



Traditional, Multiple-intelligence Based Instruction, and L2 Pragmatics Development

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Although a growing line of research has targeted the efficacy of multiple intelligence-based instructions on learners' language learning and oral communication skills, studies exploring and incorporating the effects of multiple intelligence-based instructions on second language pragmatics development in general and politeness markers, in particular, are rare. The current study attempted to investigate the relative effect of multiple intelligence-based instructions on the politeness markers development. To this aim, thirty intermediate EFL learners studying *New Interchange* series in language institutes in Tabriz, Iran with the age range 13-17 were employed. McKenzie's multiple intelligences questionnaires were conducted to pinpoint the participants' dominant intelligences. Thus, the participants were assigned to two multiple-intelligence based experimental groups (A and B) and a control group. The results of two-way repeated-measures ANOVA (time \times group) revealed that the participants in the experimental groups outperformed those in the control group in both comprehension/production posttests and delayed posttests, while there was not any significant difference between the experimental groups in the two testing occasions. Therefore, it can be concluded that adopting teaching methods and materials consistent with learners' MIs would conspicuously enhance pragmatic competence.

Keywords: dominant intelligence, MI-based instruction, pragmatics, traditional instruction

Introduction

A glimpse of the pertinent literature discloses the fact that acquiring pragmatics is time-consuming and burdensome for English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learners involving the mastery of pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics concepts juxtaposed with meticulous monitoring exerted on the use of these concepts in the form-function-context mappings (see Taguchi, 2012). Previous studies in the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA) have advanced the idea that being competent in a language linguistically and grammatically does not guarantee pragmatic competence (Kasper & Rose, 2002; Nguyen, 2008, 2013). Therefore, to address the pragmatic failures experienced by the vast majority of EFL learners, different aspects and elements of pragmatic competence including politeness strategies



have been subject to instruction (Alcon Soler, 2005; Bardovi-Harlig, 1999, 2001; Chen, 2009; Cohen, 2008; Rose & Kasper, 2001; Taguchi, 2011c, 2015; Takimoto, 2013; Yamashita, 2008).

While it is believed that pragmatic intervention has proved beneficial in the EFL contexts (Fordyce, 2014; Halenko & Jones, 2011; Nguyen et al., 2012; Rajabi & Farahian, 2013; Takimoto, 2009), a shift in the view of pragmatic competence and incorporating individual differences (IDs) in instructional approaches to ensure effective second language pragmatic teaching have been called for (Taguchi, 2017). The import of IDs has long been of interest in second language learning/teaching and there is a unanimous consensus on accepting the defining role of its subcategories like aptitude, motivation, or learning styles in promoting and gaining a good command of English (Dornyei, 2005). Titone (1966) was a pioneer in the field of humanistic psychology who put forth the role of IDs in language learning. He believed that specific or person based language teaching methodology corresponds to undivided attention and higher value to individual resources.

Particular attention to the role of IDs can be found in research examining the concept of intelligence (Ahmadian & Ghasemi, 2017; Balboni 2008; Caon, 2006; Torresan, 2008) and the concept of learning styles (Daloiso, 2007a, 2007b; Mezzadri, 2001). Over two decades ago, the concept of learning styles (students' preferences for absorbing, processing, comprehending, and retaining information in different trajectories) was studied about intelligence. The emergence of the Multiple Intelligences (MI) theory paved the way for school curriculum changes taking into account the revealing insight into human capacities. Moreover, MI has found its way into language teaching. Sinder (2001) argued that "Multiple Intelligence Theory-related materials have the strong potential to improve the foreign language (FL) instruction because they engage learners' innate abilities" (p. 6).

While a growing line of research has targeted the efficacy of intelligence-based instructions on learners' language learning and oral communication skills (Armstrong, 2007; Azar, 2006; Barrington, 2004; Buchen, 2006; Chan, 2006; Christion & Kennedy, 2004; Fogarty & Stoehr, 2007; Saibani & Simin, 2015; Tracy & Richery, 2007; Viens & Kallenback, 2004), a paucity of studies has addressed this issue in developing L2 pragmatic competence, which is the gap the present study intends to fill up. Therefore, the target of the present study is to investigate if MI-based instruction improves the extent to which EFL learners' politeness markers develop, which renders the study unprecedented in the literature. The findings of the study can shed light on our understanding of how taking advantage of learners' MI's can optimize learning and teaching pragmatics in EFL contexts, which is in its turn an invaluable contribution to this uncharted area in EFL pragmatics literature.

Literature Review

Politeness Markers

"Politeness markers/structures are linguistic expressions employed to show politeness" (Watts, 2003, p. 182). English native speakers use a variety of structures to realize politeness in their speech. According to Watts (2003), some of the structures which could be used to lower the load of imposition on the addressees are hedges (e.g., 'sort of,' 'kind of,' 'rather'), intensifiers, politeness markers (e.g., 'please'), and committers. Dufon (2008) argued that the use of politeness markers in non-native speakers' interactions is fewer than those of native speakers. Kasper and Rose (2002) further clarified the point that learners' lower use of politeness markers may lie in their lack of processing control.

In the literature, there are different taxonomies of politeness markers all of which are limited in scope and are classified into two groups of hedges and boosters; the former is used to lower the imposition of an utterance and the latter is used to strengthen the force of the utterance (Brown & Levinson, 1987; Crystal & Davy, 1975; Edmondson, 1977; Holmes, 2000). However, House and Kasper (1981) provided a taxonomy of these markers which is embracing and widely cited. They categorized framework of politeness markers as follows:

- Politeness markers are terminologies used to show respect and ask for participation. *Please* and *if you wouldn't mind* are the common examples.
- Play-downs help speakers to moderate the perlocutionary effect of an utterance. Some examples are *I wondered if, I was wondering if, I was thinking you might*, and *wouldn't it be a good idea if*.
- Consultative devices seek to involve the addressee in a conversation flow (e.g., *would you mind ...*, *could you ...*).
- Hedges are used by speakers to not clearly state their opinions and let the interlocutors impose their own intent (e.g., *kind of, sort of, somehow*).
- Understaters are adverbial modifiers or adverbs used to underrepresent the propositional content of the utterance (e.g., *a bit, a little bit, a second*).
- Downtoners are devices to modulate the illocutionary force of an utterance (e.g., *just, simply, possibly*).
- Committers help speakers reduce the degree of their commitment to the propositional content of the utterance (e.g., *I think, I believe*).
- Forewarnings are expressions that help the speakers to provide a meta-comment on a face threatening act (e.g., *far be it for me to criticize, but ...*).
- Hesitators are non-lexical phonetic gap fillers (e.g., *er, uhh, ah*).
- Scope-staters help the speakers to provide their subjective opinion on an utterance (e.g., *I'm afraid you're in my seat, I'm disappointed that you couldn't*).
- Agent avoiders help the speakers not to address interlocutors directly and accordingly deflect criticism from them by using passive structures or sentences like *people don't do X*. (Watts, 2003)

Research on Politeness Markers

It has been argued that politeness is an inseparable part of the culture of its use, and therefore, it is impossible to teach politeness to EFL learners. Most of the studies which have been conducted on politeness markers to date are descriptive in nature. These studies have scrutinized learners' perceptions about politeness strategies (Ahmadian & Dastjerdi, 2010; Chang, 2008; Niroomand, 2012), e-politeness among native and non-native speakers of English (Biesenbach-Lucas, 2007; Knupsky & Nagy-Bell, 2011), and politeness realization through different speech acts like apology, refusal, and disagreement (Behnam & Niroomand, 2011; Kana, 1982; Tamimi Sa'd & Mohammadi, 2014; Ülbeği, 2009).

Against the backdrop of rare studies in politeness instruction, Tajeddin and Pezeshki (2014) investigated teachability of politeness and the relative effect of instruction on pragmatic development. Adopting House and Kasper's (1981) politeness markers framework, the researchers taught these markers by means of film-driven input-enhancement tasks and output tasks. Sixty one intermediate EFL learners were randomly assigned to output group (N = 30) and input-enhancement group (N = 31). Both groups received the same instruction on politeness markers using different versions of film transcriptions. Input enhancement group received film transcriptions in which the target markers were highlighted but there were not any highlights in the transcriptions of output group. Findings of this study rejected the targeted hypothesis and it was revealed that comprehension of politeness markers was improved by input-enhancement while production of these markers was more enhanced through output.

It seems that literature suffers from lack of empirical research on the role and efficacy of different teaching trajectories on the politeness markers. Most of the research done in literature paid due attention to the description of the politeness markers used by native or non-native speakers. To address this gap in the literature and include IDs as an effective and a defining factor in learning-teaching process of the politeness markers, this study has made an attempt to examine the phenomena under question.

Individual Differences and Multiple Intelligences

It is widely argued that recent education has focused on individualized education and learner autonomy (Hu & Zhang, 2017; Kostolányová & Nedbalova, 2017; Little et al., 2017; Sakai et al., 2008; Yan, 2007). Other than environmental factors such as experience in English as a second language context (Bardovi-Harlig & Dörnyei, 1998; Niezgodá & Rover, 2001; Taguchi, 2008), and pragmatic instruction (for review see Taguchi, 2015), which seem to be effective in improving pragmatic competence, IDs studies have gained momentum in explaining differential effects on second language learners' pragmatic development. These studies revealed that various aspects of IDs such as motivation (Takahashi, 2015; Yang & Ren, 2019; Zhang & Papi, 2021), personality (Kuriscak, 2010; Taguchi, 2014; Verhoeven & Vermeer, 2002), and proficiency (Bella, 2014; Félix-Brasdefer, 2007; Rose, 2000; Taguchi, 2007, 2011a, b) were the most important predictors of pragmatic learning and development. However, the possible effect of other aspects of IDs such as MIs on pragmatic development have remained under-researched.

One of the defining criteria in IDs is the concept of different types of intelligence developed by Gardner (1983, 1999). His theory of MI encompasses learner-based philosophy which is “an increasingly popular approach to characterizing how learners are unique and to developing instruction to respond to this uniqueness” (Richards & Rodgers, 2001, p. 123). Considering MI theory, one could contend that the pivotal focus of MI lies in finding out differences among learners and addressing these differences in the teaching process. Therefore, pedagogy is most successful when it considers learners' differences, analyzes these differences, and aligns instructional procedures with them. For Gardner (1993), humans possess a wide range of abilities and he categorized these abilities under the umbrella term of ‘intelligences’ as follows:

1. **Linguistic:** the capability to employ language creatively and idiosyncratically, the ability mostly seen among lawyers, authors, lecturers, etc.
2. **Logical/mathematical:** the capability to think reasonably and orderly, something observed among engineers, entrepreneurs, and scholars;
3. **Visual/spatial:** the capacity to figure out mental designs and models, mainly found with architects and designers;
4. **Musical:** possessing a talent for music as witnessed in musicians and singers;
5. **Bodily/kinesthetic:** having physical strength and body agility as indicated by sportsmen;
6. **Interpersonal:** the ability to build relations with others something politicians and teachers are strong in;
7. **Intrapersonal:** the capacity to activate your talents and to fulfil your potential abilities;
8. **Naturalistic:** the talent to see, understand and imitate the natural regularities and phenomena (Cited in Sarani & Malmir, 2020, p. 188).

Later, he added *existential intelligence*, which is defined by Torresan (2010) as “the human response to the limits and the processes of existence and the capacity to ask fundamental questions: Who are we? Where do we come from? Where are we going? What is the meaning of life? Where does love come from? Where does creativity come from?” (p. 17)

Armstrong (2009) argues that “MI theory makes its greatest contribution to education by suggesting that teachers need to expand their repertoire of techniques, tools, and strategies beyond the typical linguistic and logical ones predominantly used in American classrooms” (p. 54). The focus of traditional methods of teaching has zeroed in on a one-size-fits-all approach; however, it is believed that a musically oriented student may not learn by spatially oriented curricula. MI theory suggests that learners have a proclivity to learn differently and adding a variation to conceptualize language instruction differently may bring auspicious results.

Empirical Studies

Research on the role of IDs and L2 pragmatic development evinced that IDs play a sine quo non role in improving pragmatic competence. In a study, Zhang and Papi (2021) investigated the effect of learners' chronic motivational characteristics on L2 pragmatic production. Participants completed a regulatory focus questionnaire and a discourse completion task. Results showed that learners' promotion focus and prevention focus were positively and negatively correlated with their pragmatic production, respectively. Taguchi (2011a) examined speech act production on the account of general proficiency and study abroad experience. In doing so, participants were grouped based on their low/ high proficiency and length of studying abroad. They completed a pragmatic speaking test focusing on request and opinion speech acts. Findings of this study showed that there was a significant effect of proficiency on speech act production, however, study abroad experience did not reveal any effect.

Among different factors impacting pragmatic competence, it is witnessed that there is a burgeoning interest in finding out IDs' contribution to pragmatic development. Common among this line of research are the effect of IDs factors such as motivation, proficiency, personality, gender, and age on pragmatic competence, however, there is a paucity of research investigating the effect of MI on pragmatic development. Against the backdrop of few studies in finding out the contribution of MI-based instruction to pragmatic development, Sarani and Malmir (2020) examined the association between L2 learners' intelligence profiles and their pragmatic knowledge. The analysis of multiple regression showed that certain types of intelligence such as logical, interpersonal, verbal, and intrapersonal were the main predictors of L2 learners' pragmatic competence.

An ongoing line of research has targeted the role of MI-based instruction in developing speaking skills (Dorgham, 2011; Ibrahim, 2007; Rizqiningsih & Hadi, 2019), reading comprehension (ModirKhameneh & Bagherian Azhiri, 2012; Nemat Tabrizi, 2016; Roohani et al., 2015), and writing skill (Eng & Mustapha, 2010; Gündüz & Ünal, 2016). All these studies reported that recruiting MI-based instruction in educational programs in general and developing speaking, reading, and writing skills, in particular, was beneficial for language learners. In a study, Sayed (2005) examined the role of MI-based instruction in developing freshmen's oral communication skills. Data were collected from thirty freshmen majoring in English. The instructional procedure was operationalized based on Gardner's MI theory and to measure participants' oral communication skills, pretest and posttest were administered. The findings of the study revealed that there were significant differences in participants' gains after the posttest.

In another pertinent study, Salem (2013) examined the effect of MI-based instruction on ameliorating the speaking skills of the pre-service teachers of English. For instructional treatment, the researcher employed an MI-based program to improve their speaking skills. The study was conducted with sixty senior prospective teachers of English who were given pre-posttests to assess the efficiency of this program. The findings of this study revealed similar results to those of Sayed's study, i.e., participants' speaking skill improved. In a similar vein, Saiban and Simin (2015) conducted a study to examine the relationship between MI and the speaking skill of intermediate EFL learners. The researchers reported that there was a significant positive correlation between MI and speaking ability. Moreover, it was shown that three types of intelligences, namely linguistic-verbal, interpersonal, and intrapersonal intelligences were the main predictors of speaking ability.

Another line of research delved into the effect of MI-based instruction on the development of EFL learners' reading comprehension. Roohani et al. (2015) reported that MI-based instruction of reading comprehension was beneficial for Iranian EFL learners. They believed that MI-based instruction encompasses a wide range of intelligence, hence it contributes to better reading comprehension. Along the same lines, Nemat Tabrizi (2016) conducted research on the relationship between MI and EFL learners' reading comprehension. Findings of this study indicated that among the eight types of intelligence propounded by Gardner (1993), verbal-linguistic, visual-spatial, and interpersonal intelligences were the main predictors of reading comprehension.

The reviewed literature revealed that IDs in general and MI, in particular, are crucial factors in improving EFL learners' language skills. While most of the reviewed studies sought to find the relationship between MI and language skills, few studies used intelligences-based materials and activities, and in doing so, they did not take into account the dominant intelligence of the students. Taguchi (2017) and Taguchi and Roever (2017) claimed that a rigorous line of research is needed to establish the relationship between individual differences and various aspects of L2 pragmatics. Moreover, although the results of reviewed studies in the literature made manifest that MI-based instruction was a crucial factor in improving language skills, its effect on L2 pragmatic competence has remained uncharted territory. In this regard, a call for further research to increase our understanding of the role of MI-based instruction in promoting pragmatic competence is warranted. To this aim, the present study attempts to further our knowledge of the efficacy of MI-based instruction in developing L2 pragmatic competence by addressing the following research questions:

1. To what extent does MI-based instruction improve the comprehension and production of the politeness markers among intermediate EFL learners in the short run?
2. To what extent does MI-based instruction improve the comprehension and production of the politeness markers among intermediate EFL learners in the long run?

Method

Participants

Participants of the present study comprised 30 intermediate EFL learners attending a private English institute for three years. All of them were male in the 13-17 age range. They were native speakers of Turkish and had no experience of living in English speaking countries. They were selected non-randomly from the pool of 60 EFL learners. In doing so, they were required to take Cambridge English Language Assessment Inventory (CELAI) and McKenzie's MI questionnaire to pinpoint their proficiency levels and dominant intelligences, respectively. It is worth noting that the highest scores on the different sections of McKenzie's MI questionnaire indicated two dominant intelligences of the participants; therefore, the participants were assigned to experimental groups based on their specified dominant intelligences. Participants (N = 10) who had interpersonal along with intrapersonal intelligences as their dominant intelligences were grouped in the first experimental group (A) and those (N = 10) who had a high level of both linguistic and visual/spatial intelligences were grouped in the second experimental group (B). In the control group, there were 10 participants, regardless of their dominant intelligence. Regarding the homogeneity of the participants' knowledge of the politeness markers, researchers of the study administered a politeness pretest before the treatment sessions and it revealed that there were not any significant differences among the groups.

Instruments and Instructional Materials

Cambridge English language assessment inventory

This test is built by Cambridge ESOL and is used to measure the proficiency level of the EFL learners. The CELAI stands out among the most broadly used English appraisal batteries worldwide, consisting of 25 multiple-choice questions based on comprehension, grammar, and vocabulary choices.

Multiple intelligences survey

McKenzie's MI questionnaire (1999) is one of the well-developed tools to measure participants' MI. This research used a validated Persian version of the questionnaire with a coefficient of 0.74 Cronbach's alpha. It consists of nine sections each of which has 10 items to measure different types of intelligences. The questionnaire uses min-max scaling (0, 1) to pinpoint participants' dominant as well as weak intelligences.

Politeness pretest and posttest (comprehension phase)

Tajeddin and Pezeshki (2014) developed a five-point Likert scale politeness markers test. It consists of six conversations adopted from the books *Functions of American English* (Jones & Baeyer, 1983) and *International Expressways* (Molinsky, 1989). These conversations stand for the politeness markers proposed by House and Kasper's (1981) framework of the politeness markers. In these conversations, there are 30 numbered, underlined, and bold sentences, 12 of them are laden with the politeness markers and the other 18 do not either carry the politeness markers or are less polite. A sample of the test is given below:

Alex: (19) Dad, do me a favor.

Dad: Yes, of course.

Alex: (20) Can I possibly have the car tonight?

Dad: Hmm. **(21) I must think.** Well, I think so. But you'd better check with your mother. I'm sure she won't object to your having the car tonight, but it wouldn't hurt to ask.

Four raters were asked to rate the participants' comprehension of the specified sentences in the pretest. The raters, who were native speakers of English and qualified language teachers, were given the untouched version of conversations which were manipulated to look impolite or less polite. They were asked to judge the participants' answers on a five-point scale from extremely impolite to polite. When there was not a consensus between raters on rating a sentence, a third rater was asked to rate the sentence. Each sentence bore 1 score, so the maximum score for the test was considered 30. One example of manipulated sentences is given below. The original sentence is *Could we have a table over there by the window?*, which was changed to *We want to have a table over there by the window.*

Bob: Well, what do you think of this, Mary? Do you like this restaurant?

Mary: oh, honey, it looks very nice. Oh, look, let's see if we can sit over there by the window so we can look at the water!

Bob: oh yeah, sure. **(1)We want to have a table over there by the window.**

Politeness pretest and posttest (production phase)

Considering learners' language proficiency, the researchers of this study took two videos (bigfoot lives and if only...) from *New Interchange 3* (Richards et al., 2005) and three parts of *Sexy Beast* movie, since they were well supplied with House and Kasper's framework of the politeness markers. However, all of the videos were long and might distract learners' attention from the targeted politeness markers. Therefore, they were cropped, but caution was exercised not to make turns unintelligible. Thirteen sentences carrying the politeness markers were selected and made silent in the videos. The final version of the videos was transcribed and the silent parts in them were left blank. The participants were given these transcripts to fill in the blanks with appropriate politeness markers while they were watching videos. A sample of the test is given below:

Renee: Hello?

Abby: Renee? I am so glad you are there. [2]_____ help me out.

Renee: What's up?

Abby: I need to ask you a big favor. My boss just called, and he wants me to go out of town this afternoon to meet with a client.

The participants' answers to the blank parts were judged based on the politeness markers used in the videos by the movie characters. Since there were 13 blanks in the test, raters were asked to rate each blank on a scale from 1 to 5. Therefore, the maximum score for the test was 65. An example of provided answer by one of the participants is given below, which was given 4 by three of the raters.

Flight attendant: Sir, [1] I'm sorry you can't smoke.

Bald man: What? What do you want?

Flight attendant: Your cigarette, you have to put it out.

Instructional materials

Consulting field experts and using techniques and strategies presented in the book, *Multiple Intelligences in EFL: Exercises for Secondary and Adult Students* (Puchta & Rinvolutri, 2007), the researchers of this study designed six units titled *Who Has Helped me with Politeness Markers* for learners whose dominant intelligences were both interpersonal and intrapersonal. Each of these units focused on one group of the politeness markers proposed by House and Kasper (1981). The politeness markers were grouped as play-downs and consultative devices (unit 1), forewarning and scope-staters (unit 2), understaters and agent avoiders (unit 3), committers and hesitators (unit 4), politeness markers and downtoners (unit 5), and hedges (unit 6).

Furthermore, six videos were selected from *New Interchange* (Richards et al., 2005) for the other group whose dominant intelligences were both visual/spatial and linguistic. These videos (*Kid Sister*, *Bigfoot*, *Heartbreak Hotel*, *Stress Relief*, *If Only...*, and *Car Trouble*) were laden with six groups of the politeness markers mentioned above. The videos were transcribed and prepared like handouts to be given to the participants.

Data Collection Procedure

The present study lasted for nine ninety-minute sessions. The first and the two last sessions were devoted to pretest and posttest, and instructional sessions on how to learn the politeness markers took place in six sessions. The first session was divided into two forty-five-minute halves; all of the participants in the experimental groups and the control group were given the politeness markers comprehension and production pretests in the first and second half of the first session, respectively. In the comprehension pretest, they were required to rate the underlined sentences whether they were politely well- or ill-formed. In the production pretest, they were asked to provide appropriate politeness markers for the blank parts in the movies' transcription. Instructional sessions started one week after the pretest.

In experimental group A, the participants were given a handout containing the targeted politeness markers. They were asked to go through the politeness markers and a brief explanation was given to them in case of running into difficulty. For example, the first session was about *playdowns* and *consultative devices* as politeness markers. Hence the participants were provided with the following handout:

I wondered if . . . , I thought you might . . .
I was wondering whether..., I was thinking you might ...
Would it be a good idea..., Could we ...
Wouldn't it be a good idea..., Couldn't we ...
Would you mind ..., Could you ...

Jack: Hello there. You are through to the ticket office. My name's Jack. How can I help you today?

Rich: Yes, hello. *I was wondering if you could help me.* I have a ticket for the Liverpool - Watford match but I won't be able to attend the game. *I want a refund.*

Jack:

After scrutiny and required explanation of the specified politeness markers for each session, the participants were asked to go through the attached conversations in the handouts and analyze the ways the politeness markers were applied throughout the conversations. Some of the politeness markers used in the conversations were made inappropriate intentionally. The participants were asked to find them and, then, compare them with the correct forms written on the whiteboard by an instructor. Next, they were required to ponder on the same occasions presented in the conversations that had occurred to them in their own lives and jot down details. Afterwards, the instructor asked them to pair up and share their stories. While they were talking in pairs, the instructor was listening to them and helped them with their ill-formed utterances; other pairs were asked to correct each other's inappropriate use of the politeness markers. Finally, the pairs were required to make a dialogue like the given one in the handouts, use the learned politeness markers in it, and present it to the class. This cycle of the treatment was carried out for five more sessions for the other categories of the politeness markers.

In experimental group B, the participants were required to watch the videos chosen from *New Interchange* (Richards et al., 2005). While they were watching the videos, for example, *kids sister*, which was laden with *play downs* and *consultative devices* as the politeness markers, the instructor paused the video whenever there was a politeness marker, and wrote it on the board, and gave a brief explanation of it. After watching the video, the participants were given a part of the video's conversation in which the politeness markers were removed and left blank to be filled out. The following is the sample of the given conversation:

Abby asks her friend Renee for a favor.

Abby: Renee? I am so glad you're there. I was help me out?

Renee: What' up?

Abby: That's why I am calling you. Would she stayed with you? It would only be for tonight.

After completing the given activity, the instructor gave the correct answers and asked the participants to check and compare their answers with them, and if they had any questions in this regard, the instructor elaborated on them. The treatment in this group continued by providing the participants with transcriptions of the video. The politeness markers were highlighted in the transcription and the participants were required to read the transcription and provide appropriate synonyms for the highlighted parts. Finally, a set of pictures taken from the video was given to the participants and they were asked to match them with given sentences carrying the politeness markers. The participants in the experimental group B took the same cycle of treatment for five more sessions to the other categories of the politeness markers paired with the other videos (*Bigfoot, Heartbreak Hotel, Stress Relief, If Only ..., and Car Trouble*).

In the control group where the participants' dominant intelligences were not of any significance, the instructor provided them with a thorough explanation of the politeness markers and pertinent examples. Then, they were given a conversation in which the politeness markers were highlighted. Assessing their

knowledge of the politeness markers' comprehension and production, the instructor removed or made some of the politeness markers in the conversation less appropriate. At first, the participants were required to go through the conversation and specify the inappropriate politeness markers. Then, they were asked to provide appropriate forms to the politeness markers they rated as ill-formed. Finally, the instructor provided them with correct answers, and this cycle of rating a sentence as an ill-formed and its modification took place through five more sessions for the other categories of the politeness markers.

Two days after the treatment in all the three groups, the participants took a politeness posttest. They were required to read the conversations and rate the well- or ill-formed politeness markers on the five-point Likert scale ranging from 'extremely impolite' to 'totally polite'. Further, they were asked to provide appropriate politeness markers for the silent parts in the movies. Two weeks after the posttest, the participants took the posttest as a delayed posttest. The delayed posttest was administered likewise while the participants rated the appropriateness of the highlighted politeness markers and provided suitable politeness markers made silent in the movies.

Data Analysis

Four raters were asked to rate the participants' answers on the comprehension and production of the politeness markers. They were native speakers of English and EFL instructors who had at least ten years of teaching experience. Aiming to reach a high consensus in the rating system, the researchers of this study provided the raters with the original form of the conversations used in the pretest and posttest. The answer which three of the raters scored the same for an item in the pretest and posttest was gained currency.

To have clear illustration of participants' rated scores, descriptive statistics were first calculated for the pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest. One-way ANOVA was run in the IBM SPSS 20 to compare three groups before treatment sessions. To illustrate the effects of independent variables on the gain scores of the participants in the production and comprehension of the politeness markers, two-way (time X group) repeated measures ANOVAs were run. There were three treatment groups which were taken as the between-group independent variable and time was the within-group independent variable. Furthermore, the participants' gain scores in the production and comprehension of the politeness markers were the dependent variable. To locate the differences among the groups, *post hoc* analysis (LSD) was also run and the effect size was computed.

Results

Descriptive statistics for the control and the experimental (A and B) groups over the pretest, posttest, and delayed posttest are shown in Tables 1 and 2.

TABLE 1
Descriptive Statistics for the Comprehension

	Pretest		Posttest		Delayed posttest	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Group A (n = 10)	8.8	1.3	11.7	1.4	11.9	1.3
Group B (n = 10)	9.4	1.1	11.9	1.5	11.8	1.6
Control Group (n = 10)	9.1	1.7	9.4	1.6	9.5	1.9

TABLE 2
Descriptive Statistics for the Production

	Pretest		Posttest		Delayed posttest	
	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>
Group A (n = 10)	19.8	1.3	31.7	1.5	32.6	1.6
Group B (n = 10)	19.4	2.3	31.9	1.6	32.2	2.1
Control Group (n = 10)	20.1	1.7	29.4	1.6	27.9	1.3

The results of one-way ANOVA for the pretest showed that there were not any significant differences among the control and the experimental (A and B) groups in the comprehension and production of the politeness markers, $F(2, 27) = 0.42, p = 0.65$ and $F(2, 27) = 0.35, p = 0.7$, respectively. To examine the effects of MI-based and traditional forms of instruction on the participants' development of the politeness markers' comprehension and production, two-way repeated-measures ANOVA (time \times group) was run. The results can be seen in Tables 3 and 4. As the tables make manifest, there were main effects for group and time in both comprehension and production of the politeness markers. In other words, there appeared significant differences among the three groups, and improvement in target forms' comprehension and production was established over time.

TABLE 3

Two-way Repeated-measures ANOVA Results for the Politeness Markers' Comprehension

Factor	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	Significance	Effect size(η^2)
Time	2	69.9	$p < .000$	0.72
Group	2	4.03	$p < .029$	0.47
Time \times Group	4	14.06	$p < .000$	0.23

TABLE 4

Two-way Repeated-measures ANOVA Results for the Politeness Markers' Production

Factor	<i>df</i>	<i>F</i>	Significance	Effect size(η^2)
Time	2	530	$p < .000$	0.95
Group	2	10.66	$p < .020$	0.99
Time \times Group	4	9.04	$p < .000$	0.40

Considering the time and group, the main effects were evident for both comprehension and production of the politeness markers where the time and group interaction effects were also significant. This finding along with large effect sizes found for time, group and their interaction showed that the participants' comprehension and production improved in all the three groups over time shown in Figures 1 and 2, respectively.

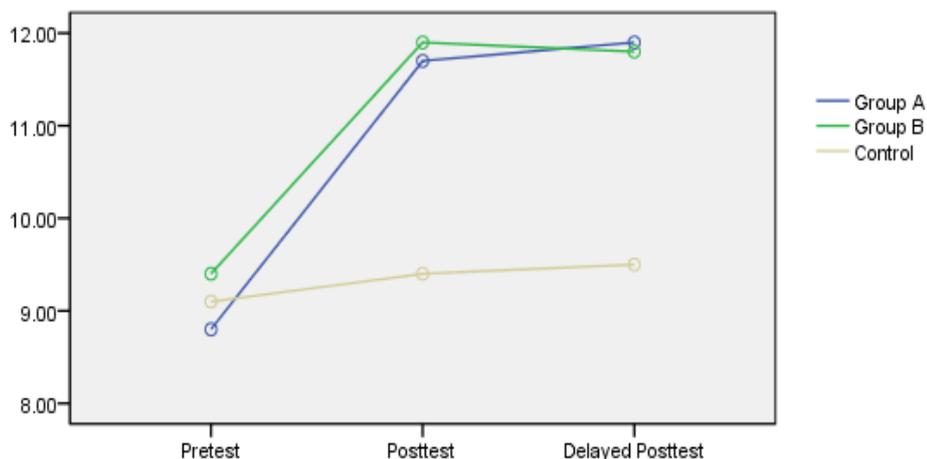


Figure 1. Group performance over time for comprehension test.

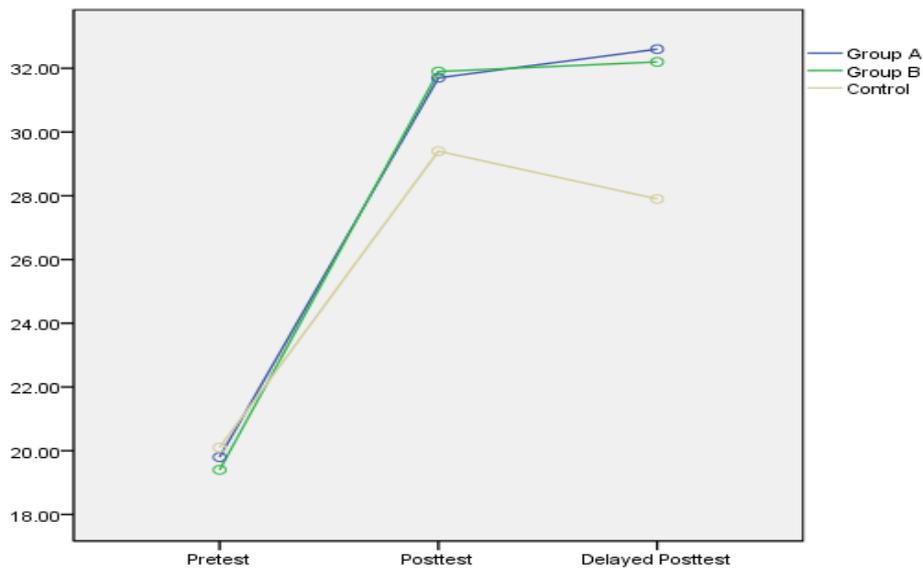


Figure 2. Group performance overtime for production test.

To locate the differences among the groups' comprehension and production scores on the posttests and the delayed posttests, one-way ANOVAs with LSD pair-wise comparison was run. With regards to the comprehension, the analysis revealed significant differences among the groups with large effect sizes in both posttest and delayed posttest, $F(2, 27) = 7.7, p < .002, \eta^2 = .36$ and $F(2, 27) = 6.6, p < .005, \eta^2 = .32$, respectively. The *post hoc* comparisons showed that the experimental groups A and B outperformed the control group in both posttests ($p < .003, p < .001$) and delayed posttest ($p < .003, p < .005$). Furthermore, it was observed that there was not any significant difference between the experimental group A and B either in the posttest ($p = .77$) or the delayed posttest ($p = .89$). Similarly, statistical findings for the production revealed significant differences with large effect sizes among the groups in two testing occasions where the values were $F(2, 27) = 7.73, p < .002, \eta^2 = .35$ in the posttest and $F(2, 27) = 22.66, p < .000, \eta^2 = .63$ in the delayed posttest. The *post hoc* analysis showed that the experimental group A and B outperformed the control group in the posttest ($p < .003, p < .001$) and the delayed posttest ($p < .000$ for both experimental groups). It was also evident that there was not any significant difference between the experimental groups A and B in the posttest ($p = .77$) and the delayed posttest ($p = .61$).

Discussion

The present study investigated the effect of MI-based instruction on promoting L2 pragmatics. It was hypothesized that MI-based instruction of pragmatic competence would be more promising than traditional ones. Analysis of the findings indicated that there were significant differences between the experimental and the control groups. Our findings, in line with Sarani and Malmir (2020), confirmed that MI-based instruction of pragmatic aspects fosters greater developments in the participants' pragmatic knowledge.

The first research question sought to answer the extent to which MI-based instruction improved the comprehension and production of the politeness markers among intermediate EFL learners in the short run. Our findings revealed that the answer to this question was affirmative considering that the participants in the control group were placed down the comprehension and production ladder of the politeness markers in comparison to the participants in the MI experimental groups. As was in the literature, different trajectories of instruction have led to pragmatic development (Bardovi-Harlig et al.,

2014; Qi & Lai, 2017; Tajeddin & Pezeshki, 2014), however, an important issue to be discussed is why the MI-based instructions were more effective in ameliorating the politeness markers' comprehension and production than the traditional one. The answer to this question might be found in the teacher fronted, restrictive, and one-sided flow of the traditional instruction confined to the text and blackboard. Armstrong (2009) believes that applying MI theory "provides a broad range of stimulating curricula to "awaken" the slumbering brains" (p. 55) and helps learners to regulate most of their learning. Moreover, drawing on the dynamic systems theory, Taguchi (2012) argued that the provision of input together with an "[o]ptimal combination of ID factors, rather than factors in isolation, [are] considered to have great predictive power" for L2 pragmatic competence (p. 69). Accordingly, the participants enjoyed the MI-based instruction and might capitalize on the dynamic system of teaching that creates great opportunities to remove learning boundaries leading to better and more effective learning in contrast to those exposed to traditional instruction. One implication of this finding is that material developers and language teachers should be aware of learners' dominant intelligences in teaching pragmatic competence and adapt teaching methods and language contents which are compatible with learners' MI.

It is also believed that MI-based instructions and activities foster a deeper and thorough understanding, and internalization of the targeted concepts (Gündüz & Ünal, 2016; Lazear, 2000), given that, Schmidt (1995, 2001) defined understanding as it "entails knowing a rule or principle that governs that aspect of language" (Cited in Sheen, 2007, p. 275); therefore in this study, the participants in the experimental groups capitalized on the MI-based instruction and outperformed the control group in the comprehension and production of the politeness markers. Most of the traditional methods of pragmatic instruction sound compelling and encompass different levels of Bloom's cognitive complexity (1956) in ameliorating pragmatic competence; however, our findings are in line with Achamma (2012), who showed that MI-based instruction helps the participants to achieve a higher command of the politeness markers' comprehension and production regarding the *knowledge*, *comprehension*, and *application* levels of Bloom's cognitive complexity. Stimulating the participants to think in a higher cognitive domain will encourage them to solve their problems indirectly and foster their ability to analyze and create something (Hu, 2015; Ma, 2008). This will happen by means of well-poised intelligence-based tasks (Goodnough, 2001) and imposing questions employing different levels of Bloom's cognitive complexity to not only enable the participants to learn the knowledge but also know how to apply the learned knowledge in real-life encounters. A close inspection of the imposed questions used in the MI-based activities of the current study showed that they highly engaged the participants' thinking path and therefore a higher level of the politeness markers comprehension and production was achieved in contrast to the traditional method of teaching.

The second research question pivoted on the long-term effect of MI-based instructions and traditional one on the participants' comprehension and production of the politeness markers. The results of the one-way ANOVAs with LSD pair-wise comparison revealed an advantage for the long-term retention of the comprehension and production of the markers by the experimental groups. Farr (1987) contended that several factors (the degree of original learning, task characteristics, retention interval, instructional strategies/conditions of learning, methods for testing retention/conditions of retrieval, and individual differences) influence the long-term retention of the learned knowledge over the long nonuse. Findings of this study showed that using intelligence-based instructions and tasks, and relying on the participants' dominant intelligences promoted the long-term retention of the markers. An important issue to be dealt with is learners' memories becoming the main concern of language teachers which Armstrong (2009) aptly stated that "they knew it yesterday, but today it's gone. It's as if I never even taught it. What's the point?" (p. 162). It seems that efforts made to improve long-term retention among participants have not been rightly fulfilled in the traditional instruction and it has remained an age-old educational problem. MI theory proposed a compelling solution to this problem and provided new horizons for the flawed notion of memory as a pure concept. Gardner (2006) believes that "memory is intelligence-specific" (p. 76) and until withholding intelligence specification, memory cannot be defined as bad or good. As noted by Armstrong (2009), this new perspective does not lay lack of retention on the participants' poor memories

specified by one or two of the intelligences, say linguistic and logical-mathematical ones, which are frequently emphasized in schools. It suggests that enabling participants to access their good memories using their dominant intelligences will be far more helpful in the long-term retention of the learned concepts.

Despite the scarcity of research on the efficacy of MI-based instruction in the interlanguage pragmatics, a handful of research studies have examined its effect on the development of communication skills (Mulu, 2021; Murad et al., 2021) and pragmatic competence (Sarani & Malmir, 2020). The findings of these researches showed that MI-based instructed participants outperformed those taught by traditional methods and some of the intelligences were significant predictors of L2 learners' speech-act pragmatic knowledge. In one study, Gurbuz et al. (2014) found that MI-based instruction was highly correlated with students' conceptual learning and their retention, in the long run, findings which are highly similar to our findings. Thus, it can be argued that because MI-based instruction is less concerned with impractical and laboratory-produced language use and is instead more inclined toward learning by doing and relating learned concepts to real-life situations, it greatly contributes to helping the participants be more successful in the long run retention and the use of the politeness markers. Findings of the current study corroborated socially oriented theories like Sociocultural Theory (Lantolf & Thorne, 2006, 2007), which regards L2 learning as "developmental processes tak[ing] place through participation in cultural, linguistic, and historically formed settings such as family life and peer group interaction, and in institutional contexts" (p. 197).

Conclusion

Although previous research provided evidence that instruction plays a pivotal role in promoting L2 pragmatic competence, a call for further research to incorporate the efficacy of IDs based instruction, especially MI-based instruction was put forth (Taguchi, 2017; Taguchi & Roever, 2017). Hence the current study was conducted to report on the possible effects of MI-based instruction on the comprehension and production development of the politeness markers. The results of this study buttress the findings of the previous studies. Our findings made evident that MI-based instruction helped catapult the participants to better comprehension and production of the politeness markers. Thus, one of the implications of this study is that IDs should not be neglected by curriculum developers and language teachers, especially in the teaching of pragmatic competence. As noted before, capitalizing on MI-based instruction, teachers can come up with brain-friendly strategies to help their students participate actively and push the boundaries of pragmatic learning more effectively. Another implication of the current study is that long-term learning is in part a function of intelligence-specified memories. Armstrong (2009) stated that criticizing students for the lack of learned knowledge retention by emphasizing linguistic and logical-mathematical intelligence is faulty. Therefore, intelligence-specified memories should methodically be taken into consideration by language teachers.

Although findings of this study manifested that MI-based instruction helped the participants more effectively in learning the politeness markers, the broader implications of ongoing research would be more fruitful for consolidating the findings of this study. Gender, in future studies, deserves to be investigated since it has always proven to be a decisive factor in studies in the realm of pragmatics. Besides, the data for the current study were collected from intermediate EFL learners, hence replicating the current study by recruiting advance EFL learners would be inspiring. Also, out of eight intelligences, two of the dominant intelligences were selected and investigated. However, to reach a conclusive result on the effect of different types of intelligences in promoting the politeness markers knowledge, a comprehensive research should be conducted. Finally, the designed tasks for MI-based instruction were not diversified. It is recommended that future line of research attempt to design a greater variety of tasks to target the specified-dominant-intelligences.

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