



Short-term and Long-term Impact of Video-driven Metapragmatic Awareness Raising on Speech Act Production: A Case of Iranian Intermediate EFL Learners

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Abstract

Since the 1990s, multitudinous studies have sketched the main and comparative impacts of various approaches to L2 pragmatic instruction. To contribute to this line of research, the present study probed the immediate and delayed effect of explicit video-driven metapragmatic awareness-raising on Iranian EFL learners' production of English "apologies," "requests," and "refusals." To this end, 54 intermediate EFL learners were assigned to an experimental or metapragmatic awareness raising group (N=29) and a control group (N=25). Treatment spanned 9 consecutive sessions (3 sessions on each speech act). The 3 speech act-specific treatment sessions involved the presentation of speech act-contained video input, followed by teacher-fronted presentation of the speech act strategy set in the 1st session, a video transcript-based speech act recognition and reasoning task in the 2nd session, and 5 multiple-choice discourse completion and reasoning task in the 3rd session. The control group, however, received the same video input as the experimental group, followed by class discussions around its theme in each of the 9 sessions. Speech act production of the 2 groups was measured through a 24-item Written Discourse Completion Test (WDCT) at the pre-treatment, immediate post-treatment, and delayed post-treatment phases of the study. The results indicated the positive short-term and long-term impact of metapragmatic awareness-raising on speech act production, though no significant improvement was detected from the immediate to the delayed posttest. The findings serve to augment evidence in support of the teachability of pragmatics, as well as the potential of video prompt-driven metapragmatic awareness raising for short-term and long-term interlanguage pragmatic development.

Keywords: instructional pragmatics, interlanguage pragmatics, MDCT, metapragmatic awareness, pragmatic competence, speech act, speech act strategy, WDCT

INTRODUCTION

As a now well-established aspect of linguistic competence, "pragmatic competence" underlines the relationship between "language users and the context of communication" (Bachman, 1990, p.89). Crystal (1997) defines pragmatics as "the study of language from the point of view

of users" concerning their choices, situational language use constraints, and language use effects on addressees (p. 301). Leech (1983) posits two intersecting domains to pragmatic competence:

"pragmalinguistics" and "sociopragmatics." In a nutshell, pragmalinguistics capitalizes on the intersection of pragmatics and formal conven-

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tions, while sociopragmatics deals with the intersection of pragmatics and sociocultural conventions. “Pragmatics” has secured itself a flourishing position in second language acquisition research, and the term “interlanguage pragmatics” (ILP) denotes the study of pragmatics from a second language acquisition perspective.

From the 1990s onward, a great many studies have addressed ILP development in instructional and non-instructional settings, mainly targeting the acquisition of “speech acts,” and to a lesser extent “implicatures” and “pragmatic routines” (see Taguchi, 2011 for a review). This line of research was in the first place motivated by the postulation that input-embedded sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic features are not perceptually salient enough to be learnt without any sort of implicit or explicit awareness-oriented instruction (Kasper & Rose, 2002).

ILP research has principally hinged on three issues: (a) whether pragmatic competence is teachable, (b) whether instruction is more effective than simple exposure, and (c) whether different instructional approaches addressing ILP are differentially effective (Rose, 2005). Although there is ample research evidence in support of the teachability of L2 pragmatic features as well as the necessity of some sort of pragmatic instruction, the differential effectiveness of various instructional pragmatic approaches still begs the question (Kasper & Rose, 2002). Research into pragmatic instruction has for the most part investigated implicit and explicit instructional approaches (e.g., Bardovi-Harlig, 2001; Birjandi & Derakhshan, 2014; Jernigan, 2007; Li, 2012; Rose & Ng Kwai-fun, 2001; Tajeddin, Keshavarz, & Zand-Moghadam, 2012; Takimoto, 2007). Jeon and Kaya (2006) and Takahashi’s (2010) meta-analytic reviews registered the greater general efficacy of explicit instruction over implicit instruction, though both studies indicated the insufficiency of state-of-the-art research for making unequivocal conclusions.

Explicit pragmatic instruction has been mainly realized as inductive, deductive, or inductive-deductive, with all three capitalizing on meta-

pragmatic awareness-raising as their main feature (e.g., Rose & Ng Kwai-fun, 2001). In other words, explicit pragmatic instruction seeks to induce explicit rule-based knowledge that a language user has about the linguistic forms and social functions of speech acts (House, 1996). However, one way in which explicit ILP instruction can vary is by the type of pragmatic input, i.e. oral, written, or audiovisual. Use of audio-visual input in ILP instruction has generally proved to be effective (e.g., Alcón, 2005; Birjandi & Derakhshan, 2014; Jernigan, 2007), though its combined effect with direct metapragmatic awareness raising tasks for the long-term ILP development of Iranian EFL learners stands in need of research. In an attempt to address this research gap, the present study sought to investigate the immediate and delayed effect of video prompt-driven inductive-deductive metapragmatic awareness raising instruction on the production of English apologies, requests, and refusals.

Literature Review

Browsing the existing literature on “pragmatics” brings to light a narrow conceptualization equating it with the mere study of context-induced intended meanings (e.g., Crystal, 1997; Yule, 1996), and a broad conceptualization assigning it a “general functional perspective” bearing on all aspects of language (Verschueren; cited in Locher & Graham, 2010). Both these perspectives, however, capitalize on the concept of “linguistic action,” theoretically primed in Austin’s (cited in Taavitsainen & Jucker, 2008) “speech act theory,” Grice’s (1975) “cooperative principle,” and Goffman’s (1967) notion of “face” lying at the heart of Brown and Levinson’s (1987) “politeness theory.”

Since its explicit recognition in Bachman’s (1990) model of communicative competence, “pragmatics” has featured as a prime target of SLA research under the rubric “interlanguage pragmatics”, if not playing the lead. Kasper and Blum-Kulka (1993) define this target, i.e. ILP, as “the study of nonnative speaker’s use and

acquisition of linguistic action patterns in a second language” (p. 3). ILP research has in the main addressed three aspects of pragmatics including “speech acts,” “conversational implicature,” and “pragmatic routines” (Takimoto, 2007; Yamashita, 2008). Among these, speech acts, defined as utterances bearing both locutionary and illocutionary meanings in the context of communication (Ellis, 2008, p. 3), have raised the most research interest, principally due to their cross-culturally and cross-linguistically variant realizations (e.g., Achiba, 2003; Alcón, 2005; Eslami-Rasekh & Mardani, 2010; Fukuya & Zhang, 2002; Halenko & Jones, 2011; Olshain & Cohen, 1990; Salazar, 2003; Silva, 2003; Takimoto, 2007; Tateyama, 2007).

Instructional pragmatic research has in essence investigated the efficacy of various approaches to the teaching of targeting speech acts, including inductive and/or deductive explicit instruction (e.g., Rose & Ng Kwai-fun, 2001), input enhancement (e.g., Takahashi, 2001), task-based instruction (e.g., Tajeddin, Keshavarz, & Zand Moghadam, 2012), processing instruction (e.g., Takimoto, 2007), practice-based instruction (e.g., Li, 2012), and output-based instruction (e.g., Jernigan, 2007). Existing research evidence accrues to the superiority of explicit pragmatic instruction in all its three variations, i.e. inductive, deductive, and inductive-deductive (Jeon & Kaya, 2006; Takahashi, 2010). Regardless of the nature of instructional pragmatic approach, authentic or instructional audiovisual materials can be thought of as one of the best venues through which pragmatic input can be presented. Several studies have revealed their benefits for ILP development in EFL settings, including contextualization of pragmatic features, potential for raising learners’ pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic awareness, and enhancing comprehension of the feature at issue (e.g., Alcón, 2005; Jernigan, 2007; Witten, 2002).

Explicit language instruction, and consequently explicit pragmatic instruction, has its roots in Sharwood Smith’s (cited in Gascoigne,

2006) notion of “input enhancement,” which he initially termed “consciousness-raising.” The idea finds theoretical support in Schmidt’s (1993) “noticing hypothesis,” particularly targeting the acquisition of L2 pragmatics: “For the learning of pragmatics in a second language, attention to linguistic forms, functional meanings, and the relevant contextual features is required” (p. 35).

Empirical research into explicit or metapragmatic awareness-raising pragmatic instruction features with (a) comparative studies of implicit and explicit pragmatic instruction, and (b) studies on the effect of explicit instruction (inductive and/or deductive) vis-a-vis no instruction. Takahashi (2001) compared impacts of four explicit and implicit instructional approaches on Japanese EFL learners’ acquisition of English request strategies: (a) explicit teaching, (b) form comparison, (c) form search, and (d) meaning-focused instruction. The findings substantiated the superiority of the explicit teaching condition. Along the same lines, Fukuya and Clark (2001) compared effects of the explicit explanation of English request mitigators and the visual augmentation of such mitigators in the captions of the video input provided to the participants. However, neither approach proved superior to the control condition. A further study by Martínez-Flor and Fukuya (2005) focused on the acquisition of head acts and downgraders in English suggestions by Spanish EFL learners. It involved the comparison of an explicit deductive condition, operationalized as the provision of metapragmatic information, with a combination of visual input enhancement and recasts. The results indicated the greater efficacy of the explicit condition, though both experimental conditions showed significant benefits over the control one. Similarly, Alcón (2005) compared impacts of explicit and implicit instruction on the acquisition of English request strategies. She operationalized explicit instruction as the provision of metapragmatic information, following the presentation of request-contained video excerpts, while the im-

PLICIT condition combined visual augmentation of request strategies in the transcripts of the same video excerpts with a “form search” condition. The results added up to the existing evidence for the superiority of explicit pragmatic instruction.

Fewer studies have compared metapragmatic awareness-raising conditions with other implicit conditions than visual input enhancement, or with control conditions. Explicit instruction, in these studies too, has involved provision of metapragmatic information on the intended pragmatic features of mainly authentic input, with/without explicit awareness-raising tasks and/or metapragmatic feedback (e.g., Koike & Pearson, 2005; Yoshimi, 2001). Overall, despite growing ILP research, evidence as to which approach best serves ILP development is still equivocal (Taguchi, 2011). Moreover, only few studies of explicit pragmatic instruction have involved a delayed posttest, not to mention the fact that they have produced mixed findings (e.g., Liddicoat & Crozet, 2001; Lyster, 1994; Morrow, 1995). Given these chasms, the present study probed the immediate and delayed effect of a video prompt-driven explicit instructional pragmatic approach, inspired by Alcón (2005), on EFL learners’ production of the three speech acts of “apology,” “request,” and “refusal.” Accordingly, the following question was formulated:

Does metapragmatic awareness raising have significant (a) short-term and (b) long-term effects on EFL learners’ speech act production ability?

Method

This section provides detailed information on the participants, procedure, and data analysis.

Participants

For the purpose of the study, initially 68 Iranian English-major B.A. students, comprising two intact “Listening and Speaking” classes at the South Tehran Branch of Islamic Azad University were selected as potential participants. How-

ever, since some of the students were not at the intermediate level of proficiency as indicated by their Quick Placement Test (QPT) scores (N=7), failed to attend one or more treatment sessions (N=4), or failed to take the immediate or the delayed posttest (N=3), they were excluded from the study. Therefore, the final analyses were carried out on data obtained from 54 participants making up a metapragmatic awareness raising (MA) group (N=29) and a control (C) group (N=25). The participants ranged in age from 19 to 28, with an average of 21.6.

Instruments

Two instruments were used in the present study: the Quick Placement Test (QPT), and a Written Discourse Completion Test (WDCT), which are described in this section.

Written Discourse Completion Test (WDCT).

The speech act production ability of the participants was measured through a 24-item Written Discourse Completion Test, made up of 8 situation prompts on each of the three speech acts of “apology,” “request,” and “refusal.” The prompts were sampled in a way to reflect plausible situations in the life of university students, and to represent various combinations of “power,” “distance,” and “imposition,” following Brown and Levinson (1987). Responses were rated by the researcher and an experienced EFL university instructor (as the second rater) based on Taguchi’s (2006) 6-point Likert scale, which capitalizes on grammaticality as well as situational and discursal appropriateness. The WDCT took about 50 minutes to complete. Moreover, pretest scores proved to have acceptable internal consistency, as indicated by a Cronbach’s Alpha coefficient of 0.82, and Pearson product-moment correlation coefficient reached an acceptable value of .78, indicating inter-rater reliability.

Quick Placement Test (QPT). The paper-and-pencil version of the Quick Placement Test (1st version) was used to homogenize the participants in terms of their general language profi-

ciency. The test includes 60 multiple-choice vocabulary, grammar, and cloze items, and the results are reported along ALTE's seven-level scale: (a) Beginner (0-10), (b) Breakthrough (11-17), (c) Elementary (18-29), (d) Lower Intermediate (30-39), (e) Upper Intermediate (40-47), (f) Advanced (48-54), and (g) Very Advanced (55-60). Based on the results, only intermediate learners were included in the study. Moreover, the internal consistency of the scores was acceptable, as indicated by a Cronbach's Alpha coefficient of 0.73.

Procedure

At the pre-treatment phase, parts of the two series "Lost" and "Friends," and the movie "Doubt," from which the input had been extracted were presented, followed by class discussions of their themes and characters. This step was taken to ensure student familiarity with the sources of video input. Subsequently, QPT and the WDCT were administered to both groups over two consecutive sessions. Based on QPT results, only intermediate learners were included in further data analysis. The treatment was offered over nine weekly sessions, with three sessions allocated to each of the three speech acts of "apology," "request," and "refusal," respectively. Finally, at the post-treatment phase, the WDCT was given twice: one week after the last treatment session as the immediate posttest, and four weeks after the last treatment session as the delayed posttest.

During the treatment phase, both groups were exposed to 30 speech act-contained video excerpts from the mentioned sources. The excerpts covered such role relationships as close friends, colleagues, teacher-student, teacher-school principal, distant acquaintances of the same or different age(s), mother-son, doctor-patient, etc. Moreover, the length of the excerpts varied from 10 seconds (10") to 2 minutes and 20 seconds (2'.20"). As for the control group, the presentation of video excerpts in each of the nine sessions was followed by further discussion of their themes and characters with no pragmatic

focus. On the other hand, the main criterion in the operationalization of the MA condition was the provision of teacher-fronted metapragmatic information and judicious feedback, as well as explicit awareness-raising tasks. The MA instructional procedure, which was consistent across the three speech acts, is outlined in this section.

Session One

- A. presentation of the first four video excerpts and their transcripts one by one;
- B. teacher-fronted explanation of the speech act's strategy set (Olshtain & Cohen's (cited in Ellis, 2008) Strategy Set for Apology; Trosborg's (cited in Schauer, 2009) Strategy Set for Request; and Beebe, Takahashi, & Uliss-Weltz' (cited in Yamagashira, 2001) Strategy Set for Refusal);
- A. illumination of pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic features of speech act strategies and their associated semantic formulae contained in the videos presented in Phase A.

Session Two

- A. presentation of the next three video excerpts and their transcripts one by one;
- B. an individual explicit awareness-raising task, in which four more video excerpts were presented together with their transcripts, and which required learners to individually locate the speech act strategy (strategies), determine their types with reference to speech act strategy sets, and write down why they thought the speaker used them;
- C. teacher-student discussion of the answers, with the teacher providing examples of other possible semantic formulae.

Session Three

- A. presentation of the last three video excerpts and their transcripts one by one;
- B. multiple-choice discourse completion tasks (MDCTs) in the form of five situation prompts, each followed by three speech act

statements (adapted from Liu (2007) and Jie (2005)), which the participants carried out individually;

- C. teacher-student discussion of the answers, with the teacher providing pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic details on the correct answer.

Overall, 6 hours and 10 minutes of instruction was offered to MA group (1:55 hours on the speech act of apology; 2 hours on the speech act of request; and 2:15 hours on the speech act of refusal).

Data Analysis

Cronbach's Alpha coefficients of QPT and pretest WDCT scores were calculated to test the internal consistencies of QPT and the WDCT. A Pearson product-moment correlation was also conducted to test pretest WDCT ratings' interrater reliability. Moreover, an independent samples *t* test indicated homogeneity of MA and C groups in terms of their pretest WDCT scores.

Subsequently, MA and C groups' performances were investigated separately through two repeated measures ANOVAs, and compared through two further independent samples *t* tests on immediate and delayed posttests.

Results

In order to investigate the short-term and long-term effect of MA on the participants' speech act production, first the two groups' homogeneity in terms of their speech act production was shown in an insignificant *t* statistic obtained in an independent samples *t* test conducted on pretest WDCT scores [$M_{MA}=3.01$, $M_C=3.00$, $t(52)=.095$, $p>.05$]. Table 1 shows the descriptive statistics of both groups' pretest, immediate posttest and delayed posttest WDCT scores, and Figure 1 illustrates the groups' patterns of performance over time.

Table 1
Descriptive Statistics for MA and C Groups' WDCT Scores

Group	WDCT	Mean	SD	Skewness		Kurtosis	
				Statistic	SE	Statistic	SE
MA	Pretest	3.01	.19	.31	.43	-.84	.84
	Immediate	4.05	.21	-.16	.43	-.12	.84
	Delayed	3.72	.17	.24	.43	-.59	.84
C	Pretest	3.00	.31	-.01	.46	-.80	.90
	Immediate	3.02	.35	-.15	.46	-.03	.90
	Delayed	3.05	.36	.17	.46	-.22	.90

Note: MA= Metapragmatic awareness raising, C= Control.

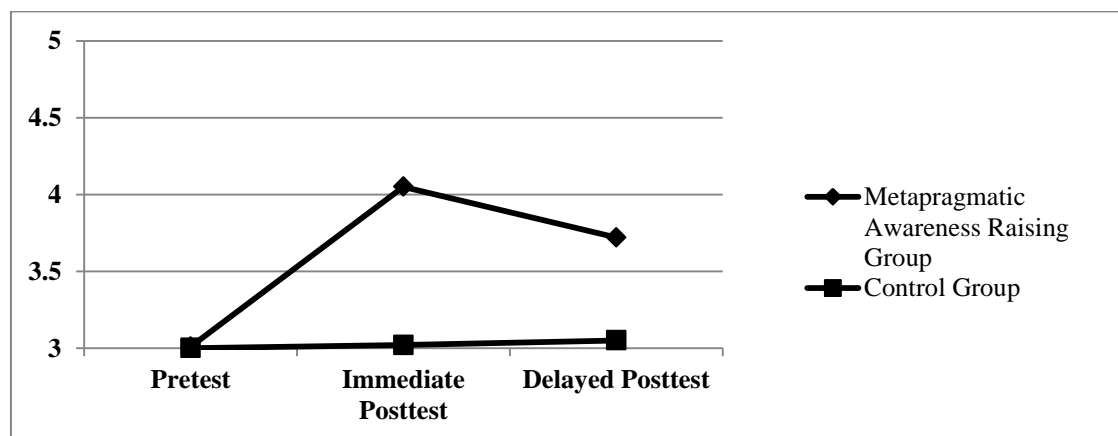


Figure 1. Patterns of WDCT performance of MA and C groups.

Subsequently, a repeated measures ANOVA was conducted for each group. Regarding MA group, Mauchly's test indicated lack of sphericity [$\chi^2(2)=20.73, p<.05$]. As shown in Table 2, even in the case of conservative Greenhouse-

Geisser's test with sphericity not assumed, Time had a significant effect as the within-subject variable, with a large effect size [$F=485.74, p<.05, \text{partial eta squared}=.94$].

Table 2
ANOVA Results for MA Group's WDCT Scores

	Source	Type III Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	Eta ²
Test	Sphericity Assumed	20.522	2	10.261	485.746*	.000	.945
	Greenhouse-Geisser	20.522	1.302	15.761	485.746*	.000	.945
	Huynh-Feldt	20.522	1.339	15.321	485.746*	.000	.945
	Lower-bound	20.522	1.000	20.522	485.746*	.000	.945
Error(Test)	Sphericity Assumed	1.181	56	.021			
	Greenhouse-Geisser	1.181	36.459	.032			
	Huynh-Feldt	1.181	37.505	.032			
	Lower-bound	1.181	28.000	.042			

*. The F-ratio is significant at the .05 level.

After substantiating Time's significant main effect, post hoc pairwise mean comparisons were conducted for MA group. The results indicated a significant gain from the pretest to the immediate posttest [*Mean difference*=1.039, $p<.05$], and from the pretest to the delayed posttest [*Mean difference*=1.022, $p<.05$]. However, the mean score declined, though not statistically significantly, from the immediate to the delayed posttest [*Mean difference*=.017, $p>.05$]. In sum, the metapragmatic awareness-raising group showed statistically significant gains in their speech act production on both the immediate and delayed posttests, but no significant change from the immediate to the delayed posttest. On the other hand, the second repeated measures

ANOVA run on C group's WDCT scores showed no significant change over time [$F=1.81, p>.05$]. The results of post hoc pairwise mean comparisons of this group's pretest (T_1), immediate posttest (T_2), and delayed posttest (T_3) WDCT scores corroborated this result [*Mean difference* $_{T1-T2}$ =.02, $p>.05$; *Mean difference* $_{T2-T3}$ =.02, $p>.05$; *Mean difference* $_{T1-T3}$ =.04, $p>.05$].

Table 3 presents the results of two independent samples t tests conducted on MA and C groups' immediate and delayed posttest WDCT scores. As the figures indicate, MA group performed significantly better on both the immediate posttest [$t(52)=13.21, p<.05$], and the delayed posttest [$t(52)=13.36, p<.05$].

Table 3
Independent Samples T Tests for MA and C Groups' Immediate and Delayed WDCT Scores

WDCT	Levene's Test		T-test for Equality of Means			
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig.	Mean Difference
Immediate	3.87	.05	13.21*	52	.00	1.02
Delayed	9.40	.00	13.36*	52	.00	.98

*. The mean difference is significant at the .05 level.

Discussion

The present study was designed to investigate the short-term and long-term impact of video-

driven metapragmatic awareness-raising instruction on EFL learners' production of the three speech acts of apology, request, and re-

fusal. Unlike the control group, MA group made a significant gain from the pretest to the immediate posttest, and maintained this gain from the immediate posttest to the delayed posttest. Theoretically, this observation can be explained with reference to the “noticing hypothesis,” which capitalizes on the registration of relevant input features under attention in order for it to become intake (Schmidt, 1993). It is likely that MA, as operationalized in this study, induced conscious attention to pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic aspects of speech act performance. Enhanced consciousness can be partly attributed to the presentation of contextualized speech acts in the video input, since, as Takimoto (2007) puts it, speech act video excerpts are great venues for the presentation of structured input. In addition, the direct awareness-raising tasks built into the MA condition probably led to MA group’s heightened metapragmatic awareness.

The results corroborate the general benefits of explicit pragmatic instruction in ILP research literature (see Taguchi, 2011; Takahashi, 2010 for reviews). The short-term and long-term positive impact observed in the present study is in agreement with Morrow’s (1995) findings. In his study, he observed durable gains in the production of the two speech acts of complaint and refusal, though the study was conducted in an ESL context. Lyster (1994), too, obtained similar results in his study of French ESL learners’ sociopragmatic ability. Liddicoat and Crozet (2001), on the other hand, found explicit instruction of long-term benefits for sociopragmatic features of speech act production, but not for pragmalinguistic elements. However, unlike their study, the present study did not involve any demarcation between pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic aspects of speech act performance, so the comparison should be made cautiously. Furthermore, the presentation of video prompts might have worked to counter Liddicoat and Crozet’s finding.

Another aspect of MA group’s performance pattern worthy of discussion is the constancy of

their speech act production from the immediate to the delayed posttest. It can be argued that the memory-housed information induced by explicit information might fade away with time, and the loss might have turned significant had the delayed posttest been given within a longer time span. This finding is in partial agreement with Takimoto’s (2007) results. In his study, a “structured input + explicit information” condition led to less durable gains than an alternative implicit condition.

Overall, the findings of the study seem to reflect Jeon and Kaya (2006) and Takahashi’s (2010) results as to the efficacy of explicit pragmatic instruction. However, the paucity of research on the durability of gains induced by such instruction precludes the stipulation of any definite conclusion. Among factors mediating sustenance of speech act production gains, one can refer to the modality of input (i.e. audiovisual, textual, or audio input), aspect of speech act production under investigation (i.e. sociopragmatic or pragmalinguistic features), and length of time between the immediate and delayed posttest.

Conclusion and Implications

As an important aspect of SLA research, interlanguage pragmatic development can be particularly challenging to EFL learners for three reasons (Liu, 2007; Tello Rueda, 2004): (a) minimal exposure to authentic L2 input; (b) limited opportunities for real-life language use; and (c) inadequate treatment of L2 pragmatic features in the curriculum. Moreover, the relationship between grammatical proficiency and pragmatic proficiency is far from predictable. Bardovi-Harlig (2001) forces the issue:

Even grammatically advanced learners show differences from target-like pragmatic norms. That is to say, a learner of high grammatical proficiency will not necessarily possess concomitant pragmatic competence ... Advanced NNSs are neither uniformly successful, nor uniformly unsuccessful, pragmatically; however, they are more like-

ly to be less successful as a group than NSs on the same task where contextualized reaction data are available (as in the case of authentic conversations and institutional talk). (p. 14)

It goes without saying, then, that ILP research in EFL settings gains considerable momentum.

As a contribution to this line of research, the present study made a case for the short-term and long-term effect of pragmatic instruction operationalized as the presentation of speech act-contained video input followed by input-based explicit awareness-raising tasks on EFL learners' speech act production. First, this finding echoes not only the teachability of L2 pragmatic features, but also the necessity of pragmatic instruction (see Kasper & Rose, 2001). Second, based on the results, pragmatic instruction which marries structured input with explicit awareness-raising tasks can enhance both pragmatic noticing and pragmatic understanding. Pragmatic noticing and understanding would in turn "operate in registering and retaining form-function-context mappings" (Taguchi, 2011, p. 295). The findings have a number of pedagogical implications. Most importantly, incorporation of L2 pragmatic features into foreign language syllabi seems to be a worthwhile undertaking. Furthermore, authentic speech act video input can enhance the efficacy of focused pragmatic instruction in that it exposes learners to a variety of contexts, and sketches relevant contextual (sociopragmatic) features implicating in speech act performance.

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