Assessing L2 Pragmatic Development: Pragmatics SIG Forum

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The JALT Pragmatics SIG Forum brought together 3 researchers who are investigating learner L2 pragmatic competence and ability through various assessment tools. This paper recounts their presentations and subsequent discussion with forum attendees. Joseph Siegel discussed the use of oral discourse completion tests and role-play tasks that he used as pragmatic assessment tools in recent research on the topic of pragmatic development during study abroad. Yusuke Okada investigated the change in a learner's participation in a peer-peer multi-party EFL speaking test comparing her first and second examination and discussed the idea of interactional competence as an assessment objective. Aki Siegel assessed one participant's word search sequences in L2 interactions outside the language classroom through conversation analysis. The forum provided insights on several methods for pragmatic assessment.

JALT語用論部会では様々な測定法を用いて学習者の第二言語語用論的（言語）能力を研究している3名の研究者によるフォーラムを行った。本稿はそのフォーラムにおける彼らの発表と参加者との議論をまとめたものである Joseph Siegelは彼が最近携わった学習者の海外留学期間における語用論的能力発達研究に用いた測定法である談話完成テストとロールプレイに関する議論を行った。Yusuke Okadaは英語授業での2回の学生間集団会話テストにおける1名の学習者の参加手段の変化を相互行為能力という概念から調査した。Aki Siegelは会話分析を用い1名の第二言語話者の教室外相互行為での言葉探しシークエンスの変化を評価した。このようにフォーラムでは第二言語語用論的能力の評価に用いることの出来る種々の測定法・概念を考察した。

At the JALT Pragmatics SIG Forum, three speakers discussed their views, shared findings, and offered personal experiences related to pragmatic assessment and research. The first speaker, Joseph Siegel, compared the use of oral discourse completion tasks to role-play tasks as options for eliciting spoken pragmatic output. The second presenter, Yusuke Okada, examined student interactional competence in a multi-person interaction via a discursive pragmatic approach. The third speaker, Aki Siegel, detailed how word search sequence interaction changed during L2 interactions outside the classroom context. Following the three speakers, discussion with audience members provided stimulating insights into pragmatic assessment and set potential objectives for future research.

Options for Pragmatic Assessment

Joseph Siegel

Joseph Siegel considered the benefits and drawbacks of using oral discourse completion tests (ODCTs) and role-plays (RPs) for the purpose of evaluating learners' pragmatic speaking ability. Siegel used both forms of elicitation during a project focusing on pragmatic development during study abroad. Throughout this experience, he encountered various obstacles to both types of assessment. He shared strategies for mitigating those obstacles.

Both ODCTs and RPs have certain elements in common. For instance, both require participants to produce language verbally and both can be initiated in similar ways (e.g., based on a written or spoken prompt). However, the two types of pragmatic assessment are also distinct in many ways, and one difference is the role of participants. In ODCTs, participants produce one-way speech, but in RPs, the participant must interact in a situation with another speaker (e.g., the researcher or another participant). In addition, RPs provide output that more closely resembles that of natural two-way communication. Furthermore, the demands on the speaker, which may affect the quality of spoken output, vary depending on the elicitation procedure. It is also likely that learners and teacher–researchers are more familiar with the RP format, as RPs are common classroom activities whereas ODCTs are not.

Although discourse completion tests can be completed in written form, the focus on the current study was on spoken output, and thus ODCTs were used. An ODCT requires a person to "listen to a description of a situation . . . and to say aloud what they would say in that situation" (Brown, 2001, p. 302). In this sense, they consist of one-way communication: The student states aloud his or her projected speech in the hypothetical situation. The researcher only provides the prompt, which could be read aloud to the candidate, read silently by the candidate, or delivered via video. The researcher refrains from interacting with the candidate during the speech but may be available to answer questions related to the situation. Candidates are able to speak uninterrupted.

In contrast, RPs actively involve both candidate and researcher throughout the task. As such, they are two-way communication in that the researcher and candidate must listen to and respond to each other in order to complete the task. During RPs, candidates are provided a "description of a situation . . . and must play a particular role with another person in that situation" (Brown, 2001, p. 302). The researcher must be an active participant in the interaction and therefore has more of an impact on the candidate's speech than in an ODCT. In RPs, candidates must also react to their interlocutor in real time, which reflects more realistic conversation than in ODCTs.

Issues and Possible Solutions

The presenter incorporated both ODCTs and RPs into a research project aimed at assessing study abroad learners' pragmatic development after a one-semester sojourn to the US. Five students studying at a private university in Japan participated in the study. Each student completed 10 ODCTs and five RPs with the researcher before and after their study abroad experiences. The researcher read aloud each scenario while candidates read along silently. They were given a chance to ask for clarification and 1 minute to prepare their responses. The same scenarios were used for the pre- and post-assessments. Each scenario was video recorded and transcribed for later analysis. However, as the purpose of this presentation was to discuss the data collection instruments themselves (e.g., ODCTs and RPs), findings from the study are not discussed in detail.

Siegel then discussed obstacles that arose during these pragmatic assessments as well as strategies taken to mitigate potential problems. Figure 1 displays issues and possible solutions for using ODCTs as pragmatic assessment tools.

Issue	Possible solution
1. Participants may be unsure of the situation.	To avoid influencing responses unnecessarily, keep assistance to a minimum. Limit help to the word, rather than situational, comprehension level. Having the same interviewer can also help.
2. Lack of contextual information in ODCT situation may confuse participants.	Pilot scenarios before main data collection to ensure responses are possible with a minimum of contextual information. Also allow for participant imagination.
3. Participants use conditional forms (i.e., "If I were in that situation, I would say") rather than direct address.	Include practice ODCTs so the researcher can identify this potential issue. Prepare stock phrases if necessary (i.e., "Imagine (name) is standing right here. What would you say to them?").

Figure 1. Issues and possible solutions related to ODCT use.

Audience members also participated in the forum by offering alternative solutions to those posed by the presenter. In relation to the third point in Figure 1 (participants use conditional forms rather than direst address), two alternatives were suggested. The first was to include open quotation marks (e.g., "...") at the end of the scenario explanation in the printed version. It was suggested that these visual cues may prompt participants to speak as if they were directly addressing the imagined listener. In addition, one attendee recommended a grammatical change in the ODCT prompts. The original prompts consistently ended with a question; for example, "What would you say to Molly?" Rather than using the "would" construction, the attendee suggested the verb "do" in order to eliminate the hypothetical and position the output in a more immediate context. These suggestions were valuable and may be incorporated into future data collection. Figure 2 lists issues that arose during the role-play data collection, along with possible solutions.

Issue	Possible solution
1. Initiation of the role-play is unclear.	The researcher can inform the participant that the researcher will begin the interaction. Prepared standard stock phrases, such as "Hi (name), how are you?" or "Thanks for coming," can prove useful.
2. The interaction may be inconsistent across several participants or sessions.	Maintaining the same interviewer and similar phrasing can provide a consistent stimulus for each participant.
3. Participants may stray from the stated scenario and/or intended speech act.	Ensure that role-plays are simple and include only the minimum necessary information. Give participants a chance to ask questions before starting. The researcher may coax the participant back to the core purpose of the role-play if necessary.

Figure 2. Issues and possible solutions related to RP use.

During the question and answer segment of the forum, Siegel raised the issue of the analysis of data elicited via RPs. Because such interaction involves more than one speaker, the data analysis procedures would seem to be more sophisticated, complex, and time consuming. However, several attendees suggested that a conversation analysis perspective would allow for detailed understanding of the different semantic, strategic, and social moves made by each interlocutor.

Choosing Between ODCT and RP

The decision to employ ODCTs or RPs for pragmatic assessment will likely depend on participant levels, researcher foci, projected analysis procedures, time, and resources. Each tool has its own merits and shortcomings. Although the ODCT provides data that are easier for analysis, they are also somewhat unnatural in that they consist of one-way, nonreactive speech. In an ODCT, learners can think and prepare beforehand and then deliver uninterrupted speech. The sudden responses and reactions of real-time conversation are absent. In contrast, the RP offers a more interactive and natural two-way communication that more closely mimics authentic conversation. Participants may also be more familiar and comfortable with the RP format, and they may be accustomed to switching between speaker and listener roles. However, RP data can be more time-consuming to analyze and compare due to the reactive nature of the interaction. The researcher also impacts the RP interaction through verbal output, eye contact, tone of voice, and so on.

Conclusion

This section of the Pragmatics SIG Forum described some issues that arose during the use of ODCTs and RPs in a research project on pragmatic development of Japanese learners while on study abroad. Siegel highlighted several issues, suggested possible solutions to mitigate issues, and argued that both methods of pragmatic assessment are viable, although researchers must be prepared to make adjustments to offset their respective limitations.

Locating Development of L2 Sequential Practice in Group Oral Proficiency Tests

Yusuke Okada

In the second section, Yusuke Okada adopted the discursive pragmatics approach (Kasper, 2006a) and examined development of an EFL learner's interactional competence in managing task-related trouble in two consecutive EFL group oral proficiency tests.

The discursive pragmatics approach is based on the ideas and findings of conversation analysis (CA) in which "meaning and action (including speech acts) as constituted not only in but through social interaction" (Kasper, 2006a, p. 284). The approach therefore treats L2 pragmatic competence as *interactional competence* to effectively and efficiently participate in a target interaction. The interactional competence of a participant entails the methods that she or he can use to participate in interaction: It is composed of the abilities (a) to understand and produce social actions in their sequential contexts; (b) to take turns at talk in an organized fashion; (c) to format actions and turns and construct epistemic and affective stance, by drawing on different types of semiotic resources (linguistic, nonverbal, nonvocal), including register-specific resources; (d) to repair communicative problems; (e) to co-construct social and discursive identities through sequence organization, actions-in-interaction, and semiotic resources; and (f) to recognize and produce boundaries between activities (Kasper, 2006b, p. 86). Those are considered context-free abilities but some situations require their context-specific application.

A way to locate the development of a learner's interactional competence is to compare a learner's way of participation in an interaction at one time with the same learner's way of participation in the same interaction later. This enables us to locate a developmental change in the learner's way of participation in the interaction over time. However, we have to answer a question that arises here: Every interaction is locally co-constructed by the participants and

therefore technically every interaction is unique, so how can we say that a participant's change in his or her participation in interactions reflects his or her development? To answer this question, we must focus on how a participant changes his or her way of participation to effectively achieve the institutional goal over time in the same *discursive practice*, that is, institutional interaction that has a recognizable set of routines to accomplish the particular institutional goal (Nguyen, 2012). In this way, interactions can be recognized as the same interaction by looking at them as an interaction that has the same task. Nguyen's (2012) study of pharmacist interaction and Tominaga's (2013) study of Japanese storytelling also investigated learners' use of various linguistic resources.

The Study

The study followed the approach used by Nguyen (2012) and Tominaga (2013): employing CA to examine the development of an EFL learner's sequential practice in managing a task-related trouble. The data for the study are derived from a group oral proficiency test administered in an EFL classroom of a private university in Japan. The speaking test was the final assessment for a 2nd-year English class, so the students' motivation was high. The students were given 6 minutes to discuss a controversial topic in their group of four. Topics were chosen at random; however, all topics used for the test had been discussed once in the class prior to the test. Students studied good discussion techniques for 3 weeks before the test with the set topics. Student groups were also randomly decided. Learners spent 2 years in the same English class, so they were familiar with each other. The focus of the analysis is an EFL learner's (Ami's) ways of managing a task-related trouble in the tests, that is, how she overcame a *task-over state* trouble and subsequently resumed the discussion. To ensure anonymity, all student names used in this paper have been replaced with pseudonyms.

In the test, the students were given a card on which the topic for discussion was written. They then started to discuss the topic: giving an opinion, asking an opinion, replying to other's opinions, and supplying reasons. A task-related trouble occurs when the students do not complete these actions within the set time limit. This represents a task-over state. In other words, the task-over state is when the topic has been exhausted. In such a situation, turn-proffering practice such as *How about you?* (see Greer & Potter, 2008) is not an available choice as all the participants have already given their opinions. What can be used to manage the task-related trouble (the task-over state) and effectively resume the task (discussion)?

Analysis and Discussion

During the first test, in which the topic was *smoking should be prohibited in university*, after a long task-over state (l. 122) the focal student, Ami, self-nominated to tell her second opinion over several turns (ll. 123, 125-130, 134, 137, 139). However, after her telling, another task-over state was made (l. 140) and it was not managed until the time (6 minutes) was over.

Extract 1. First Group Oral Proficiency Test: A = Ami, S = Satoshi, D = Daisuke, K = Keisuke

```
118     D:   it is (1.3) it i:s (2.2) not- (.2) not many.
119     K:   yeah ((nods))
120     D:   ((nods))
121     S:   hm: ((nods))
122          (4)
123     A:   if smoking area separate=o (1.1) separate=o: (.9)
124          hm? very separate(h)? hu[huhuh eh(h)to ehto=
125     S:                           [ah ah
126     A:   =↑smoking s- nonsmoking people=u (2.1) people
127          trouble=u (.2) but=u °ehto° separa- (.8) separate
128          (1) eh and=o (.3) hm: (.8) <not> (.6) no- (.)
129          hm? (.3)no- (1.3) h:m: (.7) <not=o> (1.3) ru- ru-
130          rule (.8) not rule=u (.7) people=u (1.7) hm::
131          (.3)strict (1) mm (1.8) mm (.2) ehehe .hhh (.) eh:
132          (1.3) ((clears throat)) (1.2) uh::: (4.7) hm?
133          (1.5) stri- (1.7) hm (.9) –ct (2.9) a- a- as-
134          as a Singapore. Singapore is very (2.6) strict?
135          ((looks at S))
136          (1.6)
137     S:   ah::: ((nods))
138          (1.6)
139     A:   hm: (.4) rule is
140     S:   hm
```

After taking the first test, Ami asked the teacher to give her a chance to redo the test because she thought her performance was poor. Because one more student was needed to form a group of four, the teacher gave her the chance to retake the test with different students. In the second test, she used a different sequential practice to manage the task-related trouble.

Extract 2. Second Group Oral Proficiency Test: A = Ami; R = Ryuta; S = Syuya; H = Hayato

```
63  S:   ((nods))
64       (1.8)
65  S:   hm
66       (1.7)
67  S:   eh:: nan da (("what is it")) (.3) ah ( ) (.8) eh hehehe
68  A:   °uh::° (2.2) °wha- uh:° ((looks at R)) (1.1) what media:: is good (.5) ((points
         her hand to R and H)) do you think?
70       (.3)
71  R:   ah:: (.3) I think eh:: (.4) be- (.8) best media i:s (.5) tee vee
72       (.7)
73  A:   ((nods)) h:m
74       (.3)
75  R:   uh: i- (.3) because uh information (1.1) eh:: (.5) nan da ro (("what is it?"))
76       (1.8) the information i- (1.2) cha:nge, (.6) ((looks at A)) easily=i
77       (.7)
78  R:   for us. ((nods))
79       (.7)
80  A:   h::m ((nods))
81  S:   ((nods))
82       (.4)
83  H:   but eh:: (.4) tee vee (1.4) <can:: ((turns to R))
84       not> (.2) search
85  R:   oh
86  S:   [((nods))
87  A:   [ah::/((nods)) hm hm
88  H:   so=o, (.6) internet is the best ((nods))
89       (.5)
90  H:   ((nods)) I think. .hh
91       (1)
92  S:   I think=u: internet i:s=u (.2) equally (.3)/((looks at H)) equally? ((leans his
         head)) (.9) to: (.2) any=i (1.4) people
94       (.9)/((S looks at H))
95  S:   ((nods)) yeah
96       (.5)
97  R:   [ah:.
98  S:   [eh anyone: (.3) send information=
99  H:   =>hm hm h[m<
100 S:              [and [anyone (.3) catch [information=
101 A:                   [hm/((nods))       [hm hm
102 H:  =hm h[m
103 S:       [yeah
104      (1.8)
105 A:  h:[:m
106 S:    [hm
107      (6.2)/((S looks at the topic card on the desk; then he looks at H and then R))
108 S:  yeah
109 A:  tee- (.4) if tee vee eh: (.3) mistake ((looks at R)) (.) >mistake ↑news< (.4)
110      it replace it- (.) but we: can watch tee- (.2) we cannot watch tee vee=i, we
111      can.h (.3) listen this=u (.8) mistake (.4) it is mistake.
112      (2.1)
113 R:  hm?
114      (.3)
115 A:  ehe[heheh [ehe
116 S:       [huhuh
117 H:       [huhuh
118 R:              [one more [please
119 S:                        [hehehe
120 A:                        [feh:£ ehto (.2) eh: <newscaster=a, speak mistake news, (.2)
121 H:  [((nods)) ah
122 S:  [((nods))
123 R:  [>un un un<
124 A:  un
125      (.8)
126 A:  un- (.3) he: is=u it- eht- (.7) it is not true .hh but we: (.3) >we watch tee vee,
127      but we:< (.9) turn off (.3) ((claps her hands)) we can (.) [not listen (.) [it
128 H:                                                             [ah: (( nods)) [oh.
129 R:                                                                            [ah:
130 H:  ah:::/((nods)) okay.
131 A:  ((nods))
132      (3.9)
```

In the second test, in which the students discussed the topic *the Internet will soon replace other media*, a task-over moment happened in lines 64-67. Ami managed this task-related trouble by asking a question to the other students (ll. 68-69). The topic of her question was not only ratified but also developed via other students through their answers. When another task-over state was created (ll. 107-108) after the other students' answers to her question, Ami provided her own comment to one of the responses to her question and managed the task-related trouble (ll. 109-111).

The sequential practice that Ami used in the second test was the *right of topical response* (Bilmes, 1999): "If Speaker A can, by asking a question, obligate B to speak to a certain matter, A will then have the right to speak further to that same matter and may resist any attempt by B to change the topic" (p. 229). She used the resource (the right of topical response) to effectively manage the two task-over states. The difference in her use of the resources to manage the same task-related trouble in the same discursive practice displays a developmental change in her interactional competence.

Conclusion

CA is about ethno-methods: That is to say, CA is "essentially a way of elucidating the resources that members have available to them, and the constraints they face, in the production, interpretation, and organization of meaning" (Bilmes, 2014, p. 68). What resources did the student use in order to manage the task-over states in the first and the second group oral proficiency tests and how were the sequential practices of the management effective? The analysis of the two cases indicated that choosing an appropriate resource to effectively manage the conversation task is a part of interactional competence. What we saw in the two extracts is a change in a learner's use of resources to manage the interactional trajectory for more effective task accomplishment, which reflects the development of her interactional competence relevant to the group proficiency test. What her developmental trajectory would be like after the second

test is unavailable, but at least the change in her participations in the two cases show evidence of and can be qualified as "development."

As the study explicated, to closely examine what participants do in a discursive practice leads to the discovery of effective task management practices. Of course, it is necessary to understand what discursive practice the target interaction is like (see Nguyen & Ishitobi, 2012). Such practices can be used as an object of teaching, learning, and testing. CA is a method to investigate L2 pragmatic competence in terms of interactional competence and locate its development constituted as the learner's change in the use of resources to more effectively achieve the task of a discursive practice over time. As a response to the first section of this paper, it can be said that from the perspective of discursive pragmatics, *role-play* can be a useful discursive practice to assess the learner's L2 pragmatic competence (see Okada, 2010).

Assessing Longitudinal Pragmatic Development in Dormitory Conversations

Aki Siegel

In the third section, Aki Siegel challenged and questioned the previous two presenters on their methods of measuring development.

First, should native speaker (NS) norms or institutional expectations be the standard for measuring development? When using ODCTs or role-plays to measure pragmatic development, testers have traditionally used "NS norms" or "intuitions" as the standard and compared the L2 speaker outcomes to measure change. However, in a more globalized multicultural community where English interaction is between two L2 users, what is considered the "norm" and how can we measure development? Are the standards the same? Similarly, in a noninstitutional setting where there is not a particular expectation of the participants, what is the standard of an "appropriate" participation?

Second, can we ignore the interlocutor when measuring development in interaction? "Discursive pragmatics" (Kasper, 2006a) or "interactional competence" (He & Young, 1998) approaches to pragmatics are becoming more common. Furthermore, CA is starting to be recognized as a method to explicate development by comparing the same speaker at two or more different points in time. However, He and Young (1998) stressed that interactional competence is "co-constructed by all participants in an interactive practice and is specific to that practice" (p. 7). Moreover, interactional competence is "not what a person knows, it is what a person does together with *others* [emphasis added]" (Young, 2008, p. 106). Therefore, the interlocutor is recognized as playing an important role in the interaction. Nevertheless, in previous developmental studies of interactional competence, the interlocutor and their possible changes are excluded from the analytical framework. Can the interlocutor truly be ignored during the interaction?

To address these questions, this study investigated how "development"—that is not based on NS standards or institutional expectations—of "interactional competence" (including the interlocutor) could be observed through talk-in-interaction.

To examine this topic, word search sequences were the focus of analysis. Word search sequences are pragmatic functions of speech when one searches for a word; they are also known as *forward oriented repair* (Schegloff, 1979) or *self-initiated repair* (Schegloff, Jefferson, & Sacks, 1977). Word search sequences were selected due to their nature of possibly explicating the speaker's language ability and mutual understanding. Word searches in this study were identified when progress of conversation was disrupted because of one speaker's failure to find a linguistic or grammatically appropriate item (Kurhila, 2006). These are often marked by hesitancy such as cut-offs of a word, sound stretches, or "uh's and "uhm's" (Goodwin, 1983; Schegloff, 1984; Schegloff et al., 1977), and often accompanied by gaze (Goodwin & Goodwin, 1986), or gestures (Hayashi, 2003). Cases of "referentials" (Heritage, 2007), when the speaker searches for a pronoun such as a name of a place or object, were excluded.

Method

Data collection adopted a micro-genetic longitudinal approach for a detailed tracking of the participants. The two participants in this study are Mami from Japan (L1 Japanese), and Hang from Vietnam (L1 Vietnamese), both of whom were 1st-year students at the university, living in the same dormitory at the time of recording. Conversations were recorded once a month over the course of one academic year, then a single recording a year later. Each recording lasted approximately 30 minutes. The first recording took place in April 2010, during the first few weeks after the two participants entered the university. Subsequent recordings were made in the following months up to January 2011. The participants in the dormitory used a video camera to make the recordings, and the researcher was not present. Conversations were spontaneous, and participants were free to choose any topic. The nine recordings totaled 5 hours across 22 months.

Data

Based on Koshik and Seo's (2012) study, word search sequences were largely divided into three types as shown below:

Type 1. Self-initiated / self-completed

A: initiates word search

A: provides solution

Type 2. Self-initiated / other-completed

A: initiates word search

B: provides candidate solution

A: confirms/disconfirms candidate solution

Type 3. Self-initiated self candidate solution / other-completed

A: initiates word search

A: provides candidate solution with rising intonation (try-marked)

B: confirms/corrects candidate solution

This study focused on the interlocutor, so the first type of word search was excluded from the data set. Fifty-four cases of other-involved word searches initiated by Mami were found (Types 2 and 3). Of these, 39 cases (72%) were Type 3, where Mami presented a candidate solution with a rising intonation. Because Type 3 word searches were the most frequent type of word search sequence, these sequences were quantified and further analyzed using CA.

Results

From the analysis, three main changes in Mami's word search sequences were identified; (a) the frequency, (b) Hang's response to

Mami's, and (c) Mami's use of try-marking.

Decrease in Other-Involved Word Searches

The first change was in terms of quantity. As shown in Figure 3, over time, Mami's overall other-involved word search initiation decreased (solid line), as did the frequency of candidate solutions with a rising intonation (dotted line).

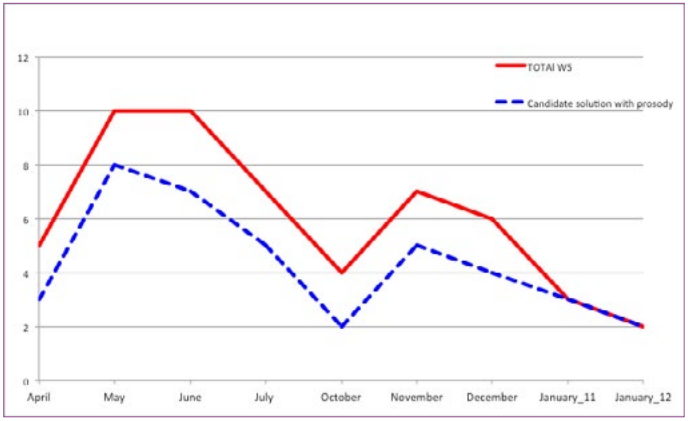

Figure 1. Mami's word searches with Hang over time.

Hang's Use of "Let It Pass"

Along with this change, Hang's response to Mami's try-marked candidate solution showed change. Extract 3, from May, is a typical example of a word search during the first 3 months of recording between Hang and Mami. The two are talking about being hungry in class because Mami did not eat breakfast.

Extract 3. Mami/Hang: "Concentrate" (May)

```
1  Hang:    [hhh
2  Mami:    [yahhh I can't concen(.)
3           concentrate? concen[trate
4  Hang:                       [↑unuh
5           [↑concen↓trate
6  Mami:    [ya::
7           (0.4)
8  Mami:    °I'm very [hungry:°]
9  Hang:              [↑ah::   ]so all day
```

In line 2, Mami cuts off mid-word and shows hesitation. She then provides a candidate solution with rising intonation followed by its repetition (line 3). Han shows acknowledgement to this comment (line 4), followed by a correction of the pronunciation (line 5). Mami accepts this in line 6, and continues her storytelling.

However, from the 4th month, July, and onwards, there was a change in Hang's reaction to these try-marked candidate solutions. Extract 4 is from July; Hang and Mami are talking about different types of English pronunciation.

In line 2, Mami initiates a word search with silence, cut-offs, and elongated vowel sounds. She then provides candidate solution "learn" with a rising intonation (line 3). Hang does not respond to this while keeping firm eye contact with Mami (line 4). Mami then restates the phrase with the potential trouble source (line 5). Hang responds to Mami with "mm" (line 6). By Mami continuing her story after this, we can interpret that Hang's utterance was recognized as "showing listening" or as a "continuer" rather than accuracy of the word Mami chose.

Extract 4. Mami/Hang: "Learn" (July)

```
1     Mami:   because ↑I (0.5) mmh ↑I heard
2             (.)↑I has (.) be::n lu' (0.4)
3             la (0.3) learn?
4             (0.6)
5     Mami:   I has been learn da:=
6     Hang:   =mm
7     Mami:   American English? s[ince
8     Hang:                      [mmh
9     Mami:   my: °elemen° uhh (.) since
10            uh (.) elementary school [°student°?
11    Hang:                            [mmh
```

A comparison of Extracts 3 and 4 demonstrates that Hang in Extract 4 is not participating in Mami's word search. As a result of Hang's nonparticipation in the word search, the sequence becomes a self-repair sequence, which is known to be "preferred action" (Pomerantz, 1984) in NS speech. Therefore, Hang is showing her orientation to the interaction as a mundane conversation rather than teaching–learning opportunity, and thus Mami is not positioned as a L2 novice in Extract 4.

This phenomenon is similar to what Firth (1996) called "let it pass" moves in English as a lingua franca (ELF) talk when the hearer lets the unclear utterance pass and does not correct or request for repair. Although Firth stated that it is common in ELF talk, this feature appeared only after the 4th month of the recording between Hang and Mami, suggesting there is change in orientation occurring.

Mami's Use of Try-Marking

The final change that was observed is the context in which Mami used the rising intonation with the candidate solution. As is evident in the first example, the typical use of the try-marked candidate solution is to elicit Hang's confirmation or correction. However, again, after the 3rd month, Mami started to use this differently. Extract 5 is from November, their sixth recording.

Extract 5. Mami/Hang: "*Mogiten*" (November)

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1     Mami:   bu' a' (.) actually ah (.)
2             I was join: da
3     Hang:   °un [huh°
4     Mami:       [ah [(0.3) like mogiten?
5                     [((two hand house shape))
6             (0.4)
7     Hang:   [(    )
8     Mami:   [>mogiten< is [shop
9                           [((one hand hut))
10            (0.5)
11    Hang:   [↑ah::
12    Mami:   [°mogiten is shop°
13            [((repeat hut shape))
14    Hang:   food?
15            (0.4)
16    Mami:   ↑ya [>↑food↓shop< >↑food↓shop<
17    Hang:       [(              )
18    Hang:   °mhuh°
```

In line 4 Mami uses an iconic gesture and silence to initiate a word search, followed by a candidate solution of "*mogiten*" with rising intonation. However, Hang does not respond (line 5). Rather than moving on to a longer sequence of negotiating the meaning of the word that tends to happen in April and May, Mami provides the definition of *mogiten* as a shop (line 7), which is then acknowledged by Hang in line 10.

By Mami try-marking candidate solutions that she can explain using other words in English, it suggests that Mami is not seeking a correction or confirmation of the word choice from Hang, but rather, checking Hang's understanding of the culturally specific

Japanese word. As a result, Mami shows her understanding of Hang as knowing Japanese and at the same time, not positioning herself as an English language learner. This is similar to what Sert (2013) called "epistemic status check" when speakers make sure that there is a mutual understanding before proceeding with the talk. Again, this phenomenon was only found after the 3rd month.

Conclusion

To summarize, word search sequences in ELF interactions do change in terms of quantity and quality. There was a decreasing number of other-involved word search sequences, decreasing cases of other-correction after candidate solution, appearance of "let it pass" orientations by the interlocutor, and appearance of try-marked candidate solution used as epistemic status check by the speaker.

Despite accumulating research agreeing that context is important and that the interlocutors do affect the performance in talk, there is little mention of how the surrounding language community itself changes around L2 users and how such change may affect the performance of the speaker. In general, developmental studies of interactional competence have not considered the interlocutor and their changes and development. However, in this study, the data displayed the speaker changing, along with the interlocutor, including how they positioned and oriented to each other.

One of the comments at the end of the presentation was that A. Siegel's view of development makes assessment too complicated and pragmatic development too difficult to measure. However, perhaps the language testing tradition has oversimplified the nature of development and change. This study provides empirical longitudinal evidence that development is complicated and dynamic, yet still observable, and poses a challenge to the oversimplified view of language development in the field of applied linguistics.

Summary of Pragmatics SIG Forum

The three contributors to the Pragmatics SIG Forum all addressed L2 pragmatic assessment in different ways. In doing so, they discussed various methods for measuring and meanings of pragmatic development. Their presentations and the preceding sections have reported on the use of ODCTs, role-plays, group discussion tests, and out-of-class conversations as options for collecting pragmatic data. Moreover, the topics discussed have highlighted the possibilities for pragmatics to be examined within the interaction of diverse groupings (i.e., between L1 and L2 users, within small groups, and between two peers using ELF). In addition, the authors have demonstrated that pragmatics can be evaluated from a range of orientations, ranging from broad overall descriptions to particular strategic usage. J. Siegel elicited general situational responses, and Okada took a more focused approach to pragmatic assessment in examining interactional competence. A. Siegel demonstrated how the goal of pragmatic assessment can be narrower still, as her study centered specifically on word search sequences. The contributions from these presentations, as well as from forum attendees, will help sustain and stimulate the area of pragmatic assessment in the future.

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