second hypothesis, stronger relationship between affective and social states of engagement was suggested. Even though the interdependence of these two dimensions was reported in statistical analysis, the strength of the correlations presented low to moderate values. In fact, our attention was drawn to the fact that in all three languages the interaction between cognitive and affective states displayed moderate to large effects. As previously mentioned, the effect of the affective dimension over the cognitive one had already been acknowledged. However, authors such as Philp and Duchesne (2016) highlighted a close relationship between the affective and social dimensions. In fact, Toth (2020) analysed engagement with language unifying the two dimensions of social and affective states into

socio-affective engagement. Quantitative results did not support our hypothesis, but an analysis of the semi-naturalistic data did provide examples of such interrelatedness. For example, participant S139 had doubts about the spelling of the word "issue" and turned to participant S21 for help:

Excerpt 15

Student-student interaction	EWL dimension
01 S139: "Issue" ¿es con dos "S"?	▪ Cognitive: Alert – Reflective (questioning) ▪ Social: Support - Scaffolding
02 S21: Sí	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective ▪ Social: Support - Scaffolding
03 S139: ¿Seguro?	▪ Social: Support - Scaffolding
04 S21: Creo que sí… es que con una queda… (11) una o dos ¿qué hacemos? Una ¿no? O dos…	▪ Social: Interactive – Negotiation ▪ Affective: Positive disposition – Willingness ▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (noticing)
05 S139: Dos, a dentro dos	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (drawing conclusions)
06 S21: Pues vale, dos… menuda gramática (risas)	▪ Affective: Positive disposition – Willingness

Social engagement was perceived in S139 looking for his partner's support by asking the spelling for the word "issue" (line 1). In this exchange they are both doubting, but relying on each other to solve the problem (lines 2 to 5), and finishes with S21 making a funny remark about their grammar, accompanied by laughter (affective engagement).

Another example of the good rapport between this pair was observed when they were writing the request to a professor asking for an extension of the deadline:

Excerpt 16

Student-student interaction	EWL dimension
01 S21: `coma, ¿se lo agradecería?`	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives and questioning) ▪ Social: Support - Negotiation
02 S139: `Se lo agradecería ¡Está bien!`	▪ Affective: Positive disposition – Willingness ▪ Social: Support - Negotiation
03 S21: `¡Está genial!`	▪ Affective: Positive disposition – Willingness ▪ Social: Interactive – Maintaining interaction
04 S139: `Está re épico (risa)`	▪ Affective: Positive disposition – Willingness and emotional reaction ▪ Social: Interactive – Maintaining interaction
05 S21: `(risa) vale… vale eh: ¿hay que poner asunto o para?`	▪ Affective: Positive disposition – Willingness and emotional reaction ▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (questioning)

In line 1, S21 suggested the structure "I would appreciate it", providing an alternative and, at the same time, asking his partner's opinion. S139 repeated the structure and assured S21 that it was fine (line 2). In lines 3 to 4, they both expressed their agreement and excitement about the choice of structure by playing with different adjectives. Moreover, laughter was perceived as a sign of happiness derived from the resolution of their 'problem'. Social and affective engagement intertwined in the form of support and negotiation together with a positive attitude towards the language as evidenced in the students' excitement and happiness.

To provide further evidence to the relationship between affective and social engagement, Excerpt 17 shows a dialogue between participants S83 and S86 about the introductory lines for their email written in Catalan.

Excerpt 17

Student-student interaction	EWL dimension
01 S83: T'escric perqué… (10+) de la classe i au	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives)
02 S86: Si, i au. Eh::: m'adreço a tu	▪ Social: Support – Negotiation ▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives)
03 S83: Sss, si queda, queda molt bé eh	▪ Social: Support – Negotiation ▪ Affective: Positive disposition - Willingness
04 S86: (riu) vale	▪ Affective: Positive disposition - Willingness
05 S83: (riu)	▪ Affective: Positive disposition - Willingness

In line 2, participant S86 opted for a different and more formal structure to the one proposed by S83 (line 1). This student reacted to the suggestion with happiness and support for his partner (line 3). After that, they both laughed showing agreement. This brief exchange showed social engagement in the form of support and affective engagement by displaying a positive orientation towards the language.

Concerning the relationship between cognitive and social engagement, Spearman's rank order correlation threw small to moderate values only in the cases of Spanish and English, respectively. Nonetheless, previous research like Baralt *et al.* (2016) reported on learners' comments reflecting the social and cognitive interrelationship. The following example from our study provides further evidence for this socio-cognitive interaction.

Excerpt 18

Student-student interaction	EWL dimension
01 **S86:** Yes. Eh::: from my country…	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives)
02 **S83:** Eh::: former?	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives)
03 **S86:** What?	▪ Social: Interactive – Maintaining interaction
04 **S83:** Former, ¿sabes lo que es?	▪ Social: Support - Scaffolding
05 **S86:** Former…	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (noticing)
06 **S83:** For… vale, si. Eh::: former es a former student es alguien que estudiaba pero ya no. Entonces to my former university… no, no creo que…	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective ▪ Social: Support- Scaffolding
07 **S86:** Eh::: my…	
08 **S83:** – To my previous	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives)
09 **S86:** My official university	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives) ▪ Social: Interactive - Negotiation
10 **S83:** – My previous	▪ Social: Interactive - Negotiation
11 **S86:** My previous university.	▪ Social: Interactive - Negotiation
12 **S83:** Vale	▪ Social: Interactive - Negotiation
13 **S86:** Yes	▪ Social: Interactive - Negotiation

When writing their email, S83 suggested the word "former" (line 1). However, her partner was unaware of that adjective (line 2) which promoted an episode of social engagement in the form of scaffolding (lines 3 to 6). By providing an explicit explanation of the term (line 6), S83 attempted to help her partner in the learning of a new word. This episode further developed in negotiations of the language form (lines 8 to 13), where both students provide alternatives and build on each other's contributions. This episode illustrates the way

cognitive engagement, in the form of reflection, led to scaffolding and negotiation, while also promoting social engagement.

By conducting Spearman's rank order correlation and resorting to real examples of participants' interaction, we confirmed hypothesis two concerning the interrelatedness and interaction of the different dimensions of the engagement construct. Statistical analysis resulting from the self-perceived engagement questionnaire showed that cognitive and affective states correlated with each other. As seen in previous studies, affective engagement operated as the motor for cognitive engagement as willingness and purposefulness as well as a cheerful atmosphere gave room to reflection and a critical approach to the language. However, this was not so much the case for cognitive and social engagement with a weak strength of the correlation in the cases of English and Spanish, and no correlation at all in the case of Catalan.

Even though we suggested that the relationship between affective and social states was stronger, statistical analysis proved otherwise. The correlation values were significant although low to moderate across languages. Hence, we might conclude that even though there is a mediating effect between the affective and social dimension of engagement, this interaction is not as notable and relevant as it is with the cognitive and the affective dimensions. These findings contradict what has been previously mentioned by authors such as Baralt *et al.* (2016), Svalberg (2009) or Toth (2020) who commented on a straightforward relationship. Nonetheless, an analysis of the oral interaction of the participants provided some examples of the interrelatedness of these two dimensions.

6.2.2   Interrelationship of engagement across languages

The next step consisted of examining the potential relationship among the different dimensions of the EWL construct across language. The purpose behind this goal was to approach Engagement with Language from a multilingual approach. Studies dealing with multiple languages have acknowledged the dynamic interaction existing between language systems, deviating from monolingual norms of language learning and acquisition. Hence, in this line, cognitive, affective and social states of Engagement with Language could also mediate each other across languages.

Engagement with English positively correlated with engagement with Spanish ($r = .43$, $p < .01$) and to a lesser extent with Catalan ($r = .36$, $p < .01$). Engagement with Spanish and with Catalan showed a very large effect of the correlation ($r = .72$, $p < .01$). From a multilingual perspective, several studies have attempted to explain the relationship among the different language systems. In particular, research tackling metalinguistic awareness and knowledge as well as cross-linguistic influence have provided insights concerning interaction among languages (see De Angelis, 2019 for a review).

Concerning each individual dimension of the EWL construct, cognitive, affective and social ranks were correlated with each other across the different languages. The analysis of the data indicated a relationship in terms of Engagement with Language. That is, cognitive, affective and social states of engagement mediate each other with their equivalent in the other languages. To begin with, cognitive engagement with English showed a low correlation with cognitive engagement with Spanish ($r = .28$, $p < .05$) and with Catalan ($r = .29$, $p < .01$). Nonetheless, cognitive engagement with Spanish and with Catalan displayed a large to very

large strength of the correlation ($r = .69$, $p < .01$). When it comes to affective engagement, the relationship seemed to be stronger across languages. Affective engagement with English showed a positive, large correlation with Spanish ($r = .55$, $p < .01$) and with Catalan ($r = .60$, $p < .01$). Furthermore, this correlation was stronger between affective engagement with Spanish and Catalan ($r = .87$, $p < .01$), which was considered very large to nearly perfect. Finally, interesting results were demonstrated when correlating social engagement across languages. To begin with, social engagement with English displayed a positive large correlation with Spanish ($r = .65$, $p < .01$) but moderate with Catalan ($r = .39$, $p < .01$). The strongest correlation was observed between social engagement with Spanish and with Catalan ($r = .68$, $p < .01$), presenting a large to very large magnitude.

To the best of our knowledge, no previous research has attempted to implement the construct of EWL to explore engagement across languages. A Spearman's rank order correlation showed there seemed to be a link among each dimension of engagement across languages. To start with, cognitive engagement with English poorly correlated with engagement with Spanish and Catalan. The strength of the correlation suggests that a positive state of cognitive engagement in Spanish/Catalan does not easily translate into a positive cognitive state when approaching the task in English. A possible explanation can be the status of "foreign language" which prevents students approaching English with the same level of cognitive investment. In contrast, cognitive engagement with Spanish and Catalan returned a large to very large correlation. This can be interpreted as a more accessible bidirectional link between cognitive engagement when dealing with L1/L2 that exist in the broader sociolinguistic context. That is, Spanish and Catalan co-exist and are employed almost

without "barriers" due to their typological closeness and the everyday translingual practices of the multilingual community. Hence, when it came to participants reflecting on the language, they displayed a similar engagement orientation at the level of cognitive state/process. An example of this was observed in an exchange between S58 and S74 when discussing the opening of their email in Catalan.

Excerpt 20

01   **S74:** Eh...Classe? Nom de la classe... (6) Amb guió baix com una variable de (incomprensible) (rient) Val, assumpte, eh: *pues* el mateix que *antes* de bon, bona vesprada
02   **S58:** Sí, bon día, bona vesprada.
03   **S74:** Bon dia, senyora directora (8) Senyora i el nom de la directora.

In line 1, S74 suggested using "the same as before" when referring to the greeting of their email. He was, therefore, opting to employ the same "*Buenos días*" as in the task in Spanish. This episode illustrated the connection made between Spanish and Catalan, as due to their similarities, participants resorted to the same strategies in both languages.

An episode of a similar nature was observed with S22 and S17 but, in this case, when closing their email in Catalan. Once again, by referring to what they had written before when working on the email in Spanish (line 1), they linked both languages and employed the same strategy "*cordialment*" (sincerely).

Excerpt 21

01   **S22:** Perfecte, ara *una despedida* que... eh::: hem ficat abans *cordialmente*

```
02    S17: Cordialment
03     S22: Lo mateix no? Cordialment el delegat de la classe lo que
            siga ... el delegat de la clase
```

These episodes illustrate examples of participants' verbalizations of the connections they made between languages and our interpretations of such connections at the level of Engagement with Language. However, cognitive mechanisms taking place in the multilingual mind were difficult to observe and were beyond the scope of this research. As explained by Oga-Baldwin (2019), the cognitive processes that occur are difficult to quantify and qualitatively describe, leaving the researcher to make assumptions of what was measured or observed.

Despite the fact that participants' report of their cognitive engagement demonstrated a low correlation between English and the other two languages, there were some instances in student-student interaction where cognitive engagement was evident, for example, between English and Spanish.

Excerpt 22

Student-student interaction	EWL dimension
`01 S13:` So I was willing to ask you. *Entonces pretendía [preguntarte*	▪ Cognitive: Focused- Reflective (alternatives)
`02 S12:` *Sí…*	
`03 S13:` Willing to ask [you	▪ Cognitive: Focused- Reflective (alternatives)
`04 S12:` [You	

05 S13: `If I could change`	▪ Cognitive: Focused- Reflective (alternatives)
06 S12: `[Eh:::` *si* `if if if I can eh::: change`	▪ Cognitive: Focused- Reflective (alternatives) ▪ Social: Interactive-Negotiation ▪ Affective: Goal-oriented - Willingness
07 S13: `[if I can`	▪ Cognitive: Focused- Reflective (alternatives) ▪ Social: Interactive-Negotiation
08 S12: `[The:::`	▪ Cognitive: Focused- Reflective (alternatives) ▪ Social: Interactive-Negotiation
09 S13: `[If I could`	▪ Cognitive: Focused- Reflective (alternatives) ▪ Social: Interactive-Negotiation
10 S12: `[The subject`	▪ Cognitive: Focused- Reflective (alternatives) ▪ Social: Interactive-Negotiation
11 S13: `- If I could have a::: a subject change.` *Si podría tener un cambio de*`:::` `[if I could`	▪ Cognitive: Focused- Reflective (alternatives) ▪ Social: Interactive-Negotiation

In Excerpt 22, S12 and S13 were formulating the request in English. In lines 1 and 11, S13 resorted to Spanish as a support language and engaged in a translingual practice that went beyond translating but 'processing and relaying meaning and understanding' (Lewis, Jones & Baker, 2012, p. 644). Hence, high cognitive engagement across languages was shown.

When running Spearman's rank order correlation with the affective engagement variable, a large correlation was observed between English and Spanish and Catalan, and a very large to nearly perfect between Spanish and Catalan. As opposed to cognitive engagement with English, the affective state seemed to be strongly mediated between

languages. Therefore, high levels of affective engagement in one language promoted high levels of the same dimension in the other languages. Moreover, this relationship is stronger in the case of Spanish and Catalan. Once again, this might be due to the strong presence of both languages in the broader sociolinguistic context of study.

The positive orientation towards the languages in the form of willingness and agency seemed to have mediating effects from one language to the other. This suggests that when implementing tasks that require multiple language use in the same language classroom, the affective dimension of the engagement construct benefits from doing so. In this study, participants displayed a high level of affective engagement that seemed to be beneficial for all languages. Thus, the promotion of a positive affective engagement in a given language will positively influence the affective engagement in the others and vice versa. From a pedagogical perspective, these results are of relevance as affective factors play a crucial role in language learning. The activation of a positive affective engagement, for example, in Spanish, could lead to positive affective engagement in English. The culmination of which translates into a better learning experience for the foreign language.

In a similar line, high levels of social engagement across languages also seemed to feed each other, especially between English and Spanish and, once again, Spanish and Catalan. Participants showing high levels of interaction and support to peers in one language were likely to apply the same attitude when facing tasks in the other languages. The accomplishment of providing support in the form of scaffolding and negotiation as well as guidance when engaged with one language was also translated into the other languages.

Finding examples from participants' interaction that illustrated affective and social engagement relationships across languages was not possible. Even though we have provided many examples of affective and social engagement, episodes where this connection across languages was displayed were difficult to find. In this sense, we are not referring to one engagement activating the other and, therefore, this is reflected in participants' speech (as in the case of cognitive engagement). Our understanding of this relationship goes to a deeper level where participants' displaying a certain level of affective and social engagement with one language are likely to transfer such attitude into the other languages. Hence, a participant showing support and interacting with their classmates when working in one language will probably engage at the same level with the other languages.

This previous idea is backed up by taking a closer look at the data that shows that the levels of affective and social engagement remained steady across languages per each individual case. According to the answers provided by our sample, 55.2% displayed the same levels of affective engagement across all three languages without change. That is, a participant reporting low, high or total engagement in one language would report the same values in the other languages. The same applied to 53.9% of the sample concerning social engagement. Regarding the rest of the participants, 28.9% displayed the same level of affective engagement only between Spanish and Catalan, 3.9% between Spanish and English and, 6.5% between English and Catalan. When it came to social engagement, 15.7% of the sample reported steady levels between Spanish and Catalan and between Spanish and English and, 3.9% between English and Catalan. Finally, a small portion of the sample reported varied levels when compared with the other languages.

To sum up, statistical analysis running Spearman's rank order correlation showed a relationship within the different dimensions of the EWL construct in all languages, with the exception of cognitive and social engagement with Catalan. Stronger correlations were found between affective and cognitive engagement in all languages. Considering engagement with languages from a multilingual point of view, positive correlations were found, especially in the case of cognitive, affective and social engagement between Spanish and Catalan. The interaction and interrelatedness of engagement across languages provides more evidence on the complexity and dynamism of the multilingual learning experience. To further continue exploring the effect of collaborative writing, we will now focus on the co-construction and development of participants' pragmatic awareness while engaged with languages.

6.3   Results and discussion related to research question 3 and hypothesis 3.

The last research question looked at learners' development and co-construction of their pragmatic awareness when engaged in the collaborative writing of the email tasks. Hypothesis three stated that the collaborative nature of this task would engage learners in languaging (Storch, 2005; 2013) in the form of pragmatic-related discussion (Kim & Taguchi, 2015; 2016). This languaging would offer opportunities for the development of learners' pragmatic awareness thanks to their analytical thinking and understanding of pragmatic-related episodes (McConachy & Spencer-Oatey, 2020).

In order to analyse participants' languaging and test hypothesis 3, learners' interactions during the writing process of the collaborative email were recorded and later transcribed. Fifteen pairs ($n = 30$) were randomly selected for a detailed analysis of their

verbalisations in order to further examine multilingual learners' development and co-construction of their pragmatic awareness. The adaptation of the framework for Engagement with Language (see Chapter 5) was employed to analyse those pragmatic-related episodes in which participants discussed email request strategies (pragmalinguistics) as well as social meaning (sociopragmatics). Once a pragmatic-related episode was identified, the adaptation of the EWL construct was employed to describe the mediation between cognitive, affective and social dimensions in learners' co-construction of their pragmatic awareness. In this sense, a more holistic view of learners' interpretation and assessment of pragmalinguistic forms and sociopragmatic notions could be offered.

A qualitative analysis and detailed examination of participant's interactions while engaged in the collaborative writing task showed the learning opportunities for the development and collaborative construction of multilingual learners' pragmatic awareness. Working on a collaborative writing task eliciting the use of requests promoted languaging around pragmatic-related aspects as observed in previous studies (Kim & Taguchi, 2015; 2016). Therefore, hypothesis three was confirmed. Participants' languaging tackled pragmalinguistic issues addressing structure and forms. In addition to this, participants' languaging also targeted contextual features such as level of formality, roles, conveyed meaning, social distance and imposition. Other individual aspects that shaped the email request included interpersonal evaluation and previous experience. The following example illustrates participants resorting to their sociopragmatic knowledge to justify a pragmalinguistic choice:

Excerpt 23

```
01   S83: Yes but that after I, we explain the situation, I mean… you
          explain that you won't be able to change it, to convalidate
          (validate) it. Le dices que no podrás convalidártela cuando
          vuelves y luego le decimos eso.
02   S86: Yes. That I cannot convalidate (validate)…
03   S83: That I won't be able
04   S86: Yes
05   S83: Queda más bonito
06   S86: (ríe) more formal
```

This pragmatic-related episode showed how S83 and S86 relied on their notion of formality in order to shape the grounder of their request. By employing a request strategy, that of ability, they decided to move from "cannot" to "won't be able to" as S83 felt it sounded "nicer" (line 5) and S86 "more formal" (line 6). This exhibited participants' pragmatic awareness in the form of sensitivity and intuition together with explicit knowledge concerning formality in register. By means of pragmatic reflection, participants co-constructed a space to test their norms and knowledge (McConachy & Spencer-Oatey, 2020).

The first step in the analysis of learners' comments displaying their pragmatic awareness was the identification of pragmatic-related episodes. Table 18 summarises the number of episodes found according to whether participants engaged in pragmalinguistic or sociopragmatic discussion. Participants referred to pragmalinguistic aspects of the language related to the opening and closing of the emails and the request strategy to be employed as well as grounders and disarmers. Participants who engaged in sociopragmatic conversation tackled contextual variables, namely, level of formality according to context, conveyed meaning, the role of each participant in the communicative act, social distance and imposition.

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To start with, the sample under analysis, which was working on the collaborative email writing tasks in Spanish, engaged in a total of 77 episodes addressing pragmatic aspects. 58.4% ($n = 45$) of these episodes were related to negotiations about pragmalinguistic forms while 41.6% ($n = 32$) targeted sociopragmatic factors. Participants engaged the least with Catalan with a total number of 43 episodes, mainly pragmalinguistic negotiation in 79% ($n = 34$) of the instances and only 21% ($n = 9$) targeting sociopragmatic concerns. Finally, a total of 56 pragmatic-related episodes were found when collaboratively writing the task in English. Most of the discussion focused on pragmalinguistic aspects of the language with a total of 66% ($n = 37$) of instances while sociopragmatic discussion took place in 34% ($n = 19$) of cases. As a general trend, participants' attention was directed towards pragmalinguistic forms as they mainly negotiated language structures concerning the most appropriate way to greet the addressee and the request strategy to be employed. Fewer instances of debate around sociopragmatic notions were manifested, and, in most cases, they referred to the level of formality as required by the context.

Table 18

Number of pragmatic-related episodes per language.

	Spanish	Catalan	English
Pragmalinguistic forms			
Opening/salutation	12	10	9
Request head act	14	16	15
Disarmer	9	2	3
Grounder	3	0	2
Closing	7	6	8
Total nº pragmalinguistic episodes	**45**	**34**	**37**

Sociopragmatic factors			
Context	15	6	15
Meaning	5	0	0
Roles	7	2	0
Social distance	2	0	4
Power	0	0	0
Imposition	3	1	0
Total nº sociopragmatic episodes	32	9	19
Total nº of episodes	77	43	56

The following step in our analysis consisted of the implementation of the EWL construct which allowed for a description and understanding of participants' languaging from a cognitive, affective, and social dimension. When working on the task in Spanish, participants' engagement showed the number of episodes of both sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic aspects compared to Catalan and English. To exemplify peer-interaction concerning pragmatic issues, the following conversation shows how S9 and S20 reflected upon contextual variables, in this case, formality and how this should be portrayed in language choice:

Excerpt 24

Student-student interaction	EWL dimension	Manifested PA
01 S9: `Como es un profesor, es formal…`	▪ Cognitive: Alert – Reflective (drawing conclusion)	Sociopragmatic awareness: roles and context
02 S20: `Sí`		
03 S9: `Entonces se utilizará la tercera persona… o sea tienes que utilizar la ter… o sea tipo formal como usted y…`	▪ Cognitive: Alert – Reflective (alternatives and drawing conclusion) ▪ Social: Interactive - Scaffolding	Pragmalinguistic awareness: address forms
04 S20: `– usted`	▪ Cognitive: Alert – Reflective (noticing) ▪ Affective: Positive disposition – Willingness	Pragmalinguistic awareness: address forms

Pragmatic awareness was manifested when addressing roles and context (line 1) which motivated an explanation of the most appropriate pragmalinguistic form (lines 3 and 4). In this brief exchange, S9's cognitive engagement was exhibited in the verbalisation of both, pragmalinguistic- and sociopragmatic-related issues.

A few turns later, S9 and S20 negotiated the salutation of their email by focusing on the opening structure:

Excerpt 25

Student-student interaction	EWL dimension	Manifested PA
01 S9: vale… podríamos comenzar como… no sé estimado profesor o no sé… o: (4) no sé… saludos…pones saludos… podríamos poner "saludos coma soy de la asignatura" (2) y pones que… no sé… dices la fecha de entrega del trabajo no ha podido ser… algo así	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives) ▪ Affective: Goal-oriented – Willingness ▪ Social: Interactive - Negotiation	Pragmalinguistic awareness: Salutation and opening
02 S20: Poner como… poner como… eh: buenas tardes Sergio…	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflecting (alternatives) ▪ Affective: Goal-oriented – Willingness ▪ Social: Interactive – Negotiation	Pragmalinguistic awareness: Salutation
03 S9: Buenas tardes no sé… ¿se dice profesor? (5) Vale si, querido profesor o:	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (questioning) ▪ Affective: Goal-oriented – Willingness ▪ Social: Interactive - Negotiation	Pragmalinguistic awareness: Salutation
04 S20: Estimado	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflecting (alternatives) ▪ Affective: Goal-oriented – Willingness ▪ Social: Interactive – Negotiation	Pragmalinguistic awareness: Salutation

05 S9: O estimado…estimado profesor (4)	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflecting (alternatives) ▪ Affective: Goal-oriented – Willingness ▪ Social: Interactive – Negotiation	Pragmalinguistic awareness: Salutation

Learners' engagement with Spanish was observed in their conversation around the pragmalinguistic form to be employed. This episode is characterised by the co-construction of the salutation as evidenced in the offering of alternatives (cognitive engagement). Moreover, participants engaged in the negotiation of the pragmalinguistic form when collaboratively constructing it, showing the social processes that collaborative tasks foster. Their commitment to the email writing showed learners' positive, goal-oriented disposition to engage with the language. Thanks to participants' engagement, they were able to co-construct the most appropriate structure for their email. Furthermore, this languaging of a pragmatic-related nature offered collaborative opportunities for the manifestation and development of their pragmatic awareness. Social engagement seemed to open the door to further cognitive engagement which, in this case, turned out to be beneficial for pragmatic-related discussion. Findings concerning the nature of languaging go in line with what was previously observed by Kim and Taguchi (2015). In their study, participants discussed both pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic factors when working on the collaborative task eliciting requestive behaviour.

Another example of peer-interaction discussing sociopragmatic aspects in Spanish was observed in the following exchange between S36 and S43. Attention to roles and contextual factors were displayed by S36's initial question:

Excerpt 26

Student-student interaction	EWL dimension	Manifested PA
01 S36: ¿Cómo se le habla al profesor? ¿Habrá que usar ahí un lenguaje formal?	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflecting (questioning) ▪ Affective: Goal-oriented – Willingness ▪ Social: Support – Negotiation	Sociopragmatic awareness: roles and context
02 S43: A ver, habrá que empezar, claro, con lenguaje formal (3) Vale, eh::: habrá que poner quién o sea yo o sea cuando enviamos un correo primero yo de normal pongo soy tal.	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (drawing conclusions) ▪ Affective: Positive disposition – Agency ▪ Social: Interactive-Negotiation	Sociopragmatic awareness: context
03 S36: Lo primero le saludas hola, buenas tardes	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives) ▪ Affective: Goal-oriented – Willingness ▪ Social: Interactive – Negotiation	Pragmalinguistic awareness: Salutation
04 S43: Hola, buenas tardes	▪ Affective: Goal-oriented – Willingness ▪ Social: Interactive – Negotiation	Pragmalinguistic awareness: Salutation
05 S36: Señor profesor	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives)	Pragmalinguistic awareness: Salutation

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	▪ Affective: Goal-oriented – Willingness ▪ Social: Interactive – Negotiation	
06 S43: (Ríe) (7) Hola, buenas tardes, soy:	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives) ▪ Affective: Positive disposition – Emotional reaction ▪ Social: Interactive – Negotiation	Pragmalinguistic awareness: Salutation
07 S36: Tu alumno: (2)	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives) ▪ Affective: Goal-oriented – Willingness ▪ Social: Interactive – Negotiation	Pragmalinguistic awareness: Salutation

S36's concerns manifested in the form of direct questions about roles and context motivated this exchange. In the first line, S36's engagement with the language was evidenced in his reflective attitude, his willingness to discuss pragmatic-related issues and his disposition to interact with his partner to solve doubts. Both learners collaboratively constructed the greeting and introduction of this email thanks to the offering of alternatives (lines 3 to 7), drawing conclusions (line 2), the display of agency (line 2) as well as the constant negotiation of the suggested structures.

With regards to engagement with Catalan, fewer pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic instances were observed. In the following excerpt, S51 and S49 were discussing the salutation to be employed in their email when writing to the head of the department:

Excerpt 27

Student-student interaction	EWL dimension	Manifested PA
01 S51: [Bon dia...	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives)	Pragmalinguistic awareness: Salutation
02 S49: Posa-li bon dia que sempre...	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (drawing conclusions) ▪ Affective: Goal-oriented- Willingness ▪ Social: Support – Maintaining interaction	
03 S51: Bon dia...um::: senyora directora	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives) ▪ Affective: Goal-oriented- Willingness ▪ Social: Interactive – Negotiation	
04 S49: Si. Bon dia senyora directora del departament	▪ Affective: Goal-oriented- Willingness ▪ Social: Support – Maintaining interaction	
05 S51: Eh::: senyora directora o sea	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives) ▪ Affective: Goal-oriented- Willingness	
06 S49: Si, li podries posar el títol	▪ Cognitive: Focused-Reflective (noticing) ▪ Affective: Goal-oriented- Willingness ▪ Social: Support – Maintaining interaction	

07 S51: `Bon dia senyora... o sea, bon dia directora del departament`	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives) ▪ Affective: Goal-oriented- Willingness	
08 S49: `Si. Bon dia senyora direc...`	▪ Affective: Goal-oriented- Willingness ▪ Social: Support – Maintaining interaction	
09 S51: `És que senyora directora em sembla…`	▪ Cognitive: Focused - Critical (noticing) ▪ Affective: Goal-oriented- Willingness ▪ Social: Interactive – Negotiation	
10 S49: `para que quedara més... jo que se...més formal`	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Critical (drawing conclusions) ▪ Affective: Goal-oriented- Willingness ▪ Social: Interactive – Negotiation	Sociopragmatic awareness: Context
11 S51: `Bon dia senyora i` *dime* `un nom`	▪ Affective: Goal-oriented- Willingness ▪ Social: Interactive – Negotiation	
12 S49: `Aham`		
13 S51: `I després posem`	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives) ▪ Affective: Goal-oriented- Willingness	

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	▪ Social: Interactive – Negotiation
14 S49: `[A vore`	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives) ▪ Affective: Goal-oriented- Willingness ▪ Social: Interactive – Negotiation
15 S51: `– Com a directora del departament voliem`	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives) ▪ Affective: Goal-oriented- Willingness ▪ Social: Interactive – Negotiation
16 S49: `– Jo mateixa... quan vaig, es que jo vaig fer el pregó de festes i pa això com va tenir que posar vaig dir "estimat senyor alcalde i el nom, estimat senyor regidor de festes i el nom" entonces...`	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (noticing) ▪ Affective: Positive, goal-oriented – Agency ▪ Social: Interactive - Negotiation
17 S51: `Però, a vore [bon dia senyora`	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives) ▪ Affective: Goal-oriented- Willingness ▪ Social: Interactive – Negotiation

18 S49: `[bon dia estimada, estimada senyora del departament`	- Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives) - Affective: Goal-oriented- Willingness - Social: Interactive – Negotiation
20 S49: `-coma, ah! i el títol`	- Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives) - Affective: Goal-oriented- Willingness - Social: Interactive – Negotiation

This whole episode shows the interplay of the different dimensions through the boosting and/or hindering effects of one dimension over the other. In this case, S51's high cognitive engagement prevented her from fully socially engaging with S49. This hindering effect of cognitive engagement over the social one was also commented on by Philp and Duchesne (2016) when presenting the mediating effects between dimensions of the construct of engagement. More specifically, Philp and Duchesne (201, p. 60) talked about the "deactivating or inhibiting engagement" effect of the cognitive dimension over the social as 'student works on the task individually and doesn't want input from others'.

Both partners attempted to solve the matter of how to address their professor. S51 was mainly concerned with choosing the right structure and constantly redirected the conversation to the proposal of alternatives. While S49 also had a goal-oriented disposition,

in this case, coming up with the right structure, he displayed high levels of social engagement. This was evidenced in his attempt to maintain interaction (lines 2, 4, 6 and 8) where he showed he was actively listening to his partner. In line 16, he exhibited agency by adding personal relevance to the matter and as a way to contribute to the negotiation. Nonetheless, and as mentioned before, S51 was focused on the resolution of the language problem and ignored her partners' contribution (line 17). Throughout the episode, only in one instance, in line 10, did S49 resort to his sociopragmatic knowledge to justify his language choice. However, due to S51's reluctance to engage in negotiation, the opportunity to further resort to and collaboratively develop their pragmatic awareness was missed. Broadly speaking, S51 was so deeply cognitively engaged that she limited her ability to reflect on the pragmalinguistic form. On the contrary, S49 kept a well-balanced engagement between the different dimensions as he was cognitively engaged but made sure he socially engaged as well.

Based on this and previous research on engagement (Baralt *et al.*, 2016; Toth, 2020; Zhang, 2021; Hiromori, 2021), we could state that social engagement promotes deeper cognitive engagement as learners are pushed to reflect and justify their choices while in negotiation. The absence of a debate regarding pragmalinguistic forms and sociopragmatic notions may prevent students from manifesting and discussing pragmatic-related concerns, thus, resulting in a lack of opportunities for pragmatic awareness development.

Kim and Taguchi (2015, 2016) found that cognitively complex task promoted interaction and student discussion on pragmalinguistic forms and, in particular, sociopragmatic factors in EFL. Furthermore, they also observed that interaction and negotiation fostered a better comprehension of the form-function-context mapping. Similar

findings were obtained in the current study. In an exchange between S42 and S35 negotiating

the closing of their email in English, all dimensions of the engagement construct emerged

while participants dealt with pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic aspects:

Excerpt 28

Student-student interaction	EWL description	Manifested PA
01 S42: So thank you so much, and I look forward to hearing from you.	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives)	Pragmalinguistic awareness: closing
02 S35: Yeah, that's a very cool way to end a message, and useful and respectful one.	▪ Affective: Positive, goal-oriented disposition – Willingness ▪ Social: Interactive – Maintain interaction	Sociopragmatic awareness: meaning
03 S42: Yeah		
04 S35: So it's perfect	▪ Affective: Positive, goal-oriented disposition – Willingness	
05 S42: And… I am hearing… no I am looking	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives) ▪ Affective: Goal-oriented disposition – Willingness ▪ Social: Interactive – Negotiation	
06 S35: I am I am hear… I am…	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives) ▪ Affective: Goal-oriented disposition – Willingness	

	▪ Social: Interactive – Negotiation
07 S42: Looking	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives)
	▪ Affective: Goal-oriented disposition – Willingness
	▪ Social: Interactive – Negotiation
08 S35: I am waiting… I hope… I hope, I hope to get a	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives)
	▪ Affective: Goal-oriented disposition – Willingness
	▪ Social: Interactive – Negotiation
09 S42: No, maybe I am looking forward to hearing from you, looking! So I am looking forward to hearing…	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives)
	▪ Affective: Goal-oriented disposition – Willingness
	▪ Social: Interactive – Negotiation
10 S35: Hearing	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives)
	▪ Affective: Goal-oriented disposition – Willingness
	▪ Social: Interactive – Negotiation
11 S42: From you	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives)

	• Affective: Goal-oriented disposition – Willingness • Social: Interactive – Negotiation	
12 S35: From you, honey	• Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives) • Affective: Goal-oriented disposition – Willingness • Social: Interactive – Negotiation	
13 S42: (laughing) nonono, that's too…	• Cognitive: Alert – Critical (drawing conclusions) • Affective: Positive orientation – Emotional reaction • Social: Interactive – Negotiation	
14 S35: No, that's a that's a little creepy, no?	• Cognitive: Alert – Critical (drawing conclusions) • Social: Interactive – Negotiation	Sociopragmatic awareness: Meaning
15 S42: Yeah, it's cringe, it's cringe	• Cognitive: Focused – Critical (drawing conclusions) • Social: Interactive – Negotiation	
16 S35: Yeah, it's cringe. Or but but you would like to… I don't know maybe you want to… to… to do a special… to do a special message.	• Cognitive: Focused– Critical (drawing conclusions) • Affective: Goal-oriented - Agency • Social: Interactive – Negotiation	

17 S42: `no no no, something more…` `not as colloquial as if I were, we` `were friends`	▪ Cognitive: Focused–Critical (drawing conclusions) ▪ Affective: Goal-oriented - Agency ▪ Social: Interactive – Negotiation	Sociopragmatic awareness: Role
18 S35: `Ok`		
19 S42: `So, I am looking forward` `to hearing from you and that's all`	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives) ▪ Affective: Goal-oriented disposition – Willingness ▪ Social: Interactive – Negotiation	
20 S35: `That's all`		
21 S42: `A good email`	▪ Affective: Positive, goal-oriented disposition – Willingness	

This exchange featured cognitive, affective and social engagement in the form of awareness of pragmatic-related aspects. The co-construction of the pragmalinguistic structure participants wanted to employ as the ending to the message exemplified their level of social engagement in the form of active interaction and negotiation (particularly lines 5 to 11). Thanks to this, participants decided on the most appropriate structure to conclude their email, in line with the formality expected in this kind of exchange between a student and a faculty member.

High levels of affective engagement were reflected in the use of positive adjectives and in the making of jokes. In line 2, and as a response to S42's suggestion, S35 referred to the structure proposed as "very cool". This was interpreted not only as a sign of positive

affective engagement but also as a way of showing support to his classmate (social engagement). Moreover, in the same line, S35 described the structure as "useful and respectful". The provision of this kind of feedback could be understood as further support for his classmate. In addition to this, these comments also hint at S35's awareness of the meaning conveyed through this structure.

Between lines 11 and 21, participants engaged in a funny exchange which led to a discussion concerning sociopragmatic aspects. In line 12, participant S35 said "honey" as a way to address the reader. Obviously, he was aware of its meaning and the impact it could have as he later defined it as "creepy" (line 14). S42 added that it was "cringe" and S35 agreed but explained that he wanted to "do a special message" (line 16). In this sense, S35 was exhibiting individuality in an attempt to portray his personality. To this idea, S42 added that it should not sound as colloquial as if they were friends. This showed high levels of pragmatic awareness as S42 was alert to roles and explicitly reflected on social distance (friends) as well as language use (colloquial).

This exchange between S42 and S35 exemplified the interrelatedness of the three dimensions of the Engagement with Language construct. Their affective and social engagement fostered deeper levels of cognitive engagement. The importance of engagement in relation to pragmatic awareness development was also discussed by McConachy (2012) who saw engagement as a way of noticing, reflecting and constructing understanding of pragmatic phenomena in interaction. This engagement also indicated an effort to develop pragmatic awareness beyond 'reliance on pragmatic rules of thumb and the tendency to

understand sociopragmatic notions […] in an unanalysed way' (McConanchy & Oatey, 2020, p. 403).

All in all, the examples of peer-interaction as opportunities for the development of students' pragmatic awareness coincided with McConachy and Spencer-Oatey's (2020) understanding of pragmatic development as the result of analytical thinking of sociopragmatic factors from a socio-cultural perspective.

In sum, hypothesis 3 was confirmed after observing participants' languaging regarding pragmatic-related aspects. Multilingual learners engaged in pragmatic-related discussion addressing pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic issues. Thanks to this, participants were able to negotiate and test their hypothesis concerning pragmatic phenomena. This interaction led to the emergence of collaborative opportunities to construct and further develop their pragmatic awareness. Instances of students' explicit comments concerning pragmatic-related issues exhibited their pragmatic awareness at a practical level as defined by van Lier (1998), where learners treat the language as an object and are able to manipulate and adapt it based on the communicative needs. In the current study, participants were able to control the pragmalinguistic forms by suggesting different alternatives (e.g. Excerpt 25) and adapt to the communicative need by addressing and questioning sociopragmatic-related aspects (e.g. Excerpt 26). In addition to this, a further level of awareness, the technical level (van Lier, 1998), where learners manifest a more specialised terminology, was observed. For example, in Excerpt 24, S9 referred to the use of the "third person" and "formal" language in his attempt to produce the pragmalinguistic form.

Nonetheless, fewer instances of the technical level of awareness were found in comparison to the practical level.

The analysis conducted by employing the EWL construct provided a new perspective for data analysis in which not only cognitive but also affective and social states were considered. Social engagement promoted cognitive engagement, that is, analysis and reflection of pragmatic phenomena. As a result, additional support to the importance of interaction and negotiation in the development of pragmatic awareness was provided. In addition to this, it was also observed that other variables come into play when shaping requests in emails. Participants resorted to previous learning and life experiences as displayed by their agency (affective engagement) and subjectivity in their understanding and production of sociopragmatic factors and pragmalinguistic forms. This aspect was also commented on by McConachy (2019) who stated that the assessment of the sociological variables that guided pragmatic behaviour was to be understood as dependent on interpersonal evaluations and assumptions.

A further step in the analysis of learners' co-construction and development of their pragmatic awareness includes the consideration of their whole language repertoire. Hence, a more in-depth qualitative description of participants' interaction while resorting to other languages when addressing pragmatic phenomena was conducted.

6.4   Results and discussion related to research question 3 and hypothesis 4.

In relation to learners' languaging, hypothesis 4 suggested that multilingual learners would resort to the other language systems present in their language repertoire (Payant & Kim, 2015,

2019) in order to deal with pragmatic-related episodes. The use of other languages to make sense of pragmatic phenomena would lead to the development of multilingual's pragmatic awareness (McConachy & Spencer-Oatey, 2020).

Based on the analysis of participants' exchanges when discussing pragmatic-related phenomena, hypothesis 4 was confirmed, as multilingual learners resorted to their whole language repertoire. In doing so, they pooled their languages to address both pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic issues. The use of participants' languages in an attempt to solve pragmatic-related episodes and engage in metalinguistic discussion was also observed by Payant and Kim (2015, 2019). The following comment by S101 clearly exemplifies participants' languaging with the purpose of making sense of the pragmatic-related issue in front of him:

Excerpt 29

01   **S101:** *¿Por qué no* something? Anything e*s cuando haces una pregunta, ¿no? Y tú estás hablando en positivo, en plan… yo creo que es* something *pero vale vale. Te dejo, te dejo… si tu cabeza te ha dicho* anything*, es* anything. You, *si hablas con* could *en vez de con* can *es más formal. Cuando pones* could*, aunque es el pasado de* can*, también se utiliza para hablar de forma… eh: respetuosa. Pero bueno da igual, deja el* can.

The high level of cognitive engagement displayed by S101 was manifested in a series of questions concerning forms and appropriateness. Throughout his whole speech, he used Spanish as a means to convey his doubts. In the first place, he questioned the use of "something" vs "anything" and provided explicit explanation on how to use each of them, thus giving a clear example of his grammatical awareness. Moreover, he also cast doubt on the use

of "can" vs "could" to explain that the latter is used in the past and has a more "*respetuosa*" (respectful) meaning. Therefore, by means of Spanish, he was able to make sense of the language. Hence, S101 displayed high levels of pragmatic awareness about the English language but manifested through the use of Spanish, his dominant language. This translingual practice, even though common in multilingual speakers, provides evidence on the advantage of using more than one language to make sense of the pragmalinguistic issue that needs to be solved. Furthermore, translingual practices allowed for a better pragmatic interpretation and understanding across languages, contributing to the development of S101's pragmatic awareness in both languages (McConachy, 2019).

In order to illustrate participants' use of their whole language repertoire, the EWL construct for discourse analysis was implemented in the description of the interaction between participants. The following exchange between S80 and S72 exemplifies the use of other languages when dealing with English as an L3/Ln. They were discussing the pragmalinguistic form of the request they wanted to employ:

Excerpt 30

Student-student interaction	EWL description	Manifested PA
01 S72: podemos poner en plan, but I can, can I change the subject? Now? *Se puede aún cambiar el…*	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives) ▪ Affective: Positive disposition- Willingness ▪ Social: Interactive – Negotiation	▪ Pragmalinguistic awareness: Request head act – Crosspragmatic consultation

02 S80: `That that's a ask and we need to write that formal…`	▪ Cognitive: Alert – Critical (drawing conclusions) ▪ Affective: Positive disposition- Willingness ▪ Social: Interactive – Negotiation	▪ Pragmalinguistic awareness: Request head act ▪ Sociopragmatic awareness: Context
03 S72: `S***`		
04 S80: `S**** because we can't write, we can't write I am student that… Can I change…thanks. No!`	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Critical (drawing conclusion) ▪ Social: Support - Scaffolding	▪ Sociopragmatic awareness: Roles and meaning
05 S72: `(laughs) Ok, ok`	▪ Affective: Positive disposition- Emotional reaction ▪ Social: Support - Scaffolding	

In this exchange, S72 initiated the interaction by suggesting the possible head act to request a subject change (line 1). In pragmalinguistic terms, the use of the modal verb "can" addresses ability and is known as a conventionally indirect request. This type of strategy is the most commonly taught to EFL learners. After his suggestion, S72 translated his request from English into Spanish. He was therefore making use of one of his other languages to contrast the structure employed. Nonetheless, in the translation offered, the participant employed a more complex structure in Spanish *"¿se puede aún cambiar?"* (Can it still be changed…?) but he was not able to portray such structural complexity in the final form in English. Payant and Kim (2015) found a similar behaviour in their analysis of their participants'

interaction when working on a collaborative task with a writing component. In their study, L1 was employed as a way to mediate language and helped in moving the task forward.

From an EWLs perspective, high levels of cognitive, affective and social engagement were evidenced. S80 stated that his classmates request was "a ask" and that it should be written in "formal" (line 2). In line 4, he further added an explanation to what he meant by saying that students could not ask for something in a such a straightforward way. In terms of cognitive engagement, S80 displayed alertness concerning context, role and meaning. Moreover, he adopted a critical attitude by explaining what could not be done, suggesting that he was aware about the negative impact the conveyed meaning could have. Affective and social engagement were observed in their willingness to engage with the pragmalinguistic forms in Spanish and English and the interactivity between partners.

Towards the end of their email, S80 and S72 suggested the use of a sentence that acted as a disarmer to their previous request. The following excerpt showed how they co-constructed it by referring to form as well as their other languages:

Excerpt 31

Student-student interaction	EWL description	Manifested PA
01 S80: 46. We need one sentence more and… ummm (3) (reads) I hope that you can understand and help me.	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives) ▪ Affective: Goal-oriented – Willingness ▪ Social: Interactive – Maintain interaction	
02 S72: Ya está.		
03 S80: (rereads)		

04 S72: I hope *es espero ¿no?*	- Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (questioning) - Affective: Positive disposition – Willingness - Social: Support – Scaffolding	
05 S80: You could (funny tone) is more formal, could … understand	- Cognitive: Alert – Critical (alternatives) - Affective: Positive disposition – Willingness	Sociopragmatic awareness: Context
06 S72: ¿Could *no es podría?*	- Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (questioning) - Affective: Positive disposition – Willingness - Social: Support – Scaffolding	
07 S80: *Sí, pero si dices usted podría, usted puede pero es podría es más formal igual en castellano. Que si que si que es formal, que esto lo usábamos nosotros en bachiller.*	- Cognitive: Focused – Critical (drawing conclusions) - Affective: Positive, goal-oriented disposition – Agency - Social: Support – Scaffolding	Sociopragmatic awareness: Context Pragmatic awareness: Request head act – Cross-pragmatic consultation
08 S72: Vale vale vale	- Affective: Positive disposition – Willingness - Social: Support – Scaffolding	
09 S80: Could understand	- Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives) - Social: Interactive – Negotiation.	
10 S72: – Me	- Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives) - Social: Interactive – Negotiation	
11 S80: My situation, si-tu-a-tion… (writes) and help me (3)	- Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives) - Social: Interactive - Negotiation	

S80 suggested the use of the sentence "I hope you can understand my situation" (line 1) and later changed the modal verb "can" for "could" as it was considered "more formal" (line 5). S80 was showing, once again, alertness of context by referring to formality in language use (cognitive engagement). S72 engaged with S80's comment concerning formality by translating "could" into Spanish "*podría*" and asking whether that was correct (line 6). This led to S80's explicit verbalisation of the use of "could" as a way to convey formality when writing (line 7). Interestingly, S80 provided an explanation of the use of "could" by contrasting it with "*podría*" and saying that it was formal in Spanish as well. In this way, he opted to show pragmatic similarities between languages to provide a justification for his language choice. Therefore, S80's pragmatic awareness operated at a cross-pragmatic level. This finding is in line with what was mentioned by Payant and Kim (2019) in which Spanish L1 was employed as a tool to discuss language gaps. Participants' use of Spanish allowed for communication between people from different language backgrounds. Moreover, both participants reported high proficiency in Spanish which meant that language choice relied more on daily use and proficiency rather than whether a language was the L1 or not.

Affective and social engagement were also displayed in S80's explanation. On the one hand, agency was reflected in his speech by referring to his familiarity with this structure thanks to previous use (line 7). Moreover, S80 engaged in scaffolding by providing a pragmatic account of formality reflected in the language choice (social engagement).

This episode is of particular interest due to a number of reasons. Firstly, S80 self-corrected his first proposal, that is, from "can" to "could", which denoted some kind of internal processing that we, as observers, did not have access to. Thanks to S72 being engaged with

the language, he asked for further clarification regarding the use of "could". In order to provide an answer to his partner, S80 resorted to Spanish to provide metalinguistic explanation concerning the pragmalinguistic form. Singleton (1997) referred to cross-consultation between languages at the level of lexis. In the case of S80, cross-pragmatic consultation took place when employing Spanish as a supporter language (Jessner, 2006) in English L3 requestive behaviour. Therefore, this provided further evidence with regards to the interrelationship existing between language systems, particularly, at the level of pragmatic knowledge, which is a research area still under-explored.

In relation to learners' EWL, this episode also shed light on how social engagement – in the form of a question to ask for support (line 6)- contributed to the emergence of cognitive engagement and the provision of opportunities for further development of their pragmatic awareness not only in one but two languages, namely, Spanish and English. This is in line with McConachy and Spencer-Oatey's (2020) description of pragmatic awareness as a cross-linguistic phenomenon which enhances awareness of the languages activated. Adding to this view, Jessner (2006, p. 87) also addressed the dynamism between languages and described the activation of two languages resulting in 'the development of metalinguistic abilities, that is an extended monitoring system for all metalinguistic awareness per se'.

Another example of participants' use of their language repertoire to tackle pragmalinguistic issues was observed in a conversation between S93 and S95 about the request head act:

Excerpt 32

Student-student interaction	EWL description	Manifested PA
01 S93: I ask you for	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives)	
02 S95: I ask… you *no porque es informal.* En plan, I ask… for a subject change… in order to…	▪ Cognitive: Alert – Critical (drawing conclusions) ▪ Affective: Goal-oriented – Willingness ▪ Social: Interactive – Negotiation	Sociopragmatic awareness: Context
03 S93: In order to solve big problem	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives) ▪ Social: Interactive – Negotiation	
04 S95: *Sí(5) Y ahora pondría algo rollo. Me preguntaba si… si… se podría solucionar de alguna manera. En plan…*	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives) ▪ Affective: Goal-oriented – Agency ▪ Social: Interactive – Negotiation	Pragmalinguistic awareness: common language resources
05 S93: I wanted to know if…	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives) ▪ Affective: Positive disposition – Willingness ▪ Social: Interactive – Negotiation	
06 S95: – I wanted to know if it is possible	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives) ▪ Affective: Positive disposition – Willingness	

	▪ Social: Interactive – Negotiation
07 S93: [if this situation, this situation could be solved	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives) ▪ Affective: Positive disposition – Willingness ▪ Social: Interactive – Negotiation

S93 suggested the use of a performative strategy (line 1) which is conceived to be rather direct. As a response, S95 displayed alertness and a critical attitude by rejecting that pragmalinguistic form and justifying that it was very informal (line 2). Hence, S95 showed cognitive engagement by displaying awareness of context. Between lines 3 and 4, both participants engaged in the co-construction of the request form. S95 resorted to Spanish to perform the structure he wanted to convey. By turning to Spanish, he was drawing on common language resources to perform the speech act. S93 offered a translation of his partners' comments which helped in the progress of this episode, and, ultimately, in finding a final pragmalinguistic form. In this regard, active social involvement fostered a reconsideration of the initial pragmalinguistic form by resorting to sociopragmatic knowledge and common multilingual resources.

In another episode between S12 and S13, Spanish was used as a tool to mediate language choice. Both participants where in the search for the right request strategy:

Excerpt 33

Student-student interaction	EWL description	Manifested PA
01 S13: So, I was willing to ask you. *Entonces pretendía [preguntarte*	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives)	Pragmalinguistic awareness: Cross-pragmatic consultation
02 S12: Sí…		
03 S13: Willing to ask [you	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives) ▪ Social: Interactive - Negotiation	
04 S12: [You	▪ Social: Interactive - Negotiation	
05 S13: If I could change	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives) ▪ Social: Interactive - Negotiation	
06 S12: [Eh::: si if if if I can eh::: change	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives) ▪ Social: Interactive - Negotiation	
07 S13: [if I can	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives) ▪ Social: Interactive - Negotiation	
08 S12: [The:::	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives) ▪ Social: Interactive - Negotiation	
09 S13: [If I could	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives) ▪ Social: Interactive - Negotiation	
10 S12: [The subject	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives) ▪ Social: Interactive - Negotiation	

11 S13: - If I could have a::: a subject change. *Si podría tener un cambio de:::* [if I could	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives) ▪ Social: Interactive - Negotiation	Pragmalinguistic awareness: Cross-pragmatic consultation
12 S12: [Or, or, or any::: or any solution, *¿sabes? ¿no?* or any…	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives) ▪ Social: Interactive - Negotiation	
13 S13: Coma. So I was willing to… was willing to ask… (low voice while writing). So I was willing to ask if I could have a subject change.	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives) ▪ Social: Interactive - Negotiation	

In terms of multilingual pragmatic awareness, S13 used Spanish as a supporter language (Jessner, 2006) to check form and meaning when requesting in English (lines 1 and 11). The activation of his L1 after the use of the foreign language showed the bidirectionality of the language system. The use of Spanish allowed the episode to further develop until finding a pragmalinguistic form agreed upon by both partners.

Participants' cognitive and social engagement with the language promoted the offering of alternatives and the negotiation of the pragmalinguistic form. High social engagement when negotiating motivated deep cognitive engagement in the search of alternatives across languages.

As seen in previous studies (Payant & Kim, 2015, 2019) the use of participants' other languages in pragmatic-related discussion promoted task development. In the following conversation, S36 and S43 engaged in the co-construction of the request form:

Excerpt 34

Student-student interaction	EWL description	Manifested PA
01 S43: *Vale, vale.* Able to change my… subject… to a new subject. To change, *¿no?* My subject to a new subject where.. *A una nueva asignatura que le valga para algo* (escribe)	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives) ▪ Social: Interactive - Negotiation	Pragmalinguistic awareness: Cross-pragmatic consultation
02 S36: To one…		
03 S43: Which, which no?	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives and questioning) ▪ Affective: Positive disposition - Willingness ▪ Social: Support – Scaffolding	
04 S36: *Sí…*	▪ Social: Support - Scaffolding	
05 S43: Would be…	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives) ▪ Social: Interactive – Negotiation	
06 S36: Which… more useful	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives) ▪ Social: Interactive – Negotiation	
07 S43: Would be useful for me	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives) ▪ Social: Interactive – Negotiation	
08 S36: When I return to: UJI o when returning… waiting for your answer	▪ Cognitive: Focused – Reflective (alternatives) ▪ Social: Interactive – Negotiation	

S43 could not find the words to explain that they wanted to change their subject for a more useful one (line 1). He got stuck on that idea and jumped into Spanish so that he was able to share his thoughts with his partner. Thanks to the use of Spanish, S36 was able to provide an English translation of his partner's idea (line 2 and 6) but including S43's proposals in the brainstorming (lines 3 and 5). Finally, they reached an agreement on the final structure they co-constructed (lines 7 and 8). Through this, high levels of social engagement could be observed in the form of negotiation and scaffolding on both sides. Cognitive engagement was reflected in the questioning and provision of alternative structures. Finally, affective engagement was perceived in participants positive orientation towards engaging with the language.

In conclusion, hypothesis four predicted the use of participants' whole language repertoire to address pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic issues. The qualitative description of the data confirmed this hypothesis but only when participants were engaged in the email writing task in English as an L3/Ln. Participants resorted to Spanish in order to address pragmatic-related episodes by means of translations, comparisons and explanations. Williams and Hammarberg (1998) referred to the use of the L1 (in their case, English) for metalinguistic comments and questions in L3 language switches. The authors distinguished between a "default supplier" function, that is, a language which supplies material to another, and an "instrumental" function, when the language is used as a tool to facilitate communication and provide metalinguistic information. In our study, Spanish played both roles: 1) "default supplier" when addressing pragmalinguistic aspects of the language (e.g. Excerpt 32) and 2) instrumental to engage in metalinguistic conversation (e.g. Excerpt 31).

These findings provide further support to the dynamism and complexity behind multilingual language learning. Furthermore, such interaction of languages did not only occur at a metalinguistic level but also at a metapragmatic one. Hence, pragmatic aspects of the language were also sensitive to multilingual practices. In addition to this, the broader sociolinguistic context of study influenced this dynamic interaction as participants only resorted to the majority language, Spanish, as a trustworthy source of pragmatic reference. Williams and Hammarberg (1998) explained that language switches were sensitive to proficiency, typology, recency of use and status. Drawing on their ideas, we interpret the use of Spanish as the "supporter language" (Jessner, 2006) or "default supplier language" (Williams & Hammarberg, 1998) as a result of learners' higher proficiency in Spanish and the status of majority language in comparison to Catalan.

Payant and Kim (2015, 2019) worked with Spanish-English bilinguals learning French as an L3. In their study, L2 English was employed to a lesser extent to deal with language and task-related dimensions or meaning/content discussion. Similarly, Spanish-Catalan bilingual participants from this study disregarded Catalan as a potential source of information when addressing pragmatic-related discussion. Participants' engagement with the languages promoted the emergence of their pragmatic awareness and, at the same time, opportunities for further development of their awareness. Such engagement operated at a cross-sectional level in the case of English L3/Ln as this language required support from Spanish for further pragmatic development.

Chapter 7. Conclusion

This final chapter comments on the main findings and outcomes of this study together with its contributions to the fields of pragmatics and language learning in general. Section 7.1 reintroduces the hypotheses and summarises the principal results for each of them. Section 7.2 describes the relevant implications for the study of engagement and pragmatic awareness development with special mention to multilingualism as a variable to consider. Finally, Section 7.3 suggests future research lines.

7.1 Concluding remarks

The current study contributes to the interface of research on language pedagogy, L2 pragmatics and multilingualism. To begin with, the use of the Engagement with Language (Svalberg, 2009; 2012) construct acknowledges the multidimensionality of the concept. In this sense, our study further supplies new insights concerning, on the one hand, the implementation of this theoretical framework, and, on the other, a better understanding of the way students engage with language practices. The construct served for the quantitative analysis and qualitative description of learners' engagement with pragmatic phenomena, providing a different approach to the analysis of peer-interaction when learners co-construct their pragmatic awareness. In addition to this, the relevance of participants' multilingual experience was considered in the analysis of pragmatic-related episodes when engaged with the languages. We therefore consider that several research gaps have been covered by 1)

approaching engagement in a multidimensional sense, 2) implementing the EWL construct for the analysis of pragmatic awareness, 3) promoting and analysing peer interaction for the co-construction of pragmatic knowledge and the reinforcement of their pragmatic awareness, and 4) considering learners' whole language repertoire in the analysis of pragmatic-related talk.

In order to fill these research gaps, our study set the following objectives: 1) to assess learners' engagement with the language when working on a collaborative email writing task, 2) to report learners' levels of cognitive, affective and social engagement in each language, 3) to observe the interrelationship existing between the three dimensions of the construct of EWL within and across languages, 4) to analyse the opportunities for the development of learners' awareness of pragmalinguistic forms and sociopragmatic notions while engaged in the collaborative writing task, and 5) to describe the use of learners' whole language repertoire when facing pragmatic-related episodes.

The sample consisted of seventy-six first year university students between the ages of 17 and 26 years old ($M = 18.39$) which were part of four intact classes from the compulsory course on English as a Modern Language. The study followed a mixed-method approach which allowed for a deeper and better comprehension of the findings (Dörnyei, 2007; Portolés & Safont, 2018). On the one hand, EWL was quantitively analysed through a questionnaire which gathered the values of learners' self-perceived engagement with the languages after the completion of a collaborative request email writing task. Statistical analysis consisted of running a Wilcoxon signed-rank test to compare EWL values within and across languages and a Spearman's rank order correlation to check the mediation between the dimensions of the

construct. On the other hand, EWL episodes and the manifestation of learners' multilingual pragmatic awareness in peer interaction was qualitatively explored (Gabryś-Barker, 2019; van Compernolle, 2019) through the analysis of semi-naturalistic data (Bardovi-Harlig, 2010; Nguyen, 2019). Thirty randomly chosen dyads made up the oral corpus (6h 37') of 34,725 words which was examined in detail by employing the construct of EWL.

The first hypothesis predicted high levels of cognitive, affective and social EWLs as reported by participants when collaboratively working on the writing task (Storch, 2008; Shehadeh, 2011; Edstrom, 2015; Baralt *et al.*, 2016). The intention behind this hypothesis was to test the effect of collaboration on learners' engagement levels. By resorting mainly to descriptive statistics, we could confirm this hypothesis as high levels of cognitive, affective and social EWLs were reported by participants. Mean values for each language showed a high level of engagement with Spanish ($M = 2.42$), Catalan ($M = 2.41$) and English ($M = 2.24$). A statistically significant difference was observed between English and both Spanish and Catalan, which suggests that learners struggled more to engage with the foreign language than the community languages. An analysis of each dimension of the construct provided more details concerning this difference. In particular, learners reported lower cognitive engagement in English when compared with Spanish ($Z = -2.385$, $p = .017$ with a low effect size $r = .27$) and Catalan ($Z = -3.095$, $p = .002$ with a low effect size $r = .35$). Affective engagement with English also showed a statistically significant difference but only when assessed against affective engagement with Spanish ($Z = -2.484$, $p = .013$ with a low effect size $r = .28$).

These findings provide support to the positive effect of collaboration in relation to the promotion of learners' Engagement with Language. As required by Lambert *et al.* (2017),

further empirical research in relation to the role of tasks and the quality of learners' engagement was needed. In the first place, this research shows that a collaborative writing task can promote high levels of cognitive, affective and social Engagement with Languages. The importance of engagement in language learning has been posited by Storch (2008), Philp and Duchesne (2016) and Oga-Baldwin (2019), to name a few. While engagement has been understood as a positive state for learners as desired by teachers, this construct is better understood as a sign of quality in student's actions and behaviour towards the language learning experience. Storch (2008) classified this engagement in terms of "elaborate and limited" in peer-interaction, concluding that elaborate engagement lead to language consolidation. Philp and Duchesne (2016) insisted on the multidimensionality of the concept and opened the scope to affective, social and behavioural dimensions beyond cognitive engagement. Finally, Oga-Baldwin (2019) saw in the promotion of students' engagement a straightforward and positive impact on learning.

Secondly, the implementation of a specific engagement construct to research language awareness development, that is, Engagement with Language (Svalberg, 2009; 2012), has allowed for a better description of peer-interaction. The results of this study have shown high levels of cognitive, affective and social engagement as reported by previous research (Baralt *et al.*, 2016; Svalberg & Askham, 2020; Toth, 2020; Zhang, 2021, Hiromori, 2021). In addition to this, the implementation of the EWL construct for student-student interaction examination exemplified its possibilities for the qualitative description of classroom discourse. Approaching each dimension in isolation allowed for a thorough report of students' contributions in terms of cognitive, affective and social states and processes.

Finally, a cross-linguistic comparison of learners' reported engagement showed that the foreign language, English, was not approached in the same way as Spanish or Catalan. While high levels of EWL were displayed in English, statistical analysis suggested a lower level of engagement. This is of particular interest as these findings suggest that students are engaging with all languages but not to the same extent. Hence, in the case of English, there was still room for deeper Engagement with Language at a cognitive and affective level, compared to Spanish and Catalan. The reasons why they did not display similar levels of engagement are beyond the scope of this study. However, further research should be conducted on this matter to better understand the variables (task type, grouping, level of proficiency, to name a few) that come into play.

In sum, the first hypothesis was confirmed thanks to students' responses to the EWL questionnaire together with the qualitative description of student-student interaction as obtained from audio- recordings. High levels of cognitive, affective and social engagement were reported across languages which indicated a positive effect of the collaborative writing task on learners' EWLs.

The second hypothesis predicted the interrelationship and the mediating effect of the different dimensions of the construct of Engagement with Language (Philp & Duchesne, 2016; Baralt *et al.*, 2016; Svalberg, 2009; 2018, Toth, 2020; Zhang, 2021) within and across languages. Moreover, the second part of the hypothesis called for a more noticeable effect of this interrelationship between the affective and the social dimensions of engagement (Philp & Duchesne, 2016). The main aim behind this hypothesis was to obtain evidence on the mediation and dynamism between the three states of engagement in order to highlight the

importance of approaching it in more holistic terms. Based on the statistical analysis conducted, we were able to confirm this second hypothesis. We make this claim based on the results of the Spearman's rank order correlation and the analysis of participants' oral interaction. Firstly, the cognitive and affective dimension positively correlated to a large extent in English ($r = .58$, $p < .01$) and moderately in Spanish and Catalan ($r = .42$, $p < .01$). Cognitive engagement also correlated with social engagement showing low to moderate values in the case of Spanish ($r = .25$, $p < .05$) and English ($r = .35$, $p < .01$), but not in Catalan. Finally, social and affective engagement exhibited a low correlation in Spanish ($r = .26$ $p < .05$) as well as in Catalan ($r = .29$, $p < .01$) but moderate in English ($r = .45$, $p < .01$). Furthermore, the qualitative description of participants' interaction during the completion of the collaborative writing task illustrated and provided further support to this interrelationship. A closer examination of the pragmatic-related episodes exposed the difficulty behind isolating cognitive, affective and social engagement as one mediated the other in actual student-student interaction.

The importance behind these findings relies on the fact that they provide further support to the multidimensionality of the EWL construct. To the best of our knowledge, most work on engagement in relation to language learning has been approached as exclusively cognitive (Storch, 2008; Fernández-Dobao, 2012; Edstrom, 2015). Even though these previous studies were not operationalizing engagement following the EWL construct, they represented major steps towards considering engagement in the language classroom. Other studies like Lambert *et al.* (2017) went further in the investigation of engagement by addressing cognitive, affective, social and behavioural states. Concerning the construct of

EWL, studies like those conducted by Svalberg (2009), Baralt *et al.* (2016), Toth (2020) and Zhang (2021) already pointed out the mediating effect of the three different dimensions of the construct. Nonetheless, these claims were mostly based on the qualitative examination of learners' responses to questionnaires, interviews and learners' interaction during collaboration. The current study contributes to the literature by reporting not only qualitative but also quantitative results.

By approaching students' co-construction of their pragmatic awareness in interaction through the construct of the EWL, we were able to acknowledge engagement beyond cognition. The correlations observed further evidence of the key role played by affective factors and emotions on cognitive engagement. In addition to this, the social dimension of the construct allowed us to understand how knowledge and awareness is built in interaction, that is, through negotiation, scaffolding and active support between classmates. In short, examining our data through the lenses of EWL provided a more complete picture of the way emotional states and attitudes towards the language as well as the kind of relationship adopted by students mediate the cognitive mechanisms that can lead to language development and awareness. While we are fully aware that previous research has focused on cognitive processes, affective factors and social relationships, they have mostly been approached in isolation.

The second part of the hypothesis predicted that the interrelationship of dimensions of the EWL would be more notable in the case of affective and social engagement. Nonetheless, this was not confirmed. Despite supporting the mediating effect through statistical analysis, affective and social engagement with languages showed low correlation

values. However, the most noticeable correlation occurred between the cognitive and the affective dimension of the construct. Baralt *et al.* (2016) already attributed a strong effect of affective engagement over cognitive engagement, as the emotional state of the learner is key to mediate high levels of cognitive engagement. Nonetheless, the literature also pointed towards a close connection between affective and social engagement (Philp & Duchesne, 2016), and even some authors like Toth (2020) combined them both under the label of "socio-affective" engagement. Despite not observing a striking relationship when conducting statistical analysis, the qualitative analysis of the data supports the link between these two dimensions. While all dimensions of the EWL construct play a mediating role over one another, further research should explore why and how affective factors impact cognitive engagement. It seems that finding a purpose on working with the language, willingness to do so and displaying agency can positively influence deeper levels of the required cognitive mechanisms to develop the language.

This hypothesis also adopted a multilingual approach to the study of engagement by correlating the different values of each dimension across languages. The aim behind this procedure was to observe whether learners' EWLs operated in isolation within each language system or whether engagement should also be considered from the point of view of the whole language repertoire. Spearman's rank order correlation showed positive correlations between the three languages but with a stronger effect when it came to Spanish and Catalan. A closer look at each individual dimension showed a low effect of the correlation between Spanish and Catalan with respect to English cognitive engagement ($r = .28$, $p < .05$; $r = .29$, $p < .01$, respectively). However, this was not the case for Spanish and Catalan, in which the correlation

was large ($r = .69$, $p < .01$). The relationship of affective engagement was stronger, especially between Spanish and Catalan ($r = .87$, $p < .01$) as well as between English and Spanish ($r = .55$, $p < .01$) and English and Catalan ($r = .60$, $p < .01$). When it came to social engagement, English and Spanish positively correlated ($r = .65$, $p < .01$) but these values were moderate for English and Catalan ($r = .39$, $p < .01$). In the case of Spanish and Catalan, social engagement displayed large, positive effects ($r = .68$, $p < .01$).

To the best of our knowledge, no previous research has attempted to implement the construct of EWL in order to compare the different dimensions across languages. Therefore, the support we can provide to our results is constrained by the lack of studies found in the literature. Nonetheless, in the case of cognitive engagement, we can find evidence concerning the mediating effect of this dimension across languages. To start with, cognitive engagement is operationalised mainly by noticing, reflecting, comparing and formulating questions about the language. It has been largely evidenced that multilingual learners draw on common language resources (Herdina & Jessner, 2002) to deal with language-related problems. This is so, as multilingual learners tend to develop a higher metalinguistic and metacognitive awareness that enables them to take advantage of their whole language repertoire to compare and notice features across languages. Hence, if we understand cognitive engagement as the active, critical reflection over language items, multilingual cognitive engagement does the same but at a cross-lingual level. From a monolingual perspective, cognitive engagement entails thinking critically about the language by noticing, comparing and focusing on one language. A multilingual approach to cognitive engagement looks at such cognitive abilities in relation to other languages, that is, the comparison, noticing and reflection across language

systems. With regards to affective and social engagement, the correlations reported were of moderate to very large across languages. We interpret this as the possibility that emotional state, willingness to engage with the language, and displaying agency as well as the degree of interactivity and social support can be mirrored in all languages. In this sense, a learner with a positive affective and social engagement state in one language will likely engage in the same way with the other two languages, at least when working on the same task and within the same time span.

The strong effect of the correlations across dimensions between Spanish and Catalan should be acknowledged. We suggest that this is due to the proficiency levels of both languages, the sociolinguistic context, and the typological closeness between the two languages. Firstly, previous research has pointed at the relationship between proficiency and language awareness (Angelovska, 2018; Pfenninger & Singleton, 2016; Jessner, 1999). As participants were proficient speakers of Spanish and Catalan, it might have been this proficiency that allowed a greater engagement in both languages. Secondly, Spanish and Catalan, contrary to English, are part of the broader sociolinguistic context and are typologically close. These two factors might have contributed to the fact that learners see these two languages as similar and without barriers in terms of engagement.

In sum, hypothesis number two was confirmed as Spearman's rank order correlation showed positive effects among the different dimensions of the EWL construct within and across languages. Despite not finding a strong mediating effect between affective and social engagement, statistical analysis did show a relationship between these two dimensions. Moreover, a potential mediating effect of these dimensions was also reported across

languages. In this sense, engagement can also be approached from a multilingual perspective where engagement in one language can impact and mediate the engagement levels in the other languages.

The third hypothesis of the current study predicted that the collaborative nature of the task would promote languaging (Storch, 2005; 2013) about pragmatic-related aspects (Kim & Taguchi, 2015; 2016). This would offer collaborative opportunities for pragmatic awareness development (McConachy & Spencer-Oatey, 2020). The intention behind this hypothesis was to further explore the effect of collaborative tasks but with a focus on the co-construction and development of learners' pragmatic awareness, an oftentimes neglected language aspect. The qualitative examination of the data confirmed this third hypothesis. This claim is based on the following findings: 1) collaboration in pragmatic-related resolution activated multilingual learners' pragmatic awareness as manifested in their languaging, 2) this languaging addressed pragmalinguistic- and sociopragmatic-related aspects and 3) learners' engagement in pragmatic-related discussion offered them the opportunity to resort to, reinforce and build their pragmatic awareness in a collaborative way.

The identification of PREs across languages and their analysis by employing an adaptation of the EWL construct allowed for a deeper and more holistic interpretation of learners' interaction. Firstly, the collaborative writing task eliciting the use of requests fostered learners' engagement in pragmatic-related talk. This interaction where learners openly debated pragmatic-related aspects was considered as languaging. Hence, as commented on by Storch (2005, 2013), the collaborative nature of the task promoted languaging among learners. Furthermore, by controlling the pragmatic feature under analysis,

in this case requests, learners focused on pragmalinguistic forms and sociopragmatic issues during the resolution of the writing task. To the best of our knowledge, few studies have implemented collaborative tasks to engage learners in pragmatic-related dialogue. Kim and Taguchi (2015, 2016) explored this possibility and observed that learners would address both linguistic forms and contextual features when writing the request in pairs. In the current study, learners acknowledged the email request in terms of pragmalinguistic forms concerning openings and closing, disarmers, grounders and the actual request head act. Furthermore, learners also talked about sociopragmatic notions such as context, meaning, roles, social distance and imposition.

The fact that learners engaged in this kind of talk motivated the verbalisation of their pragmatic-related knowledge. As explained by Svalberg (2009; 2012), learners' engagement with the language draws on and develops language awareness. In this case, learners had to resort to their existing pragmatic awareness abilities in order to face the pragmatic-related issue at hand. In turn, the manifestation of their awareness in the form of languaging could also have contributed to reinforcing and even building new pragmatic-related knowledge (McConachy & Spencer-Oatey, 2020). We find support from this statement in the analysis of PREs by employing the EWL construct. While the cognitive dimension of engagement allowed us to understand how participants were approaching pragmatic phenomena in terms of alertness and active, critical reflection, the affective and social dimensions opened a different path of examination. The affective dimension gave evidence of how learners' willingness, purposefulness and autonomy helped in the emergence of learners' awareness as evidenced in their cognitive engagement. For example, there were instances when learners attempted to

face the PRE by referring to their own similar previous experience, either in a learning context or outside the classroom. By doing so, learners displayed agency, contributing to the task through their own personal experience. In addition to this, the social dimension of engagement showed us how active interaction and support through negotiation and scaffolding promotes opportunities for pragmatic awareness development. The fact that learners would put forward their case in order to deal with the PRE prompted negotiation. In some cases, the back and forth between partners in an attempt to make sense of the pragmatic phenomenon would result in collective scaffolding (Donato, 1994). All in all, the cognitive, affective and social engagement of learners in pragmatic-related discussion not only evidenced learners' pragmatic awareness but also helped in the building of new knowledge.

Authors like McConachy and Spencer-Oatey (2020, p. 403) referred to the development of sociopragmatic awareness through "scaffolded reflection" as a way to open the door to deeper notions of pragmatic awareness. Moreover, the authors also pinpointed the articulation of learners' awareness through languaging and how interaction, as in collaborative dialogue, can be of help for the development and reflection of L2 pragmatic insights and knowledge.

The current research contributes to the literature of pragmatic awareness in collaboration in different ways. Firstly, it provides further evidence on the impact of collaboration in language development. Few studies have actually addressed pragmatic competence and awareness as being positively benefited from peer interaction (Myrset, 2021). The current literature on this line of research (Kim & Taguchi, 2015, 2016) has shown that

controlling task complexity in collaborative work can foster pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic talk. In our study, we have also observed the impact of collaboration on pragmatic-related discussion and the possibility that it offers learners to awake their awareness around these notions. Secondly, by analysing pragmatic discussion through the construct of Engagement with Language, we went a step further in considering awareness not only in terms of cognitive abilities but also as the result of affective implication and social interaction. While overtly verbalising pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic notions of the language allowed for an understanding of how learners reflect on the language, the socio-affective dimension let us view pragmatic awareness in terms of learners' personal evaluations (affective) and as a social activity that motivated the co-construction of pragmatic knowledge. Finally, the sociocultural approach to the analysis contributes to current understanding of pragmatic awareness as a social activity that evidences learners' personal judgements and experiences as key (van Compernolle, 2019; McConachy, 2012; 2019). Furthermore, it also shows how pragmatic awareness development is per se a social activity that is not only inherited but also co-constructed. This last aspect is highly relevant in foreign language learning contexts where the possibility of being exposed to the language is limited.

In sum, hypothesis three was confirmed by observing and analysing learners' languaging through the construct of EWL. The collaborative nature of the task promoted discussion around pragmatic-related aspects which evidenced learners' pragmatic awareness at a practical and technical level (van Lier, 1998). The collaborative dialogue learners engaged with has not only manifested their awareness towards pragmatic phenomena but also offered the possibility of reinforcing, rethinking and co-constructing new pragmatic knowledge.

The fourth hypothesis acknowledged the multilingual experience of participants and predicted that during collaborative work, participants would resort to their whole language repertoire (Payant & Kim, 2015, 2019) to solve pragmatic-related issues. In turn, the use of more than one language would help in the development and co-construction of multilinguals' pragmatic awareness (McConachy & Spencer-Oatey, 2020). The qualitative examination of learners' interactions showed that they resorted to Spanish in order to face pragmatic phenomena while working on the task in English. Hence, hypothesis four is confirmed as observed in 1) multilingual learners use of Spanish while engaged in PREs in English, and 2) the fact that Spanish was mainly employed to engage in metapragmatic and task-related discussion.

These findings contribute to the literature on pragmatic awareness and multilingualism by illustrating how multilingual learners activate their whole language repertoire when facing pragmatic phenomena. This is evidenced in learners' translingual practices while engaged in pragmatic resolution. The fact that Spanish was employed during conversation can easily be attributed to a lack of proficiency in English. However, a closer examination of learners' engagement with the languages showed a broader picture. To start with, Spanish emerged in situations where participants needed support to face pragmatic issues of a pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic nature. For example, some pairs used their majority language in order to compare and contrast the pragmalinguistic form employed. They would produce a particular language form either in Spanish or English, and immediately offer the translated version. This is interpreted as a mechanism to double check and make sure the meaning conveyed was the most appropriate one. In her study, Jessner (2006)

reported the use of a supporter language, which in our case would be Spanish, and explained that this is a manifestation of crosslinguistic awareness which serves the purpose of searching for similarities between languages. In this way, the activation of Spanish to face pragmatic issues can also be interpreted as a common practice among multilingual learners who are drawing on common resources (Jessner, 2008) between the Spanish and the English language system. Studies like Williams and Hammarberg (1998), Singleton (1997) and Jessner (1999) reported similar findings in L2 and L3 language switches.

By relying on Spanish as a source of pragmatic knowledge, we were also able to explore learners' pragmatic awareness of their language system. This was evident in the fact that participants employed Spanish to offer explanations and comments of metapragmatic nature (Williams & Hammarberg, 1998). For instance, participants switched to Spanish to provide concerns regarding formality (Excerpt 32) and proper explanations regarding lexical use and the meaning conveyed in a particular context in both languages (Excerpt 31). Payant and Kim (2015) also observed the activation of learners' L1 Spanish in collaboration when addressing L3 French metalinguistic issues, disregarding their L2 English as a language source.

In line with the above-mentioned findings, multilingual language speakers are characterised by an enhanced language awareness, especially concerning pragmatic competence and communicative sensitivity (Jessner, 2008). Finding a way in Spanish to provide support to the verbalisation of their pragmatic awareness further confirms that language systems operate interdependently in an interaction that is cumulative (Jessner, 2008). As a consequence, in this particular context, the development of their pragmatic awareness does not only have a positive impact on a better understanding of the pragmatics

behind the English language, but also on the reinforcement of what they already know in Spanish. This idea is supported by McConachy and Spencer-Oatey (2020, p. 397-398) who describe the gradual development of pragmatic awareness as 'an inherently cross-linguistic phenomenon, as the acquisition of L2 pragmatic knowledge leads to enhanced awareness of the pragmatic features and mappings of both languages'.

All in all, hypothesis four was confirmed as observed in participants' reliance on Spanish to address pragmalinguistic- and sociopragmatic-related aspects in L3/Ln English. In doing so, they engaged with the languages at a metapragmatic level, providing learning opportunities (Svalberg & Askham, 2020) for pragmatic awareness development at a cross-lingual level.

7.2   Implications of the study

The results derived from the current study have implications that can be applied to the multilingual language classroom and language pedagogy.

To start with, the first hypothesis explored the effect a collaborative writing task, with a focus on requestive behaviour, has on multilingual learners' Engagement with the Languages. Findings showed that students reported high levels of cognitive, affective and social engagement when collaboratively working on task resolution across Spanish, Catalan and English. This provides further evidence on the positive impact of collaboration in the language classroom as assessed by learners' engagement with the language. While for the most part cognitive engagement was studied and acknowledged in language research (Storch, 2008), affective and social engagement also play a crucial role. From a pedagogical point of

view, when designing collaborative writing tasks, teachers and language experts should acknowledge the affective and social value of it as well (Shehadeh, 2011). The current study advocates a conception of engagement that not only considers reflection and critical thinking as the ultimate goal of a language task. While it is true that the cognitive dimension is key in language learning, it does not represent the only way towards language development. It can be seen that the design of tasks that acknowledge participation, learners' agency and autonomy as well as student-student interaction can have a positive effect in the overall engagement with the language (Chen & Hapgood, 2019). In addition to this, we suggest that engagement with the language can be guided. The framework can be employed as a way to exemplify and indicate the signs of engagement. Making these features visible for teacher and learners can be of help to guide them through the task and drive their own engagement with the language. As observed in the current study, learners reported higher values of engagement in Spanish and Catalan when compared to English. This measurement of engagement suggests that there is room for improvement, especially when dealing with foreign languages.

In line with acknowledging the socio-affective dimension of engagement, the second hypothesis showed the interrelationship of the different dimensions of the construct. The social and affective states seem to be central in relation to fostering cognitive engagement. For example, while controlling task complexity can be beneficial in terms of cognitive engagement, a highly demanding task may also have a negative effect in the affective and social dimension. Frustration and limited interaction can be the unexpected result which, in turn, can negatively impact the cognitive state. On the other hand, research has shown that

activating the affective component of a task has a positive benefit not only for the dimension itself but also for the others. For example, Lambert *et al.* (2017) reported on the positive impact of implicating learners and their personal experiences in task design. The social component of the construct addresses the relationships that are intrinsic to the language learning experience in the classroom. By highlighting the important role these relationships play in the learning process, we can promote a safe space for learners to hypothesise, try, fail and, ultimately, learn with the help of their peers.

This second hypothesis also shows that engagement operates across languages, with cognitive, affective and social dimensions influencing one another across the different language systems of the learner. The main pedagogical implication that we can draw from these findings is that the language learning experience is holistic and dynamic. The monolingual conception of isolating languages is artificial and not only prevents language growth but, as seen in this research, also prevents the development of cognitive processing, a positive affective state and social processes from one language to the other. The correlations found among the different dimensions of the construct across languages suggest that a positive engagement in one language can have a positive effect on the engagement with other languages. By knowing this, the work in terms of cognitive, affective and social engagement conducted in one language is already an advantage for the other language, and future, language systems. Most likely the student will take with them their critical and reflective attitude and willingness to engage and interact to their other language learning experiences. As already posited, the training of learners' engagement with the language, and its corresponding language awareness development, should be seen from a multilingual point of

view. Firstly, future research on engagement with the language should consider learners' whole language repertoire in order to account for an accurate depiction of engagement. At the classroom level, we insist on a plurilingual approach in schools where the languages are not learnt in isolation but integrated.

The third and fourth hypotheses link the previously described ideas about collaboration, awareness and multilingualism by addressing multilingual pragmatic awareness development when engaged in collaborative task resolution. Findings from the current study showed that a collaborative task that focuses on requestive behaviour can engage learners in pragmatic-related talk. This talk may address pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic knowledge, both equally important in the development of pragmatic awareness. As a potential pedagogical outcome from these findings, the design and implementation of collaborative tasks that tackle pragmatic aspects can help to overcome the limitations around the teaching and learning of pragmatics in foreign language learning contexts. Current approaches to the teaching of pragmatics rely on the development of learners' own ability to negotiate and interpret appropriateness against the learning of a fixed body of pragmatic-related knowledge (Cohen & Sykes, 2013). The kind of interaction that arises from collaboration favours deeper critical and reflective thinking that questions the highly criticised pre-established ideas of form-function-context mapping (McConachy, 2019; van Compernolle, 2019; van Compernolle & Kinginger, 2013; van Compernolle *et al.*, 2016).

In addition to this, a multilingual language classroom is expected to foster plurilingual practices that acknowledge learners previously learnt languages to, among many other things, raise awareness of their communicative repertoire. In the current study, learners resorted to

the majority language to address and overcome metapragmatic issues in L3/Ln English. Hence, this aspect should be considered when designing collaborative tasks, especially when instructing learners on how to approach their interaction. Clearly explaining that the use of learners' whole language repertoire is welcomed and encouraged, recognises that their multilingual experience is a valuable resource for pragmatic awareness development. Moreover, this plurilingual practice in collaboration mirrors the 'dynamic, multilingual and informed by diverse assumptions about appropriate language use' (McConachy & Spence-Oatey, 2020, p. 407) that characterises communication. Therefore, collaboration is not only beneficial for pragmatic awareness development but also for preparing students to face real-world communicative encounters.

7.3 Limitations and future research directions

The current study has implemented the construct of Engagement with Language (Svalberg, 2009, 2012) for the examination and description of multilingual learners' pragmatic awareness. Future research in this line should emphasise the importance of engagement as a measurement of quality in peer-interaction for the promotion of pragmatic awareness development. In particular, studies should place emphasis on the role of interaction as an interpretative process for the development of sociopragmatic notions in multilingual contexts (McConachy, 2012; van Compernolle, 2016; Liddicoat & McConachy, 2021). The current study is conceived as a first step towards the confirmation that the use of Engagement with Language as a framework can be implemented for the analysis of pragmatic-related discussion from a multilingual perspective (Svalberg, 2009; 2018). Nonetheless, further

research would be beneficial to extend this line of work and overcome some of the limitations of this study.

In the first place, this study reported on the level of Engagement with Languages of students working collaboratively in the writing of a request email at a certain point in time through the use of questionnaires and elicited interaction. On the one hand, subsequent research should adopt a more longitudinal approach to the study of engagement. This would provide an account of engagement variation along a period of time and, in turn, give new insights on the factors that could determine engagement. In doing so, manipulating task complexity and pair dynamics, for example, could help in comprehending what boosts or hinders learners' engagement during task performance. On the other hand, special attention should be placed on data collection tools. The current study relied on questionnaires and elicited interaction as a way to triangulate data. In the future, other combinations of quantitative and qualitative techniques to measure engagement could guarantee validity. For instance, a more elaborate questionnaire combined with diaries or interviews could provide a more in-depth description of the phenomenon.

Secondly, hypothesis number two predicted the interrelationship of the different dimensions of the construct of EWL. This was confirmed mainly through quantitative account and, subsequently, the qualitative description of peer-interaction. However, there was no further factor analysis that could signal this mediation. Therefore, and as a follow-up, controlling these three dimensions in task design could shed light on the specific drivers that guide them. For example, and as previously mentioned, manipulating the number of students working collaboratively and paying special attention to social relations when doing so could

be of use to analyse social engagement. Based on this information, one could pay attention to potential changes in the cognitive and affective states of a particular group of students. Another possible venue is investigating EWL in different learning contexts (Baralt *et al.*, 2016) and observing the alterations of engagement and their impact on the different dimensions.

The third hypothesis focused on the languaging produced as a result of learners' engagement with the languages. More specifically, languaging around pragmatic-related aspects. In this study, the three main sociopragmatic variables controlled during the creation of collaborative writing task were that of social distance, power and rank of imposition. Other sociological notions such as gender or role were not considered. Future studies should continue this line of research by digging into learners' conceptions of the different sociopragmatic concepts. The current state-of-the-art sees an opening for metapragmatic reflection and development in learners' interpretative process. The shift towards a more flexible but complex view of the pragmatic domain looks at the individual and their cultural and linguistic assumptions. Hence, studies focusing on learners' interpretations of sociopragmatic notions should work on the verbalisation and negotiation of these matters to guide learners in pragmatic-decision making.

Finally, the current research has looked at the multilingual experience of the students as an asset rather than as a constraint. The fourth hypothesis anticipated the use of students' whole language repertoire to face pragmatic-related episodes. While this was confirmed, one of the limitations of this study is the number of participants. Hence, future research should continue exploring the use of learners' language repertoire but on a bigger scale. Another limitation is the absence of a control group to contrast language use. Future studies following

this research line would benefit from, for example, a monolingual control group to compare

multilingual language use when facing pragmatic-related episodes. In conclusion, research

addressing the multilingual reality of participants should continue looking at the interaction

between language systems in relation to learners' interpretative process of pragmatic

phenomena.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1

CUESTIONARIO

INFORMACIÓN:

Las respuestas dadas al siguiente cuestionario serán utilizadas exclusivamente para fines académicos. Toda información personal permanecerá guardada de manera segura y estrictamente confidencial. En ninguna circunstancia vuestros datos personales serán revelados. Se pide nombre y apellidos para poder realizar un seguimiento de vuestras respuestas y evolución, pero vuestra identidad no será revelada en ninguna ocasión.

Nº de estudiante:	
Nombre y apellido(s):	
Edad:	
Género:	o **Hombre** o **Mujer**
Email:	

I. TU HISTORIA LINGÜÍSTICA

a) *Según tu propio criterio, menciona las lenguas que hablas/utilizas en el orden en las cuales las has aprendido (una de ellas DEBE ser el inglés).*

LS1*	LS2	LS3	LS4 (if so)

* Entendemos por LS1 como primera lengua, LS2 como segunda lengua, y así.

b) *Siguiendo el orden que has mencionado anteriormente, completa la siguiente tabla con información relacionada con tus lenguas (LS1, LS2, LS3). No hay respuestas acertadas o erróneas y simplemente con unas pocas palabras es suficiente.*

1. Primera lengua **(LS1)**:			
2. Aprendí mi **LS1** en (*por ejemplo, en casa/en una academia/en el barrio*):			
3. Comencé a aprender mi **LS1** a la edad de:			
4. Mi competencia en mi **LS1** es de *(rodea la respuesta más apropiada)*:	Principiante	Elemental	Intermedia baja
	Intermedia alta	Avanzado	Competente

5. Segunda lengua **(LS2)**:			
6. Aprendí mi **LS2** en:			
7. Comencé a aprender mi **LS2** a la edad de:			
8. Mi competencia en mi **LS2** es de *(rodea la respuesta más apropiada)*:	Principiante	Elemental	Intermedia baja
	Intermedia alta	Avanzado	Competente

9. Tercera lengua **(LS3)**:			
10. Aprendí mi **LS3** en:			
11. Comencé a aprender mi **LS3** a la edad de:			
12. Mi competencia en mi **LS3** es de *(rodea la respuesta más apropiada)*:	Principiante	Elemental	Intermedia baja
	Intermedia alta	Avanzado	Competente

340

Si también hablas una cuarta lengua, por favor completa la siguiente tabla:			
13. Cuarta lengua **(LS4)**:			
14. Aprendí mi **LS4** en (*por ejemplo, en casa/en una academia/en el barrio*):			
15. Comencé a aprender mi **LS4** a la edad de:			
16. Mi competencia en mi **LS4** es de (*rodea la respuesta más apropiada*):	Principiante	Elemental	Intermedia baja
	Intermedia alta	Avanzado	Competente

*c) Con respecto al uso del **inglés**, completa la siguiente tabla:*

17. Razón/motivo de estar aprendiendo inglés (*por ejemplo, obtener un certificado*):		
18. Estoy expuesto/a a la lengua inglesa durante:	**Nº de horas por semana:** _____	**En** (una o más opciones validas): o Academia o Universidad o EOI o Clases particulares o Otros (series, música/entrete-nimiento)

19. Completar únicamente en caso de haber estado en un país de habla inglesa (un mes o más mínimo):

19.1 País:	
19.2 Tiempo en el extranjero (en meses):	
19.3 Razón/motivo para estar en el extranjero:	

20. También hablo otras lenguas: _____.

II. USO DE LAS LENGUAS

Lee la siguiente tabla y elige si estás de acuerdo (✓) o en desacuerdo (X) con las declaraciones sobre el castellano, valenciano e inglés. Observa el siguiente cuadro como ejemplo:

	Castellano	Valenciano	Inglés
Me gusta escuchar hablar esta lengua	✓	✓	X

	Castellano	Valenciano	Inglés
21. Me gusta escuchar hablar esta lengua			
22. Esta lengua debería ser enseñada a todo el alumnado en la Comunidad Valenciana			
23. Me gusta hablar en esta lengua			
24. Esta es una lengua fácil de aprender			
25. No hay lenguas más útiles para aprender que esta lengua			
26. Prefiero que me enseñen en esta lengua			
27. Aprender esta lengua enriquece mi conocimiento cultural			
28. No me importaría casarme con un hablante de esta lengua			
29. Vale la pena aprender esta lengua			
30. Si tuviera hijos, me gustaría que fueran hablantes de esta lengua independientemente de otras lenguas que puedan saber			

III. INFORMACIÓN PERSONAL

Completa la siguiente sección con información sobre tus estudios y país de procedencia. No hay respuestas acertadas o erróneas y simplemente con unas pocas palabras es suficiente.

31. Nivel de educación actual (selecciona una o más opciones):

O Grado en: _____. ☐ 1º año ☐ 2º año ☐ 3º año ☐ 4º año
O Máster en: _____. ☐ 1º año ☐ 2º año ☐ 3º año ☐ 4º año
O Otro: _____.

32. Trabajo: ☐ Sí   Posición/puesto: _____.
            ☐ No

33. País de origen:	
34. País de residencia actual:	
35. Si tu país de origen NO es España, por favor completa la siguiente tabla:	

35.1 Edad vivida en país de origen:	Desde los:	hasta los:
35.2 Tiempo vivido en España (años y meses):		
35.3 Razón/motivo de vivir en España:		

IV. HISTORIA FAMILIAR

36. País de origen de la madre:	
37. País de origen del padre:	
38. Lengua(s) hablada(s) por la madre (siendo la primera la LS1):	
39. Lengua(s) hablada(s) por el padre (siendo la primera la LS1):	

CUESTIONARIO

¡Gracias por tu participación al rellenar este cuestionario!
Apreciamos mucho tu ayuda.
En caso de duda puedes contactarme a:
Ignacio Martinez Buffa
buffa@uji.es

APPENDIX 2

COLLABORATIVE WRITING TASK

EMAIL WRITING TASK

You are going to **read three hypothetical situations**. For each of them you will be required to **write a short email** in order to fulfil such situation. Read thoroughly and, in case of doubt, ask.

Vais a leer tres situaciones hipotéticas. Para cada una de ellas, se os pedirá que escribáis un breve correo respondiendo a la situación planteada. Leed con detenimiento y en caso de duda preguntadnos.

Llegireu tres situacions hipotètiques. Per cadascuna se vos demanarà que escrigueu un breu correu a la situació plantejada. Llegiu detingudament cada situació i, en cas de dubte, pregunta.

TAREA 1: CASTELLANO (50–80 PALABRAS)

Has estado implicado en muchos trabajos finales de diferentes asignaturas y, tras varios proyectos grupales, no has tenido tiempo de terminar un trabajo individual que depende solo de ti. La fecha de entrega es hoy y sabes que necesitas más tiempo para poder acabarlo. Decides escribir un correo a tu **profesor/a** pidiéndole que te **extienda el plazo** para poder terminarlo:

Mensaje nuevo	— ↗ ✕
Para	Cc Cco
Asunto	
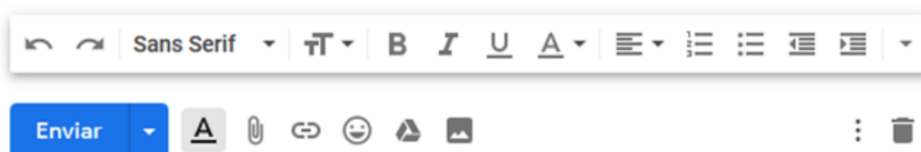
TASCA 2: VALENCIÀ (50–80 PARAULES)

S'apropa la setmana d'exàmens del mes de gener. Tu i la resta de la classe us heu adonat que teniu dos exàmens d'assignatures molt teòriques amb només un dia de diferència. Voleu tindre més dies de diferència per a poder estudiar i repassar. Per tal d'evitar aquesta situació, tu, com a delegat/da de classe, decideixes enviar un correu a la **directora del departament** perquè **canvie les dates dels exàmens**:

Missatge nou	— ↗ ×
Destinataris	
Assumpte	

--

Sans Serif ▾ | ᴛᴛ ▾ | **B** | *I* | U̲ | A̲ ▾ | ☰ ▾ | ⫴ | ⫶ | ⇥ | ⇤ | " | ✗

Envia   A̲ 📎 🔗 ☺ △ 🖼   S'ha desat 🗑 ⋮

TASK 3: ENGLISH (50-80 WORDS)

You are in England as part of the Erasmus programme. The first day of class at your new university, you realise that you have enrolled in a subject that you cannot validate when returning to UJI. The enrollment period is closed and you cannot change the subject! You decide to email the **enrolment manager** of your new university to explain the situation and **ask for a subject change**:

New Message   — ⤢ ✕

To   Cc Bcc

Subject

↶ ↷ Sans Serif ▾ ⊤▾ **B** *I* U̲ A̲ ▾ ≡▾ ⠿ ☰ ⇤ ⇥ ▾

Send ▾ A̲ 🔗 ☺ △ 🖼   ⋮ 🗑

APPENDIX 3

POST-TASK QUESTIONNAIRE

You are going to read some statements regarding preferences while working in this language task. You will have to write whether these statements are correct (✓) or incorrect (X) about you for each of the three languages used during the particular task.
Please, when completing this table think of A) the task you just did with your partner and B) each language you have used during the task.

Vas a leer algunas declaraciones sobre tus preferencias al trabajar en esta tarea. Tendrás que escribir si son correctas (✓) o incorrectas (X) estas declaraciones sobre ti para cada una de las tres lenguas usadas durante esta tarea en particular.
Por favor, completa la tabla pensando en A) la tarea que acabas de realizar con tu compañero/a y B) cada lengua que has utilizado durante la tarea.

Llegiràs algunes declaracions sobre les teues preferències quan treballaves en aquesta tasca. Has d'escriure si són correctes (✓) o incorrectes (X) aquestes declaracions sobre tu per a cada una de les tres llengües d'aquesta tasca en particular.
Per favor, completa la taula i pensa en A) la tasca que acabes de realitzar amb el teu company/companya i B) cada llengua que has fet servir durant la tasca.

Declaraciones sobre ti	Inglés Anglès	Castellano Castellà	Valenciano Valencià
Yo interactúo con mi compañero/a	✓	X	✓

Declaraciones sobre ti	Inglés / Anglès	Castellano / Castellà	Valenciano / Valencià
1. Yo apenas controlo lo que influyo *1. Jo gairebé no controle el que influïsc*			
2. Yo divago al realizar la tarea *2. Jo divague quan realitze la tasca*			
3. Yo encuentro difícil estar atento/a al lenguaje y a la interacción con mi compañero/a *3. Jo trobe difícil estar atent/a al llenguatge i a la interacció amb el meu company/a*			
4. Yo estoy decidido/a a realizar la tarea *4. Jo estic decidit/da a realitzar la tasca*			
5. Yo prefiero esperar a que mi compañero/a comience a interactuar *5. Jo preferisc esperar que el meu company/a comence a interactuar*			
6. Yo puedo centrarme en la lengua a trabajar *6. Jo em puc centrar en la llengua a treballar*			
7. Yo evito intercambiar ideas sobre la lengua de trabajo con mi compañero/a *7. Jo evite intercanviar idees sobre la llengua de treball amb el meu company/a*			
8. Yo puedo reflexionar sobre la lengua al realizar la tarea *8. Jo puc reflexionar sobre la llengua quan realitze la tasca*			
9. Yo quiero ser el primero/a en comenzar a interactuar *9. Jo vull ser el primer/a a començar a interactuar*			

Declaraciones sobre ti	Inglés Anglès	Castellano Castellà	Valenciano Valencià
10. Yo interactúo con mi compañero/a *10. Jo interactue amb el meu company/a*			
11. Yo evito razonar sobre lengua durante la tarea *11. Jo evite raonar sobre la llengua durant la tasca*			
12. Yo ayudo y comparto con mi compañero/a sobre la lengua a trabajar *12. Jo ajude i compartisc amb el meu company/a sobre la llengua que estem treballant*			
13. Yo evito participar *13. Jo evite participar*			
14. Yo puedo controlar mi aportación *14. Jo puc controlar la meua aportació*			
15. Yo quiero participar *15. Jo vull participar*			
16. Yo evito hablar con la otra persona *16. Jo evite parlar amb l'altra persona*			
17. Yo suelo divagar al centrarme en la demanda de la lengua trabajada *17. Jo solc divagar quan em centre en el que em demana la llengua de treball*			
18. Yo estoy alerta durante la interacción con mi compañero/a *18. Jo estic alerta durant la interacció amb el meu company/a*			

APPENDIX 4

TRANSCRIPTION CONVENTIONS

S = STUDENT
(TRANSCRIBER'S NOTES)
– CUT OFF SPEECH
(1) PAUSE IN SECONDS
[OVERLAP IN SPEECH
::: EXTENSION OF SOUND