A COMPARATIVE STUDY ON THE IMPACT OF IMPLICIT AND EXPLICIT INSTRUCTION ON TURKISH EFL LEARNERS' PRAGMATIC COMPETENCE

Dilehan FETTAHOĞLU
191113114

MASTER OF ARTS THESIS

Foreign Languages Education
Department of English Language Teaching with Thesis
Advisor: Asst. Prof. Dr. Hakan DİLMAN

İstanbul
T.C. Maltepe University
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Orcid: 0000-0002-2492-2910

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JÜRİ VE ENSTİTÜ ONAYI

Bu belge, Yükseköğretim Kurulu tarafından 19.01.2021 tarihli "Lisansüstü Tezlerin Elektronik Ortamda Toplanması, Düzenlenmesi ve Erişime Açılmasına İlişkin Yönerge" ile bildirilen 6698 Sayılı Kişisel Verilerin Korunması Kanunu kapsamında gizlenmiştir.

ETİK İLKE VE KURALLARA UYUM BEYANI

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ÖZET

ÖRTÜK YÖNERGELİ VE AÇIK YÖNERGELİ ÖĞRETİMİN İNGİLİZCEYİ YABANCI DİL OLARAK ÖĞRENEN TÜRK ÖĞRENCİLERİN EDİMBİLİMSEL YETİLERİNE ETKİSİ ÜZERİNE KARŞILAŞTIRMALI BİR ÇALIŞMA

Dilehan Fettahoğlu
Yüksek Lisans Tezi
Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı
İngiliz Dili Eğitimi
Danışman: Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Hakan Dilman
Maltepe Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, 2023

Öğrencilerin yabancı dilde etkin bir şekilde iletişim kurmaları açısından edimbilimsel beceriye sahip olmaları büyük önem taşımaktadır. Bu doğrultuda, bu çalışma örtük ve açık yönergeli iki öğretim modelinin bir vakıf üniversitesinin İngilizce hazırlık bölümünde eğitim gören 66 Türk öğrencinin edimbilimsel yetilerine etkisini araştırmaktadır. Araştırma iki deney ve bir kontrol grubu ile yapılmıştır. Her iki deney grubuna biri örtük yönergeli, diğeri açık yönergeli olmak üzere beş hafta boyunca karşılık verme, rica, tavsiye ve reddetme sözeylemleri üzerine iki farklı ders yöntemi uygulanmıştır. Katılımcıların edimsel kazanımlarını ölçmek adına verileri toplamak için uygulama öncesi ve sonrasında her gruba on sekiz durumdan oluşan Yazılı Söylem Tamamlama Testi uygulanmıştır. Sonuçlar SPSS v.24 üzerinde ANOVA ile analiz edilmiştir.Bulgular açık yönergeli öğretimin tüm sözeylemlerinde etkili olmadığını, örtük yönergeli öğretimin ise öğrencilerin edimbilimsel becerilerini anlamlı derecede geliştirdiğini göstermiştir. Bu doğrultuda, Türk öğrencilerin İngilizce öğrenimindeki edimsel yetkinliklerini geliştirmek için örtük öğretim tekniğini kullanmanın etkili olabileceği sonucuna varılmıştır.

Anahtar sözcükler: Edimbilim, diller arası edimbilim, edimsel beceri, sözeylem, açık yönerge, örtük yönerge

ABSTRACT

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Thesis Advisor: Assist. Dr.Hakan Dilman
Maltepe University Graduate School of Social Sciences, 2023

Pragmatic competence is a crucial component for a language learner to possess in order to communicate successfully in the target language. Within this context, this study examines the impact of implicit and explicit instruction on a sample of 66 Turkish EFL learners' pragmatic competence who were enrolled in a foundation university's preparatory program. The study involves two experimental groups and a control group. Each experimental group was given two distinct instructional approaches, implicit and explicit, on speech acts of responding, request, advice-giving, and refusal throughout the course of five weeks. A Written Discourse Completion Task was delivered to each group before and after the treatment to gauge participants' pragmatic gains. The results were analyzed with ANOVA on SPSS v.24. The findings revealed that explicit instruction was successful for some speech acts, whereas implicit instruction significantly enhanced students' pragmatic abilities. It is concluded that the implicit teaching technique expands Turkish students' pragmatic skills in English in this regard.

Keywords: Pragmatics, interlanguage pragmatics, speech act, explicit instruction, implicit instruction, pragmatic competence

GENİŞLETİLMİŞ TÜRKÇE ÖZET

ÖRTÜK YÖNERGELİ VE AÇIK YÖNERGELİ ÖĞRETİMİN İNGİLİZCEYİ YABANCI DİL OLARAK ÖĞRENEN TÜRK ÖĞRENCİLERİN EDİMBİLİMSEL YETİLERİNE ETKİSİ ÜZERİNE KARŞILAŞTIRMALI BİR ÇALIŞMA

Türkiye'de İngilizce öğrenen öğrencilerin hedef dilde iletişim becerileri, dil bilgisi yeterlikleriyle eşit seviyede gelişim göstermemektedir. Öğrenciler, İngillizce'yi kullanırken kültürel uygunluğuna dikkat etmeden iletişimsel hatalar yapabilmektedir. Öğrencilerin hedef dilde etkin iletişim kurmaları için İngilizce'de hangi yapıları, hangi durumlarda kullanmaları gerektiğine dair edimbilimsel beceriye sahip olmaları gerekmektedir. Bu kapsamda, mevcut çalışma, örtük ve açık yönergeli öğretim modellerinin yabancı dil olarak İngilizce öğrenen Türk öğrencilerin edimbilimsel yeterlikleri üzerinde etkilerini araştırmak için yapılmıştır.

Türkiye bağlamında, İngilizce öğrenenlerin edimbilimsel becerileri üzerinde hangi ders metodunun etkili olduğunu araştıran çalışmalar oldukça yetersizdir. Özellikle örtük öğretim yönteminde, yeniden biçimlendirme geri bildirim tekniği hiç kullanılmamıştır. Deneysel çalışmalar daha çok açık yönergeli öğretimin sonuçlarına odaklanmıştır. Bu kapsamda çalışma, Türkiye'deki diller arası edimbilim alanına katkısından ötürü önemlidir.

Çalışmada üç araştırma sorusuna yanıt aranmıştır:

1. Açık yönergeli öğretimden sonra öğrencilerin edimbilimsel yeterliklerinde gelişme oldu mu?

2. Örtük yönergeli öğretimden sonra öğrencilerin edimbilimsel yeterliklerinde gelişme oldu mu?

3. Öğrenenlerin söz eylemlerini doğru şekilde kullanma yeteneğini geliştirmek için hangi öğretim daha etkilidir?

Çalışmada, araştırma sorularına yanıt bulabilmek için deneysel araştırma modeli izlenmiş olup, nicel veriler analiz edilmiştir. Türkiye'deki bir vakıf üniversitesinde, 66 katılımcıdan oluşan iki deney ve bir kontrol grubu ile çalışılmıştır. Deneysel gruplara 5 hafta boyunca iki farklı yöntem ile edimbilim ders etkinlikleri uygulanmıştır. Kontrol grubuna herhangi bir müdahale yapılmamış, grup genel İngilizce hazırlık programı müfredatına göre derslerine devam etmiştir. Açık yönergeli ders öğretiminde öğrencilere yanıt verme, ricada bulunma, tavsiye verme ve reddetmeden oluşan 4 sözeylem üzerinden edimbilimsel kurallar açık bir şekilde anlatılmış, yine bu kuralların anlatıldığı videolar izletilmiş, sınıf tartışması yapılmış ve rol yapma etkinlikleri uygulanmıştır. Örtük yönergeli öğretimde ise edimbilimsel kurallar açıklanmamıştır, onun yerine izlenen videolardaki diyaloglardaki edimbilimsel yapılar koyu renkle vurgulanmıştır Örtük yönergeli öğretimdeki diğer bir teknik de öğrenciler rol yapma etkinliklerinde yer alırken öğretmen tarafından verilen yeniden biçimlendirme şeklindeki dönüttür.

Ders uygulamaları başlamadan önce ve bittikten sonra tüm gruplara ön test ve son test uygulanmıştır. Uygulanan ölçek 4 sözeyleme denk gelen 18 farklı durumdan oluşmaktadır. Bu bağlamda, edimbilimsel yeterlilik, yanıt verme, ricada bulunma, tavsiye verme ve reddetmeden oluşan bu dört söz eyleme karşılık gelen, söylem tamamlama testindeki durumsal istemler için edimsel olarak uygun bir şekilde ifadeler üretme yeteneği olarak yeniden çerçevelenmiştir. Öğrencilerin söylem tamamlama testindeki yanıtları, değerlendirme kriterine göre kategorize edilmiş ve sayısal değerlerle puanlanmıştır. Veriler hem grup içinde hem de gruplar arasında karşılaştırarak nicel olarak analiz edilmiştir. Gruplar arası sonuçlar ANOVA ile karşılaştırılıp, değerler arasında anlamlı bir fark olup olmadığı incelenmiştir. Öğrencilerin aynı grup içerisindeki ön test ve son test arasındaki farkların yine anlamlı derecede önemli olup olmadığı T-test ile analiz edilmiştir. Ayrıca öğrencilerin sözeylem kategorilerine göre verdikleri yanıtları detaylı incelemek için grupların yüzdelik dağılımları da incelenmiştir.

Araştırma sorularına bağlı olarak üç hipotez test edilmiştir. Açık yönergeli öğretim modeli ile eğitim gören grubun son testten sonra edimsel yeterliliklerinde istatiksel olarak anlamlı derecede bir artış olacağını belirten ilk hipotez, kontrol grubunun da bazı sözeylemlerinde gelişme göstermesi nedeniyle tamamıyla desteklenememiştir. Bununla birlikte, açık yönergeli öğretim gören grup, tüm söz eylemlerde olmasa da ricada bulunma

ve ret sözeylemlerinde yanıtlarını edimsel olarak uygun bir düzeye geliştirmiştir. Açık yönergeli öğretimin diğer söz eylemlerinde beklenen geliştirmeyi sağlayamaması, öğrenci motivasyonu, öğrenen profili, ölçek türü ve etkinlik türü gibi araştırma bağlamındaki olası faktörlere bağlı olabileceği dikkate alınmıştır.

Örtük yönergeli öğretim modeli ile öğrenim gören grubun edimsel yeterliliklerini, ön teste kıyasla son testte istatiksel olarak anlamlı ölçüde artıracağını belirten ikinci hipotez doğrulanmıştır. Sonuçlar, örtük şekilde ders gören öğrencilerin son testteki cevaplarını edimsel olarak önemli derecede geliştirdiklerini gösterdi. Örtük yönergeli öğretimin başarısını girdi geliştirme ve yeniden biçimlendirme geri bildiriminden oluşan iki tekniğin işlevselleştirilmesine bağlanmıştır. Ayrıca öğrencilerin rol yapma etkinliklerine katılmaları, öğrencilerin edimsel yapılara dikkat etmesini sağlamış ve bu yapıların öğrenci belleğinde işlenmesine yardımcı olmuştur.

Öğrenenlerin söz eylemlerini doğru kullanmaları açısından her iki deney grubunun da en az diğeri kadar başarılı olacağını ifade eden üçüncü hipotez, elde edilen verilerle destekteklenememiştir. İstatistiksel sonuçlar, açık ve örtük yönergeli öğretim metodu arasında anlamlı bir fark göstermese de yalnızca örtük öğrenim gören grubun kontrol grubundan anlamlı derecede daha iyi performans sergilediklerini göstermiştir. Bu nedenle, bulgular örtük yönergeli öğretimin daha etkili olduğunu göstermektedir.

Sonuçlar İngilizce'yi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen öğrencilerin örtük öğretim modeli ile edimsel yeterliliklerini anlamlı derecede geliştirebileceğini göstermiştir. Derslerde rol yapma etkinliğini uygulamanın ve bu süreçte geri bildirimde bulunmanın öğrencilerin dilin sosyolojik kurallara uygun şekilde kullanma becerilerini geliştirmede yeterli olabildiği sonucuna ulaşılmıştır.

Mevcut araştırma, gelecekteki edimbilimsel alanında yapılacak ders modellerini araştıran daha kapsamlı çalışmalara referans teşkil etmektedir. Gelecekteki çalışmalar farklı ölçek modelleri kullanarak daha farklı veriler elde edebilir. Geciktirilmiş son test uygulamak öğrencilerin ders sonrası kazanımlarının ne kadar kalıcı olduğunu ortaya koyacaktır. Ayrıca, bu zamana kadar yapılmış edimbilim alanında eğitici çalışmaların bir meta-analiz araştırmasını yapmak, Türkiye’de bu alanda ne kadar yol katettiğimizi gösterecek ve aynı

zamanda araştırma desenlerinin geçerlilik ve güvenilirliğinin değerlendirilmesine yardımcı olacaktır.

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ABBREVATIONS

ELT : English Language Teaching

EFL : English as a Foreign Language

ESL : English as a Second Language

L1 : First Language

L2 : Second Language

NS : Native Speaker

NNS : Non-native Speaker

ILP : Interlanguage Pragmatics

SLA : Second Language Acquisition

DCT : Discourse Completion Task / Test

WDCT : Written Discourse Completion Task/Test

LSD : Least Significant Difference

SPSS : Statistical Package for the Social Sciences

ANOVA : Analysis of Variance

1. INTRODUCTION

This chapter presents the background of the study, the statement of the problem, the purpose of the study, the research questions, the significance of the study, the limitations of the study, assumptions and the definition of the terms used in the research.

1.1. Background of the Study

Foreign language teaching area has a long history hosting various theories and approaches. Structural approaches including grammar-translation, audiolingualism and the direct method, where linguistic rules and grammar were considered the most important components of language kept the hegemony in language teaching for a considerable amount of time. However, the belief that studying grammar consciously will provide the capacity to utilize the language was not satisfactory. In response to this belief, communicative approaches such as The Notional-Functional approach of Wilkins (1972) and the Natural approach of Krashen & Terrel (1983) emerged where communication is regarded as the primary function of language. Through the years, the methodology has shifted its way to communicative language teaching and meaningful interaction has become a matter of focus in language teaching (Morrow, 1995).

Hymes (1972), who pioneered the term "communicative competence", foregrounded the communicative function of language knowledge. After Hymes, researchers like Savignon, (1976) and Canale and Swain, (1980) developed communicative models that included some competencies to be successful in the target language such as sociolinguistic, strategic, discourse, and grammatical competence. Becoming proficient in these skills is believed to make the learners able to use rules appropriately in context and achieve fluent communication in the target language. Later with Bachman and Palmer's (1982) model, pragmatic competence became a main component of communicative competence. Pragmatic competence requires an understanding of how language should be used in an acceptable manner in a range of settings. In Taguchi's (2015) terms, pragmatic competence is the capacity to manage a complex interaction between language, language users, and interaction setting. Bachman and Palmer's (1982) and Bachman's (1990) models of communicative competence paved the way for

pragmatics in second language acquisition area. After providing a concise definition of pragmatic competency, it is necessary to offer a thorough explanation of the word "pragmatics".

To define pragmatics in the words of Riley (2005), pragmatics is "the study of how language is used to communicate within its situational context" (p.9). In other words, pragmatics deals with how context contributes to meaning. Language involves meanings that have not been put into words or meanings which change depending on the situations. Therefore, producing structurally proper sentences and trying to comprehend only the literal meanings of the sentences may result in failure in a conversation. Thomas (1983) defines this failure as pragmatic failure. Pragmatic failure is quite likely to occur in the case of an interaction between two interlocutors of different language background, different cultures and social norms (Baca, 2011). To prevent misunderstandings and failure in communication in second language, developing this pragmatic knowledge of learners, basically, their competence has become highly significant (Martinez-Flor, 2004). Thus, pragmatics has become an area of interest to teachers and researchers. In this way, a new research area called as Interlanguage Pragmatics (ILP) in English Language Teaching field has begun.

ILP has been defined as "the study of nonnative speakers' use and acquisition of linguistic action patterns in a second language" (Kasper & Blum-Kulka, 1993, p. 3). According to the research of Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnyei (1998) that investigated the pragmatic competence of adult second language learners in the ILP field, acquiring the grammatical component of language does not guarantee efficient mastery of the pragmatic dimension of language. Sometimes, not even the most proficient learners can understand or convey the true meaning of a statement, much alone adjust their tone and delivery to fit the formality or informality of the situation. All these communication flaws can conclude in "pragmatic hazards" (Bardovi-Harlig & Mahan-Taylor, 2003, p.38) which make speakers appear rude or insulting.

Therefore, researchers claimed that pragmatics is needed to be taught to learners noting that instruction is better than exposure alone (Kasper & Rose, 2002; Olshtain & Cohen, 1990; Rose, 2005). Input alone, especially in an English as a foreign language (EFL) classroom, is not sufficient since learners are exposed to limited target-language and are

unable to practice their second language (L2) outside of the school setting. Even in the instance of English as a second language (ESL) learners who have more access to L2 information comparably, they are often unaware of pragmatic elements such as the use of speech acts or strategies for politeness. (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001). By making these features salient through instruction, learners can gain pragmatic awareness.

After there was a consensus about the efficacy of teaching pragmatics, researchers started to investigate the effectiveness of different instruction methods (Jeon & Kaya, 2006; Rose, 2005). A good number of studies (e.g., House, 1996; Wildner-Basset 1984, 1986 as cited in Rose, 2005) centered around the effectiveness of explicit teaching, and they revealed significant results. While several studies (e.g., Rose & Ng Kwai-Fun, 2001; Takahashi, 2001) that compared two intervention methods resulted in the supremacy of explicit teaching over implicit teaching, some studies revealed both methods had significant effects (e.g., Martinez-Flor, 2004; Rezvani et al., 2014). On the other hand, some studies showed implicit teaching was better than the explicit (e.g., Fukuya & Zhang, 2002;). Taguchi (2015) indicates the implicit method was as effective as the explicit on the measure where the processing demand is less, and tasks are easier such as recognition and planned tasks. Furthermore, studies dealt with explicit instruction outnumber the studies which investigated the implicit instruction, and there's still scarce data about an implicit intervention. Therefore, as Bardovi-Harlig (2019) puts it, the question of whether teaching pragmatics in one way is better than teaching it in other ways has not yet been satisfactorily answered. There has not been a definitive response to this topic.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

Even though the significance of pragmatics has been proven, studies conducted in Turkish settings indicate that teaching pragmatics is relatively neglected in Turkey (e.g., Akyıldız, 2012; Mitrani, 2016). The curricula of university ELT programs do not include any subjects on how to improve students' pragmatic competence and awareness in the classroom most of the time. The development of learners' pragmatic competence and how to instruct pragmatics has been mostly ignored and, pragmatics is rarely assessed in language classes in Turkey (Mede & Dikilitas, 2015), all of which might bring up linguistically proficient learners but with communicative failures.

This dilemma can be partially attributed to the fact that the term pragmatics remains vague to most of the educators in the English language teaching field in Turkey as stated by Terzi (2014) and Ekin and Damar (2013). The vast majority of English language instructors lack adequate understanding of the notion of pragmatics or the ways to teach pragmatics since there is no systematic or intentional instruction of this component of language in teacher training syllabuses in EFL teacher education programs of universities in Turkey (Karatepe, 1998, 2001).

A further problem is that there is a dearth of authentic pedagogical pragmatic input. Oftentimes, the only pragmatic input learners receive is what is available in the L2 textbooks. Even though some pragmatic aspects, such as some speech acts are integrated into EFL course books, they are limited and inadequate (Aksoyalp & Toprak, 2014; Ekin & Damar, 2013; Özdemir, 2010).

In addition, due to the limited time, teachers sometimes skip these communicative and functional language parts in the course books since the aim is to teach grammatical mastery first. The reason for that is learners' language competency is assessed by an exam model that consists of a written exam with a high percentage of scoring rate which comprises grammar, reading and writing skill parts, and a speaking exam with a low percentage. Thus, the emphasis on teaching goes in line with the exam context. It's possible that the assessment method might be to blame for the persistent focus on teaching students the structural aspects of the target language. According to Solak and Bayar (2015), grammar-centered teaching still lingers in language classes in Turkey.

Along with the abovementioned issues, the study and instruction of pragmatics face a wide range of difficulties. These difficulties are organized into eight categories by Skyes (2013). Problems number:

> (1) limited theoretical support for curricular development, (2) lack of authentic input in teaching materials, (3) lack of instructor knowledge, (4) a dominant focus on microfeatures of language in the foreign language context (5) time limitations in the classroom, (6) individual student differences and learner subjectivity, (7) feedback and assessment challenges, and (8) immense dialectal variation. (p.73)

As studies show (e.g., Mede & Dikilitas, 2015; Ozdemir, 2010), most of these challenges are present in the current ELT field in Turkey.

In line with these challenges stated above, there have been several investigations on different issues such as learners' awareness and production of some pragmatic features in pragmatics research area in Turkey (e.g., Balcı, 2009; Çiftçi, 2015; Han & Burgucu-Tazegül, 2016; Karatepe, 2001). However, while conducting this research, there have been only a few studies in Turkey examining the effects of various instruction types (explicit and implicit) on developing pragmatic competence of EFL learners (e.g., Kaya, 2018, Özdemir, 2011). Considering the necessity of pragmatic pedagogical intervention regarding the importance of developing learners' pragmatic and communicative competence, studies comparing different instructional approaches of pragmatics are few in number. This indicates that the area of instructional pragmatics in Turkey is still in its infancy. Therefore, more studies are needed on implementing varied methods of instruction of pragmatics in the Turkish context.

1.3. Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this research is to explore the impact of both explicit and implicit instruction on Turkish EFL learners' pragmatic competence. The other object of the study is to find out whether explicit way of teaching pragmatics will be more effective than implicit way on learners' production of specific target speech acts, or vice versa. The explicit instruction will include a metapragmatic explanation of pragmatic features while implicit instruction will involve input enhancement followed by awareness-raising activities with recast which is implicit corrective feedback. It is anticipated that this study will make a contribution to the field of Interlanguage Pragmatics in Turkey.

1.4. The Research Questions

Taking into consideration the above-mentioned evaluation, to clarify the impact of the type of instruction on Turkish EFL learners' pragmatic competence, the following research questions will be answered:

1. Is there any improvement on pragmatic competence of students after explicit instruction?

2. Is there any improvement on pragmatic competence of students after implicit instruction?
3. Which instruction is more effective for improving learners' ability to produce appropriate use of speech acts: explicit or implicit?

1.5. The Hypotheses

Related to the research questions which were mentioned above, this study is expected to test some subsequent hypotheses which are stated below:

Hypothesis 1: The explicit group will significantly improve their pragmatic competence in the post-test over the pre-test.

Hypothesis 2: The implicit group will significantly improve their pragmatic competence in the post-test over the pre-test.

Hypothesis 3: Both experimental groups will be as effective as the other in learners' producing appropriate use of speech acts.

1.6. Significance of the Study

This study is significant since it contributes to interventional research on pragmatic competence within the ELT field in Turkey and provides us with guiding information about the comparison of the impacts of implicit and explicit teaching methods in improving pragmatic competence. Despite the fact that there has been an upsurge in research relating to the field of pragmatics around the world, studies on the efficiency of different instruction to teach pragmatics are relatively few in Turkey. Moreover, some studies focused on explicit instruction solely in developing pragmatic competence (e.g., Bayındır, 2019; Kaya, 2018). Only two researchers, Özdemir (2010) and Ülbeği (2009) compared the effects of explicit and implicit instruction in Turkish settings. However, both studies worked with a similar age group, basically children and teens (7^{th} grade and 8^{th} grade), young adults have never been subject to a comparative investigation in this sense. In addition, the two studies had different findings, therefore, the results are inconclusive. To make a generalization about the pragmatic benefits of instruction type for Turkish EFL learners, more studies are needed focusing on the different participant groups with different instrument procedures.

Also, by making use of pragmatic recasting, this work will contribute a new facet to pragmatic implicit teaching in Turkey. Recasts have not been employed as a technique in implicit instruction in Turkey (e.g., Özdemir, 2010; Ülbeği, 2009). In this sense, Fukuya and Zhang (2002) found large effect sizes of pragmatic recast in their study. In light of the findings of this study, it is expected to contribute to the field that lacks sufficient research to generalize the conclusive outcomes relating to Turkish learners' pragmatic competence.

Furthermore, this study is also important in that it reflects a real-life process in an EFL class since as the researcher and teacher, intact classes were used in real-time module duration of the university's preparatory program. Instead of language teaching laboratories that consist of carefully chosen sample size and variation where the data is unbonded from real life, with all its limitations, this study mirrors a real foreign language classroom amongst the very common ones in its situational context in Turkey.

1.7. Assumptions

It is assumed that the participants took part in the treatment process and pretest-posttest sessions willingly. In addition, participants are assumed to have given the highest attention to the instruction and shown sincere interest in this research. Moreover, participants' background knowledge of English is expected to be similar since they are placed into the levels after a placement test they take before the module starts. Also, participants' answers to the Discourse Completion Test (DCT) are assumed to have been given in full focus.

1.8. Limitations of the Study

This study is limited since the treatment process was carried out in seven-week time. The participants were studying in a preparatory year program at a foundation university. The preparatory program at the university included four modules, and each module covered seven weeks of teaching time. After each module, students attended to module exit exam, and the classes were blended after each module exam. According to their exam results, they were re-assigned to the new classes. Henceforth, it was not possible to work with the same experimental groups after seven weeks. It should be considered that the results could possibly change when the treatment is spread over a longer time period.

In addition, employing a delayed test would provide us with more concrete results and give us the opportunity to make certain implications. For instance, in certain studies (Kubota, 1995; Salazar, 2003) the effects of instruction remained for a very short term and the improvements were lost by the time delayed post-tests were administered. However, a delayed post-test was not possible to be employed in these circumstances of the preparatory program of the participants since the instruction groups dispersed after the module ended.

1.9. Definition of Terms

Communicative competence is the ability to use the language grammatically correct and appropriate to norms of usage in the social context (Hymes, 1972).

Contrastive Pragmatics is a sub-area of pragmatics that compares the pragmalinguistic functions of different languages (Trosborg, 2010).

Cross-cultural Pragmatics is the research area as a branch of contrastive pragmatics that focuses on both pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic features of languages (Trosborg, 2010).

Direct speech act is an utterance that carries the literal meaning (Mey, 2001).

Discourse-Completion Task (DCT) is a tool that is used in pragmatics to elicit productions of specific speech acts (Schauer, 2009).

Explicit Instruction embraces the explicit presentation of the linguistic rule (Rose, 2005).

Face is a term in the politeness theory of Brown and Levinson (1987) which means self-worth and self-image of oneself in the society.

Implicit Instruction includes providing input but no rule presentation (Rose, 2005).

Indirect speech act conveys a meaning different than what is said, in other words, non-literal meaning (Mey, 2001).

Interlanguage Pragmatics is the study field that focuses on learners' use and acquisition of L2 pragmatic knowledge (Kasper, 1992).

Metapragmatic information relates to explicit knowledge of pragmatics (Kasper & Rose, 2002).

Negative face refers to one's will not to be imposed on their act of choice (Brown and Levinson, 1987).

Positive face refers to public image of oneself liked and respected by others (Brown and Levinson, 1987).

Pragmatics is the study of how context contributes to meaning involving a process of conceptualizing the meaning by the users of language (Mey, 2001).

Pragmatic competence may be described as the understanding of linguistic forms, their roles, and the social conventions that let speakers interpret and perform a message in a particular language. (Kasper, 1992). For the purposes of this study, pragmatic competence refers to the appropriateness of the learners' productions in four speech acts: responding, request, advice giving and refusal.

Pragmatic failure is the inability to understand what is meant by what is said that causes misunderstandings in communication (Thomas, 1983).

Pragmalinugistics is a branch of pragmatics related to linguistic aspect (Leech, 1983).

Recast is a type of corrective implicit feedback where the teacher implicitly reformulates the student's error or provides the correction without directly indicating that the student's utterance was incorrect (Fukuya & Zhang, 2002).

Sociopragmatics is a branch of pragmatics related to the social rules of language use (Leech, 1983).

Speech acts involve a sort of utterances including particular language functions in communication such as apologizing, refusing, requesting, and complimenting (Ishihara & Cohen, 2010).

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Pragmatics

The discipline of pragmatics is a complicated theoretical notion that has been characterized in a number of different ways by a range of different academics. The first definition belongs to the philosopher Charles Morris (1938) who was credited with introducing the word pragmatics during his work to outline the general image of semiotics which is a study of sign processes. Morris describes pragmatics as the study of the interaction between signals and their recipients. According to Morris, to comprehend a language or use it appropriately, one must adhere to the present social community's use standards. Without the rules of language use, one cannot understand or use the language correctly.

According to Thomas (1983), pragmatics, or "language in use," is where a speaker's understanding of grammar meets his or her familiarity with the outside world. Ideas about language and beliefs about the world act as filters for both knowledge systems, and they are shaped by underlying sets of assumptions and worldviews.

Considering this point of view, the cognitive psychologist Steven Pinker shares similar lines with Thomas in his words as “pragmatics refers to how people understand language in context using their knowledge of the world and their expectation about how other speakers communicate.” (FloatingUniversity, 2011, 00:37). The knowledge of the real world allows us to make sense of the utterances by relating to the context.

In terms of Yule (1996), “pragmatics is the study of ‘invisible’ meaning, or how we recognize what is meant even when it isn’t actually said (or written)” (p.127). For the example dialogue below,

A: I have a fourteen-year-old son

B: Well, that’s all right

A: I also have a dog

B: Oh, I'm sorry

Yule (1996) states "In making sense of the quote above, it may help to know that A is trying to rent an apartment from B." (p.127). Without the information of context, speakers' relation, and place, one cannot understand the conversation clearly. Owning a dog simply is not something sad or negative one would think, however, it is only when we consider the utterance including our world knowledge and intended meaning that we can grasp what this dialogue is about.

A more elaborate definition comes from Crystal (2008), who is mostly cited. According to Crystal (2008), pragmatics examines the language from the perspective of its users, their choices, the challenges they face in interaction with other people as well as the consequences of those choices on the hearer in communication.

The definitions presented above acknowledge the roles of both speaker and hearer in the communication and meet on the mutual point which is the importance of the users and interaction along with the context in interpretation of utterances where all variables depend on one another.

On the other hand, Leech (1983) introduced 'General Pragmatics' and divided it into two sub-branches: Pragmalinguistics and Socio-pragmatics as in the figure below.

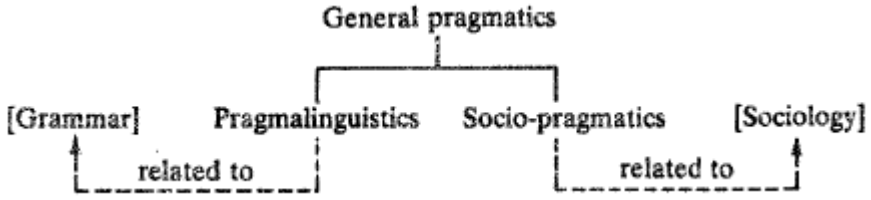


Figure 1. The Framework of Leech's General Pragmatics (Leech, 1983)

Leech (1983) defines general pragmatics as "the study of the general conditions of the communicative use of language", and pragmalinguistics as the study of "the more linguistic end of pragmatics - where we consider the particular resources which a given language provides for conveying particular illocutions" (p.10-11). On the other hand, socio-pragmatics included the study of specific language use depending on the local

social conditions where cultural and traditional elements play a huge role. To put it another way, pragmalinguistics is a language-specific area, whereas socio-pragmatics is culture-specific (Thomas, 1985). Making a refusal such as “No, I don’t want it” is grammatically correct and convey the act of the sentence which is refusing. However, how appropriate it is, depends on the hearer, social distance level, physical and psychological setting of the conversation. Furthermore, while this kind of refusal is acceptable in one culture, it might be too direct and therefore, might sound rude in another culture. In other words, creating grammatically correct and meaningful utterances is in the study area of pragmalinguistics, whereas whether the same utterance is appropriate for the discourse or situation is under sociopragmatics’ field.

Thomas (1983) addresses the same distinction between pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics as well. As the author highlights, pragmalinguistics is akin to grammar since it involves structures and forms of language, whereas sociopragmatics is primarily concerned with appropriate social behavior, which makes it a considerably more difficult problem to handle in the classroom. To teach people what purposes particular parts of language serve is one thing, however, it's quite another to teach them how to behave "properly."

Regarding these two aspects of pragmatics stated above, Thomas (1983) also coined the phrase "pragmatic failure" to describe an individual's incapacity to comprehend "what is meant by what is said." (p.91). She points out that pragmalinguistic failure is rather easy to overcome with the study of grammar, however, sociopragmatic failure is a challenging area to cope with since it includes students’ system of beliefs and also one’s knowledge of the language. Even though she claims that the boundaries between pragmalinguistics and socio-pragmatics are not clear-cut and there is definitely a grey area, she emphasizes that the proposed distinction is needed profoundly for the analysis of the root of failures to bring solutions in educational settings. In this respect, this division between pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics aspects is relevant in our study in that we hope to come up with some implications after examining the learners’ common failures.

Apart from the general pragmatics that has been mentioned above, there are also sub-fields of pragmatics which are namely contrastive pragmatics, cross-cultural pragmatics and interlanguage pragmatics (ILP). The study of contrastive pragmatics has evolved into

a subject of cross-cultural pragmatics that focuses on analyzing differences and similarities in pragmatics between different cultural communities (Martinez-Flor, 2004). Interlanguage pragmatics, on the other hand, investigates how individuals learn pragmatic skills in a second language (L2) (Kasper & Rose, 2001).

This study is conducted within the ILP framework because its primary purpose is to explore foreign learners' use and comprehension of L2 pragmatic ability by focusing on the realization of L2 speech acts. Additionally, the target speech acts employed in this study have been structured according to the relationship factors and the responses of learners have been discussed according to the concepts of the politeness theory of Brown and Levinson (1987). For this reason, we shall first examine the speech act theory, then we will discuss the related politeness theory. Interlanguage pragmatics which is a subfield within the field of second language learning, on the other hand, will be focused in the third section.

2.1.1. Speech act theory

The notion of speech act theory was first introduced by the language philosopher Austin (1962) and later expanded by Searle (1969). Austin's work *How to do things with words* had a tremendous influence on the philosophy of language. According to this theory, when we utter a speech act, we basically perform an action and there will be a consequence of these utterances.

Speech acts are referred to by Searle (1969) as the simplest components of discourse. According to Searle (1969), speech acts are created with certain intentions. Intentionality is the most salient feature of speech acts. Having said that, one must be cautious of the notion of intentionality mentioned here as Mey (2001) points out, speech acts are not determined by what we say or intend to say. They are actually about whether the utterances comply with the pattern of social behavior that is characteristic of our culture. For instance, a response to a speech act of greeting in the US might only include a short "Thanks!" and it will be quite appropriate in the given community (Ishihara & Cohen, 2010). Therefore, members of a specific speech group are familiar with how to execute and understand such greetings.

In a more recent definition by Ishihara & Cohen (2010), speech acts refer to the methods in which people perform specific social functions when speaking, such as making requests, complaining, complimenting, refusing things/invitations, apologizing, or thanking. An utterance such as "I'm hungry" can have a range of purposes depending on the situation, such as a request to delay going to bed stated by a youngster at bedtime, whereas an utterance such as "I hereby request you to" will generally be understood as a request in most cases **(**Blum-Kulka, 1980).

Mey (2001) highlights the contextual aspect of speech acts. The language we employ, and particularly the speech acts we perform, are fully context-dependent. All speech is contextual; a speech act is always judged in the context of the act that it belongs to, therefore, a speech act is not just a simple speech but a pragmatic action.

Austin (1962) categorized speech acts into three branches as locutionary, illocutionary and performative acts. Locutionary acts basically carry the literal meanings of the utterances, whereas illocutionary acts refer to intended meaning of the speaker. On the other hand, perlocutionary acts indicate the acts of the effect or outcome of the illocution on the hearer. Austin concentrated mostly on the illocutionary acts in his studies. He classified the illocutionary speech acts under five titles. He argued that people used similar words to get some actions done by the hearer and gathered some verbs to the categorizations.

On the other hand, Searle (1969) improved Austin's theory and proposed an updated classification of speech acts. This revised classification of speech acts has garnered more attention than its predecessor because it is more anchored in reality. Searle's taxonomy included five categories of illocutionary acts:

1. Representatives (also called assertives): These speech acts include the values as "true" or "false". The speaker makes a statement, and the assertions must match the world.
2. Directives: The speaker directs the listener to do something. (Requesting, inviting and advising.)
3. Commissives: The speaker makes a commitment to do something. (Vowing and promising)

4. Expressives: These speech acts carry the speaker's subjective statements about their feelings. (Apologizing, congratulating, greeting, thanking)
5. Declarations: The speaker leads a change in the world with these types of utterances. (Announcing marriage)

In Searle's (1975) theory, there is the concept of direct and indirect speech acts. Direct speech acts involve locutionary acts, where speakers say what they mean directly. Indirect speech acts carry illocutionary acts where the literal meaning of the speaker's words is not the intended meaning. An inquiry such as "Can you turn off the lights?" does actually refer to a request. The intention of the speaker was not to learn if the hearer can or cannot turn off the lights. Hence, the utterance was realized indirectly. Indeed, nearly all speech acts are indirect to some extent (Levinson, 1983). In this framework, Mey (2001) states that in many cultures, including English, people would not prefer using the imperative in orders or requests. In addition, Thomas (1995) also considers that in English, it is too rare to observe speakers using the word "invite" to carry the act of inviting.

Austin's theory, along with Searle's contributions, was subject to criticism on some righteous points (Mey, 2001; Thomas, 1995). First of all, not all the conditions for speech acts are accomplished in some real-life discourse scenarios, does that mean that the speech act has not achieved its goal? Second, people use different verbs or phrases than distinguished speech acts in daily conversations. Sometimes people employ different speech acts using the same words and/or different words for the same speech act (Thomas, 1995). Thomas (1995) mentions that it is often too hard to categorize a speaking act into a single, clear-cut category. The examples below demonstrate different ways of using speech acts of requesting someone to be silent:

- Don't you think that it is too noisy?

- Be quiet!

- Can you please be quiet?

- Aren't you tired of speaking?

- You're giving me a headache.

In this sense, Thomas (1995) also argues that the entire concept of defining speech acts in terms of a set of rules was flawed. The author suggests that the situational meaning and context of speech acts have to be taken into consideration when classifying speech acts.

Similarly, Nguyen and Le (2019) point out the same aspect as Thomas' (1995) critique, people may utilize language differently to carry out speech actions depending on the aspects such as their cultural background, gender, age, social status, employment, and individual identity. However, people who share the same speech norms in a community tend to handle speech acts in predictable ways. This means speech acts are realized differently across different cultures, which makes communication in the target language difficult. Hence, the speakers must be aware of these dissimilarities. Nguyen and Le (2019) further add that an important component of an L2 learner's communication competence is being able to convey our communicative goals correctly and in line with shared norms and conventions. This entails selecting the language in light of the social and cultural setting and understanding when to say what to whom.

In the following part, Politeness Theory will be discussed, which is related to speech acts on the aspects of direct and indirectness. Politeness is an important concept in the realization of speech acts. Why indirect speech acts sound more polite than direct speech acts will be discussed.

2.1.2. Brown and Levinson's politeness theory

In 1967, as a sociologist, Goffman introduced the term "face" which was used as a broad concept of politeness. Later, Brown and Levinson (1978, 1987) proposed the politeness theory in the field of ILP which was based on this "face" notion. The term 'face' refers to "*every individual's feeling of self-worth or self-image; this image can be damaged, maintained or enhanced through interaction with others*." (Thomas, 1995, p.169). Henceforth, all interlocutors want to preserve two distinct sorts of face throughout interaction which are positive face and negative face.

Positive face is defined as one's desire to have a public image of oneself that is liked and respected by others, while negative face is one's desire not to be restricted and to have the freedom to choose an action. Positive politeness which refers to positive face may be expressed through expressing admiration of an interlocutor's self-image; and indicating

similarities between the participants. On the other hand, negative politeness can be communicated by minimizing 'face-threatening acts' (FTAs), such as requests, refusals and criticism; or by demonstrating respect for the addressee's desire not to be forced to do anything. To soften these face-threatening acts, Brown and Levinson (1987) suggested politeness strategies that enable speakers to reduce the threat such as indirectness. Indirect speech help lessen the FTAs, when there is a greater amount of indirectness in a sentence, the speaker sounds as more courteous.

In addition, according to Brown and Levinson (1987), the speakers need to assess three variables in order to decide which strategy they should employ depending on cultural factors. The first variable is the social distance between the interlocutors. The more distant the relation between interlocutors is, the more polite they should be. The second variable is the power. As a speaker, having a lower social position than the hearer entails being more polite to the listener or audience. The rating of imposition, which covers the third contextual aspect, means that the more imposition placed on the listener, the more polite the speaker is expected to be. The politeness theory of Brown and Levinson is significant in that language learners should be taught these variables mentioned above along with the speech acts depending on the directness according to different levels of face-threat.

After providing the two main theories on which our study is based, we will focus on pragmatic competence, but before that, a brief overview of communicative competence will be provided since pragmatic competence is an integral part of communicative competence.

2.2. Communicative Competence

Communicative competence is a language learner's ultimate aim to possess to be fluent in a target language. Communicative competence includes not only linguistic knowledge but also sociocultural knowledge to use the language with a communicative purpose.

The term communicative competence first appeared in discussions on second/foreign language competency in the early 1970s (Canale & Swain, 1980; Savignon, 1987). The word "competence" is linked to transformational generative grammar, which was pioneered by structural linguist Chomsky (1965), who was also a cognitive scientist. Chomsky's universal grammar theory is based on linguistic competence in that all human

is born with a knowledge of language. Therefore, he focused on the structural aspect of language where syntax played a big role. However, Chomsky's approach was constrained and constricting within a sociolinguistic framework (Hymes, 1972). Chomsky's (1965) language theory focuses on an ideal speaker-listener in a flawlessly unvaried speech community. The individual of this community is proficient in his/her language, and is not affected by things like memory problems, distractions, changes in attention and interest, and mistakes when using his/her knowledge of the language in real life. As can be inferred from Chomsky's emphasis, interaction and social environment in language learning were left behind. As a reaction, linguists like Hymes (1972), Canale (1983) and Savignon (1987) argued that a language competence model must include sociological and cultural aspects as well. Hymes (1972) criticized Chomsky's linguistic language model stating that the limitation of competence to the ideals of a homogeneous society, linguistic knowledge unaffected by any conditions and without the interaction of sociocultural variables does not ground the necessary assumptions needed for any scientific theory. Thus, Hymes (1972) broadened the term communicative competence to include both grammatical and social and cultural laws of a language regarding the actual users of language instead of idealized users. Hymes (1972) insisted that it must be considered that a normal child learns phrases not only as grammatical but also as acceptable. He or she learns when it is appropriate to speak and when it is not, along with what topics to discuss with whom, when, where, and how to discuss those topics. In brief, a kid learns to perform a repertoire of speech actions, participate in speech events, and have others assess his/her performance. Furthermore, this competence is intertwined with attitudes, values, and motives toward language, its characteristics, and uses, as well as competence and attitudes regarding language's relationship with other rules of communicative behavior. His well-known phrase emphasizes the importance of the use of language in social life "*There are rules of use without which the rules of grammar would be useless*." (Hymes, 1972, p. 272). Hymes (1972, p. 281) suggested four aspects of competence as stated below:

(a) Grammatical: Whether (and to what degree) something is formally possible

(b) Psycholinguistic: Whether (and to what degree) something is feasible

(c) Cultural: Whether (and to what degree) something is appropriate

(d) Probabilistic: Whether (and to what degree) something is done

As seen above, Hymes' view of communicative competence has been the interaction of the components stated above. Hymes' sociolinguistic work has been crucial to the development of communicative competence since he was concerned with the connection of grammar, social context and meaning (more precisely, social meaning) (Canale & Swain 1980).

After Hymes, Canale and Swain (1980) and Canale (1983) proposed a theoretical framework of communicative competence as well. Their basic definition of communicative competence refers to the relation and interaction between knowledge of the rules of grammar and knowledge of the rules of language use, put in other words, grammatical competence and sociolinguistic competence (Canale & Swain, 1980). Their model of communicative competence consists of four units. Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei, & Thurrell (1995) introduce these areas as follows:

1. Grammatical competence - the knowledge of grammar

2. Sociolinguistic competence - the knowledge of the sociocultural elements of language

3. Discourse competence - the knowledge of employing various types of cohesive texts

4. Strategic competence - the knowledge of communication strategies (verbal and non-verbal)

Similarly, Savignon (1976) made the same four components of the model explained above and a similar definition of communicative competence pointing out to interaction between native speakers which is natural and spontaneous. According to Savignon (1976), communication is more than simply understanding how to express something in English; it is also about knowing what to say and when to say it. The language elements of an interaction are entrenched in a cultural context that comprises the speaker's function in a specific environment, the roles of the other speakers, and a variety of nonverbal communication indicators. Savignon (2017) explained that if the goal of language learning is to improve one's ability to use the language, then the improvement of language skills needs to be directed toward, and assessed by, the learner's capacity to communicate.

Both models proposed by the researchers (Canale & Swain, 1980, 1983; Savignon, 1976) placed pragmatic competence under the roof of sociolinguistic competence. This was the case until Bachman and Palmer (1982) first used the term "pragmatic competence" as a specific component. With Bachman and Palmer's (1982) division of language knowledge into organizational and pragmatic competence, pragmatic competence finally was distinguished from sociolinguistic competence in the previous models of Savignon and Canale and Swain. In the following section, an overview of pragmatic competence will be provided.

2.2.1. Pragmatic competence

Bachman and Palmer (1982) outlined the theoretical framework of language competence that comprises three main components: grammatical competence, pragmatic competence and sociolinguistic competence. Figure 2 demonstrates the three branches of language competence below.

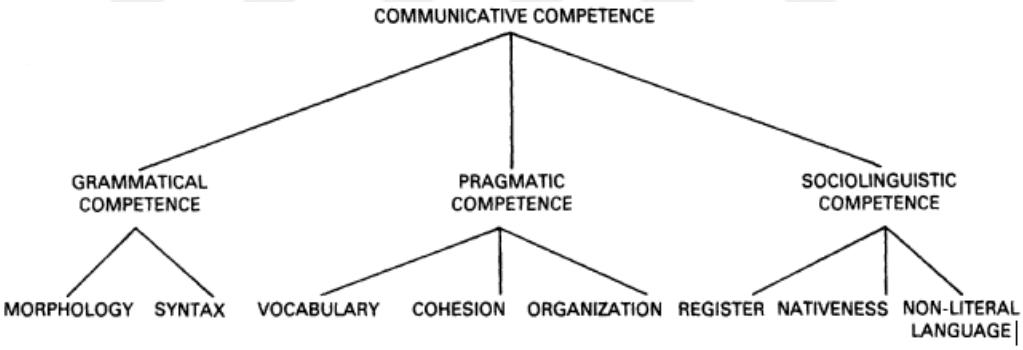


Figure 2. Bachman and Palmer's (1982) Communicative Competence Model

Grammatical competence covers morphology and syntax which are two aspects that vary in breadth and precision. The authors did not include phonology and graphology since they were considered as conduits rather than components. Speakers are assumed to pass a threshold level of correct pronunciation for the verbal communication to succeed. Beyond that level, communicative language usage is feasible, with increasing ease as accuracy rises. Therefore, it is impossible to apply the components of competence below this threshold level necessary for communication. Pragmatic competence, which we connect with the capacity to communicate and interpret messages, contains the sub-traits of vocabulary, cohesiveness, and organization or coherence.

Bachman and Palmer (1982) included vocabulary as a sub-dimension of pragmatic competence rather than grammatical competence because they considered that non-native speakers who do not have adequate grammatical competence may nonetheless sustain some meaningful conversation based only on their vocabulary knowledge. According to the researchers, speakers with vast vocabularies are able to communicate a greater range of messages with more accuracy and efficiency than those with just modest vocabularies even though their grammatical competence is not complete. This perspective is also mirrored by Hatch and Brown (1995, as cited in Dilman & Topkaraoğlu, 2014, p.931) in that people who have a large and diverse vocabulary can readily communicate their ideas and notions in a more native-like way since they have superior communicative competence in the target language. On the other hand, sociolinguistic competence is comprised of the following sub-traits: register distinction, nativeness, and command of non-literal, metaphorical language, and appropriate cultural references.

Later on, Bachman (1990) proposed a new framework of communicative language ability comprised of three components: language competence, strategic competence, and psychophysiological mechanisms. Language competence is classified into two categories: organizational competence and pragmatic competence as shown in Figure 3 below.

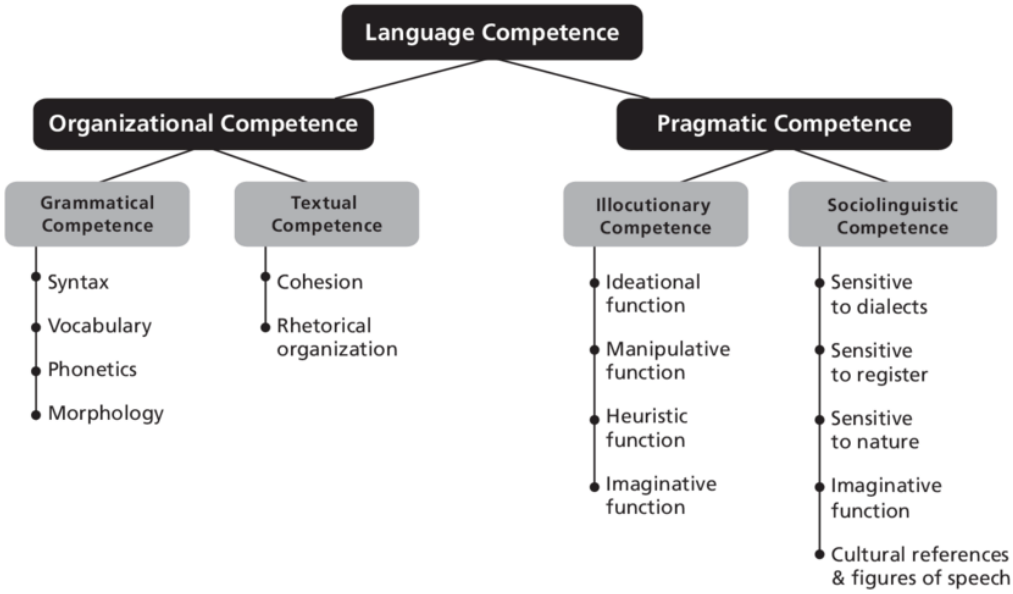


Figure 3. Language Competence Diagram of Bachman (1990)

The language competence provided in this framework combines morphology, syntax, vocabulary, cohesion, and organization into a single component, organizational competence. The term pragmatic competence is expanded to encompass not just aspects of Bachman's sociolinguistic competence but also skills linked to the functions performed through language usage. Organizational competence comprises the knowledge used in producing or identifying grammatically acceptable utterances, interpreting their propositional meaning, and structuring them to produce spoken or written texts. On the other hand, the term "pragmatic competence" refers to the types of knowledge that are utilized in the context-specific action and processing of illocutionary acts in conversation that are socially accepted. To put it another way, knowledge of communicative action and how to put that knowledge into practice is part of what's referred to as pragmatic competence, together with an awareness of the appropriate context for language usage knowing the right time and place to use language.

Additionally, Bachman (1990) pointed out that all of these components interact not just with one another but also with aspects of the context in which the language is used. According to the author, in order to communicate effectively, one must be able to recognize that language usage is a dynamic interplay between context, speaker, and discourse, and that communication is more than just the exchange of data. Thus, the author states that what is meant and inferred from the utterances is in a dynamic motion affected by the speaker and hearer, the context and the settings that the conversation takes place.

The scholars mentioned above pioneered the notion of pragmatic competence, and many more definitions have been made deriving from these early ideas (Kasper & Rose, 1999). A more up-to-date definition would be from the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) (2001) which has been the reference document for the curriculum and syllabus developers for a couple of decades. The CEFR defines the knowledge and abilities that language learners must possess to communicate in an effective way. In CEFR, communication skills are defined in three communicative competencies: linguistics competence, sociolinguistic competence and pragmatic competence. Pragmatic competence refers to "*the user/learner's knowledge of the principles according to which messages are a) organised, structured and arranged*

('discourse competence'); b) used to perform communicative functions ('functional competence'); c) sequenced according to interactional and transactional schemata ('design competence')." (CEFR, 2001, p.123).

In studies, the term pragmatic competence is an umbrella term that refers to the capacity to communicate effectively in the appropriate situation. For the purpose of this study and to narrow the term down, we conceptualized the pragmatic competence as appropriacy of students' responses in four speech acts that consist of responding, request, advice giving and refusal.

After the provision of the theoretical framework of pragmatics and the significance of pragmatic competence as one of the primary competencies that learners must acquire in order to become communicatively proficient in the TL, in the next section, we will continue with how pragmatics bridged over the second language acquisition area as interlanguage pragmatics, successively turned into a research area branching from the second language acquisition field.

2.3. Interlanguage Pragmatics

Interlanguage pragmatics (ILP) is a field that combines pragmatics and the study of second language learning (Kasper, 2010). ILP research area studies the process of how individuals use a second language, the way they learn the norms of the target language, and in what way may pragmatic competence in the second language be taught? (Barron, 2012). The most common definition in the literature belongs to Kasper and Blum-Kulka (1993) who articulated ILP as "the study of nonnative speakers' use and acquisition of linguistic action patterns in a second language (L2)" (p.3).

Interlanguage pragmatics derives the features from the interlanguage notion. Interlanguage is often developmental in nature and may be permeated via the use of various learning and communication methods. Ellis (1985) mentions the interlanguage continuum as follows:

> SLA was seen as a series of evolving systems which comprised the interlanguage continuum. Each system was considered to be internally consistent, in the sense that it was rule governed. It was, however, also permeable to new rules, and,

> therefore, dynamic. The continuum was initially viewed primarily as a restructuring continuum stretching from the learner's Ll to the target language. (p.72)

Ellis (1985) emphasizes the variability in leaner's interlanguage system. This language-learner language does not follow a natural route, and each stage is connected to the one before and after it. Therefore, ILP system is also in a dynamic mode where there's a continuous interaction between the rules of both languages and the rules of its own. Kasper and Blum-Kulka (1993) indicate that speakers who are fluent in two languages can develop an intercultural speaking style that is both linked to and unique from the predominant styles in those two language systems.

According to Kasper (1996), the majority of ILP research focuses on nonnative speakers' use of pragmatic knowledge in comprehension and output rather than focusing on development. Kasper (1992) notes that most of interlanguage pragmatics study acquired its theoretical foundations, research goals, and techniques from empirical pragmatics, notably cross-cultural pragmatics. These empirical studies investigate whether non-native speakers (NNS) differ from native speakers (NS) in terms of four aspects: 1) range, 2) contextual distribution, 3) strategies, 4) language forms, 5) illocutionary meaning, 6) politeness. All these aspects are the kinds of issues raised in comparative studies of different NS communities (Kasper, 1992). It can be seen that ILP has focused on the illocutionary and politeness components of speech act performance.

On the other hand, the one issue that unites interlanguage pragmatics and mainstream second language (SL) research is the issue of transfer. Interlanguage pragmatics emerged on the scene of SL study because the notion of transfer was deemed irreconcilable with a cognitive understanding of SLA. According to Kasper (1992), pragmatic transfer refers to the impact that L2 learners' prior linguistic and cultural pragmatic knowledge has on their ability to understand, produce, and acquire L2 pragmatic information. The occurrence of pragmatic transfer is high during situations when a learner is unfamiliar with the sociopragmatic rules of the target language (Tateyama, 1998).

It has been well proven that learners' native language and culture have an impact on their interlanguage (IL) pragmatic knowledge and performance in a foreign language.

Researchers concentrated on negative transfer since it poses a possible threat to communicative success (Kasper and Blum-Kulka, 1993). Since positive transfer almost always leads in communicative success and is therefore less interesting to research. It is also difficult to distinguish between positive transfer from universal pragmatic knowledge and generalization on the basis of available IL pragmatic information due to methodological difficulties in doing so (Kasper and Blum-Kulka, 1993).

Apart from the transfer, there are also other factors in ILP research field affecting pragmatic development of learners such as input, L2 proficiency, learner environment, individual learner factors and instruction (Özdemir, 2010).

The current study focuses on the effects of instructional pragmatics in ILP field, and the instructional syllabus in this study includes teaching particular speech acts, hence, we will discuss the studied speech acts in the next section.

2.4. Investigated Speech Acts

Learners of a second language need to place a large amount of focus on speech acts in order to develop their pragmatic competence. For this study, particular types of speech acts were selected as responding acts, requests, advice-giving and refusals. Instead of focusing on one, we aimed for the students to acquire an overall competency throughout a span of module. We considered that it would be wise to integrate the common speech acts that they were going to encounter in the content of their level program. Thus, we assumed that when they complete the module encompassing B1 level, they would have mastered the use of these frequently used speech acts.

Responding Act includes responses to speech acts of greeting, invitation, request, offer, closing conversation, thanking and ordering. Greetings and thanking, in other words showing gratitude, are in the category of expressive speech acts where the speaker expresses his/her feelings. There have been relatively few studies on these speech acts (Eisenstein & Bodman, 1986; Kerber, 2020; Tateyama, 1998). Greetings and thanking utterances are formulaic expressions based on the daily routines and have a significant social value in English (Eisenstein & Bodman, 1986). Since these speech acts carry basic courtesy expressions (Wildner-Bassett, 1984, as cited in Kerber, 2020), failure to employ them can result in rude behavior which might harm the relationship of the interlocutors.

Language learners frequently struggle with knowing how to effectively terminate or close discussions. Even experienced learners of English have trouble detecting when a native speaker is ending a conversation, offering the proper replies, and starting a close when the dialogue is in its last stages. As Bardovi-Harlig, Morgan, et al. (1991) states, closing conversation is tailored to the listener's cultural background. For example, some Asian cultures appear to have minimum, or no closure needs in some settings while others have more elaborate ones. A short expression of thanks of a customer in Nepali where he ends a service encounter after its completion is simply normal. On the contrary, cultures such as English and Swahili appear to have rather intricate closing requirements in some contexts (Bardovi-Harlig, Morgan, et al., 1991). Therefore, it is crucial for learners to gain awareness of the critical elements of a successful closing statement.

Requests and Advice giving belong to the group of directive speech acts the primary objective of which is to persuade the listener to do something, albeit the degree of persuasion varies from speech act to speech act (Schmidt & Richards, 1980, as cited in Martinez-Flor, 2004). While requests are impositive, advice-giving is non-impositive directives. The most significant distinction between these two categories is that the advantages achieved via the performance of an impositive speech act are intended solely for the speaker, whereas the goal of non-impositive speech actions is to benefit the listeners.

Refusals, on the other hand, fall under commissive category of Searle (1975). Refusal is a highly face-threatening act in the framework of Brown and Levinson’s politeness theory, and mostly uttered through indirect strategies by the speaker since direct refusals might sound quite offensive to the hearer and cause communication breakdown between the interlocutors.

The mentioned speech acts like the others are culturally constrained communicative behaviors that reflect the interlocutors' sociocultural values (Ishihara & Cohen, 2010). When people from two diverse cultures communicate, they frequently reflect the norms unique to their own cultures; hence, a person's cultural background may influence how they interact, understand, and comprehend (Al-Issa, 2003, as cited in Han & Burgucu-Tazegül, 2016). This is a case of pragmatic transfer which was described in the chapter earlier. The negative transfer is most likely to occur in the realization of refusals when

the speaker does not have a pragmatic competence, that is when the speaker doesn't acquire the necessary strategies to realize these speech acts. In this sense, refusals and requests are challenging speech acts that need scrutiny.

After presenting the speech acts studied in this study, we will discuss teaching pragmatics, doing so by also incorporating speech acts in language classes, which is called instructional pragmatics as well, in the next section.

2.5. Instructional Pragmatics

Instructional pragmatics refer to teaching pragmatics in the classroom. Teaching pragmatics as a lesson followed some developmental process in ILP field. In the early era, most of the studies in the field of pragmatics employed cross-cultural speech act realizations that investigated how nonnative and native speakers differ in acquiring and producing speech acts. Bardovi-Harlig (2019) notes that researchers in second language acquisition began investigating how learners acquire the pragmatics of a second language, and respectively teacher-researchers began investigating different methods of teaching pragmatics in a second language. As a result of increased emphasis on pragmatics instruction in language schools, researchers and instructors have worked together to demonstrate the effectiveness of pragmatics instruction, in other words teaching pragmatics in classrooms (Bardovi-Harlig, 2019).

According to Rose (2005), there are three significant questions to the field of ILP research area. The first one is whether pragmatics is teachable, the second is whether instruction is more effective than mere exposure, and the third is what kind of instruction is better. The teachability of pragmatics has been proved with ample empirical studies that indicated instruction's positive effect on learners (e.g., Soler, 2006; Bardovi-Harlig, 2001; Ishihara, 2007; Kasper, 2001; Koike & Pearson, 2005; Olshtain & Cohen, 1990; Rose, 2005; Taguchi, 2011; Takahashi, 2010). The performance of learners who received instruction exceeded that of learners who were merely exposed to the target language. Thus, as Rose (2005) states that instruction surpasses exposure in interlanguage pragmatics. In addition, when learners do not get instruction, disparities in pragmatics manifest themselves in their English regardless of their first language background or level of language proficiency (Bardovi-Harlig & Mahan-Taylor, 2003). To put it differently, a

student who demonstrates strong grammatical skill will not always demonstrate similar pragmatic progress.

Another aspect is readiness for pragmatic instruction. Rintell (1979, as cited in Kasper, 1992) noticed that once a learner becomes acquainted with the target culture, he or she quickly develops pragmatic competence. The studies of Safont (2003) and Tateyema (2001) indicate that it is possible for students to learn pragmatics before they begin to construct analytical second language knowledge. Therefore, it's not necessary to wait for learners to acquire grammar. In addition, Kerber (2020) also demonstrated in her study that especially speech acts such as greetings and compliments are well-suited for beginner levels of English learners. She further adds while certain speech actions, such as refusals, may contain difficult or unfamiliar grammar topics for beginning learners, others, such as greetings and compliments, correlate well with the regular grammatical subjects covered in basic language classes. Furthermore, Bardovi-Harlig and Mahan-Taylor (2003) stated that pragmatics can be included in the curriculum at the earliest level. The researchers emphasized that if early attention is paid to pragmatics in instruction, the imbalance between the development of grammatical skills and pragmatic competence may be reduced.

Instructional pragmatics studies are mostly driven by the theories of SLA research area (e.g., Alcón & Martínez-Flor, 2007; Bardovi-Harlig & Mahan-Taylor, 2003). The Noticing Hypothesis of Schmidt (1993) has been highly influential in this sense. According to Schmidt's theory, pragmatic information must be addressed intentionally in order for pragmatic learning to occur. When pragmatic information is seen, whether intentionally or unintentionally, it can be absorbed and stored in long-term memory. While there appears to be agreement on the notion that pragmatics can be taught, the dispute persists over whether explicit or implicit intervention yields more advantages (Alcon-Soler, 2015). The best method to teach pragmatics is still a tentative inquiry.

On the other hand, the primary purpose of the instruction is to make it possible for learners to gain pragmatic awareness by means of which the learners can have a variety of choices to use in the target language. Bardovi-Harlig and Mahan-Taylor (2003) draw attention to a point here stating that the objective of instruction is not to impose a target language norm, instead it is to equip leaners with a spectrum of pragmatic devices in the target

language. As they highlight, when learners are gowned with a wide scope of the pragmatic archive through instruction, they can get involved in the target language communication more and manage the force and consequence of their contributions while preserving their own cultural identities.

In the subsection below, we will discuss two instructional methods in developing pragmatic competence.

2.5.1. Explicit and implicit instruction of pragmatics

The majority of research examining the efficacy of various teaching styles compare two distinct forms of pedagogical intervention, which may be interpreted as explicit versus implicit (Rose, 2005). Studies on the effects of pragmatic instruction are grounded in theories in second language acquisition in this regard. Within the domain of SLA, DeKeyser (2003) and Norris and Ortega (2000) in their meta-analysis of instructional studies put forward that explicit instruction is more effective than implicit instruction. Even though Norris and Ortega (2000) argued that the generalizability of the findings was constrained since there wasn't sufficient empirical research in this sense two decades ago, the effect size of the difference between the two treatments in the results of studies was trustworthy. In the same line in the field of ILP, most of the previous empirical studies on the effects of pragmatic instruction have confirmed that explicit instruction is effective (e.g., Billmyer, 1990a; Eslami & Eslami-Rasekh, 2008; Fukuya et al., 1998; House, 1996; Rose, 2005; Safont, 2004; Taguchi, 2012, 2015, 2018; Takahashi, 2010). The main difference between these two intervention types is the provision of metapragmatic information. As in the words of Taguchi (2012), explicit instruction "*typically involves explicit explanation of target pragmatic features followed by focused practice, while implicit instruction withholds explanation but provides ample input and practice opportunities in which learners develop implicit understandings of the target pragmatic forms and their uses*" (p.3). Explicit instruction includes teacher fronted instruction on pragmalinguistic forms or sociopragmatic rules employing metapragmatic information and structural exercises. Implicit instruction, on the other hand, involves consciousness-raising tasks, input enhancement, input flood, and implicit feedback such as recasts. These consciousness-raising tasks derive from Noticing Hypothesis of Schmidt (1995).

According to Schmidt (1995) many features in L2 pragmatics are non-salient, therefore focused attention to relevant forms is needed for learning.

In addition, most of the studies in instructional pragmatics (e.g., Billmyer, 1990a; Morrow, 1995; Silva, 2003; Kondo, 2008) investigated the impact of explicit teaching whereas a few studies centered around implicit instruction. Though few in number, some studies indicated that implicit instruction is as effective as explicit or indicated larger effect sizes (e.g., Kubota, 1995; Rose & Kwai-fong, 2001; Takimoto, 2006a, 2007). Fukuya and Clark (2001) found that there was no significant difference between the explicit and implicit treatment groups. Study showed that learners could gain pragmatic target forms in implicit instruction. In another study, Fukuya and Zhang (2002) studied the effects of implicit feedback on Chinese learners of English in learning requests and found out large effect size for pragmatic recasts. As the authors suggested more studies needed to be conducted to see implicit instruction's effect since most of the studies focused on the explicit teaching in the last two decades. After two decades, it seems that the scarcity of the research on the implicit intervention still maintains.

Takimoto (2007) investigated the effects of three different input-based instructions in his study which included structured input tasks with and without explicit information, and problem-solving tasks. Even though, there was not a significant difference among the interventions, only the effects of structured input task without explicit information have disappeared in the delayed posttest. Accordingly, he proposed that explicit metapragmatic information may not be necessary, and learners are more likely to acquire and consolidate pragmatic information if they push themselves to process the target pragmatic elements under scrutiny, regardless of the explicitness of the treatment input.

Jeon and Kaya (2006) employed a meta-analysis to investigate the role of instruction in the development of ILP. Of the 34 relevant studies, they worked on 13 studies excluding the rest 17 depending on their inclusion and exclusion criteria, one of which was not providing statistical data for meta-analysis. Some of these excluded studies included cornerstone studies such as Bouton (1996); House (1996); Olshtain and Cohen (1990); Pearson (2001); Takahashi, (2001); Tateyama et al. (1997); and Yoshimi (1999). Results of 13 studies demonstrated that instruction was significantly more effective than no instruction, and explicit teaching was in some circumstances more beneficial than implicit

teaching. However, due to the scarcity of data, huge quantities of error are introduced, as seen by the extremely broad confidence intervals associated with all means. Jeon and Kaya (2006) put it as "*What at surface may look like evidence for the superiority of explicit pragmatic instruction needs to be interpreted with caution*." (p.192). Unfortunately, it was not possible to come to a definitive answer to the second research question which was finding the relative effectiveness of implicit and explicit pragmatics instruction. Therefore, the findings of the study are not a comprehensive reflection of instructional L2 pragmatics research, and hence should not be construed or extrapolated in ways that go beyond the permissible limitations indicated by their inclusion and exclusion criteria.

In her study of review of research on pragmatic intervention, Takahashi (2010) has made three assertions: *"(1) large effects of explicit intervention are not ensured in every aspect of pragmatic learning, (2) sociopragmatic knowledge is less likely to be acquired through implicit intervention, and (3) some forms of implicit intervention are as effective as explicit intervention.*" (p.129). She further adds that past research on pragmatic instruction has found that explicit intervention has rather strong impacts on learning specific speech actions on the whole. As she states, in fact, previous research has also found both positive and negative outcomes in terms of the effectiveness of explicit intervention. First, the long-term impact of certain explicit treatments is debatable. Second, learners who receive explicit assistance do not demonstrate a high level of confidence in producing the intended pragmatic features. She points out that the findings of previous studies are mixed and inconclusive, and researchers need to reconsider the interventions in the explicitness or implicitness continuum.

All things considered, while some researchers consider the superiority of explicit instruction over implicit, Bardovi-Harlig (2019) states that it is still debatable if one way to teaching pragmatics is superior to another, just like the continuous debates about teaching language. She adds that specific variables, such as whether or not to disclose metapragmatic information, are of interest to researchers. Metapragmatic information is similar to linguistic information for teaching grammar. However, she further argues that grammar is easy to learn compared to pragmatics and there are ample guiding books for grammar while there's none for metapragmatic information for teachers to consult. As a

result of this lack, she also states that it may be too soon to compare different methods of teaching pragmatics because of the way knowledge on metapragmatics is structured, as well as a number of other implementation-related variables that vary substantially (Bardovi-Harlig, 2019). She suggests that at this point, developing various techniques is fair to teach diverse range of students in different contexts.

2.6. Studies on Pragmatics in Turkey

Pragmatic studies in Turkey have dealt with cross-cultural pragmatics mostly. For the past two decades, ample research has been done where English language learners' and teacher trainees' pragmatic competence and/or awareness is compared to non-natives' to find out their current pragmatic competence on target pragmatic features and/or speech acts (e.g., Aksoyalp, 2009; Aşık & Cephe, 2013; Babanoğlu, 2014; Bakırcı & Özbay, 2020; Balcı, 2009; Bektaş&Çetinkaya, 2012; Çetin, 2014; Çiftçi, 2015; Deveci, 2010; Doğançay-Aktuna & Kamışlı, 1997; Ekin & Damar, 2013; Güngörmezler, 2016; Hişmanoğlu, 2010; İstifçi, 2009; Karatepe, 2001; Kılıçkaya, 2010; Madak, 2004; Mede & Dikilitaş, 2015; Mitrani, 2016; Otçu-Zeyrek, 2008; Özdemir & Rezvani, 2010; Takkaç-Tulgar, 2016; Yıldırım, 2015; Yumun, 2008; Zıngır-Gülten, 2008). There is only one observational study of Çiftçi (2015). She investigated the functions of office hour interactions and examined how Turkish EFL students communicate in institutional discourse with a focus on suggestions. The study demonstrated that office hour interactions include a variety of topics where both international instructors and students contribute to discourse using different linguistic strategies.

Comparatively, there is a scarcity on the interventional studies which have focused on the effects of instruction (e.g., Akyıldız, 2012; Bayındır, 2019; Gazioğlu & Çiftçi, 2017; Kaya, 2018; Özet, 2019; Özdemir, 2010; Ülbeği, 2009). The majority of these empirical studies have piled on investigating the explicit effects of instruction. Kaya (2018) investigated the effects of instruction which involved explicit explanation of behaviors in English request realizations along with role-play activities and listening to native speakers' dialogues. The instruction lasted for four weeks covering two lesson hours each week. The results of the study demonstrated that the patterns of Turkish EFL students differ from those of native speakers, and more diverse head act techniques were noticed in the experimental group than in the control group. In addition, control group used more

direct strategies than experimental group which indicates that experimental group benefited from the instruction in making more polite requests.

Özet (2019) studied the effects of strategy-based instruction on students' pragmatic competence. The strategy-based instruction primarily focused on developing learner autonomy and the activities involved metapragmatic information which falls under explicit instruction type. The results revealed that experimental group benefited the instruction and performed better in using more apologizing strategies than the control group.

Moreover, studies of Akyıldız (2012) and Bayındır (2019) explored the effects of explicit instruction on the acquisition of speech acts. Akyıldız (2012) used short stories in 10 class-hour to teach speech acts, which is the only study employing short stories that has been conducted so far. The treatment group outperformed the control group. On the other hand, the study of Bayındır (2019) with B2 level students on the effect of explicit instruction indicated that there is a significant difference between the experimental and control group's posttest results. The findings also indicated that explicit instruction enhanced EFL learners' performance on the speech acts of greeting and refusal to a native-like degree. However, the efficiency of explicit teaching was not equal among target speech acts. Gazioğlu and Çiftçi (2017) through their single-group quasi-experimental research design examined the effect of the intervention on the speech act of request on Turkish high school students. Even though no statistical significance was found between the total number of request strategies in the pre-test and post-test, learners' use of request strategy revealed more diverseness and less direct utterances. The author considers the duration of instruction as a probable reason for the pragmatic-based instruction not having any effect on the number of requests.

Research on implicit instruction along with a comparison to explicit one in instructed pragmatics in Turkey has been employed by Ülbeği (2009) and Özdemir (2010). In her study, Ülbeği (2009) explored whether the type of instruction as explicit or implicit make a difference in 8th grade students' production of speech act of refusal. In contrast to the studies showing superiority of the explicit instruction over implicit in the literature, the results of the delayed posttest revealed that implicit instruction has a far greater impact on the learning of polite refusals than explicit instruction. Furthermore, receptive

knowledge has shown development more in comparison to productive knowledge according to the given results of receptive parts of the test. To note, the duration of instruction in experimental groups differed from three to four course hours which can be regarded as relatively short.

Similarly, Özdemir (2010) investigated the effect of two types of intervention (explicit vs. implicit) that lasted for eight-week period on 7th grade EFL learners' pragmatic knowledge of requests. The findings indicated that the explicit instruction could develop learners' pragmatic knowledge more than implicit instruction. Having said that, Özdemir (2010) proposes that there might be a variety of explanations for the difference in efficacy between the two forms of instruction. As a limitation of the study, the participants consisted of 13 students in each group which is very limited in participant number to make a generalization.

As can be seen from the cited studies above, pragmatic studies in Turkey have gained an increase in the last ten years, however instructional studies are still scarce to make an evaluation in a broad sense.

3. METHODOLOGY

This study attempted to investigate the instructional effects of two types of instruction on developing learners' pragmatic competence focusing on four common speech acts. This chapter outlines the details of the methodology employed for the study, including the study's research design, setting and participants, treatment and materials, data collection instrument and data analysis, along with coding procedure and statistical analyses.

3.1. Research Design of the Study

This study adopted quantitative research approach with a quasi-experimental research design since we aimed to demonstrate a cause-effect relationship between two variables. Regarding this relationship, it was investigated whether different teaching treatments had an effect on students' pragmatic competence or not. Also, since randomization of the dependent variables (the experimental groups) was not possible, the study fell under the category of the quasi-experimental design (Cook & Campbell, 1979). Because of the limitations imposed by the instruction, it was not able to randomly assign participants to the explicit or implicit groups; as a result, it was required to work with the participants in their original groups.

The study was conducted with two experimental groups and a control group. A pretest-posttest design was employed as the sub-category research design. Students were given a pretest (a discourse completion test) to see their prior pragmatic knowledge before the treatment started. Just after the treatment, the same test was employed to find out if there was any progress on learners' pragmatic competence. While the two experimental group received a treatment, the control group did not. Doing so ensured that if there was any difference between the experimental and control group, it would be related to the instructional treatment, not the students' natural gains (Taguchi, 2015).

3.2. Participants

The participants in this study consisted of 66 Turkish adult students of the preparatory program at a foundation university in İstanbul, Turkey. All participants consisted of three

classes, two explicit and implicit experimental groups and a control group. Intact classes were employed in this study since it was not possible to allocate students to experimental and control groups at random. Each group consisted of 22 students. Subjects' level of English proficiency was B1 according to CEFR. Depending on the module pass exam results, they were placed into the same proficiency level classes. Preparatory year is mandatory for most of the departments at the university. Therefore, every student takes a proficiency test at the beginning of the year. According to their scores, they are either exempted or placed to the classes.

Throughout the treatment, the two experimental groups had the same instructor, the author of this study, and the control group was under another instructor's supervision. The reason for this is that an instructor could only give lessons to two classes at most because of standard teaching hours in the preparatory unit. The second instructor was given a briefing about not teaching the instructional pragmatic content during the module.

A short background questionnaire that elicits personal information was given to the participants to see the distribution of the gender, mean age of the groups and whether students' exposure time to English was similar or not. The number of participants was equal in the explicit, implicit and control groups. The gender population of each three groups were similar. According to gender, 47% of the students were female and 53% were male. The ages of the students ranged from 18 to 23. Each group's age range was similar to one another. Concerning the time spent to learn English, participants responses ranged from 1 year to 9. One of the students wrote that he was exposed to instructional English since primary school, but only at the preparatory program that he was learning English in detail. Considering such a response, it may be the reason why some of the students responded as 1 year or 6 months. On the other hand, since it is an EFL setting, students have very little opportunity to be exposed to native speaker interaction outside the classroom.

3.3. Instructional Treatment and Procedure

Due to the fact that the institution designated seven weeks as modules for each level of proficiency, the length of the experiment is set to take place over a period of seven weeks. The first week a pretest was employed to each group, and last week, a posttest was

conducted. Due to the limited resources, a delayed posttest was not conducted. Two different types of instruction lasted approximately one-hour for five weeks for each experimental group. A speech act was instructed to experimental groups every week over the five-week treatment, and fifth week of the treatment, a revision of the four speech acts was employed. The Table 1 indicates an overview of the two treatments.

Table 1. Overview of Experimental Treatments

Explicit Instruction	Implicit Instruction
1. Explicit metapragmatic information of the speech acts and pragmatic strategies provided by the instructor	1. No metapragmatic information provided. Video clips and listening tracks without any explanation
2. Video clips including metapragmatic explanation	2. Handouts with input enhancement
3. Post-activity handouts and metapragmatic discussions	3. Role-play with teacher intervention recasting

3.3.1. Explicit group

For the explicit group, the treatment included explicit explanation about the use of speech acts on three sociolinguistic factors which are power, distance and imposition. The students in this group participated in consciousness-raising tasks such as watching video clips with a length of approximately 4-5 minutes, some of which include authentic short cuts from movies referring to the particular speech acts, listening activities, and production tasks. According to Martinez–Flor (2004), incorporating video clips, films, and TV episodes in L2 classes might be an excellent method to introduce contextual and real-world examples into the classroom.

Production tasks covered writing dialogues like the sample ones that they were exposed to via listening tracks, videos or role-plays. Instruction was mostly teacher-fronted since meta-pragmatic explanation was involved. During the activities, the teacher provided sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic information about the target forms and strategies of certain speech acts. It is important to note that the production activities were relatively fewer than implicit group. Since metapragmatic teacher-fronted presentation and post-

video metapragmatic discussions took place, the remaining time of the session could only allow for some practice. Therefore, individual feedback to the production activities was limited. However, role-plays were performed in front of the class, so all students could benefit from the teacher correction of the inappropriate pragmatic forms or inaccurate linguistic structures.

3.3.2. Implicit group

The pedagogic approach in implicit group embodied enriched tasks through input enhancement and roleplays with recasting. The combination of these two techniques were employed to strengthen the efficacy of the instruction. Input enhancement is a technique where the selected linguistic forms are typographically or intonationally enhanced to make the forms more noticeable for the students (Fukuya & Clark, 2001). According to Schmidt's Noticing Hypothesis, the things that learners notice in the input are the things that become intake for learning. In line with this perspective, by using this technique, we aimed to make students become aware of the pragmalinguistic forms and functions.

The other implicit technique was recasting. The objective of the second approach, recasts, was to make the students aware of the language gaps between their own recommendations and the suitable target forms for specific scenarios. Recasts are implicit corrective feedback which have been effective in some ILP studies (e.g., Fukuya & Zhang, 2002; Martinez-Flor, 2004). After each role-play, the students were given feedback as recasts when there is an inappropriate speech act production or inaccurate structure by the student. The framework of recasts adopted from Fukuya and Zhang (2002) can be seen in the Figure 4.

		Linguistic Accuracy	
		Correct Form	Incorrect Form
Pragmatic Appropriateness	Correct Usage	Type I: Ignore it (No recast).	Type II: Recast only the linguistic forms of speech acts.
	Incorrect Usage	Type III: Recast it by using one of the target speech acts.	Type IV: Recast it by using one of the target speech acts

Note. Adopted from Fukuya and Zhang (2002).

Figure 4. The Framework for Pragmalinguistic Recasts

Four types of recasts were provided to students. Type I refers to no recast when both linguistic form and pragmatic usage was correct. Type II was provided when there was a grammatical error in the target form. For example, in case of a request "I like to …", the form is corrected as "I'd like to". In contrast to Type II, which concentrates on the linguistic forms, Type III is concerned with the pragmatic appropriateness of the expression. For instance, when a student says "I want to check my paper" to a professor, a recast is given as "Mr.… I wonder if I could check my paper?". Such an expression might be grammatically correct but not appropriate. Lastly, Type IV was used when both the linguistic form and pragmatic usage was incorrect.

A focused recast was employed as in the example: An old friend invites you over dinner, but you want to refuse since you have an important meeting.

> Student: "I can't come. I'm busy."
>
> Teacher: "I can't come ↗ You said? ↗ Thanks, I'd like to, but I can't come. I have things to do. How about next week? ↗ OK?"

The teacher repeated the inappropriate part using a rising tone, then said "You said?" with a rising tone again. Then, she added the appropriate form.

On the other hand, role-play activity followed an order as well. First, students worked together in teams of two to conduct the role-play as a kind of practice. After each round,

the teams exchanged places in the scenario. During their role-play, the instructor circulated among the students to facilitate their conversations without altering their words. In the end, students role-played with the teacher in front of the class, and it was the only time she provided recasts. Each student had the opportunity to perform in front of the instructor.

Moreover, the instruction consisted of some of the videos used for the explicit group, the ones without no metapragmatic information. Students were given the video scripts, and these scripts contained the target forms in bold type to direct their attention to these features. Listening activities differed from the explicit group on that the comprehension questions were content-related. In other words, production activities of the same materials used for explicit group were tailored according to the implicit by the instructor. Students participated in role-plays with the target content. The implicit group received no metapragmatic explanation while participating in these activities.

3.3.3. Control group

The control group did not have a special treatment on speech acts. However, the coursebook that they were using already included authentic input to some degree. Furthermore, the instructor was expected to follow a curriculum which also includes various communicative tasks such as pair or group work where students can acquire some routines over time. Notwithstanding this fact, the instructor did not use any planned or structured input about the foci of this study.

3.4. Data Collection Instrument

In the field of second language pragmatics, researchers have utilized a wide variety of approaches to data collection depending on the aims of their studies. Nguyen (2019) points out that the data collection and analysis method differs according to these three areas of research: (1) pragmatic production, (2) pragmatic comprehension and perception, and (3) pragmatic decision-making processes. The current study analyzes learners' production of pragmatic responses. The fundamental objective in pragmatic production is to collect data that depict a real-life communication while taking into account the role that social circumstances might play in shaping that interaction (e.g., settings, topics, and speaker relationships) (Nguyen, 2019). In this sense, frequently used methods include

recording of authentic or semi-authentic discourse, role-playing and Discourse Completion Tests (DCT). For the present study, an 18-item written DCT (WDCT) was used as a data collection instrument. A discourse completion task obtains discourse data from participants by having them write down what they would say or do in a certain circumstance. This approach is frequently used to compare how the same speech act is performed in various circumstances (Hua, 2011).

The written DCT has been widely used in ILP studies. As Eisenstein and Bodman (1986) points out written discourse completion test is preferable than oral discourse tests since students feel less anxious because they have as much time to think for the appropriate answers on the questionnaire. Furthermore, compared to oral discourse tests, opting on a written discourse completion test is easier in terms of applicability in presence of time constraints with a large number of students. Even though the DCTs might not elicit fully authentic data since the scenarios are controlled and the responses in the dialog form are already known in advance and therefore might affect the responses of leaners, the administrative ease of data collection is highly advantageous for researchers.

The DCT used in this study was adopted from Bektas-Cetinkaya (2012) which consisted of four speech acts namely 8-item responding act, 3-item request, 5-item advice giving, 2-item refusal. Same versions of the DCT were distributed in the pretest and posttest. The use of the items on the pre and posttest were not a part of the treatment. Instead, pretest and posttest were implemented in a separate class time (the first and last week). Items used interlocutors such as a professor, a teacher, a close friend, and a sibling to keep the characters' gender and age consistent, along with sociopragmatic factors such as academic status and familiarity engaged in the circumstances.

3.5. Data Analysis and Coding

The data analysis of the study was done quantitatively using descriptive and inferential statistics. In this section, first the coding procedure is presented, then statistical analysis process is provided successively.

3.5.1. Coding

The results of the DCT were coded to be statistically analyzed according to a rating scale adopted from Eisenstein and Bodman's (1986). A total of 1188 DCT responses were analyzed and rated by two experienced Turkish foreign language instructors using the criteria on a scale of 1 through 5 (see Table 5). The other rater was also an experienced NNS EFL instructor who has been working in the preparatory unit for over six years. When there is a difference between the rates of two instructors, instructors negotiated until they came to an agreement. Furthermore, a native's responses to DCT were used as a guidance when instructors needed to consult.

The rating scale of Eisenstein and Bodman (1986) was developed on the basis of the Thomas's (1983) distinction between the cases of pragma-linguistic failure, which is when a non-native speaker knows what to say but doesn't know how to say it right, and socio-pragmatic failure, which is when a non-native speaker doesn't know what to say or doesn't say the right thing because they brought incompatible social rules, values, and beliefs from their native languages and cultures. Further details about pragmatic failure types are provided earlier in chapter 2. Since the rating scale of Eisenstein and Bodman (1986) was prepared specifically for the non-native speakers of English, we found it suitable on that it corresponded to possible types of utterances and errors of Turkish EFL learners, therefore no change was applied to the original rating scale.

On the other hand, the coded data was distributed to subsections of speech acts as responding act, request, advice giving and refusal. In this way, we could see not only the total scores of pre and posttest, but also the scores for each speech act as sub-dimensions.

Table 2. Rating Scale (Einstein & Bodman, 1986)

0= Resistant/No Response	Non-native participants, although finding it possible to answer some items, refused to answer others, or gave reasons why they could not or would not answer particular items.
1= Not Comprehensible	An utterance that is extremely hard, if not impossible, to comprehend. Often an instance of pragma-linguistic failure.
2= Not Acceptable	A violation of a social norm, a *faux pas*, a likely instance of socio-pragmatic failure.
3= Problematic	An error that might cause misunderstanding, but of a less serious nature. Language so strange, unexpected, or garbled that interpretation is difficult Instances of pragma-linguistic and/or socio-pragmatic failure.
4= Acceptable	Clear and appropriate language, but containing small errors which do not interfere seriously with native speakers' understanding.
5=Native-like	Close to native responses in content, syntax, and lexicon.

3.5.2. Statistical analyses

In this study, statistical analysis was used for it employed a quantitative methodology. The statistical data analysis was performed using the SPSS 24 program. In data analysis, frequency distribution was given according to group and gender variables. In addition, descriptive statistics were included according to continuous variables (such as age and years of studying English). Since the pretest and posttest scores of the total scale and its sub-dimensions were normally distributed, parametric methods were used in this study. The most important assumption of parametric methods is that the scores should be normally distributed, and the number of data should be large enough (N>20). If the number of data is <50, it is recommended to use Shapiro wilk statistics for the normality of the scores (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007).

For statistical analysis, one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) and dependent groups T-test (paired sample t test) methods were conducted. While the ANOVA test is used to

compare the continuous and normally distributed scores of a categorical variable with at least three groups, the dependent groups t-test is used to compare the continuous and normally distributed measures (scores) obtained at two different times for a single group. For the findings that showed a significant difference as a result of ANOVA, to find out which group showed this difference, LSD Post hoc method was conducted. Finally, the scale scores were converted into categories in the range of 1-5 as holistic scoring, and the frequency distribution for both pretest and posttest were given according to the groups. Statistical analyses were tested at the $p<.05$ significance level.

4. FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

In this chapter, first the findings obtained from DCT are presented; then we address the implications of the study's findings in regard to three research questions and related hypotheses mentioned in Chapter 2. Furthermore, qualitative analysis related to students' responses, common error types and the speech act strategies they used in the pretest and posttest were provided.

4.1. Statistical Results of the Study

Shapiro Wilk statistics regarding the scale pretest and posttest total scores and the scores obtained from its sub-dimensions in the explicit, implicit and control groups are not statistically significant (p>.05). The total scores of the scale and the scores of its sub-dimensions are normally distributed in all groups. Since the number of data (N>20) was sufficient, parametric methods were used in this experimental study.

Table 3. Normality Distribution of Groups

Group	Scores	Pre-test		Post-test	
		Shapiro Wilk	p	Shapiro Wilk	p
Explicit	Responding Acts	0,932	0,140	0,951	0,338
	Request	0,941	0,085	0,949	0,299
	Advice Giving	0,949	0,297	0,916	0,063
	Refusal	0,943	0,232	0,929	0,115
	Total Score	0,985	0,973	0,958	0,451
Implicit	Responding Acts	0,934	0,150	0,953	0,341
	Request	0,946	0,270	0,927	0,109
	Advice Giving	0,949	0,296	0,932	0,140
	Refusal	0,922	0,086	0,93	0,120
	Total Score	0,958	0,444	0,92	0,076
Control	Responding Acts	0,966	0,630	0,945	0,254
	Request	0,928	0,110	0,967	0,640
	Advice Giving	0,92	0,095	0,96	0,495
	Refusal	0,924	0,091	0,933	0,064
	Total Score	0,97	0,720	0,949	0,298

Note. Shapiro Wilk Normality Distribution for Pretest and Posttest Total Scores and Sub-Dimensions Scores by Groups

Is there a statistically significant difference between the pretest scores of the students in the explicit, implicit and control groups?

Comparisons regarding each sub-dimension of the scale and the total scores were stated separately. One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) method was used to compare the scores between explicit, implicit and control groups according to each of the pretest scores.

As can be seen in Table 4, there is no statistically significant difference between the pretest total scores of the students in the explicit, implicit and control groups ($F_{(2,63)}=0.931$, $p>.05$).

Table 4. ANOVA results of Pre-Test Total Scores by Groups

Group	**N**	**Mean**	**sd**	**F**	**p**
Explicit	22	58,64	8,03	0,931	0,4
Implicit	22	61,82	7,38		
Control	22	59,41	8,74		

sd:standart deviation

After the pretest total scores of groups, a detailed analysis of each sub-dimension that correlates a speech act category is conducted.

Table 5. ANOVA results of Pre-Test Scores for Responding Act by Groups

Group	**N**	**Mean**	**sd**	**F**	**p**
Explicit	22	29,09	4,41	1,351	0,266
Implicit	22	30,91	3,78		
Control	22	29,18	4,19		

sd:standart deviation

Table 5 demonstrates that there is no statistically significant difference between pretest scores for the responding act of the students in the explicit, implicit and control groups ($F_{(2,63)} =1.351$, $p>.05$). The responding act pretest scores of the students in the explicit, implicit and control groups were similar.

Table 6. ANOVA results of Pre-Test Scores for Requests by Groups

Group	N	Mean	sd	F	p
Explicit	22	8,32	1,64	0,051	0,95
Implicit	22	8,41	1,33		
Control	22	8,23	2,49		

sd:standart deviation

There is no statistically significant difference between the pretest scores for request of the students in the control, implicit and explicit groups (F (2,63) =0.051, p>.05). The request pretest scores of the students in the explicit, implicit and control groups are similar.

Table 7. ANOVA results of Pre-Test Scores for Advice giving by Groups

Group	N	Mean	sd	F	p
Explicit	22	14,73	3,06	0,488	0,616
Implicit	22	15,59	2,50		
Control	22	15,00	3,28		

sd:standart deviation

There is no statistically significant difference between the advice-giving pretest scores of the students in the explicit, implicit and control groups (F (2,63) =0.488, p>.05). The advice-giving pretest scores of the students in the explicit, implicit and control groups were similar.

Table 8. ANOVA results of Pre-Test Scores for Refusal by Groups

Group	N	Mean	sd	F	p
Control	22	7,00	1,80	0,574	0,566
Implicit	22	6,91	1,51		
Explicit	22	6,50	1,63		

sd:standart deviation

There is no statistically significant difference between the refusal pretest scores of the students in the explicit, implicit and control groups (F (2,63) =0.574, p>.05). Refusal pretest scores of the students in the explicit, implicit and control groups are similar.

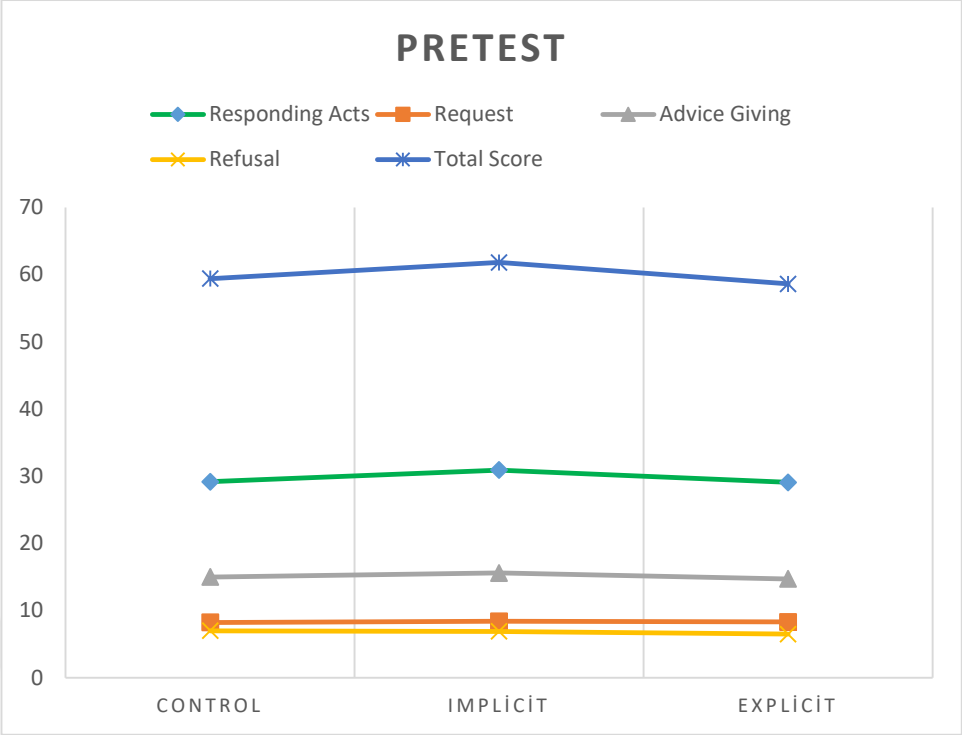


Figure 5. Pretest Scores of the Groups

As depicted in Figure 5, the pretest total scores of the students in the explicit, implicit and control groups were similar. In both the pretest total scores and each of its sub-dimensions, students in the explicit, implicit and control groups perform similarly. This means that the participants' level of pragmatic knowledge is similar in the beginning of the treatment procedure.

Is there a statistically significant difference between the posttest scores of the students in the explicit, implicit and control groups?

Comparisons regarding each sub-dimension of the scale and the total scores were stated separately. One-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) method was used to compare the scores between explicit, implicit and control groups according to each posttest scores. For the results that were statistically significant in ANOVA, the difference between the groups was compared with the post-hoc methods, and the LSD method was used.

Table 9. ANOVA Results of Responding Acts Post-test Scores by Groups

Group	N	Mean	sd	F	p
Control	22	31,09	3,61	4,508	0,015
Implicit	22	34,55	4,37		
Explicit	22	32,45	3,49		

sd:standart deviation

A statistically significant difference was found between the responding acts posttest scores of the students in the explicit, implicit and control groups (F(2,63)=4.508, p<.05).

Table 10. LSD Post Hoc Analysis Between Groups for Responding Act

Group (i)	Group (ii)	p	%95 CI	
			Lower	Upper
Control	Implicit	0,004	-5,77	-1,14
	Explicit	0,244	-3,68	0,95
Implicit	Explicit	0,076	-0,23	4,41

There was a significant difference between the responding act posttest scores of the control and implicit groups (p<.05). The responding act posttest mean score of the students in the implicit group was higher than the control group. However, there is no difference between the responding acts posttest scores of the students in the explicit and control, explicit and implicit groups (p>.05).

Table 11. ANOVA Results According to Request Post-test Scores by Groups

Group	N	Mean	sd	F	p
Control	22	9,00	3,42	3,448	0,038
Implicit	22	11,32	2,80		
Explicit	22	10,18	2,48		

sd:standart deviation

A statistically significant difference was found between the request posttest scores of the students in the explicit, implicit and control groups (F (2,63) =3.448, p<.05).

Table 12. LSD Post Hoc Analysis Between Groups for Request

Group (i)	Group (ii)	p	%95 CI	
			Lower	Upper
Control	Implicit	0,011	-4,08	-0,55
	Explicit	0,185	-2,95	0,58
Implicit	Explicit	0,203	-0,63	2,90

There was a significant difference between the request posttest scores of the control and implicit groups (p<.05). The request posttest mean score of the students in the Implicit group was higher than the control group. However, there is no difference between the request posttest scores of the students in the explicit and control and between the explicit and implicit groups (p>.05).

Table 13. ANOVA Results According to Advice Giving Post-test Scores by Groups

Group	N	Mean	sd	F	p
Control	22	17,55	3,04	3,58	0,034
Implicit	22	20,09	3,53		
Explicit	22	18,55	2,94		

sd:standart deviation

A statistically significant difference was found between the advice-giving posttest scores of the students in the explicit, implicit and control groups (F (2,63) =3.58, p<.05).

Table 14. LSD Post Hoc Analysis between groups for Advice Giving

Group (i)	Group (ii)	p	%95 CI	
			Lower	Upper
Control	Implicit	0,010	-4,46	-0,63
	Explicit	0,301	-2,92	0,92
Implicit	Explicit	0,112	-0,37	3,46

sd:standart deviation

A significant difference was found between the advice-giving posttest scores of the control and implicit groups (p<.05). The students in the Implicit group had higher advice-giving posttest scores than the control group. However, there is no difference between the

advice-giving posttest scores of the students in the explicit and control, and explicit and implicit groups (p>.05).

Table 15. ANOVA Results According to Refusal Post-test Scores by Groups

Group	N	Mean	sd	F	p
Control	22	7,23	1,63	1,679	0,195
Implicit	22	7,86	1,46		
Explicit	22	8,00	1,38		

sd:standart deviation

There is no statistically significant difference between the refusal posttest scores of the students in the explicit, implicit and control groups (F (2,63) =1.679, p>.05). Refusal posttest scores of the students in the explicit, implicit and control groups were similar.

Table 16. ANOVA Results According to Post-test Total Scores by Groups

Group	N	Mean	sd	F	p
Control	22	64,86	8,91	5,47	0,006
Implicit	22	73,82	10,28		
Explicit	22	69,18	7,53		

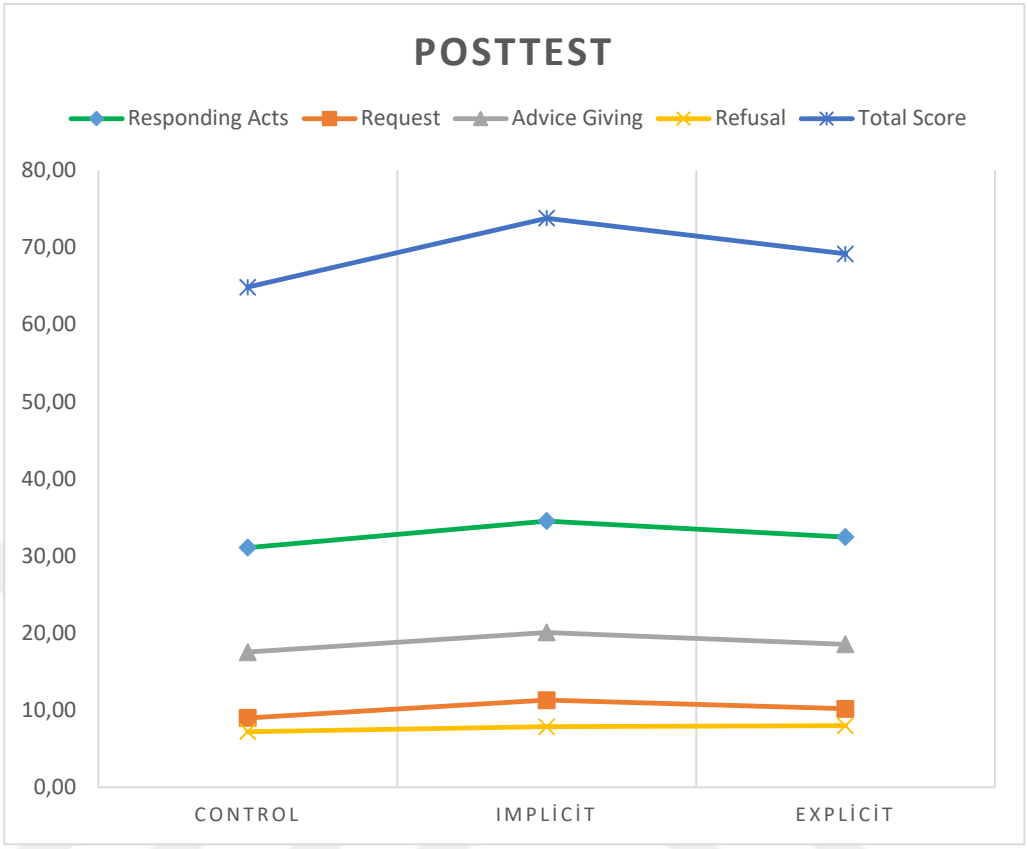
sd:standart deviation

A statistically significant difference was found between the posttest total scores of the students in the explicit, implicit and control groups (F(2,63)=5.47, p>.05).

Table 17. LSD Post Hoc Analysis of Post-Test between groups

Group (i)	Group (ii)	p	%95 CI	
			Lower	Upper
Control	Implicit	0,002	-14,37	-3,54
	Explicit	0,116	-9,73	1,09
Implicit	Explicit	0,092	-0,77	10,05

There was a significant difference between the posttest total scores of the control and implicit groups (p<.05). The posttest total score average of the students in the Implicit group was higher than the control group. However, there was no difference between the posttest total scores of the students in the explicit and control, and explicit and implicit groups (p>.05).



Note. Comparison of the groups' posttest scores in total and according to speech act categories.

Figure 6. Posttest Scores of the Groups

As illustrated in Figure 6, the posttest total scores of the students in the implicit group and their scores on responding acts, request and advice-giving sub-dimensions are higher than those in the control group, to put it in different words, the students in the implicit group have higher posttest success for these variables than the control group. The implicit group outperformed the control group in the posttest mean scores. It is also important to note that the mean scores of the explicit and implicit groups are also close to each other. This explains the reason for insignificant difference obtained with ANOVA between these two instructed groups' posttest results.

After displaying effects in the ANOVA and Post Hos Analysis, intragroup analysis of the data was provided to see if there is a statistically significant difference between the pre- and posttest scores of the students in each experimental group and control group. For intragroup analysis, the dependent groups t-test method was used to compare the pre- and

post-test scores of the students in explicit, implicit and control groups (paired sample T-test). This method is parametric and is used to compare the difference between measurements obtained at two different times for a single group.

Is there a statistically significant difference between the pre- and post-test scores of the students in the Explicit group?

As illustrated in Table 18, there was a significant difference between students' total pre and post test scores ($t_{(21}$=-9.034, p<.05) and all sub-dimensions: responding acts ($t_{(21}$=-4.195, p<.05), request ($t_{(21}$= -3.648, p<.05), advice giving ($t_{(21}$=-5.965, p<.05) and refusal ($t_{(21}$=-3.813, p<.05) in the explicit group.

Table 18. T-Test Results of Pre- and Post-Test Scores of the Explicit Group

	Pre-test		**Post-test**		**t**	**sd**	**p**	**Cohen's d**
	Mean	**ss**	**Mean**	**ss**				
Responding Acts	29,09	4,41	32,45	3,49	-4,195	21	,000	0,456
Request	8,32	1,64	10,18	2,48	-3,648	21	0,002	0,388
Advice Giving	14,73	3,06	18,55	2,94	-5,965	21	,000	0,629
Refusal	6,50	1,63	8,00	1,38	-3,813	21	0,001	0,409
Total Score	58,64	8,03	69,18	7,53	-9,034	21	,000	0,795

sd:standart deviation

In the explicit group, the posttest total mean score of the students and the posttest mean score for all sub-dimensions were higher than the pretest. While there was a 10.44-unit increase in the total scores for the students in the Explicit group, there was an increase of 3.36 in responding acts, 1.86 in request scores, 3.82 in advice-giving scores, and 1.5-unit in refusal scores, which is statistically significant. In other words, learning took place in the scale total and in each of the sub-dimensions in the Explicit group, and explicit instruction increased the pragmatic appropriacy in the students' posttest responses.

Is there a statistically significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the students in the Implicit group?

A significant difference was found between the pre and posttest scores of scale total score of students ($t_{(21)}$=-8.775, p<.05) and all scale sub-dimensions: responding acts ($t_{(21)}$=-4.49, p<.05), request ($t_{(21)}$=-5.712, p<.05), advice giving ($t_{(21)}$=-6.715, p<.05) and refusal ($t_{(21)}$=-2.819, p<.05) in the implicit group.

Table 19. T-Test Results of the Pre- and Post-Test Scores of the Implicit Group

	Pre-test		Post-test		t	sd	p	Cohen's d
	Mean	ss	Mean	ss				
Responding Acts	30,91	3,78	34,55	4,37	-4,49	21	,000	0,490
Request	8,41	1,33	11,32	2,80	-5,712	21	,000	0,608
Advice Giving	15,59	2,50	20,09	3,53	-6,715	21	,000	0,682
Refusal	6,91	1,51	7,86	1,46	-2,819	21	0,01	0,275
Total Score	61,82	7,38	73,82	10,28	-8,775	21	,000	0,786

sd:standart deviation

In the implicit group, the posttest total mean score of the students and the posttest mean score for all sub-dimensions were higher than the pretest. While there was a 12-unit increase in the total scores for the students in the Implicit group, there was an increase of 3.64 in responding acts, 2.9 in request scores, 4.5 in advice-giving scores and 0.91 in refusal scores, which is statistically significant. Implicit instruction improved students' scores in each of the scale total and sub-dimensions, in other words, instruction increased the pragmatic appropriacy in the students' posttest responses.

Is there a statistically significant difference between the pre-test and post-test scores of the students in the control group?

As shown in Table 20, a significant difference was obtained between pre and posttest scores of the students in the control group in total score and ($t_{(21}$=4.383, p<.05) but only in sub-dimensions of responding act ($t_{(21}$=-2.462, p<.05) and advice giving ($t_{(21}$=-3.644), p<.05).

Table 20. T-Test Results of the Pre- and Post-Test Scores of the Control Group

	Pre-test		Post-test		t	sd	p	Cohen's d
	Mean	ss	Mean	ss				
Responding Acts	29,18	4,19	31,09	3,61	-2,462	21	0,023	0,224
Request	8,23	2,49	9,00	3,42	-1,26	21	0,222	0,070
Advice Giving	15,00	3,28	17,55	3,04	-3,644	21	0,002	0,387
Refusal	7,00	1,80	7,23	1,63	-0,489	21	0,63	0,011
Total Score	59,41	8,74	64,86	8,91	-4,383	21	,000	0,478

sd:standart deviation

The posttest total score average of the students in the control group and the sub-dimensions responding act and advice-giving posttest mean scores were higher than the pretest. In other words, the increase of 5.45 units in the total scores, 1.91 in the responding act scores and 2.55 units in the advice-giving scores for the students in the control group is significant, and this indicates that incidental learning took place in these students. However, there was no significant difference between the students' pre- and post-test scores of sub-dimensions of request ($t_{(21}$=-1.26, p>.05) and refusal ($t_{(21)}$=-0.489, p>.05) in the control group. There was no incidental learning for the sub-dimensions of request and refusal speech acts in the control group.

After checking t test data analysis of the effects in the pre and posttest for each group independently, to further analyze the distribution of the students' responses according to the four speech acts (responding, request, advice-giving and refusal) and the degree of appropriateness of the learners' responses, frequency and percentage analysis was conducted.

4.1.1. Frequency and percentage distribution between groups

We analyzed the frequency and percentage of the responses of the four speech acts independently in each group to see the progress of the responses according to the appropriateness category in each situation of the target speech act in the pretest and posttest. Table 21 and 22 shows the distribution of responses overall and in each situation in responding acts successively.

Table 21. Percentage Analysis of the Responses of the Groups in Responding Acts

	Explicit (n(%))		**Implicit (n(%))**		**Control (n(%))**	
	Pretest	**Posttest**	**Pretest**	**Posttest**	**Pretest**	**Posttest**
Native-like	49(28)	66(38)	56(31)	92(52)	47(27)	48(27)
Acceptable	59(34)	72(41)	66(38)	57(32)	64(36)	77(44)
Problematic	36(20)	24(14)	31(17)	20(11)	30(17)	36(20)
Not acceptable	24(14)	12(7)	23(13)	6(3)	28(16)	14(8)
Not comprehensible	3(2)	0(0)	0(0)	0(0)	5(3)	0(0)
No response	5(3)	2(1)	1(1)	1(1)	2(1)	1(1)

In the control group, there was an increase in the acceptable responses but no increase in the native-like responses of the learners compared to the pretest results. Problematic responses slightly increased, but not acceptable answers decreased by 8 percent in the posttest. Not comprehensible answers were not present in the posttest as well.

In the implicit group, native-like responses increased to 52 percent in the posttest, which is a noteworthy difference. Not acceptable responses decreased to 3 percent. We can infer that most of the acceptable answers obtained in the pretest developed into more pragmatically appropriate level in the posttest.

In the explicit group, the predominance of the responses remained in the acceptable category, even though the native-like responses showed an incline of 10 percent between the pretest and posttest. The explicit group's distribution of responses was close to the control group in the responding act category.

Table 22. The Frequency Distribution of Responses in Responding Act Situations

	Explicit		**Implicit**		**Control**	
	Pretest	**Posttest**	**Pretest**	**Posttest**	**Pretest**	**Posttest**
Thanking a friend for a gift						
Native-like	11	11	8	10	9	10
Acceptable	7	7	10	9	9	10
Problematic	4	4	4	1	3	2
Not acceptable	0	0	0	2	0	0
Responding to an invitation						
Native-like	9	8	10	14	7	8
Acceptable	7	12	7	6	9	10
Problematic	4	2	2	2	1	4
Not acceptable	2	0	3	0	4	0
Responding to a request						
Native-like	5	11	8	11	4	1
Acceptable	10	7	6	11	10	15
Problematic	4	3	6	0	6	5
Not acceptable	2	1	2	0	2	1
Responding to an offer						
Native-like	3	8	6	8	5	4
Acceptable	8	7	10	11	6	8
Problematic	8	6	5	3	5	8
Not acceptable	2	1	1	0	6	2

	Explicit		Implicit		Control	
	Pretest	**Posttest**	**Pretest**	**Posttest**	**Pretest**	**Posttest**
Ordering a drink						
Native-like	4	8	6	13	4	5
Acceptable	2	8	6	5	5	9
Problematic	4	3	5	3	6	6
Not acceptable	10	3	4	1	6	2
Responding to closing a conversation						
Native-like	5	6	6	12	6	5
Acceptable	7	11	9	5	7	12
Problematic	4	2	4	4	6	5
Not acceptable	3	2	3	1	2	0
Responding to a greeting at a supermarket						
Native-like	2	4	2	14	3	5
Acceptable	10	16	12	5	13	10
Problematic	6	0	2	2	6	1
Not acceptable	4	2	6	1	0	5
Responding to closing a conversation at a supermarket						
Native-like	10	10	10	14	9	10
Acceptable	8	4	6	5	5	3
Problematic	2	4	3	2	3	5
Not acceptable	1	3	3	1	4	4

As we review the items' distribution in responding acts, the most problematic and not acceptable responses were in the item of ordering a drink, responding to a greeting at a supermarket and responding to an offer in the pretest. Responding to a request and responses in thanking a friend for a gift were the most pragmatically suitable responses.

The distribution of responses overall and for each consecutive request situation is shown in Tables 23 and 24.

Tablo 23. Percentage Analysis of the Responses of the Groups in Requests

	Explicit (n(%))		**Implicit (n(%))**		**Control (n(%))**	
	Pretest	**Posttest**	**Pretest**	**Posttest**	**Pretest**	**Posttest**
Native-like	1(2)	11(17)	5(8)	20(30)	5(8)	9(14)
Acceptable	13(20)	25(38)	16(24)	26(39)	12(18)	16(24)
Problematic	27(41)	13(20)	24(36)	8(12)	20(30)	16(24)
Not acceptable	22(33)	15(23)	20(30)	10(15)	24(36)	20(30)
Not comprehensible	1(2)	0(0)	0(0)	1(2)	0(0)	1(2)
No response	2(3)	2(3)	1(2)	1(2)	5(8)	4(6)

In the control group, acceptable and native-like responses showed a minority by 26 percent in the pretest and 38 percent in the posttest. Not comprehensible, not acceptable and problematic responses were still predominant by 54 percent in the posttest. There was also reverse progress in not comprehensible responses.

In the implicit group, problematic responses were in predominance in the pretest, followed by not acceptable category. In the posttest, native-like responses increased from 8 percent to 30 percent. Most of the responses were appropriate in the posttest. On the other hand, there was a reverse progress in not comprehensible responses.

In the explicit group, the problematic answers for the pretest had the greatest proportion, followed by not acceptable ones. However, native-like answers increased to 17 percent in the posttest. Pragmatically appropriate answers were in majority in the posttest.

To further evaluate on which items that the students had difficulty or dealt with ease in request speech acts, we will review the Table 24.

Table 24. The Frequency Distribution of the Responses in Request Situations

	Explicit		**Implicit**		**Control**	
	Pretest	**Posttest**	**Pretest**	**Posttest**	**Pretest**	**Posttest**
Request to do cleaning						
Native-like	4	7	3	8	3	6
Acceptable	15	7	10	8	4	6
Problematic	5	5	5	3	8	4
Not acceptable	1	2	4	3	7	6

	Explicit		Implicit		Control	
	Pretest	**Posttest**	**Pretest**	**Posttest**	**Pretest**	**Posttest**
Request to babysit						
Native-like	1	2	2	7	2	4
Acceptable	8	12	10	10	5	6
Problematic	7	4	5	3	6	4
Not acceptable	5	4	4	1	9	7
Request to write a recommendation letter						
Native-like	4	2	8	5	3	1
Acceptable	5	6	2	8	6	4
Problematic	12	4	12	2	8	9
Not acceptable	1	9	0	6	0	7

As seen on the Table 24, the most challenging item in the pretest for both experimental and control groups was requesting to write a recommendation letter. Even though acceptable responses seemed to rise in the explicit and implicit groups in the posttest, not acceptable answers also increased in both groups. Contrary to the experimental groups, the control group didn't demonstrate any improvement in providing appropriate responses on the posttest for this item.

The distribution of answers overall and for each scenario in response to advice-giving is shown in Tables 25 and 26.

Table 25. Percentage Analysis of the Groups in Advice-Giving

	Explicit (n(%))		Implicit (n(%))		Control (n(%))	
	Pretest	**Posttest**	**Pretest**	**Posttest**	**Pretest**	**Posttest**
Native-like	4(4)	18(16)	9(8)	43(39)	8(7)	15(14)
Acceptable	30(27)	55(50)	39(35)	43(39)	33(30)	52(47)
Problematic	38(35)	27(25)	26(24)	15(14)	28(25)	24(22)
Not acceptable	34(31)	8(7)	32(29)	5(5)	35(32)	15(14)
Not comprehensible	2(2)	1(1)	2(2)	0(0)	4(4)	1(1)
No response	2(2)	1(1)	1(1)	4(4)	2(2)	3(3)

Acceptable and native-like responses made up 37 percent of all pretest answers in the control group. In the posttest, this percentage rose to 61 percent, indicating a natural progression in the control group.

In the implicit group, the pretest answers involved a close percentage between the appropriate and inappropriate answers, with the latter being slightly more. In the posttest, however, the percentage of native-like responses climbed to 39%, and only a few responses were found in the inappropriate category.

In the explicit group, the majority of answers were problematic or not acceptable in the pretest. The majority, however, switched the category to acceptable and native-like responses in the posttest, which was the expected outcome following the instruction. Even though, these results had been found statistically significant within the explicit group's dynamic, the distribution was similar to the control group. Therefore, we might not attribute the increase in the posttest to the instruction given.

Table 26. The Frequency Distribution of the Responses in Advice-Giving Situations

	Explicit		**Implicit**		**Control**	
	Pretest	**Posttest**	**Pretest**	**Posttest**	**Pretest**	**Posttest**
Giving advice to a teacher						
Native-like	0	0	1	9	1	1
Acceptable	7	16	10	11	10	12
Problematic	7	5	6	1	7	6
Not acceptable	8	1	4	0	3	2
Giving advice to a friend						
Native-like	2	5	3	12	2	3
Acceptable	8	9	8	9	9	11
Problematic	5	6	4	0	2	5
Not acceptable	5	1	5	1	9	3
Giving advice to a friend (negative)						
Native-like	0	7	3	10	4	5
Acceptable	10	12	8	8	3	7
Problematic	3	2	5	3	7	6
Not acceptable	9	1	5	1	7	4
Giving feedback to a friend (essay)						
Native-like	1	5	1	8	1	4
Acceptable	5	11	6	6	5	12
Problematic	12	4	8	5	6	4

	Explicit		Implicit		Control	
	Pretest	**Posttest**	**Pretest**	**Posttest**	**Pretest**	**Posttest**
Not acceptable	3	2	7	2	8	2
Giving feedback to a friend (presentation)						
Native-like	1	1	1	4	0	2
Acceptable	0	7	7	9	6	10
Problematic	11	10	3	6	6	3
Not acceptable	9	3	11	1	8	4

As seen in Table 26, among the other items in advice-giving, giving feedback to a friend for presentation had the most inappropriate responses in the pretest. Few students responded in a native-like degree to giving feedback to a teacher and giving feedback to a friend for a presentation both in the pretest and posttest. For giving feedback to a teacher, even though the explicit group had developed more acceptable responses, only the implicit group improved to a native-like degree in the posttest.

Table 27 and 28 indicates the overall distribution of the refusal speech act and the frequency of responses in each situation.

Table 27. Percentage Analysis of the Responses of the Groups in Refusals

	Explicit (n(%))		Implicit (n(%))		Control (n(%))	
	Pretest	**Posttest**	**Pretest**	**Posttest**	**Pretest**	**Posttest**
Native-like	4(9)	15(34)	5(11)	12(27)	8(18)	8(18)
Acceptable	16(36)	17(39)	17(39)	21(48)	15(34)	19(43)
Problematic	13(30)	9(20)	14(32)	7(16)	12(27)	9(20)
Not acceptable	9(20)	3(7)	8(18)	4(9)	9(20)	8(18)
Not comprehensible	2(5)	0(0)	0(0)	0(0)	0(0)	0(0)
No answer	0(0)	0(0)	0(0)	0(0)	0(0)	0(0)

In the control group, the pretest and posttest percentages for native-like remained the same in the pretest and posttest. Acceptable answers improved by 9 percent in the posttest. However, not acceptable answers remained almost the same number.

In the implicit group, the distribution was nearly equal between the appropriate and inappropriate responses in the pretest. In the posttest, however, the number of not

acceptable and problematic responses decreased by half the number of the pretest, and 75 percent of the answers were pragmatically appropriate.

The explicit group had the highest percentage of native-like responses in the posttest in the speech act of refusal. While there were 45 percent appropriate answers in the pretest, it rose to 73 percent in the posttest. Along the same line, inappropriate responses dropped from 55 percent to 27 in the posttest.

Table 28. The Frequency Distribution of the Responses in Refusal Situations

	Explicit		**Implicit**		**Control**	
	Pretest	**Posttest**	**Pretest**	**Posttest**	**Pretest**	**Posttest**
Refusing an invitation (lunch)						
Native-like	3	6	3	7	3	6
Acceptable	8	7	9	9	8	7
Problematic	5	6	6	4	5	6
Not acceptable	5	3	4	2	6	3
Refusing an invitation (dinner)						
Native-like	1	9	2	5	5	2
Acceptable	8	10	8	12	7	12
Problematic	8	3	8	3	7	3
Not acceptable	12	0	4	2	3	5

As seen in Table 28, there was no considerable difference in the distribution of the responses in two items. The responses on refusing an invitation for lunch did not show much improvement in the posttest for the experimental and the control groups. For the item of refusing an invitation for dinner, students responded in a slightly more acceptable way in the posttest in all groups.

Even though statistical results do not support, percentage analysis demonstrates that the explicit group had more improvement in production of pragmatically appropriate responses compared to the control group.

After analyzing the findings of the current study, we will discuss how they relate to the research questions and associated hypotheses in the next section.

4.2. Discussion of Findings for Research Questions

This study has sought answers to the three research questions and subsequent hypotheses. The first and second research questions were whether there is any improvement in pragmatic competence of students after explicit and implicit instruction or not. The third research question was which instruction was more effective for improving learners' ability to produce appropriate use of speech acts.

To answer the research questions, we adopted a pretest-posttest design with two experimental groups and a control group. Both intra-group and inter-group analysis was conducted to see the progress of learners through instruction within the group and to compare the groups' pretest and posttest results to one another. By comparing the pretest mean values of the groups on a T-test, it was confirmed that there was no significant difference among the pretest results of the groups, which indicated that each group had the same basis for pragmatic competence. Additionally, a percentage and frequency analysis was also performed to evaluate how the learners were distributed in relation to the speech act scenarios and to draw conclusions about which scenarios were most resistant to the instruction and received more native-like utterances or negative transfer by the students.

In light of the statistical results, the first hypothesis that the explicit group will significantly improve their pragmatic competence in the post-test over the pre-test is supported only in the speech acts of requests and refusals. As previously mentioned, pragmatic competence refers to the pragmatic appropriacy of the students' responses in this study, and the answers of students were rated numerically according to their appropriateness level. In this line, the t-test analysis indicates the pretest-posttest differences of the students' scores in total, and there was a significant difference in the explicit group's performance on the pretest and posttest. Despite the fact that the explicit group's posttest results revealed a statistically significant improvement in the intra-group analysis, the inter-group statistical analysis did not support the instructional impact in the explicit group since the control group showed a significant increase as well. That said, it is worth mentioning that the significant rise was in two types of speech acts in the control group: responding act and advice-giving. Therefore, the learners' gains in the explicit group in these two speech acts might not account for instruction. Nonetheless, the

percentage analysis indicates that the explicit group provided more accurate responses than the control group in all four speech acts including these two categories as well. Moreover, the effect size for the explicit group is larger than the control group overall and in each speech act dimension. In this sense, it can be concluded that explicit instruction helped learners improve their pragmatic ability to some extent. The explicit instruction was effective in the production of request and refusal expressions of learners.

Even though the statistical results of this study do not entirely support prior studies (e.g., House and Kasper, 1981a; Olsthain and Cohen, 1990; Soler, 2006; Taguchi, 2015; Takahashi, 2010) on the efficacy of explicit instruction of pragmatics, it is no exception in the literature. As Roever (2009) states, not all studies have reflected success in instructional learning in the literature. As in the studies by Yoshimi (1999), Liddicoat and Crozet (2001), and Olshtain and Cohen (1990), Ishihara and Cohen (2005) not all intended areas of learners' L2 pragmatic performance were enhanced (Roever, 2009). Similarly, in the study of Bayındır (2019), explicit instruction was effective in the speech acts of greeting and complaint, but not in advice-giving and refusals.

A number of factors need to be considered for the findings of the explicit group. The first one is motivation. Learners in the explicit group did not demonstrate the same level of high motivation throughout the instruction as learners in the implicit group. As observed by the instructor, learners lacked the same enthusiasm for engagement in classroom activities as those in the implicit group. According to the research of Molavi et al. (2018), lower degrees of demotivation is connected with stronger talents in the production of speech acts of request and refusal. To put it another way, student demotivation was found to be a factor that affects the production of the aforementioned speech acts. In the same vein, Roever (2009) states that instruction interacts with the background characteristics of the learner and that learners with high aptitude and motivation may benefit from any type of instruction.

Another issue could be the length of the instruction. It may be claimed that five an-hour treatments over five weeks were insufficient to determine the efficacy of various teaching settings. However, the length of the treatment is not too short when compared to the others in the field (e.g., Kubota, 1995). Though it may be, some of the short treatments were proved to be quite effective on some instructional targets as in the study of Tateyama et

al. (1997) and Morrow (1995). Furthermore, when the instructional targets are considered which are responding and advice-giving speech acts, they do not fall in the category of the cognitively demanding speech acts which require longer periods of time to process and put into practice. The situations in responding acts required short formulaic answers. Likewise, advice-giving situations were set up to elicit answers with modal structures and imperatives. While it might be possible, the effect of the length of the instruction seems rather low in this case. Moreover, the length of instruction was not a disadvantage for the implicit group as the findings demonstrate.

The academic success of the students and exposure to the language outside the class are the two other factors that might have affected the learning process. Having said that, due to time limitations, a detailed background questionnaire eliciting information on these two factors was not possible to implement. Although there is not strong evidence, it is still probable to attribute the low performance of the participants in the explicit group to their academic success or their exposure to English outside the classroom.

Another factor is that the sample size affects obtaining the significance levels in a study. As the authors claimed (Peto et al. 1976, as cited in Royal, 1986), when compared to the same P-value in a smaller study with the same treatments, the strength of the evidence that the treatments truly do vary when using a particular P-value in a big trial is often much higher. Considering this perspective, the differences in the mean scores between the explicit and the control group would have been significant if the number of participants had been larger. Also, there is not a clear-cut line when interpreting the significance of social sciences studies, thus it needs a tentative approach. After all, the instructed group performed better than the uninstructed group as seen in the percentage analysis.

Regarding the gains in the control group, there might be a couple of reasons for incidental learning. To note, incidental learning refers to students' natural gains in their pragmatic ability during their English course in this study. One of the reasons could be the input in their course book, face2face. As stated before, several course books contain some pragmatic information. Face2face main course book includes instances of functional dialogues where a few speech acts are presented, but not in a systematic order. In addition, Kasper (1996), and Kasper and Rose (2001) indicated that once learners obtain the

necessary linguistic knowledge, they will be able to perform speech acts without instruction. Furthermore, according to Kasper (1996), adult learners can naturally pick up a significant amount of L2 pragmatics since certain pragmatic knowledge is universal and some components of pragmatics can be effectively transferred from the learner's first language (L1). In line with the control group's development in responding act and advice-giving in the current study, in the studies of Bayındır (2019), Billmyer (1990a, b), Özet (2019), and Wishnoff (2000), the comparison groups showed some progress, too. In Bayındır's study, native-like responses for the refusal speech act of the control group demonstrated a dramatic increase in the posttest. Likewise, in Wishnoff's study, the control group had obvious gains in the use of hedging devices in their academic writing even though the improvement was not as much as the treatment group. Wishnoff (2000) stated that the improvement might be due to the control group's high linguistic proficiency. He also cautioned the researchers that students' linguistic proficiency might affect whether or not instruction has measurable effects. Another reason for the control group's gain in two speech act responses may be that they had interaction with their skills teacher who was a native. As Roever (2009) points out that students who get the chance to watch role models in action are exposed to a far wider range of social roles and settings. In this sense, the participants in the control group may be exposed to more authentic input.

The second hypothesis of the study that the implicit group will significantly improve their pragmatic competence in the post-test over the pre-test is supported overall and in the speech acts of responding act, request and advice-giving. The intra-group analysis illustrates that there is a significant difference between the pretest and posttest results of the learners in the implicit group overall and in each speech act. It can be concluded that implicit teaching has improved learners' pragmatic competence. The findings of the implicit group contrast the past research such as Tateyama et al., (1997), Takahashi (2001), and Pearson (1998, as cited in Kasper & Rose, 2001) who could not find benefits of implicit teaching but coincide with the findings of the studies of Ülbeği (2009), Fukuya and Zhang (2002), Kim and Hall (2002), and Rose and Kwai-fong (2001). The reason behind the implicit group's success might be due to the conceptualization of the implicit treatment which employed input enhancement technique and recasts. Operationalizing these techniques presumably made the input salient enough for the learners to notice, which supports the Noticing Hypothesis of Schmidt (1993). In the same vein, the research

of Martinez-Flor (2004) which utilized input enhancement and recasts, Fukuya and Zhang (2002), which operated recasts, proved effective in developing learners' pragmatic use of language under the implicit condition. Role-play activities also might have consolidated the noticed data. These role-plays also provided feedback on learners' improper and erroneous use of speech actions as required.

To note, comparison of groups in ANOVA showed that there was no significant difference in the refusal speech acts in the posttest, which highlighted the instructional effects might change according to the speech act as well. Regarding the results in the refusals, the literature demonstrates similar results about the learner performance in this speech act. For instance, Bayındır (2019) found no significant results between the posttest results of the experimental and control group in the category of refusals. Cross-cultural differences highly shape the EFL learners' use of refusal strategies in English, and sociopragmatic transfer is frequent in refusals in this sense (Aksoyalp, 2009; Gazioğlu & Çiftçi, 2017; Güngörmezler, 2016; Han & Burgucu-Tazegül, 2016). It is evident that even quite proficient Turkish speakers of English as a foreign language transfer some from their L1 (Gazioğlu & Çiftçi, 2017). Refusing a request in British or American culture might not pose the same threat to the speaker as in the Turkish context, thus the strategies for realizing a refusal will not be the same in both languages. For example, in Turkish culture, unless the individual absolutely has no choice but to do so, it is not generally expected of them to decline requests from friends, family, or lecturers. In line with this issue, Aksoyalp (2009) found in her study that Turkish EFL learners used more frequent direct strategies similar to Turkish native speakers than the native English speakers did, which indicates the influence of Turkish pragmatic conventions on the participant's refusal responses. While Turkish EFL learners used more direct strategies for situations that required equal status, native American speakers used more indirect strategies to keep the relationship safe. The reason for this is, being sincere and frank with close ones is a cultural norm in the Turkish context. The closer the relationship is, the more direct is the speech. In most cases, being formal and indirect is perceived as distant and uncompanionable in Turkish culture. It might be claimed that refusals require more complex sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic decisions (Vellenga, 2008).

It is also crucial to mention the effect of measurement on the findings. Jeon and Kaya (2006) point out, the type of outcome measure might exhibit a systematic relationship with observed instructional effectiveness, therefore its interpretation requires extreme caution. This case is evident in the Turkish EFL context as in the study of Zıngır-Gülten (2008); while participants show a propensity to utilize a larger proportion of direct request strategies when given a variety of request strategy alternatives in multiple-choice exams, they consistently use indirect request strategies in written discourse completion assessments. It's possible that the DCT that was employed for this research wasn't sensitive enough to gauge the pragmatic competence of the participants. In this sense, the test effect might be present in the current study. The distribution of the scenarios was not equal; while the responding acts and advice-giving situations composed 13 of 18 scenarios, requests and refusals were 5 of the total. As previously mentioned, responding acts comprising almost half of the total test questions were the type that elicited short, formulaic responses. Thus, this category of speech act had the highest ratio in scoring. Even if the participants scored higher in refusal and request situations in the posttest, this would have a low effect to alter the total result. It is questionable whether the results would be the same if the request and refusal items were increased to the same number of the responding act. Furthermore, related to the findings of the explicit and control group, when the sample size is bigger in statistical analysis, the difference between the groups would be larger, hence the significance of the difference. An insignificant result in such a study like this would be the opposite when the sample size is bigger. Likewise, only 2 refusal items might not be sufficient to deduce a reasonable inference on pragmatic competence.

Alongside the measurement effect, it's also probable that the different kinds of tasks that each group was required to complete are what led to their varying levels of success in the posttest. While teacher-fronted presentations were the main activities in the explicit treatment, role-play tasks were in the implicit treatment. Students might have found the requisite opportunity to produce output through acting in roles in the implicit condition.

The third research question that was investigated was whether the particular type of instruction (explicit or implicit) was more successful in enhancing the pragmatic competence of the learners. Our hypothesis that both experimental groups will be equally

successful as the other in creating proper use of speech actions is not supported. Utilizing ANOVA and Post Hoc analysis, we obtained significant results only between the implicit and the control group, in other words, there was no significant difference between the explicit and implicit groups. On the other hand, since the implicit group had a significant rise in the posttest compared to the control group, and the explicit group did not, it can be claimed that implicit teaching has been more effective in helping learners use more pragmatically appropriate phrases. While the findings are in congruence with the study of Ülbeği (2009) which demonstrated that implicit teaching greatly fostered students' refusals, and Martinez-Flor (2004) and Alcón (2005), who found that implicit teaching is as effective as the explicit group, it contradicts the past research (e.g., House & Kasper, 1981a; House, 1996; Özdemir, 2010; Tateyama et al., 1997; Takahashi, 2001) which compared both instructions and found explicit instruction to be more successful. The conceptualization of implicit conditions in these research differs from one another, thus the results might have been affected. Withdrawing metapragmatic provision only for the implicit instructional method has proved ineffective in the early studies of House and Kasper, (1981a) and House (1996). As Martinez-Flor and Soler (2007) state when implicit treatment is utilized with techniques such as input enhancement or/and corrective feedback, the efficiency increases. The combination of these techniques in this study helped learners to notice the target speech acts, produce output and receive feedback, which has supported the noticing hypothesis of Schmidt (1993). However, it is also important to note that these techniques do not necessarily ensure gains in every study. Fukuya and Clark (2001) and Özdemir (2010) used input enhancement as a technique in operationalizing implicit treatment in their studies, and they found the explicit outperformed the implicit group in their findings. Therefore, there might be different reasons for the failure of implicit treatment in the abovementioned studies such as the length of the treatment and the effect of the activities which were employed during the instruction. It is possible that the participants weren't aided as much by these activities to process the intended input thoroughly or given the required time to process the given input.

Alongside the statistical results, frequency and distribution findings have shown that pragmatically inappropriate responses piled on situations reflecting cross-cultural differences due to the L1 negative transfer. For instance, responding to a greeting in a

supermarket was a strange situation for most of the students as the frequency analysis showed. Students were puzzled about how to respond to such a question. To such an extent that the author of this study received a question from one of the students in the implicit group “Why is the cashier asking a question like ‘How are you?’ to us”. In addition, learners directly transferred strategies from Turkish language in the situations of requesting a professor to write a recommendation letter which sounded too direct and face-threatening in the target culture. The imposition and power of the interlocutor was high in this situation and required politeness instances and / or indirectness, however students employed the same pragmalinguistic features from their native language. This is in line with the study of Takahashi and Beebe (1987) which reported evidence of transfer that was found in the number, sequence, and semantic content of refusals made by Japanese language students. Students applied the same pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic features corresponding to the ones in their L1 in producing discourse phrases to the scenarios that reflect different sociocultural contexts that they are not familiar with.

In this chapter, the findings obtained in response to the three research questions and the related hypotheses were interpreted and discussed. The next part, which serves as the conclusion, begins with an overview of the major findings and continues with some concluding opinions. Important pedagogical implications will also be addressed along with some suggestions regarding the possible directions for further study on the significance of developing pragmatic competence in the EFL classroom setting.

5. CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

This chapter provides a summary of the results followed by concluding remarks, pedagogical implications, and finally some suggestions for further research.

The current study was conducted to investigate the effects of two types of instruction: implicit instruction and explicit instruction on the pragmatic competence of Turkish EFL learners in a foreign language setting. Pragmatic competence is reframed as the ability to produce phrases for the situational prompts in a DCT, which was implemented as a measure in pre and posttest corresponding to four speech acts; namely: responding act, request, advice-giving, and refusal, in a pragmatically appropriate way. To find out the effect of these two instructions, a pretest and posttest research design was followed with two experimental and a control group involving 66 participants in a foundation university in Turkey. The data was analyzed quantitatively comparing the results of the tests both within the group and between the groups. Furthermore, percentage distributions of the groups were also applied to examine the responses of the students according to the speech act categories.

The study was guided by three hypotheses. The first hypothesis, which stated that the explicit group would show a significant increase in their pragmatic competence after the posttest, was not validated due to the fact that the control group also showed improvement. However, if not in all, the explicit group also improved their responses to a pragmatically appropriate level in the speech acts of request and refusal. It may be inferred that explicit instruction may not facilitate learning pragmatics due to the possible factors within the research context such as learner motivation, learner profile, the type of assessment measure, and the type of activity.

The second hypothesis stated that the implicit group would significantly increase their pragmatic competence on the post-test compared to the pre-test is confirmed. Results demonstrated that learners receiving implicit treatment developed their responses to an appropriate and native-like degree significantly in the posttest. We attribute the success of the implicit instruction to the operationalizing of two techniques: input enhancement

and recasts along with role-playing, which presumably assured students' attention to pragmatic features and help process these features.

The third hypothesis, which states that both experimental groups would be as successful as the other in terms of learners making proper use of speech actions, does not get support from the data. Even though the statistical results reveal no significant differences between the explicit and implicit instruction, only the implicit group outperformed the control group. Therefore, the findings seem to indicate that implicit teaching has been more effective.

In a nutshell, the outcomes of the current study have demonstrated that students learning English as a foreign language can improve pragmatic competence by participating in implicit learning.

The current study has been conducted to find out whether the particular type of teaching affects Turkish EFL learners' gaining pragmatic knowledge, and the findings have contributed to the ELT field in several respects. While ILP studies continue to rise in Turkey, instructional effects of pragmatics are still an area of inquiry. In the Turkish ELT context, the pragmatic aspect of language is mostly disregarded in the curricula. The primary emphasis of institutions and students is grammar because the evaluation method is based on linguistic mastery of the language. Therefore, the issue is that even the most advanced students perform pragmatic failures in communication. It is crucial for learners to develop a pragmatic competence to communicate effectively and prevent inappropriate behaviors in the social context in foreign language. In this vein, this study has indicated that an implicit way of introducing pragmatic features is effective for gearing learners with pragmatic competence, without the provision of metapragmatic information. The key factor is to include pragmatic content which can be integrated into the syllabus in a systematic way. Presumably, a further step for the development of students' pragmatic competence would be to add the assessment of the pragmatic elements into the general English evaluation system. Because Turkish students are subjected to an exam-based assessment system throughout their whole education program, this would also create a motive for the students to pay attention to pragmatic targets. However, it is considered that the feasibility of conditions in the educational institutions is not promising in this regard, since oral DCTs, role-plays and even WDCTs require the provision of additional

time and educators in order to be implemented in a mass education setting. Until then, as an effective way to enhance learners' pragmatic skills, teachers can involve pragmatic features in classroom instruction in an implicit way, without making major changes, as this study has revealed. Teachers also should provide students with the contextualized input and real-life situations which can be role-taking activities along with the visual materials. In this way, students can be exposed to authentic input which facilitates the development of sociopragmatic awareness in a limited foreign language learning environment.

On the basis of the findings and limitations of the present study, several suggestions for future research are made. Only one assessment measure was used to collect data in this study. Employing various and numerous measures such as self-assessment and metapragmatic assessment questionnaires, oral DCTs, observations, or role-plays will ensure more trustworthy results.

Studies on the effects of implicit instruction solely and its different operationalizing are few in number in Turkey, thus more studies are needed to give implications to the ELT field relating to the instructional ILP domain. Additionally, this study has been conducted over a 7-week period. Studies carried out over longer periods of time might bring out firmer results.

As previously reported, a delayed posttest was not possible to be implemented due to time constraints and institutional requirements. Applying a delayed posttest may reveal whether the instruction's effects would be sustainable or not. Further instructional research employing a delayed posttest are recommended.

A meta-analysis of the studies in interlanguage pragmatics in Turkey that have been carried on so far will provide solid scrutiny on the inquiry of 'How far we have come in pragmatics' in the field. It is strongly needed to assess the validity and reliability of the research designs since the research on instructed pragmatics is regarded to be novice and developing.

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APPENDICES

Appendix A. The Discourse Completion Task

Name&Surname:	
Age:	
Gender:	
English proficiency level:	
Years of English learning:	

Instructions

There are 18 situations described below. Please, read each situation and write down what you/the person would ***say*** in these situations.

1. Marie presents her friend Merve with a CD of English music as a gift.

Merve says:

_____

2. Mark asks a fellow student, Ahmet, if he wants to go have lunch after class.

Ahmet responds by saying:

_____

3. Marty asks, Ali, a fellow graduate student, "Do you mind if I borrow your dictionary?"

Ali answers:

_____

4. When asked if he would like a cup of coffee at a friend's house,

Mert responds by saying:

_____

5. Aylin orders a drink at a Starbucks by saying:

_____

6. What is meant when a native English speaker says "We should get together some time"?

You say:

_____

7. What should a speaker say in response when cashiers in supermarkets say, "Hi, how are you doing?"?

You say:

_____

8. What should a speaker say in response when service workers end a transaction by saying “Thank you. Have a nice day”?

You say:

_____

9. Jessica always cooks dinner, and Sandy and Roger clean up. However, Sandy just found out that she and Roger need to go out this evening. How does Sandy ask her sister Jessica, to do the cleaning this evening?

Sandy says:

_____

10. Sandy and Roger’s babysitter has just called to say that she is sick and can’t take care of their 3-year-old daughter tomorrow. Sandy can’t stay home from work, and neither can Roger. Sandy asks her sister to stay home and take care of Annie.

Sandy says:

_____

11. You are applying to a graduate school in the United States and are preparing application documents. The university requires two letters of recommendation. What would you say to a professor at your university to request a recommendation letter?

You say:

_____

12. It is not raining right now, but you know that a big storm is approaching. Your teacher is about to leave without his umbrella. You think he hasn’t heard about the storm. What would you say?

You say:

_____

13. Tomorrow you and your friend have a very important test. You have studied hard, so you are confident you’ll do well. Your friend hasn’t studiedat all and may fail the class. Tonight is the last chance to study. Your friend says: *let’s go out*

You say:

_____

14. Suggest that your friend shouldn’t buy a bright shirt.

You say:

_____

15. When helping a friend to edit her essay, you found that the essay contained many grammatical errors. This was a very close friend of yours.

You said:

_____

16. After a classmate’s presentation you were asked to give her some feedback. You thought that the presentation was not very well organized and sometimes she wondered off the topic.

You say:

_____

17. An old friend who you have not seen in a while is in town and has asked you to go to lunch next week, but you have to work. How would you respond to the invitation?

You say:

_____

18. A close friend has asked you to come to her house to watch a movie, but you don't really want to go, because you've already seen the movie and don't like it.

You say:

_____

Thanks for your participation.

Appendix B. Rating Scale

Not acceptable: A violation of a social norm, *a faux pas*, a likely instance of socio-pragmatic failure.

Problematic: An error that might cause misunderstanding, but of a less serious nature. Language so strange, unexpected, or garbled that interpretation is difficult Instances of pragma-linguistic and/or socio-pragmatic failure.

Acceptable: Clear and appropriate language but containing small errors which do not interfere seriously with native speakers' understanding.

Native-like/perfect: Close to native responses in content, syntax, and lexicon.

Not comprehensible: An utterance that is extremely hard, if not impossible, to comprehend. Often an instance of pragma-linguistic failure.

Resistant Non-native participants, although finding it possible to answer some items, refused to answer others, or gave reasons why they could not or would not answer particular items.

Appendix C. Module Lesson Plan

	Explicit Group	**Implicit Group**
Week 1	Pretest	Pretest
Week 2 Responding acts	Video Teacher Presentation Worksheet Practice	Listening Making Dialogues Role play
Week 3 Requests	Video Discussion Making Dialogues	Video Role play Worksheet Practice
Week 4 Advice-giving	Video Discussion Worksheet Practice	Video Making Dialogues Role play
Week 5 Refusal	Video Teacher Presentation Discussion	Making Dialogues Role play
Week 6 Revision	Making dialogues Role play	Making dialogues Role play
Week 7	Posttest	Posttest

Appendix D. Input-Enhanced Video Transcripts

Request Speech Act

Rob: **Do you mind if** I join you?

Monica: Of course not, come on, sit down!

R: Thank you!

M: I have to leave in a minute, anyway!

R: **Could** I have a large latte, please? Waiter: Of course!

Jenny: Rob this is Monica!

M: Nice to meet you, Rob!

R: You too, Monica! You know, Jenny talks about you a lot! And I've seen college photos of you two together at Jenny's parents' house!

J: Of course, you have! My dad's photos?

R: You've hardly changed at all! M: What a nice man! I can see why you like him, Jenny! The perfect English gentleman!

W: Your latte!

R: Oh, thanks! **Can** you pass the sugar? J: Sure.

M: Sorry guys, but I have to go!

R: You sure I haven't interrupted anything?

M: Not at all, it's just that I have to meet someone. But let's get together very soon!

J: We will!

M: Bye, Rob! Nice meeting you!

R: Bye! J: Bye! Talk soon!

R: She seems like a happy person!

J: She is, especially right now! She's getting married!

R: That's fantastic news!

J: Yeah, it is! I guess we are at that age now! Most of our friends are settling down and getting married.

R: Yeah… Oh, speaking of friends… I want to ask you a favor. **Is it OK if** we change our plans a bit this week?

J: Sure, what's up?

R: I've just had a call from an old friend of mine, Paul. I haven't seen him since we were at university and he's traveling around the States at the moment. Anyway, he's arriving in New York this evening and… I've invited him to stay for the week.

J: Cool! It'll be fun to meet one of your old friends. What's he like?"

R: Oh, Paul is a laugh! He used to be a bit wild, but… that was a long time ago, he's probably changed completely.

J: Well, I'm looking forward to meeting him.

R: Just one other thing… **Could** you do me a big favor? I have to work late this evening so… **would you mind** meeting him at the airport?

J: Not at all, I'd like to meet him!

R: And do you think you could take him to my flat? I'll give you the keys!

J: No problem, Rob!

R: Thank you so much, Jenny! You're a real star!

Advice-Giving Speech Act

Paul: So, what **shall** we do now?

Rob: What do you want to do?

P: Well, I haven't been on a dance floor for weeks now. I've got to move my body! **Let's go** dancing!

Jenny: I'm going running in the morning! **Why don't you** join me?

P: No thanks! I'm not very keen on running. But, I've read about this place called Deep Space where they play great music! We **could** go there!

J: A club? P: Well, **don't you feel like**… dancing?

J: Not on a Wednesday night. **What about** going to the late show at MoMA?

P: MoMA? What's that? J: MoMA? It's the Museum of Modern Art. There's a Kandinsky exhibition!

P: Yeah, but that isn't exactly my idea of a great night out.

J: **What about** staying in and watching a movie on TV?

P: I'm in New York! I can watch TV anywhere! (phone rings)

J: Who's that?

R: It's a text from Kerri. She's doing a gig at the Bowery Ballroom.

P: Kerri who?

R: Kerri Johnson. I interviewed her last week!

P: Kerri Johnson! I've seen her play live! She's cool! Do you like her Jenny?

J: I have to admit it, I'm not crazy about her music… or her for that matter!

P: I don't think so! So, **shall we** go there?

R: Why not? Actually, Kerri's staying very near here, and she doesn't know New York very well. We could meet her outside and go together.

P: That's a great idea!

R: I'll send her a text.

J: I think I might have an early night! You two can go on your own!

R: **Are you sure you don't mind**?

P: Of course, she doesn't mind!

J: No Rob, it's fine! Have another busy day tomorrow! You do too actually!

R: I know, we're meeting Don, I haven't forgotten! (gets a message) Oh, it's Kerri, she's on her way now!

P: What are we waiting for? **Let's** go!

Input-enhanced Dialogues

1.

A: What's up?

B: Nothing much, what's going on?

A: I'm having a party this Friday.

B: Oh, really? That's nice.

A: I wanted to see if you wanted to come.

B: This Friday? **Sorry**, I already have plans.

A: Doing what?

B: I'm going to dinner with my family.

A: I really wanted you to come, but I understand.

B: Yeah, **maybe next time**.

A: I'll hold you to that.

B: Sounds like a plan.

2.

A: Hey, what's good with you?

B: Not a lot. What about you?

A: I'm throwing a party on Friday.

B: That sounds like fun.

A: Do you think you can come?

B: **I'm sorry**. **I'm already** doing something this Friday.

A: What are you going to be doing?

B: My family and I are going to dinner.

A: I was hoping you would come.

B: **I'll definitely try to make it the next time**.

A: I'd better see you there.

B: All right. I'll see you next time.

3.

A: What's going on?

B: Nothing really. How about you?

A: A lot, like the party I'm having on Friday.

B: Well, that's cool.

A: Will you be able to make it?

B: **I'm busy** this Friday. **I'm sorry.**

A: What do you have to do?

B: I'm having dinner with my family

A: Maybe you can come next time.

B: **I'll make sure and come to your next party**.

A: I'll look for you at my next party.

B: I'll be there.

Appendix E. Video Links

https://www.bbc.co.uk/learningenglish/english/features/english-at-work/03-the-crisis

https://www.bbc.co.uk/learningenglish/english/features/english-at-work/05-polite-requests

https://www.bbc.co.uk/learningenglish/english/features/english-at-work/16-politely-refusing

https://www.bbc.co.uk/learningenglish/english/features/english-at-work/14-giving-feedback

https://www.bbc.co.uk/learningenglish/english/features/english-at-work/17-how-to-place-an-order

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=DcY4Y3ncbcM&list=LL&index=2

https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=xmzLIgoQnAk

Appendix F. Handout links

https://www.teach-this.com/images/resources/be-polite.pdf
https://www.teach-this.com/functional-activities-worksheets/making-requests

https://www.teach-this.com/images/resources/asking-for-and-giving-advice.pdf

https://downloads.bbc.co.uk/worldservice/learningenglish/howto/howto_decline_invitations.pdf

https://www.bbc.co.uk/worldservice/learningenglish/radio/specials/146_howto_accept/page2.shtml

https://bogglesworldesl.com/Listening/SuggestionBeg1.html

Appendix G. Role Plays

Role Play 1 - Responding Act

A **I'd love** to continue this conversation, but I really need to go now. **I have to** get back to the office.
B Well, **let's get together soon**.
A **How about** Friday?
B Friday sounds good. Where should we meet?
A (looks at watch) You know, **I really must be going now** or I'll be very late. Can you give me a call tomorrow and we'll decide?
B Fine. Speak to you then.
A **Sorry, I have to rush off like this**.
B That's okay. I understand.
A Good-bye.
B So long.

Role Play 2- Responding Act

A **Would you like to** go dancing with me this evening?
B **I'd love to**, but I'm just getting over the flu.
A Well, **why don't** we do something else like go to a movie?
B **Oh, no thanks, really**. I'm still too weak for anything.
A OK. **How about** dinner and dancing next Friday night?
B **That sounds great**. I'm sure I'll be all right by then.
A Great. See you then.

Role Play 3- Polite Invitation

Diarmuid: Catherine, are you free on Friday?
Catherine: I think so. Why?
Diarmuid: Well, I'm going to have a barbeque on Friday night, in my back garden – **I wondered if you'd like to come along**.
Catherine: Yeah, **I'd love to. That sounds really nice**.

Diarmuid: OK, you're not vegetarian are you?

Catherine: No, no I'm not.

Diarmuid: Ah, you'll be fine with burgers.

Diarmuid: What are you doing on Friday, Catherine?

Catherine: Er, I'm not sure yet. I might be going out but I haven't made any firm plans. Why?

Diarmuid: OK, well I'm going to have a dinner party at my house and **I would very much like it if you could come along**.

Catherine: Oh right, **yes I'd love to**. Is it a formal occasion?

Diarmuid: No, it's just a few old friends really. You'll… you'll… you'll have a good time, you'll like the people. About nine o'clock?

Catherine: That'd be lovely. Shall I bring a bottle?

Diarmuid: Oh I think so…!

Catherine: OK then!

Role Play 4- Refusal

Worksheet 4: Assessing Your Own Refusal

Role-play the following situation with a partner (decide on your gender before you start). Switch your roles. Audio record your dialogue and replay it later for self-analysis as necessary.

Role A (Chris, decide male or female): You are an owner of a large local restaurant. One day, you invite all your employees to a staff appreciation party.

It is going to be fun and you heard that most employees will probably attend. However, Terry, an employee about 20 years younger than you, has not RSVP-ed to your e-mail invitation. You are not sure why, and decide to invite him or her personally.

Role B (Terry, decide male or female): You've been working a part-time job at a large local restaurant for 6 months. One day, your boss and the store owner, Chris, who is about 20 years older than you, invites all the employees to a staff appreciation party. You hear that it is going to be fun and most of your coworkers will probably attend, but you are reluctant—you already have a date scheduled that night. You decide to skip the party and tell that to Chris as he or she talks to you.

Role Play 5 Request

1. Last week, you were sick and missed two class lectures for your history course. Since the exam is drawing near, you need to get the class notes from a classmate. Who do you chose and what do you say?

2. You are about to enter a music concert hall for a performance with a good friend. Just before buying a ticket, you realize that you are a bit short of money and you ask your friend to help you buy the ticket.

Role Play 6 Refusal

1. Last week, the instructor for your seminar invited the class to an informal party to be held two weeks later. A week later she runs into you on campus, she asks you if you will be able to join them. You have another party invitation that you have already accepted. What do you say?

2. You've just begun to work part-time. Your boss asks if you can cover for a co-worker tomorrow who just called in sick with the flu. In fact, you have a date scheduled for the first time in three weeks. Will your boy/girlfriend understand? Can you avoid working tomorrow? What do you say?

3. Several good friends of yours are treating you to dinner for your birthday. They offer to order you even more food and drink, but you've already had enough. What do you say?

Role Play 6 Responding Act

1. Now imagine that you are a student and a part-time teacher. This is the end of the semester and you have three important final exams and a long term paper to write this week. Due to your bad planning, you feel swamped. Ask your close friend and fellow teacher if he can teach for you this week. Your friend is sympathetic about your situation and accepts your request. You are really relieved to hear his response and thank him.

2. You and a friend travel to Rio de Janeiro and stay with your friend's uncle. He is a retired man who hosts you, feeds you, and shows you around during your entire stay. As you leave, what would you say? A month later, the uncle comes to your town and you see him at your friend's house. How might you thank him again for his previous kindness?

3. You borrowed class notes from a classmate. As you

return them, you thank him/her. Now imagine you are the classmate accepting the returned notes and the thanks. What would you say?

Appendix H. Hand Out

Quiz

How to decline invitations

(bbclearningenglish.com)

For each question choose the one correct answer.

1: How might you decline an invitation?

a: I'd love to but I'm meeting my dad

b: Sorry - I'd love to and I'm meeting my dad

c: I'd love to!

2: How might you decline an invitation?

a: Sorry, I'd like to

b: Sorry, I love to

c: Sorry, I can't

3: Complete the sentence: 'Sorry…'

a: I have got to meet my mother

b: I've got to meet my mother

c: I've to meet my mother

4: Q: Are you up for a pint later? **A:** Sorry….

a: I can't make it

b: I can't take it

c: I can't attend

5: '…. …. …. …. …. but I've got to meet my friend.'

a: Thank you for invite me

b: I really appreciate invite me

c: I really appreciate the invite

6: Q. Are you going to the match this Saturday? **A**: Ah no…

a: maybe last time

b: maybe this time

c: maybe next time

Answers

For each question choose the one correct answer.

1: How might you decline an invitation?

a: I'd love to but I'm meeting my dad

Correct – This is one way to decline an invitation

b: Sorry - I'd love to and I'm meeting my dad

Wrong – The word 'and' is wrong because it doesn't signal that you can't accept the invitation

c: I'd love to!

Wrong – You are accepting the invitation if you say this!

2: How might you decline an invitation?

a: Sorry, I'd like to

Wrong – If you use 'I'd like to' when you are declining an invitation, you must explain why you can't accept the invitation

b: Sorry, I love to

Wrong – If you use 'I'd love to' when you are declining an invitation, you must explain why you can't accept the invitation

c: Sorry, I can't

Correct – This is one way to decline an invitation

3: Complete the sentence: 'Sorry…'

a: I have got to meet my mother

Wrong – Grammatically this is fine but we would always use the short form here, i.e. 'I've got to…'

b: I've got to meet my mother

Correct – 'I've got to…' is an informal way of saying 'I have to…'

c: I've to meet my mother

Wrong – Grammatically this is fine but we would always use the long form here, i.e. 'I have to…'

4: Q: Are you up for a pint later? **A:** Sorry….

a: I can't make it

Correct – This is an informal way of saying you can't attend a meeting or event

b: I can't take it

Wrong – this phrase means that something is too difficult or painful for you, not that you can't attend a meeting or event

c: I can't attend

Wrong – Grammatically this is OK but it's too formal for this situation.

5: '…. …. …. …. …. but I've got to meet my friend.'

a: Thank you for invite me

Wrong – This wrong but you can say 'Thank you for inviting me'

b: I really appreciate invite me

Wrong – This is wrong but you can say 'I really appreciate your inviting me'

c: I really appreciate the invite

Correct – In spoken English, 'invite' is sometimes used as a noun instead of 'invitation'

6: Q. Are you going to the match this Saturday? **A**: Ah no…

a: maybe last time

Wrong – You are saying that you might be able to go to the next match, so 'last' is wrong

b: maybe this time

Wrong – You can't go this time, so 'this' is wrong

c: maybe next time

Correct – You are saying that you might be able to go to the next match

CURRICULUM VITAE

Dilehan FETTAHOĞLU

Eğitim

Yüksek Lisans 2019	Maltepe Üniversitesi, Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü İngiliz Dili Eğitimi
Lisans 2004	Anadolu Üniversitesi İngilizce Öğretmenliği
Lise 2000	Hasan Şadoğlu Süper Lisesi

İş/İstihdam

2022-	Öğretim Görevlisi	Yeditepe Üniversitesi
2017 -2021	Öğretim Görevlisi	Nişantaşı Üniversitesi
2015- 2016	İngilizce Öğretmeni	MEV Koleji
2014- 2015	İngilizce Öğretmeni	Akademi Koleji
2013-2014	İngilizce Öğretmeni	Doğa Koleji