Republic of Turkey

Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University

Graduate School of Educational Sciences

Department of Foreign Languages Education

English Language Teaching

The Effects of Explicit Film-based Instruction on English as a Foreign Language Teacher Trainees' Interpretation of Implied Meanings

Uğur Recep ÇETİNAVCI

(Doctoral Thesis)

Supervisor

Assist. Prof. Dr. İsmet ÖZTÜRK
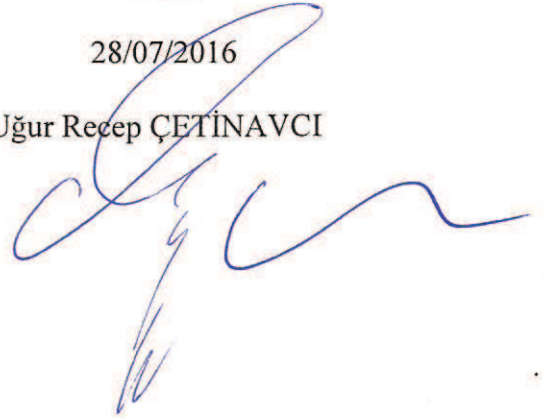
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September, 2016

Undertaking

I hereby declare that the Doctoral Thesis titled **"The Effects of Explicit Film-based Instruction on English as a Foreign Language Teacher Trainees' Interpretation of Implied Meanings"** has been completed in compliance with the scientific ethics and customs, and the sources that I utilized are thoroughly cited in the references section.

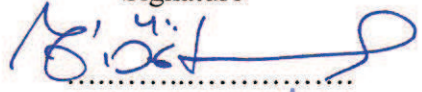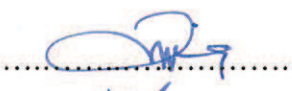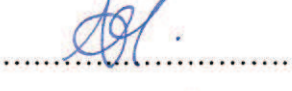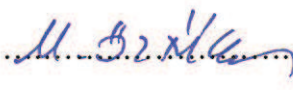Date

28/07/2016

Uğur Recep ÇETİNAVCI

Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University

Graduate School of Educational Sciences

Certification

We hereby certify that the report prepared by Uğur Recep ÇETİNAVCI and presented to the committee in the thesis defence examination held on 7 September 2016 was found to be satisfactory and has been accepted as a thesis for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

Thesis Reference No   : 10124374

	Academic Title	Full Name	Signature
Supervisor	Assist. Dr.	İsmet ÖZTÜRK	
Member	Assoc. Dr.	Aysun YAVUZ	
Member	Assoc. Dr.	Çavuş ŞAHİN	
Member	Assoc. Dr.	Ayşegül Amanda YEŞİLBURSA	
Member	Assist. Dr.	Meral ÖZTÜRK	

Date   : 03. 10. 2016

Signature :

Assoc. Prof. Dr. Salih Zeki GENÇ
Director, Graduate School of Educational Sciences

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Preface

"... but she ought to have known that one can't write like that to an idiot like you, for you'd

be sure to take it literally..." – From the novel called "The Idiot (Идиот)" by Fyodor

Mikhailovich DOSTOYEVSKY

It is an academically-reported reality that resort to nonliteral language is an everyday conversational strategy. Furthermore, being able to use them productively and/or receptively in communication is acknowledged to be one of the fundamental components of pragmatic competence, which is itself one of the interrelated types of knowledge that form the notion of general communicative competence in a target foreign or second language.

In this regard; helping future teachers of English, who will be supposed to help their own students to acquire pragmatic competence as well, to better interpret implied meanings as nonliteral language would be a worthy effort to be another small drop in the ocean of research.

Considering my long, tiring journey to the final point of this study, I would like to express my deep gratitude first and foremost to my supervisor Assist. Prof. Dr. İsmet ÖZTÜRK, who gave me the inspiration and support (in every sense of the word) that I very often needed pressingly. I give my heartfelt thanks also to Assoc. Prof. Dr. Aysun YAVUZ and Assoc. Prof. Dr. Çavuş ŞAHİN, who always kept lighting my way with their encouragement and insightful feedback as the members of my thesis supervising committee. I am deeply thankful to Assoc. Prof. Dr. Ayşegül Amanda YEŞİLBURSA and Assist. Prof. Dr. Meral ÖZTÜRK as well, who devoted their time to attend my thesis defense examination and gave me some great ideas about the finishing touches to my work.

Thinking back over their amazingly constructive participation in the study as the subjects, I feel much obliged also to my students and dozens of native speakers of English,

Özet

İma Yollu İfadelerin Yorumlanmasında Filmlere Dayalı Öğretimin İngilizce Öğretmeni Adayları Üzerindeki Etkileri

Bu araştırmanın amacı, iletişimsel yeterliliğin bileşenlerinden biri olan edimbilim becerilerinin "ima yollu ifadeler" boyutunda Türkiye'deki İngilizce öğretmeni adaylarının ne derece yetkin olduklarını ortaya çıkarmak ve saptanan eksikliklerin giderilmesine dönük araştırmacı tarafından geliştirilmiş filmsel materyallere dayalı, görsel/işitsel bir öğretim programının etkinliğini sınamaktır. Araştırma; ön test, öğretim süreci ve son test uygulamasına dayalı ve yarı deneysel desen kullanılarak yürütülmüştür. İlk olarak, yine araştırmacı tarafından geliştirilmiş bir "çoktan seçmeli söylem tamamlama testi", 127 kişilik bir "anadili İngilizce olanlar grubuna" ve 144 kişilik bir "1. sınıf İngilizce öğretmeni adayları" grubuna verilmiştir. Ardından, öğretmen adayları 77 kişilik bir deney grubu ve 67 kişilik bir kontrol grubu oluşacak şekilde, yansız atama (randomization) gerçekleştirilmeden ikiye bölünmüştür. Öğretim programı 5 hafta süreyle yalnızca deney grubuna uygulandıktan sonra, araştırmanın temel veri toplama aracı olan "çoktan seçmeli söylem tamamlama testi" her iki gruba da bir kez daha verilmiştir. Bir sonraki adımda ise, nitel ve nicel veri analizi yöntemlerini bir "üçgenleme (triangulation)" anlayışı içinde birlikte kullanma adına, deney grubu içinden seçilmiş belirli katılımcılar ile yarı yapılandırılmış mülakatlar yapılmıştır. Böylelikle, öğretim sonrasında gözlenen olumlu performans değişimlerinin ne oranda öğretim kaynaklı olduğu ve olumsuz sonuçların da sebepleri aydınlatılmaya çalışılmıştır.

Testin uygulamalarından elde edilen nicel veriler SPSS 22.0 programı ile analiz edilmiştir. Öğretmen adayları ve anadili İngilizce olan katılımcıların test skorları, ve deney ve kontrol gruplarının ön test/son test arası skor farklarının ortalamaları Mann Whitney U testi ve

t-test ile kıyaslanmıştır. Nitel mülakat verileri ise tekrar eden temaların saptanmasına dönük bir içerik çözümlemesi yöntemi ile analiz edilmiştir.

Testlerden sağlanan nicel verilere göre, İngilizcedeki ima yollu ifadelerin yorumlanmasında gerek doğruluk gerekse de hız anlamında, anadili İngilizce olanlarla öğretmen adayları arasında ilk grup lehine anlamlı bir fark çıkmıştır. Çalışmadaki deney ve kontrol grupları arasında ise, öğretim sürecinden geçmiş olan deney grubu lehine büyük ölçüde anlamlı bir fark bulunmuştur. Mülakatlardan elde edilen nitel veriler de, söz konusu performans artışının temel olarak öğretim sürecinden kaynaklanmış olduğunu desteklemektedir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Edimbilim, Edimbilim öğretimi, Edimbilimsel yeterlilik, Film, İma yollu (sezdirili) ifadeler, İngilizcenin bir yabancı dil olarak öğretimi, İngilizce öğretmeni eğitimi

Abstract

The Effects of Explicit Film-based Instruction on
English as a Foreign Language Teacher Trainees' Interpretation of Implied Meanings

The aim of this study is to investigate how Turkish teachers of English as a Foreign Language (EFL) interpret implied meanings, which is a component of pragmatic competence as one of the indispensable sub-competences that constitute general communicative competence, and to test the efficiency of a researcher-developed audiovisual instruction program to help learners better interpret implied meanings. The study was conducted with a quasi-experimental design based on the implementation of a pretest, instruction period and posttest. First of all, a multiple-choice discourse completion test was given to a group of 127 native speakers of English and a group of 144 1st year English language teacher trainees. Next, the trainees were divided into one experimental group of 77 people and one control group of 67 people with no randomization. After the instruction program was given only to the experimental group for 5 weeks, the multiple-choice discourse completion test was administered once again to both groups. Next, in order to employ quantitative and qualitative data analysis methods together within the concept of "triangulation" in social sciences, semi-structured interviews were carried out with some particular participants in the experimental group. The aim was to reveal the extent to which the positive performance changes after the instruction could be attributed to the instruction itself and to understand the sources of the repeating errors.

The quantitative data provided by the test administrations were analyzed with SPSS 22.0. The test scores of the teacher trainees and native speakers and the mean differences between the pre and posttest scores of the experimental and control group participants were

compared with Mann Whitney U test and t-test. The qualitative interview data were analyzed with content analysis method focused on determining the recurring themes in the responses.

According to the results, a significant difference was found between the native speakers and teacher trainees in favor of the former in terms of both accuracy and speed at the interpretation of implied meanings in English. When it comes to the comparison between the experimental and control group in the study, significant differences were found in favor of the experimental group, who had taken the instruction. The data provided by the interviews confirmed the fact that the positive performance change sourced mainly from the instruction period.

Keywords: English language teacher training, Film, Implied meanings (implicature), Pragmatics, Pragmatic competence, Teaching English as a foreign language, Teaching pragmatics

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List of Abbreviations

ACTFL: American Council of Teachers of Foreign Languages

B.A.: Bachelor of Arts

CCM: Communicative Competence Model

CEF or CEFR: The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

ELT: English Language Teaching

ESL: English as a Second Language

FL: Foreign Language

ILP: Interlanguage Pragmatics

L1: First Language

LYS: National Level University Admission Exam

M.A.: Master of Arts

MDCT: Multiple-choice Discourse Completion Test

NNEST: Non-native English-speaking Teacher

NNESTC: Non-native English-speaking Teacher Candidate

NNS: Non-native Speaker

NNSs: Non-native Speakers

NS: Native Speaker

NSs: Native Speakers

L2: Second Language

SLA: Second Language Acquisition

TOEFL: Test of English as a Foreign Language

TV: Television

U.S.: The United States of America

Chapter I. Introduction

It is an obvious fact that every language learning experience is for the sake of developing some competences so that the learner could use the target language for effective communication in different contexts. In this regard, as a practice that started hundreds of years ago, language teaching has always sought the best ways possible to help the achievement of the abovementioned aim.

Nevertheless, up until a certain time, the competences that a language learner/speaker is supposed to have were not defined in terms of content, scope and/or constructs. Sciences like linguistics, language acquisition and language teaching needed long years to get institutionalized as interrelated domains with each other. With their growth, recent decades have witnessed the efforts to conceptualize language study as a system. Many researchers have reported on what it takes to communicate effectively and defined some competences and types of knowledge that a language speaker would need to have.

In this regard, Noam Chomsky pioneered to introduce the term "competence" in modern linguistics, which referred basically to the knowledge of grammar rules. On the grounds of a critical perspective on Chomsky, Dell Hymes laid the foundations for the notion of "communicative competence", which takes into account not only what is grammatical but also the situations in which what is grammatical is appropriate, and what rules relate the two (Hymes, 1971, p. 45). Within this framework, the following years saw the emergence and evolution of new communicative competence models, where one can now see that "pragmatic competence" is an essential constituent as "the ability to process and use language in context".

Research Problem

Problem statement. In the light of the fact that pragmatic competence is one of the interrelated competences that a language learner would need to have in order to be an

effective language user, language education practices automatically become worth examining in terms of pragmatic competence development.

In this regard, the relevant body of research has touched upon some key issues mentioned briefly below and detailed with due references in the "literature review" section.

Subproblems

Grammatical competence versus pragmatic competence. We can specify that having grammatical competence on its own would not guarantee a parallel level of pragmatic competence. This can be claimed to be particularly important in terms of an "English as a Foreign Language (EFL)" context like the one in Turkey, about which the pertinent literature reports the fact that language teaching practices, materials and assessment tend to be grammar-oriented.

Neglect of pragmatic competence as an instructional target. No matter if grammar-oriented or not, EFL teaching programs have especially been reported to be in an air of "neglect" about making pragmatic competence a curricular or instructional target. There have also been arguments suggesting that raising pragmatic competence is underrepresented in EFL / English as a Second Language (ESL) teacher education programs as well, which would be alarming in terms of the supposition that an effective teacher needs to be knowledgeable about different pragmatic issues so that s/he can make sensible decisions to appropriately teach and assess pragmatic competence in his/her own profession.

Pragmatic competence as a stronger need in foreign language contexts. Like in abovementioned cases when specific focus is not given on pragmatic competence development, achieving an adequate level of pragmatic competence has not been reported to be possible with mere exposure to the input received throughout a language education program. This problem is deemed even more serious in foreign language (FL) contexts, where the chances of processing sufficient authentic input would be significantly minimal.

Against the argument that the artificiality of FL classroom environment is meant to be counterbalanced by textbooks, the relevant body of research claims that the language authenticity offered by such materials is debatable. Another claim is that textbooks fail to provide adequate and proper pragmatic input to learners.

Pragmatic flaws and communication at risk. We should state that the abovementioned reports get more meaningful in the light of some other research findings with a different perspective, which suggest the following: Pragmatic flaws might pose the risk of causing communication failures in encounters with native speakers (NSs) of the language as they might tend to evaluate pragmatic errors more severely than grammatical ones and even build offensive stereotyping on the basis of misunderstandings.

Implied meanings as a lesser-investigated area of pragmatics. Besides the abovementioned points, when considering the research agenda "within pragmatics", we reach reports suggesting that the study of pragmatics has given its "descriptive focus" on "speech acts" and to a lesser extent on the other pragmatic areas. These areas include implied meanings too, which have been found to be troublesome for learners to interpret even after constant and prolonged exposure to the target language in a second language environment. Given this observation and the general neglect on pragmatics in language teaching, it would be easy to predict that indirectly conveyed meanings have not been frequently made "an instructional focus" in language education either.

Turkish as an underrepresented first language background in pragmatic studies. To conclude, we might add the assertion in the literature that most instructional pragmatic studies (no matter on implied meanings or not) include learners with English, Japanese, Cantonese, German, Hebrew and Spanish as their first language (L1). In this regard; Turkish, which is the L1 of the participants in the current study's instructional phase, has been a less represented L1 background in studies that examine instructional effectiveness in target language pragmatics.

Purpose of the Study

Taking account of the considerations above, the present study was intended to be a multipurpose one. The aims pursued are listed below:

* With a valid and recent multiple-choice discourse completion test (MDCT) to be developed, to compare how and in what speed native speakers of English and Turkish EFL teacher trainees interpret the implied meanings in English that are covered in this study.

* To test the effectiveness of a video-based instruction program specially designed to help learners better and faster interpret the implied meanings in question.

Importance of the Study

Developing a broad and up-to-date test as data collection instrument. Given the explicit acknowledgement of the importance that pragmatic competence has in overall communicative competence, this study firstly attempts to develop a valid and updated test to measure pragmatic comprehension about an essential constituent of pragmatics: "implicature (implied meanings)" (Levinson, 1983). When going into the details of the test, one can see that it makes an attempt to include some previously under-investigated implied meanings like "requestive hints (indirect requests)", "disclosures" and "indirect advice" in a MDCT format, which has been the principal method of investigating implicature comprehension. This attempt can be seen also as a response to a call by Lawrence F. Bouton's. As the first scholar who experimentally investigated implicature comprehension in second language (L2) with a MDCT, Bouton (1992, p. 64) highlighted the need to broaden our understanding of the different types of implied meanings that exist and to investigate which of them could be troublesome to learners of English and why. This is confirmed by Taguchi (2005, p. 545) as well, who specified that different implied meaning types to be integrated into the design of studies could help us better understand and learn more about pragmatic comprehension in a target language.

Measuring speed together with accuracy of performance. Computerized with a specially-designed program and convenient to take online, the test is believed to have been given another important feature: ability to measure each test taker's response times for every single test item and the whole test. This was triggered mainly by the perspective put by Taguchi (2005, 2007, 2008, 2011a), who noted that not many studies had addressed fluency or processing speed in language learners' pragmatic performance.

We have reasonable grounds for arguing that processing speed deserves an independent analysis as it is considered to form a different dimension of language performance than accuracy (Brumfit, 2000; Koponen & Riggenbach, 2000; Schmidt, 1992). Seen from the viewpoint of interlanguage pragmatics, fluency is when one exerts automatic control over exploitation of pragmatic knowledge in real time (Kasper, 2001). Real-time comprehension suggests transformation of information into thought as fast as it is received, or the ability to process quickly the intended interpretations in given contexts (Taguchi, 2005). In this regard, being based on the recognition of the mismatch between what is given by the language form itself (Verschueren, 1999) and what is really intended with it, interpreting implied meanings would take a relatively long time, and even longer for language learners.

Taking account of all the points above, the researcher deemed it important to measure "speed" together with "accuracy" so that the participants could be compared to NSs of English in terms of processing speeds as well. Diagnosing about this in the very beginning would also make it possible to examine the effects of instruction in the end on the speed of accurate implied meanings interpretation. In addition to these, with the ability of response time measurement, the computerized test as the principal data collection instrument of this study can be claimed to have enhanced validity because processing speed in interaction does matter in authentic communication.

Focusing on an important component of pragmatics. "Implicature (Implied meanings)" as the focus is believed to be adding to the significance of the current study as the aim here is to respond to the remarks that the target of pragmatics studies has mostly been "speech acts" and to a lesser extent the other pragmatic areas, including implicature (Bardovi-Harlig & Shin, 2014; Roever, 2006). In this context, to shed more light on the significance of this study, it would be worthwhile here to present the scholarly approach that has been developed to implied meanings in communication.

We know it was decades ago that implicature was claimed to be an absolutely "unremarkable and ordinary" conversational strategy (Green, 1989, p. 92), far from being a rhetorical trick that only clever and accomplished writers and conversationalists use (Green, 1996, p. 66). It is used frequently and extensively in daily conversation (Matsuda, 1999). For instance, in specific terms of English behavior standards and implied meanings conveyed through "irony", Fox (2004) indicates that the English employ irony as a constant, normal element of everyday conversation and it is the prevalent ingredient in English humor, which might sometimes prove difficult for foreigners. In this context, it would be quite predictable that if irony is difficult for learners of English when spoken, it presents them with a bigger problem when written. Pointing out the difficulty of keeping irony the way it was originally meant when translating written texts, Hatim (1997) reports that Arabic language as an example is intolerant to how irony can succinctly express an attitude without much said.

Within the framework set above, Lakoff (2009, p. 104) posits that strict adherence to directness does not necessarily represent 'ideal' communication, and he states that part of the communicative competence expected of a speaker situated in a culture is the ability to know when to be alert for implicature and *how to process implicature-based utterances* [italics added]. Likewise, McTear (2004, p. 52) asserts that indirectly conveyed meanings are a very important aspect of conversational competence because people often use indirect language for

a variety of purposes like to be sarcastic, to be polite or to soften a request. In a similar vein, postulating that implicit communication strategies are very often used in everyday conversations, Pichastor (1998, p. 7) indicates that such strategies should not be underrepresented in textbook materials so that their value could be exploited by learners. In a parallel manner, Bardovi-Harlig (2001, p. 30) declares that assisting learners in comprehending indirect speech acts and implicature by presenting authentic input should be considered an action of "fair play: giving the learners a fighting-chance" (Yoshida, 2014, p. 262). This "assist" can be considered to rise even more in importance when we take account of the facts that it is often difficult for an L2 learner to notice how people in a given culture express meaning indirectly (Wolfson, 1989) and L2 learners often show an inclination for literal interpretation, taking utterances at face value in lieu of deducing what is meant from what is said (Kasper, 1997).

Taking a look at pragmatic competence and implicature from the viewpoint of some teaching and assessment practices that have been accorded wide recognition, we can assume that the significance of implied meanings, thus that of the present study, is added even more. As Taguchi (2013) notes, communicative language teaching model and the notional-functional approach have covered pragmatics as important instructional objectives. Standardized models that guide L2/FL teaching and assessment such as ACTFL (American Council of Teachers of Foreign Languages, 1999) and the Common European Framework (Council of Europe, 2001) have also earmarked pragmatic competence as part of the target construct of measurement, which has backed up the claim that pragmatic competence should be an instruction and testing concern (Wyner & Cohen, 2015). When it comes specifically to implied meanings within the wider notion of pragmatic competence, we see that multiple-choice items testing implicature are found in the Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) listening section (TOEFL Planner, 2010, pp. 52-55). In one example, a 30-turn

conversation is played, then test takers are asked to complete 5 multiple choice comprehension questions, the last two of which are pragmatics items (Bardovi-Harlig & Shin, 2014, p. 41).

In terms of the perspective put above, the present study is a pioneering one among the doctoral dissertations in Turkey which aims to investigate the comprehension of implied meanings in English by EFL teacher trainees from Turkey, who can also be viewed as relatively advanced learners in a foreign language learning context.

Developing and testing a new instructional kit based on filmic materials. In addition to its test-development and descriptive investigation aspect, this study aims to address the aforementioned "neglect" of pragmatics in language teaching practices, which would naturally cover instruction on implied meanings as well. Pursuing this aim, the present study is intended to be the first one in Turkey on the effects of a specially designed instruction program based on filmic materials that aim to facilitate the comprehension of implied meanings. With this instructional/experimental aspect making it also an interventionist (interventional) study, it is hoped to gain "a material development dimension" as well in the relative dearth of studies that utilize video-vignettes as an input source to develop pragmatic comprehension (Derakhshan & Birjandi, 2014). This dearth can be viewed as pointing to an important gap to be bridged in the relevant body of research when we consider postulations like in Abrams (2014: 58), where films are noted as an ideal medium for teaching students about pragmatic strategies, both for learning and *as a springboard for language use* [italics added] (Cohen, 2005; Tatsuki & Nishizawa, 2005). With a broader look, the instructional aspect of the study is intended to bridge the gap voiced in Wyner and Cohen (2015, p. 542) as follows: Few L2/FL teacher development courses provide *practical techniques* for teachers to integrate pragmatics instruction into their respective classrooms.

Being conducted in a FL context. It is believed that the significance of this study grows due to the fact that it was carried out in a FL context, where learners' opportunities to come into contact with the target language are not plenty (Alagözlü, 2013; Martinez-Flor & Soler, 2007) and instruction is reported to be necessary in developing learners' pragmatic awareness/ability (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001; Kasper, 1997, 2001a) as they will be very likely to view it as "unimportant" or even nonexistent if the teachers do not give it enough attention (Wyner & Cohen, 2015, p. 542).

Being conducted in an EFL teacher training context. Another constituent of the significance of this study is based on the fact that its pragmatic instructional component addresses non-native English-speaking teacher trainees, who are not necessarily highly competent in the target language (Wyner & Cohen, 2015, p. 542) and who would be in a disadvantageous position when compared to native speaker (NS) teachers of English in many areas like vocabulary knowledge, pronunciation and pragmatics (Coşkun, 2013; McNeill, 1994; Milambiling, 1999). As indicated in Eslami and Eslami-Rasekh (2008, pp. 191- 192), while research shows that non-native English-speaking teacher candidates (NNESTCs) do not feel confident about their English language proficiency and while their pragmatic competence may be far from being as strong as their organizational competence (Pasternak & Bailey, 2004), there is lack of research on enhancing the language proficiency of NNESTs in general, and their pragmatic competence in particular. In addition, teacher education programs do not seem to focus much on pragmatic aspects of language and effective techniques for teaching pragmatics (Bardovi-Harlig, 1992; Biesenback-Lucas, 2003; Eslami, 2011; Taguchi, 2011b; Vásquez & Sharpless, 2009) despite the fact that teacher training is critical as it unavoidably influences the ways in which instructional assets and practices are made use of.

Given the remarks above, it is quite predictable that EFL students, teacher trainees and teacher education in Turkey would not be significantly different. This has been reported in

several studies from different perspectives. Karatepe (2001) found that the trainees in two Turkish EFL teacher-training institutions were assumed to pick up pragmalinguistic features of English just along the process of training. Alagözlü and Büyüköztürk (2009) determined the pragmatic comprehension level of 25 Turkish EFL teacher trainees to be relatively low. That level was later found as prone to remain low even after three and a half years of formal instruction (Alagözlü, 2013). Bektas-Cetinkaya's (2012) results demonstrate that pre-service EFL teachers are liable to perform speech acts in ways that are different from native speaker norms. In this context, the present study makes an attempt to teach a major area of pragmatics to future EFL teachers, who will be supposed to help their own students to have pragmatic competence as well. We believe this takes on even more importance in the light of reports like Wyner and Cohen's (2015, p. 542), which posits that L2/FL teacher development courses should mandate coursework in pragmatics and its instruction, and Ishihara's (2011), where a demonstrated proficiency in pragmatics is considered a prospective requirement for a certificate or diploma for any future L2/FL teacher.

Being conducted with participants with a less studied L1 background. Another gap that this study aims to fill is the reported scarcity of research on the effect of pragmatic instruction on participants from less studied L1 backgrounds (like Turkish, which is the L1 of the present study's participants). In this regard, with its descriptive and instructional aspects, this study aims to expand interventional studies that investigate the enhancement of pragmatic competence in an EFL context (Bardovi-Harlig & Griffin, 2005; Schauer, 2006). As Rose (2005, p. 389) states, most instructional pragmatic studies include learners coming from English, Japanese, Cantonese, German, Hebrew and Spanish as their L1 and future research needs to expand the range of L1s and target languages to enable investigators and language educators to better assess whether and to what extent findings from studies of a particular L1 or target language may be transferable to other language pairings.

Limitations of the Study

      Lack of an international proficiency test in the beginning. First of all, it should be mentioned that the teacher trainee participants of this study, who had come to university level with similar academic backgrounds by passing the national university admission exam, were hypothesized to be advanced learners of English that form a relatively homogeneous group. For practical and administrative reasons, it was not possible for the researcher to administer an internationally recognized proficiency exam like TOEFL in the beginning. For this reason, apart from their previous study of English for almost ten years, there is no standardized data on how good each one of the participants' English was at the outset.

      Use of a reading instrument to collect data. Like in a considerable amount of existing L2 research, this study attempts to measure comprehension ability of implied meanings by a reading instrument (i.e., participants try to identify implied meanings by reading conversations). As people "see and hear", not read, in most conversations in real-life communication and as interlocutors cannot control the rate of exposure to the information imparted, it might be argued that the data collection method in this study faces some authenticity and construct validity threats. This is corroborated by researchers like Yamanaka (2003, p. 129), who emphasizes the obvious advantage of a video-based versus other test types of pragmatic comprehension, particularly the interpretation of indirectness, for which clues such as setting, tone of voice, facial expressions, and gestures can convey so much meaning.

      At this point, before mentioning the major reasons why a video-based test was not used in this study, the researcher feels the need to express his full agreement that people do make use of nonverbal signs like gestures to interpret what is said at any one time and in any one place. However, when we take the example of "irony" as a part of the test used in the present

study, we can draw attention to also some remarks like Fox's (2004), who indicates that "a deadpan face" would be the expected norm for irony in the English code of behavior.

In order to address the rightful oppositions that audiovisual test items could have been employed for data collection, the central point to be raised would be the fact that all the participants of this study responded to the data collection instrument by reaching an online test given through a specially-written computer program. Furthermore, a considerable number of the participants (all the native speakers and all the EFL teacher trainees when they participated at the delayed post-test phase) took the test online and wherever and whenever they felt free to. Under these conditions, the researcher could not dare to take the risk of using large sound and video files that might be transferred too slowly over the web, which can lead to unacceptable wait times (Roever, 2005) in an online test with an automatic time limit. On the other hand, with a limited number of native speakers around him with different professions, the researcher did not have the chance to prepare audio or video-based extracts where people would speak and act naturally enough not to mislead the watchers or listeners. This concern stemmed also from considerations like Gruba's (2000) (as cited in Roever, 2005, p. 49). He indicated that test takers might use visual aids very differently and feel more impeded by visuals than aided, which makes a great deal of validation work on audiovisual items essential. Taking account of all these and the possibility of getting access to many more participants, the researcher decided to use a (computerized) reading instrument as the main data collection instrument of the present study, which had already been the case in a significant number of inspiring related studies like Bouton (1994), Kubota (1995), Lee (2002) and Roever (2005).

Failure to randomize the participant groups. Another limitation could be the fact that the teacher trainee subjects were not randomly appointed to the experimental and control group in advance, which gives the present study a quasi-experimental design.

The pertinent literature gives premises as that of Watt's (2015, p. 95), who state that it is likely in ESL research that the quasi-experimental design will serve as an appropriate approach in which new ideas or techniques could be evaluated. Nevertheless, in response to some justifiable criticisms about the limitation discussed here, the primary argument would be the fact that the groups in this study were formed according to the specific classes where they had been enrolled because the university statutes require it. On the other hand, as Koike and Pearson (2005, p. 485) put it, while such practice challenges the validity of results, it does reflect the normal classroom populations at mid-size and large public universities. Moreover, the normally distributed pretest scores of the experimental and control group subjects were compared using a t-test at the very beginning of the research, which did show that there was no significant difference between them (*p= .108* as *p > 0.05*) in terms of the main point of investigation in this study.

Limited generalizability of the results. It should be mentioned that because the subjects were limited to the first-year EFL teacher candidates at a national state university in Turkey, the findings cannot be viewed as easily generalizable beyond the first year undergraduate students at English Language Teaching (ELT) departments.

Construct validity of the instructional materials. Another limitation of this study should come from the sources that were used for the instruction. As mentioned before, the participants were provided an audiovisual instruction program on the target implied meanings and the basis for this program was clips from television (TV) series, commercials and movies. Although the main source was the sitcom called "Friends (1994)", whose language has been academically acknowledged for approximating to every day American English, and although hundreds of script pages were perused by the researcher to find the best scenes possible to exemplify the target implied meanings, it cannot be possible to claim that the conversations in the scenes accurately represent the ways the implied meanings in question would occur in

real-life communication. As Abrams (2014, p. 58) puts it, instructors and learners should be aware of the fact that not all films can provide all types of modeling and the interactions in films are processed through some *lenses* [italics added]. In this regard, an adequate number of examples to be taken out of a spoken language corpus might have worked better in a study like this one. However, as Grant and Starks (2001) argue, authentic speech samples can be difficult to find and record, especially to provide sufficient variation and modeling in terms of several different aspects of interaction.

Inconvenience of clear-cut pragmatic norms in multiculturalism. To conclude, it should be noted that the ways English NSs were found to interpret the implied meanings included and the gains that learners would hopefully have from the instructional phase of the study may not matter much to those who aim to learn English with the goal of bilingual or multilingual competence, which would enable them to participate in international discourse and to interact with people from a range of cultures for the purpose of business, education or diplomacy (DuFon, 2008, p. 29). It is reported that the vast majority of interactions involving English take place in the absence of native speakers, and English as a lingua franca is increasingly used as a means of international communication in the current era of globalization and multiculturalism (Taguchi, 2011b, p. 303). In this regard, teaching according to some idealized and homogeneous native speaker norms would be rightfully questionable in this new era of transnationalism.

As a response to criticism that could be voiced from this viewpoint, we can remind the fact that the present study aims to develop awareness of an empirically defined constituent of (English) pragmatics, rather than to characterize some norms that learners are expected to follow dutifully while producing the language in communication. On the other hand, it must be nothing but research of this kind in the end to meet the needs of EFL learners for example, who move to the target language community to either study or pursue a career, where

sophisticated pragmatic competence in the L2 becomes essential since pragmatically inappropriate language can cause pragmatic failure by unintentionally violating social appropriateness in the target culture (Economidou-Kogetsidis, 2015, p. 2).

Research Questions

With an up-to-date MDCT developed and piloted more than once for its hopefully enhanced reliability and validity, this study set out to compare how and in what speed native speakers (NSs) of English and Turkish EFL teacher trainees interpret implied meanings in English. The study also aimed to test the efficiency of a video-based instruction program devised to help learners better and faster interpret those implied meanings. In this regard, the following research questions guided the study:

1) Is there a difference in the comprehension accuracy of implied meanings in English between NSs of English and Turkish EFL teacher trainees?

2) Is there a difference in the comprehension speed of implied meanings in English between NSs of English and Turkish EFL teacher trainees?

3) Does instruction based on filmic materials make a difference in trainees' comprehension accuracy of implied meanings in English?

4) Does instruction based on filmic materials make a difference in trainees' comprehension speed of implied meanings in English?

Hypotheses

1) NSs of English will do significantly better than the trainees in the comprehension accuracy of implied meanings in English.

2) NSs of English will do significantly better than the trainees in the comprehension speed of implied meanings in English.

3) Instruction based on filmic materials will make a significantly positive difference in the trainees' comprehension accuracy of implied meanings in English.

4) Instruction based on filmic materials will make a significantly positive difference in the trainees' comprehension speed of implied meanings in English.

Definitions

Explicit (pragmatic) instruction. The way of instruction that makes the targeted pragmatic feature the object of metapragmatic treatment via conscious description, explanation, or discussion (Kasper, 2001).

Implicature. A component of speaker meaning that constitutes an aspect of what is meant in a speaker's utterance without being part of what is said (Horn, 2004, p. 3).

Implied meaning. Ideas, feelings and impressions that are not necessarily expressed in words, but communicated implicitly (Gutt, 1996, p. 240).

Interlanguage pragmatics. The branch of second language research which studies how non-native speakers understand and carry out linguistic action in a target language and how they acquire L2 pragmatic knowledge (Kasper, 1992, p. 203).

Interventionist (interventional) study. A study that examines the effect of a particular instructional treatment on students' acquisition of a targeted (pragmatic) feature or features (Kasper, 1999).

Multiple-choice discourse completion task. A task which requires respondents to read a written description of a situation and select what would be best to say in that situation (Rose & Kasper, 2001).

Pragmatic competence. Knowledge of the linguistic resources available in a given language for realizing particular illocutions, knowledge of the sequential aspects of speech acts and finally, knowledge of the appropriate contextual use of the particular languages' linguistic resources (Barron, 2003, p. 10).

Pragmatics. The study of meaning as communicated by a speaker (or writer) and interpreted by a listener (or reader) in a particular context (Yule, 1996: 3).

Chapter II. Literature Review

The following parts provide a review of the literature in terms of several interrelated areas. Section 2.1 provides information about the evolution of pragmatic competence within the broader notion of communicative competence. Section 2.2 touches upon some fundamental issues within the framework of pragmatics, pragmatic competence and language learning. Section 2.3 narrows the scope down to the review of the literature on pragmatics and implied meanings, which is the central focus of the present study. In accordance with the instructional dimension of the study, section 2.4 gives a broader look at the literature on "teaching pragmatics" first, and then focuses specifically on "teaching implied meanings" together with the types included in the present study.

Evolution of Pragmatic Competence in Overall Communicative Competence

The notion of linguistic competence. Within a historical perspective, we can see that the previous century saw the institutionalization of scientific domains like linguistics, language acquisition and language teaching. This has been accompanied by their growing communication with one another and some informed efforts to conceptualize what types of knowledge an efficient language user would need to have to interact with others. In this context, Noam Chomsky (1965) was the first scholar to introduce the term "competence" in modern linguistics, which then referred fundamentally to the knowledge of grammar.

He viewed the study of language as a system that is free from any given context of language use, from which the concept of linguistic (syntactic, lexical, morphological, phonological) competence developed. This gives the linguistic basis for the rules of usage, which normally provides accuracy in comprehension and performance through the medium of the system of internalized rules about the language that makes it possible for a speaker to construct new grammatical sentences and to understand sentences spoken to him, to reject some as un-English and to diagnose some others as ambiguous (Paulston, 1974, p. 350).

The following years saw a considerable amount of criticism leveled against "linguistic competence", a very large part of which concerned

the inadequacy of Chomsky's attempts to explain language in terms of the narrow notions of the linguistic competence of an ideal hearer-speaker in a homogeneous society. Such a speaker is likely to become institutionalized if he/she simply produces any and all of the grammatical sentences of the language with no regard for their appropriateness in terms of the contextual variables in effect. (Hymes, 1972, p. 277)

Communicative competence: a response to linguistic competence. As a response to the previous understandings of "linguistic competence", Hymes (1972) coined the term "communicative competence" as the knowledge of both rules of grammar and those of language use appropriate to specific contexts, which meant a demonstration of a clear emphasis change among scholars who specialize in language studies.

Hymes' (1972) formulation of communicative competence, which highlights the social aspects of language use as opposed to Chomsky's (1965) abstract and isolated linguistic competence, is still provided as an explanation for the learners' gap between what they know and how much of this knowledge they can reflect to actual communication.

This concept of communicative competence evolved and expanded over years by Canale and Swain's (1980, 1981) sub-categorization of it as grammatical, sociolinguistic, strategic and discourse competence.

Sub-categorization of the idea of communicative competence

Grammatical competence. In reference to Chomsky's linguistic competence, Canale and Swain (1980, 1981) defined grammatical competence as the mastery of the linguistic code encompassing vocabulary knowledge and knowledge of morphological, syntactic, semantic, phonetic and orthographic rules as well. It equips the speaker with knowledge and skills to comprehend and communicate utterances with their literal meanings.

Sociolinguistic competence. Conforming to Hymes' (1972) perspective that places importance on the appropriateness of language in different communicative situations, Canale and Swain's (1980, 1981) paradigm views sociolinguistic competence as the knowledge of codes that govern the appropriate language use in a variety of sociolinguistic and sociocultural contexts.

Strategic competence. In Canale and Swain's model, strategic competence is composed of

knowledge of verbal and non-verbal communication strategies that are recalled to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to insufficient competence in one or more components of communicative competence. These strategies include paraphrase, circumlocution, repetition, reluctance, avoidance of words, structures or themes, guessing, changes of register and style, modifications of messages etc. (Bagarić & Djigunović, 2007, p. 97)

As Canale (1983) indicates, this competence includes also some non-cognitive aspects like self-confidence, readiness to take risks etc.

Discourse competence. The earlier version of Canale and Swain's (1980, 1981) model did not have discourse competence. Using the component of "sociolinguistic competence" as a base, Canale (1983, 1984) named it as the fourth component of their theoretical framework.

It is described as follows:

Mastery of rules that determine ways in which forms and meanings are combined to achieve a meaningful unity of spoken or written texts. The unity of a text is enabled by cohesion in form and coherence in meaning. Cohesion is achieved by the use of cohesion devices (e.g. pronouns, conjunctions, synonyms, parallel structures etc.) which help to link individual sentences and utterances to a structural whole. The means for achieving coherence, for instance repetition, progression, consistency, relevance of

ideas etc., enable the organization of meaning, i.e. establish a logical relationship between groups of utterances. (Bagarić & Djigunović, 2007, p. 97)

In the figure below, the chronological evolution of Canale and Swain's communicative competence model (CCM) is provided:

Canale and Swain (1980)   Canale (1983)

| Grammatical Competence | → | Grammatical Competence |

| Strategic Competence | → | Strategic Competence |

| Sociolinguistic Competence | → | Sociolinguistic Competence |

| | | Discourse Competence |
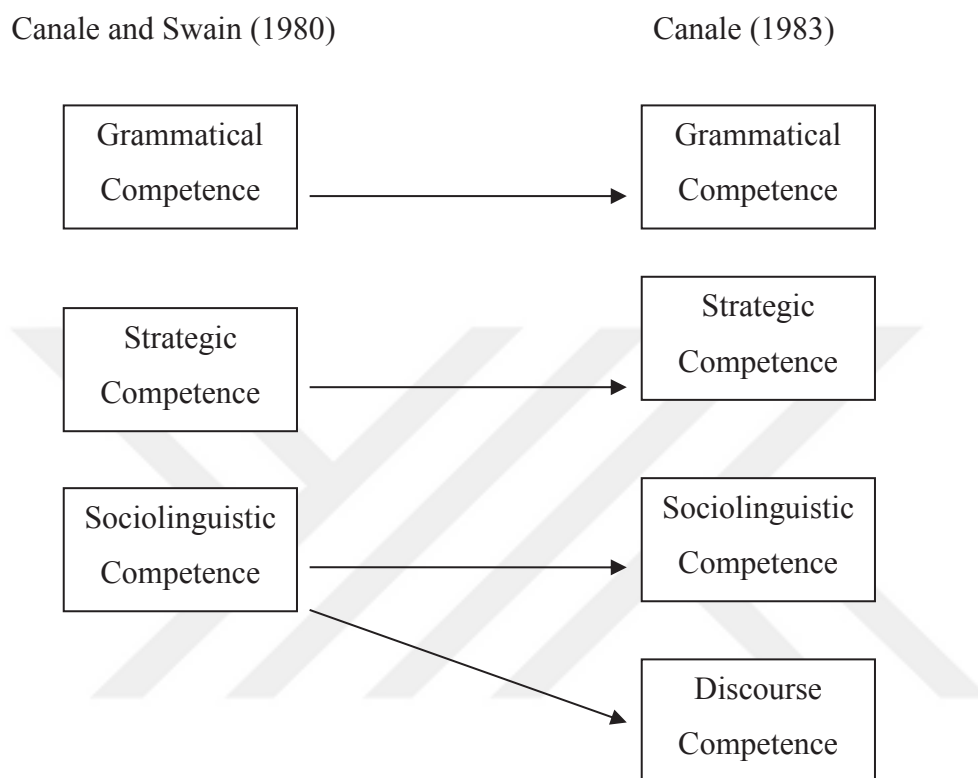
Figure 1. Evolution of the CCM by Canale and Swain.

A new model of communicative competence (with pragmatic knowledge). The highly influential theoretical framework set by Canale and Swain led to a more comprehensive model of communicative competence proposed by Bachman (1990) and Bachman and Palmer (1996). In this new model, communicative competence is reconsidered as "communicative language ability" and consists of two broad areas: strategic competence and language knowledge.

Bachman and Palmer (1996, 2010) improved the earlier descriptions of strategic competence by deeming it a set of metacognitive components that concern the way a language user sets goals, assesses communicative sources and makes plans of study.

As the other major area that the paradigm is built on, "language knowledge" covers organizational knowledge in the first place. It comprises grammatical knowledge and textual knowledge. Including mastery over vocabulary, morphology, syntax, phonology, and graphology, Bachman and Palmer's (1996) "grammatical knowledge" has much in common with its counterparts in the earlier models of competences. Likewise, "textual knowledge" shares clear similarities with Canale's (1983, 1984) "discourse competence" in that they both refer to the ability to comprehend and produce texts with the knowledge of coherence, cohesion and rhetorical organization.

The particular significance of Bachman and Palmer's model for the current study is that it was the first one to conceptualize pragmatic knowledge on its own with several related subareas of knowledge. This was a new phase in the growing emphasis on the non-grammatical aspects of language ability.

According to the model in question, pragmatic knowledge refers to abilities needed for creating and interpreting utterances and/or discourse. It includes two areas of knowledge (Bagarić & Djigunović, 2007):

1) Pragmatic codes to be followed for fulfillment of acceptable language functions and for interpretation of the illocutionary power of utterances (functional knowledge),

2) Sociolinguistic conventions to be observed for creation and interpretation of utterances that would be suitable in certain language use contexts (sociolinguistic knowledge).

In the figure below, the CCM proposed by Bachman and Palmer is illustrated:

Strategic Competence

goal setting   assessment   planning

Language Knowledge

Organizational Knowledge

Grammatical Knowledge

- vocabulary

- syntax

- phonology

- graphology

Textual Knowledge

- cohesion

- rhetorical

  organization

- imaginative

functions

Pragmatic Knowledge

Functional Knowledge

- *ideational functions*

- *manipulative functions*

- *heuristic functions*

- *cultural references and*

  figures of speech

Sociolinguistic Knowledge

- *dialects and language*

  varieties

- *registers*

- *natural and idiomatic*

  expressions

Figure 2. Bachman and Palmer's (1996) CCM

Pragmatic competence: a requisite for communicative competence. As mentioned

before, among the communicative competence paradigms, Bachman and Palmer's (1996)

model was the first one that brought the role of pragmatic ability into limelight as a crucial

constituent of language ability. The following years strengthened the position of pragmatic knowledge in terms of the theories and practices on learning, teaching and assessment of languages. The Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEF or CEFR) (Council of Europe, 2001), which is now widely used in the design of language curricula and to indicate the levels of language teaching materials and examinations, included pragmatic competence as one of the three basic components of communicative competence.

The common European framework of reference for languages. As mentioned in the previous part, the beginning of the 2000s saw the introduction of the Common European Framework (CEF) as

> a common basis for the elaboration of language syllabuses, curriculum guidelines, examinations, textbooks, etc. across Europe. It describes in a comprehensive way what language learners have to learn to do in order to use a language for communication and what knowledge and skills they have to develop so as to be able to act effectively. The description also covers the cultural context in which language is set. The Framework also defines levels of proficiency which allow learners' progress to be measured at each stage of learning and on a life-long basis. (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 1)

Since its introduction in November 2001, the CEF has been widely accepted as an effective tool to evaluate a user's language proficiency and as a guide for teaching and assessment. In 2012, it was accessible in 38 languages and had been disseminated widely in Europe, but also in parts of Asia and Latin America (Retrieved on July 21, 2014 from http://www.ecml.at/News3/TabId/643/ArtMID/2666/ArticleID/40/CEFR-the-globalisation of-language-education-policy.aspx).

Pragmatic competence and the CEF. As stated before, communicative competence in the CEF is conceived in terms of three basic components, and pragmatic competence is one of them while the other two are language competence and sociolinguistic competence.

The figure below provides a diagram to illustrate the concept of Overall Language Proficiency in the CEF, where pragmatic competence can be seen as one of the constituents of communicative competence (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 33):
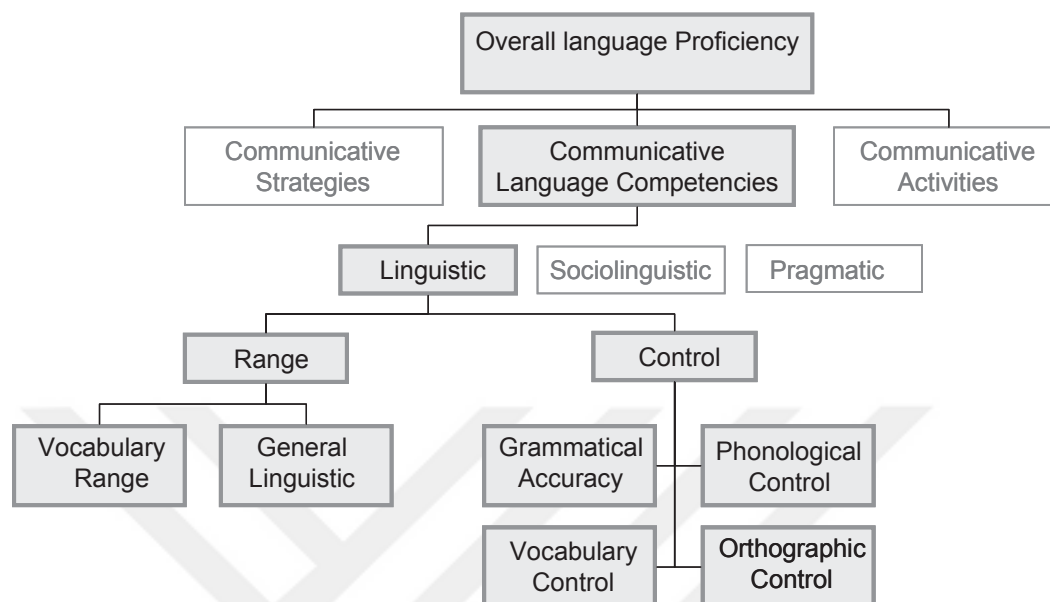
Figure 3. Illustration of the overall language proficiency in the CEF.

In basic terms, the CEF defines pragmatic competences as those which concern the functional use of linguistic resources (production of language functions), drawing on scenarios or scripts of interactional exchanges. It also concerns the mastery of discourse, cohesion and coherence, the identification of text types and forms, irony, and parody (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 13).

Furthermore, though not shown in the figure above, the pragmatic competences in the CEF bear upon three subareas of knowledge with several details, which compose

a) discourse competence (how organized, structured and arranged messages are),

b) functional competence (how messages are used to perform communicative functions) and

c) design competence (how messages are sequenced according to interactional and transactional schemata) (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 123).

In a broad definition offered nearly a decade later, "pragmatics" is conceptualized as the scientific study of all aspects of linguistic behavior. These aspects include patterns of linguistic action, language functions, types of inferences, principles of communication, frames of knowledge, attitude, and belief, as well as organizational principles of text and discourse (Bardovi-Harlig, 2010, p. 219). We can comment that the aspects of linguistic behavior in this definition cover and extend the pragmatic competences in the CEF.

The clear trend shown up to this point suggests that the world of language teaching/learning has made substantial progress from the old times when being competent in a language was supposed to mean just the mastery of its structurally related elements. It is now an ascertained fact that effective language use is a construct that consists of a considerable number of interrelated competences (types of knowledge). In this regard, since pragmatic competence is explicitly acknowledged to be one of them, the relationship between developing pragmatic competence and language teaching/learning becomes definitely worth looking at.

Pragmatics and Language Learning: Some Fundamental Issues

Grammatical competence and pragmatic competence. As can be deduced from the discussion made so far, the communicative competence paradigms that have globally shaped the work on languages put growing emphasis on the non-grammatical features of language ability. Nonetheless, this does not signify the underestimation of grammar. It is seen that every paradigm includes a particular notion of linguistic competence that refers to grammatical and lexical control. In this context, given also the fact that the competences making overall language proficiency appear to be interrelated, the following question takes on an added importance: "Would having grammatical competence on its own ensure a parallel level of pragmatic competence?" The answer can be claimed to be notably important in terms of an EFL context like the one in Turkey, about which the pertinent literature reports the fact

that language teaching practices, materials and assessment tend to be grammar-oriented (Coskun, 2011; Erkan & Saban, 2011; Erkmen, 2014; Kizildag, 2009; Ozsevik, 2010; Özmen, 2012; Tercanlioglu, 2005; Uztosun, 2013).

The answer offered by relevant research suggests that having a relatively satisfactory level of grammatical competence might not mean having a parallel level of pragmatic competence. As Bardovi-Harlig (1996, p. 21) postulates, a learner of high grammatical proficiency will not necessarily show high pragmatic competence. Concordantly, Jianda (2006, p. 17) reports: "Students with high TOEFL scores do not seem to have correspondingly high pragmatic ability". It is seen that, even if a grammar-oriented FL learning context can work in the best way possible, it is still open to question whether the learners can gain pragmatic competence concurrently. Adding the reports like that of Yu (2006), who suggests that language learners may need to better understand pragmatic aspects of the target culture so that they can interpret appropriately what they hear and interact effectively with members of that culture, pragmatic competence as a distinct instructional target becomes definitely worth looking at.

Pragmatic competence as an instructional target. In terms of the abovementioned case concerning the (lack of) relationship between grammatical and pragmatic competences, compensation could be thought to be offered by curricular or instructional interventions focused on pragmatic competence development. Nevertheless, while pragmatics is defined as the bridge between the system side of language and the use side (Bardovi-Harlig, 2010, p. 219), the relevant literature suggests an air of "neglect" about handling "pragmatics as a learning target" in especially EFL classrooms (Brubæk, 2012; Chen, 2009; Hu, 2014; Rose, 2005; Rueda, 2006; Segueni, 2014; Yu, 2006).

Pragmatic competence and exposure to EFL classroom language. In consideration of the points discussed above, the question can be raised about whether mere exposure to the

input provided throughout a language teaching program would equip the learner with a relatively adequate level of pragmatic competence. The answers offered by the literature appear to be leaving no room for optimism about that either. The situation seems to be particularly troubling for learners in EFL contexts, where there is a limited amount of authentic input and chance to observe and use the target language in natural contexts (Alagözlü, 2013; Cenoz, 2007; Li, 2015; Martinez-Flor & Soler, 2007, Taguchi, 2008; Taguchi, 2011). In line with this, Kasper (2001b, p. 513) puts particular emphasis on learners' drawback of not being able to process and produce the language under natural circumstances:

> Foreign language classroom learning, no matter how communicative and learner-centered, may just not provide enough occasions for conversational practice; therefore it may be difficult for learners to develop the processing control in utterance comprehension and production required for effective participation in conversation.

This is verified by findings like in Taguchi (2008), where 60 students in a college in Japan (EFL learners) and 57 students in a college in the United States (ESL learners) completed a computerized listening task that measured the participants' accuracy and speed of pragmatic comprehension with implied meanings of indirect refusals and indirect opinions. The results revealed a reversed pattern of development between the two groups. The longitudinal gain of speed in pragmatic information processing was smaller than that of accurate understanding of pragmatic meaning in the EFL environment. Contrariwise, the ESL environment more strongly supported the processing speed development than accurate comprehension of pragmatic meaning (Taguchi, 2008, p. 441).

Taguchi (2008) explains the findings from the perspective of cognitive theories of skill development as follows:

> The small gain in comprehension speed found among the EFL learners may be due to the fact that they lacked sufficient opportunities for associative practices to develop

performance speed. In a foreign language environment, these EFL learners had limited incidental exposure to L2; as a result, mapping practices between form and meaning did not occur frequently. Greater gains in comprehension speed shown by the ESL learners, on the other hand, could be due to the abundant incidental processing practice available in their environment. (Taguchi, 2011a, p. 913)

Pragmatic competence and textbooks. In view of the above discussion, one might argue that textbooks, which are the "visible heart of any ELT program" (Sheldon, 1988, p. 237), are intended to compensate the artificiality of classroom environment. However, the related body of research reports also the argument that the authenticity of the language presented in such materials can be highly questionable (Bardovi-Harlig, 1996; Diepenbroek & Derwing, 2013; Economidou-Kogetsidis; 2015; Kasper, 1997; Vasquez & Sharpless, 2009; Vellenga, 2004) and tend to rely on the authors' perception of what native speakers might say in given situations (Cohen, 2005; Pablos-Ortega, 2011). What is more, textbooks have been claimed to fall short of providing adequate and proper pragmatic input to language learners. Referring particularly to speech acts, Nguyen (2011, p. 18) notes that many commercially produced textbooks were found to offer classroom learners little opportunity or questionable information for learning L2 pragmatics (Alagözlü, 2013; Bardovi-Harlig, 2001; Bardovi-Harlig, Hartford, Mahan-Taylor, Morgan & Reynold, 1991; Grant & Starks, 2001; Ishihara, 2010; Li, 2015; Myers-Scotton & Bernstein, 1988; Pearson, 1986; Thomas, 1983; Vellenga, 2004; Wong, 2002).

Pragmatic flaws and communication. As can be understood from the discussions above, language teaching practices and products have been reported to tend to keep pragmatics and (developing) pragmatic competences in the background. In addition, this neglect has the potential to put EFL learners at a graver disadvantage as they can have a limited amount of authentic input and fewer opportunities to observe and use the target

language in natural contexts. In the light of the related literature, these issues can raise doubts about learners' probable communication problems in encounters with native speakers. As Thomas (1983) postulates, while grammatical errors may lead one to think that the speaker is not a proficient language-user, pragmatic failures make the way for that speaker being labeled as a "bad" person. In a similar vein, Economidou-Kogetsidis (2015, p. 1) notes that pragmatic failures, unlike grammatical errors, are sometimes not recognized as such by non-linguists, and if a grammatically competent non-native speaker (NNS) appears to speak or write fluently, a NS is likely to attribute the learner's pragmatic failure to impoliteness or unfriendliness. Misunderstandings of this nature are almost certainly at the root of unhelpful and offensive national stereotyping: the abrasive Russian/German', the obsequious Indian/Japanese', the insincere American', and the standoffish Briton' (Thomas, 1983, p. 97). Pragmatic failure, then, is an important source of cross-cultural communication breakdown. In much the same vein once again, Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnyei's (1998) study into metapragmatic awareness indicates that native speakers may tend to evaluate pragmatic errors more severely compared to grammatical ones. Moreover, the non-native speaker with the pragmatic error may be seen as rude (Crandall & Basturkmen, 2004, p. 38).

To avoid such misunderstandings, misjudgments and communication breakdowns, Kramsch (1998) stresses the need to integrate the cultural dimension in language teaching and use, which could be seen as the pragmatic functions and notions expressed through language. Being even more specific with the aim to highlight the need for some pedagogical interventions; Economidou-Kogetsidis (2015, p. 2) states that when EFL learners move to the target language community to either study or pursue a career, sophisticated pragmatic competence in the L2 becomes essential since pragmatically inappropriate language can cause pragmatic failure by unintentionally violating social appropriateness in the target culture.

In this regard and within the framework of "conversational implicature", which is one of the main components of pragmatics (Levinson, 1983), "implied meanings" were addressed as the main issue in this study.

Pragmatics and Implied Meanings

As indicated above, "implied meanings" was chosen as the central issue in this study. Besides the acknowledged significance of pragmatic competence in overall language ability, the principal reason for this choice is the fact that, among its five main areas which are "deixis", "conversational implicature", "presupposition", "speech acts" and "conversational structure" (Levinson, 1983), the study of pragmatics has focused on speech acts (Aijmer, 2011; Bardovi-Harlig & Shin, 2014; Bella, 2014; Eslami & Mirzaei, 2012; Gilabert & Baron, 2013; Roever, 2013;) and to a lesser extent on conversational implicature and other areas (Bardovi-Harlig & Shin, 2014; Roever, 2006). Besides that, considering the aforementioned general neglect of pragmatics in language teaching, it would not be hard to predict that implied meanings have not been frequently made the focus of attention in language education practices either.

Within this framework, before elaborating on how implied meanings were addressed in this study, it is considered worthwhile here to provide some basic information about the blanket term "implicature" and several related points.

Implicature. The introduction of the term "implicature" dates back to Grice (1975, p. 157). He used it with the intention of denoting cases in which what is meant, implied, or suggested is distinct from what is said (Davis, 2007, p. 1656). Doing so, Grice paved the way for the exploration of such notions as 'utterance meaning' and 'speaker meaning'. Furthermore, he drew the attention of philosophers and linguists to what an utterance can convey implicitly and since then the study of implicitness has undergone continuous refinements, extending beyond the traditional boundaries of rhetoric to the domains of psychology, sociology,

ideology research, the study of literature, artificial intelligence, to mention but a few (Papi, 2009, p. 140).

After the introduction of the general notion of implicature, Grice categorized it into "conventional" and "conversational" implicatures.

Conventional implicatures. With "conventional implicatures", which are not addressed in this study, Grice refers to cases where the conventional meaning of the words will not only help to determine what is said but also will determine what is implicated. In an attempt to make his point clear, he said:

> If I say (smugly), He is an Englishman; he is, therefore, brave, I have certainly committed myself, by virtue of the meaning of my words, to its being the case that his being brave is a consequence of (follows from) his being an Englishman. (Grice, 1975, p. 44)

As can be seen in the contribution of the word "therefore" in the example above, "conventional implicature" meanings can often be automatically triggered through a reference to the meaning of a word (Moeschler, 2007) because an important property of conventional implicatures is that they are part of the conventional meaning of words (Potts, 2005, p. 11).

Conversational implicatures. To trace the origin of "conversational implicatures", one would need to revisit Grice's (1975, 1981) well-known Principle of Cooperation and the related Maxims of Quality, Quantity, Relevance and Manner. The essence of Grice's postulation is that the interlocutors in a conversation speaking primarily for information exchange expect whatever a speaker says to be

a) truthful (maxim of quality),

b) appropriately informative (maxim of quantity),

c) relevant (maxim of relevance) and

d) clear (maxim of manner).

When, as often happens, a speaker's contribution seems on the surface to lack one or more of those characteristics, the other participants assume that they are expected to infer some other meaning that will meet the speaker's obligations more completely. If they find such a meaning, they take that to be all or part of the message that the speaker intended to convey. This process, and the inferred message that results from it, is what Grice calls conversational implicature. (Bouton, 1988, p. 183)

To put it differently, a cooperative participant in a talk exchange may just blatantly disregard one or more of the abovementioned maxims. Thus the participant may choose not to speak explicitly because s/he thinks for some reason that a less straightforward communicative device would better express his/her intentions. It is such a situation which typically gives rise to a conversational implicature, where a speaker goes beyond the extent of what s/he says with the intention of expressing his/her aims more effectively.

As an example, Papi (2009) explains how the maxim of quality is flouted by means of an ironic utterance as follows: when someone you trusted completely has betrayed your trust, you may just say "He is a fine friend!". Doing this, you are not "truthful" in terms of the conventional sense of the word. However, you give your message in a relatively more striking way with the glaring discrepancy between the reality and the utterance.

Grice's Cooperative Principle and implicatures based on the disregard of the maxims have played a historically important role in pragmatics (Hadi, 2013). Though criticized with several different perspectives, the theory led to new developments in people's understanding of conversation that it does not consist merely of exchanging true assertions, but that it is an activity with a social purpose which is usually helpful (Parikh, 2011, p. 21).

In this light, Bouton (1988, 1994) was the researcher who pioneered in the study of conversational implicatures in relation to language learning/teaching. Using his research

findings as base, he divided implicatures into two sets: those that are idiosyncratic and those that are in some sense formulaic (Bouton, 1994).

Idiosyncratic implicatures. Interpretation of idiosyncratic implicatures is dependent on the relationship between a particular utterance and its specific context. Each instance of an idiosyncratic implicature must be approached on its own terms and it relies on the speaker and the hearer having a common perception of the principles of conversation and a mutual understanding of the context of the utterance (Bouton, 1994, p. 98), which could even depend on native-culture schemata. Below is an example created through the disregard of Grice's Relevance Maxim:

The cashier in a restaurant is talking to her boss.

Cashier: I need a good long rest. I'm afraid my beauty is beginning to fade.

Owner: What makes you think that?

Cashier: The men are beginning to count their change (Lee, 2002, p. 24).

The indirect message attributed to the final utterance of the conversation is that the male customers, instead of looking at the female cashier (as they often did), have begun to pay more attention to their money.

Bearing this in mind, one could probably infer that the cashier was once so attractive that the male customers did their best to look at her as much as possible without even caring about whether they took the right amount of change for their purchase. As can be seen, the production and comprehension of this implicature would depend on the mutual awareness that such a customer-cashier interaction is ordinary in that culture or in that specific place. In this regard, the implicature is idiosyncratic as there is not an underlying structural or semantic formula to it and it relies on the speaker and the hearer having a common perception of the context of the utterance.

In his pioneering studies on the interpretation and teaching of implicatures with participants from different L1 backgrounds, Bouton (1988, 1994, 1999) found that idiosyncratic implicatures range in opaqueness according to the amount of background information they require. What is more, they proved to be impervious to teaching efforts.

Formulaic implicatures. As mentioned before, besides the idiosyncratic ones, the other set of implicatures defined by Bouton (1994, 1999) was formulaic implicatures. They are based on a formula of some sort, which would be structural, semantic, or pragmatic, and this is crucial to a person's effective interpretation of them.

The implicature labeled "Indirect Criticism" in this category can be considered a representative example. There is a semantic formula to it that a person can recognize and, from which we can receive a clue as to the speaker's message. It is often used in response to a request for a value judgment like "How do you like my new shoes?" When that judgment might prove offensive to the person asking, the speaker often responds with a positive remark about some peripheral, unimportant feature of whatever s/he is asked to evaluate. For instance; a response of "They certainly look comfortable" might be indirect criticism if the shoes are expensive dress shoes, for which the most important characteristic would be their appearance (Bouton, 1994, p. 99).

In contrast with idiosyncratic implicatures resistant to teaching efforts and more likely to be learned over time through exposure to the language, Bouton's finding on formulaic implicatures is that they might prove considerably difficult for nonnative speakers (NNSs) and they are less susceptible to exposure effects. Nevertheless, the accompanying finding was that they are very much teachable, which provided the direct inspiration for the instructional dimension of this study.

In this regard, the following section firstly provides a brief review of the literature on "teaching pragmatics" as the general framework. Then, the scope is narrowed down to the

review of the studies on "teaching implied meanings", which is central to the instructional dimension of this study.

Teaching Pragmatics

  Teaching pragmatics for communicative competence. As a response to the aforementioned recognition that pragmatics has gained in the communicative competence paradigms, the teaching of pragmatic competence has attracted greater attention since the year 2000, which is evidenced in the dozen book-length publications that have appeared on this topic. As Taguchi (2011b, p. 290) puts it, some of these publications are edited volumes of empirical papers that describe instructional methods and learning opportunities in the classroom (Alcon-Soler & Martinez-Flor, 2008; Martinez-Flor & Alcon-Soler, 2005; Martinez-Flor, Uso-Juan & Fernandez-Guerra, 2003; Rose & Kasper, 2001b; Taguchi, 2009; Yoshimi & Wang, 2007). Others are resource books and teacher guides with operational teaching tips and lesson plans (Bardovi-Harlig & Mahan-Taylor, 2003; Houck & Tatsuki, 2011; Ishihara & Cohen, 2010; Ishihara & Maeda, 2010; Tatsuki & Houck, 2010), and still others are research monographs that record the process of pragmatic development in formal settings, by dint of which one is informed about instructional activities and practices optimal for pragmatic growth (Ohta, 2001).

  Explicit versus implicit pragmatics teaching. The Second Language Acquisition (SLA) theory that has provided the strongest impetus for pragmatics intervention studies is Schmidt's (1993, 2001) noticing hypothesis, which claims that learners must notice second language (L2) features in the input for subsequent development to occur in their acquisition of these features (Taguchi, 2011b, p. 291). In this regard, with a general look at the instructional studies that have applied this theoretical paradigm, we can say that explicit approaches (direct explanation of target pragmatic features followed by practice) have proven to be relatively superior to implicit approaches (withheld explanation but provision of input and practice

opportunities where learners can develop implicit understanding of pragmatic forms and their uses) (Kasper & Rose, 2002; Taguchi, 2011b). Nonetheless, we should emphasize herein the point that explicit instruction may be effective in developing declarative pragmatic knowledge even in a relatively short time, but the development of procedural pragmatic knowledge (efficiency in pragmatic functions), thus "speed", takes a longer time and requires sustained, abundant, incidental processing practice available in an ESL environment (Taguchi, 2011; Taguchi, 2015, p. 34).

This crucial role of explicit metapragmatic explanation for pragmatic development, which was reported also in meta-analyses like Jeon and Kaya (2006), Takahashi (2010) and Taguchi's (2015), has been confirmed by instructional studies specifically on implied meanings as well (Bouton, 1994, 1999; Blight, 2002; Kubota, 1995).

Teaching pragmatics with filmic materials. As disclosed earlier in the text, the instructional phase of this study is based on some filmic materials extracted from certain TV series, movies and TV commercials.

The considerable effort expended to prepare this instructional kit was inspired by the postulation that films are a common staple in the L2 classroom for practicing a wide array of language skills and cultural analysis (Fernandez-Guerra, 2008; Kahnke & Stehle, 2011; Rose, 2001; Sundquist, 2010) (as cited in Abrams, 2014, p. 57). What is more, they are considered interesting, thus motivating, with real-life information about cultural issues and characters to identify with (Tognozzi, 2010; Washburn, 2001).

When looking at the literature from the angle of pragmatics teaching, we find the premise that films can be used just as effectively for analyzing speakers' language, *specifically pragmatic aspects of language* [italics added] (Abrams, 2014, p. 58). The rationale behind this is that films can provide the type of discourse-length and richly contextualized exchanges (Abrams, 2014, p. 58) that Felix-Brasdefer (2007) and Kasper (2006) find "essential" for

meaningful pragmatics instruction. In a similar vein, Washburn (2001) indicates that films enable learners to hear and see pragmatics accompanied by the sociopragmatic aspects of interaction. Eslami-Rasekh (2005, p. 201) specifies that filmic materials boosted with discovery activities would let students identify what to look for, formulate and test hypotheses about language use, and become reflective observers of language use in both [their] L1 and L2. Motivated by the neglect of the improvement of aural-oral skills in FL teaching in Turkey, Aydın's (2005) study advances the argument that TV series acquaint learners with linguistic diversity, showing them the contribution of register, context and body language to communication.

When we consider films in specific terms of the way they model language, we can have a considerable number of studies which posit that films include natural speech as it occurs, not as it might appear in dialogs scripted for language learners (Goodwin, 2004) (as cited in Abrams, 2014, p. 58). For instance, taking account of his comparison between compliments in American films and those in natural speech data, Rose (2001, p. 318) came to the conclusion that films can be manipulated as a useful source of pragmalinguistic information for language teaching, and film data corresponds fairly closely to naturally-occurring speech. This is corroborated by a comparison of TV shows and oral corpora in terms of some modifiers in English speech acts (Fernandez-Guerra, 2008). When it comes to soap operas and television dramas, Grant and Starks (2001) report that they include authentic-sounding conversations which are pragmatically appropriate and akin to real-life language. Within the context of teaching and learning Chinese as a target language, Yang (2008) compares clips from television series with other sources like discourse completion tests and role plays to have discourse data. He emphasizes that clips from television are materials that are readily adaptable for foreign language learning as they present not only linguistic expressions but also how these expressions are actually uttered in certain contexts by native speakers (Yang, 2008,

p. 1044). In a similar vein, aiming at the development of classroom activities for an understanding of essentially pragmatic and cultural aspects of everyday language, Mansfield (2014) takes the situation comedy as an excellent source of real everyday language in which Grice's (1975) maxims of co-operative principle in conversation are constantly broken or flouted through intentional ambiguity for purposes like provoking laughter.

Teaching implied meanings. In interlanguage pragmatics (ILP), which is an SLA and pragmatics-based interdiscipline defined as the study of non-native speakers' use and acquisition of L2 pragmatics knowledge (Kasper 1996, p. 145), Bouton (1988, 1989, 1992, 1994, 1999) was the first scholar to underscore the significance of implied meanings as a communicative tool which could lead to communicative failure when missed or neglected. Taking the demonstrated importance of implicature in daily interaction as the departure point (Bouton, 1994, p. 106), he conducted a series of studies in which he tested whether foreign students, i.e. non-native speakers of English, derive the same meaning from conversational implicatures as native speakers of English do. He found that the ability of NNSs to interpret implicatures in English varied and could significantly differ from that of NSs. He also observed that NNSs would just slowly get closer to NSs in their ability to interpret implicatures when they have had ample communicative experience in the target language country.

In addition to his abovementioned findings with an exploratory and descriptive look, Bouton reported a lot on the grounds of his instructional and experimental studies as well. As mentioned earlier in the text, he posited that idiosyncratic implicatures, which could depend largely on the shared contextual information between interlocutors, proved resistant to teaching efforts. On the other hand, he noted that formulaic implicatures, which are based on a formula of some structural, semantic or pragmatic sort, proved to be very much teachable. Besides, as Taguchi (2015, p. 15) discusses it as based on the "Pope Implicature", the

knowledge of formulaic implicatures can transfer to any novel one that follows the same formula, which should make them even more worthy of being taught.

With specific reference to the instructional sessions that he had designed, he reported that the more explicit instruction language learners get on implicature, the better results they achieve in interpreting the indirectly conveyed meanings, which was confirmed by a considerable number of subsequent studies that have focused on several different pragmatic constructs (Taguchi, 2011b).

Apart from Bouton, claiming that pragmatic competences is a neglected part of especially secondary level English curriculum in Japan as an FL context, Kubota (1995) designed a study where three different participant groups were formed to be given a multiple choice test and a sentence-combining test. In one group, the explanations of rules were provided by a teacher; in the second, consciousness-raising tasks grew out of group discussion while the third group functioned as a control. All the subjects received a pre-test and two post-tests. In line with Bouton, the results confirmed that teaching implicature through explicit explanations of rules and consciousness-raising tasks was highly facilitative.

Among the other relevant studies with an instructional perspective are Blight (2002), who discusses his self-developed procedure for raising pragmatic awareness by providing explicit instruction in native speaker use of implicature, and Murray (2011), which lends empirical support to the claim that Grice's model is valuable for the training of both English language learners and teachers on implied meanings.

Given the myriad of possible implied meanings put forth so far, the researcher had to make a decision on the types to be included in this study, which had been designed from the outset as an experimental "interventionist study" where the effect of a particular instructional treatment on students' acquisition of the targeted pragmatic feature is examined (Kasper, 1999). As one would expect, this decision steered also the development of the data collection

instrument, which was used as the pretest, posttest and delayed posttest. In this regard, the following section is dedicated to the implied meaning groups included in this study and the theoretical background that provided the rationale for their inclusion.

Implied meanings covered in the present study. To start with, the list below gives the implied meanings included in the instructional phase of this study:

* Pope Questions

* Indirect Criticism

* (Verbal) Irony

* Indirect Refusals

* Topic Change

* Disclosures

* Indirect Requests (Requestive Hints)

* Indirect Advice

As put forth before, the pertinent literature can provide even more types of implied meanings that are not covered in this study. Therefore, it is considered worthwhile here to explain why particularly the above-listed ones were chosen to compose the main data collection instrument and to design the instructional program in this study.

First, it should be mentioned that Pope Questions, Indirect Criticism, Irony, Topic Change, Disclosures and Indirect Refusals had already been included in several other studies similar to this one (Bouton, 1994, Roever, 2005; Taguchi, 2005). Indirect requests and indirect advice, which have not been bunched together with the abovementioned implied meanings in any data collection instrument or instruction program before, were included in this study on the basis of a consideration like Verschueren's (2009, p. 9), who observes that Grice's (1975) account of implicatures and Searle's (1975) definition of indirect speech acts

are very similar, or Birner's (2013, p. 195), who posits that indirect speech acts are a subtype of conversational implicature.

Second, it should be reminded at this point that it was Bouton's (1988, 1994, 1999) pioneering studies which served as the guiding light for the instruction period of this study. To put some significant points briefly again, we can state that Bouton's studies were the first to investigate how native and nonnative speakers of English interpret implicatures and whether nonnative speakers' interpretive skills can be improved through instruction. One of his major findings was that *the effectiveness of instruction depends on the focus on formulaic implicatures as less formulaic forms prove resistant to formal instruction* [italics added]. In this regard, he conceptualized a formulaic implicature as one which contains but some sort of "structural, semantic or pragmatic" clues that point to a particular pattern (Bouton, 1994, 1999). It should be pointed out, however, that the concept of "formulaicness" here is unlike the cases when meaning can be attached to "specific syntactic forms" associated with some indirect speech acts (e.g., I am wondering if + verb for a request).

In this light, it would be worth emphasizing here that some of the implied meanings included in this study and listed above are ones that have already been reported as formulaic in the related literature. For the rest, which have not been overtly declared as formulaic, the researcher's claim is that some of their reported variations can be deemed formulaic, or tentatively formulaic at least, thus worth being included in the instructional program and tested in terms of teachability. This was a risk for the present study, but one that is worth taking as the intention was to respond to Bouton's (1994, p. 106) call that we should be alert to implicature types of which we are not fully aware *with an eye to including them in instruction programs*.

What follows is the discussion of the abovementioned points with a focus on each implied meaning covered in the present study:

Pope Questions. Pope Questions are reported to be clearly formulaic (Bouton, 1994; Bouton, 1999) as they always tend to work according to the following pattern:

* One is asked a question.

* S/he thinks that the answer is an obvious "Yes" or "No".

* To answer that question with an indirect but emphasized "Yes" or "No", s/he asks a new question to which the answer is a clear "Yes" or "No".

See the following example:

A mother and her daughter Jenny have been discussing the upcoming weekend. Jenny's parents are leaving town and this is the first time Jenny has been left at home alone.

Mother: Are you sure you can take care of yourself this weekend?

Jenny: Can a duck swim, Mother? (Bouton, 1988, p. 193)

As the answer to Jenny's question is an obvious "Yes", she is telling her mother indirectly that she will of course be able to take care of herself okay (Bouton, 1988, p. 193).

Indirect criticism. Like Pope Questions, utterances that contain Indirect Criticism (also called "Understated Negative Evaluation" or "Damning with Faint Praise") are reported to be formulaic (Bouton, 1994, 1999). It happens when we are asked what we think of something or someone that we, in fact, do not like - but we don't want to say so explicitly. Instead, we reply indirectly, commenting about features of the thing that are not central to its evaluation in any way (Bouton, 1988, p. 193). See the following example:

George and Sheila are looking for a house to buy. Sheila just went to look at a house in their price range and is reporting back to George.

George: So, what did you think of the house?

Sheila: Well, it had a nice mailbox. (Broersma, 1994, p. 3)

As Sheila responds with a praising comment on just a subsidiary feature of the house (the mailbox), she could be interpreted to imply that some more important aspects of the house merit considerable criticism. By praising the house in such a weak way, she makes it obvious that she does not really admire the features that are central to the evaluation she has been asked to make. In other words, she criticizes the whole through a slight compliment to a part.

(Verbal) Irony. Ironic utterances are a type of implied meanings that are considered in the same category with formulaic implicatures (Bouton, 1994, p. 105), thus eligible to be the focus of pragmatic instruction. Especially verbal irony, which is of interest to the present study, can be deemed as based on a particular semantic pattern. That is, an ironic statement must be contrary to the true state of affairs to be interpreted correctly. There must be some discrepancy between the reality and the utterance, and the listener must recognize this discrepancy in order to interpret the utterance (Kreuz & Roberts, 1995, p. 22). To put it differently, the speaker uses words that mean the opposite of what s/he really thinks. See the following example:

Joan and Anne are classmates. Joan has some problems reading his paper and he

is asking Anne for help.

Joan: Hi, Anne.

Anne: Hi Joan. What's up?

Joan: I was wondering if I could ask a small favor of you. Would you read my

Linguistics 441 paper?

Anne: Gosh, John, I wish I could, but I promised Jack I'd go bowling with him

tonight.

Joan: Yeah. <u>Well, thanks for the help</u>. (Bouton, 1994, p. 101)

We see that after being refused by Anne, Joan's latest remark suggests that he is thankful for the response. However, on second thought if necessary, one could see that the statement is contrary to the true state of affairs and there is a discrepancy between the reality and the utterance. That is, Joan feels dissatisfied with Anne's response and he means to express it with a sarcastic remark.

Indirect refusals. Indirect refusals can be viewed as another type of formulaic implied meanings in the light of the pertinent literature. They are defined as routinized expressions reflecting relatively fixed patterns of discourse exchange (e.g., giving an excuse when refusing) (Taguchi, 2007, p. 329). What is more, they are cited as notably appropriate for classroom instruction of pragmatic comprehension with their abovementioned conventional features (Taguchi, 2007, p. 331). See the following example:

Mary: Hey, John, what're you doing?

John: I'm working on my paper for the English class.

Mary: You've been working on that paper for a week. Why don't you take a break? Let's go to the movies tonight.

John: <u>I have to finish my paper by eight in the morning</u>. (Taguchi, 2007, p. 322)

It is seen that John does not refuse Mary's offer with explicit linguistic markers of refusals such as "I can't", "No", or "I don't want to", which were identified as direct refusal expressions by Beebe, Takahashi, and Uliss-Weltz (1990) (as cited in Taguchi, 2007, p. 321). Instead, he provides his reason/excuse for not accepting the offer.

Topic change. Topic Change (Change Subject) is another type of implied meanings which has been reported to be formulaic (Roever, 2011, p. 466). In terms of the relevant body of research (Bouton, 1988, p. 190; Roever, 2005), it happens when a person feels that a current line of discussion is really inappropriate and leaps into another topic. In other words, it occurs when one comes up with an irrelevant, unexpected utterance as s/he does not like what

has just been said or asked. The purpose can be considered to be making the inappropriateness perceptible to the interlocutor(s). See the following example from "The Prince of Tides (1991)", a romantic drama film based on the 1986 novel of the same name by Pat Conroy:

> *Susan, a psychiatrist in New York, is questioning Tom, a football coach from South Carolina burdened with many details of his dysfunctional family's secrets. Susan decides to discuss the topic of his sister Savannah's last suicide attempt after their brother Luke's death. This is one of the initial meetings between Susan and Tom. Therefore, Tom is reluctant to disclose some certain facts about his family.*
>
> **Susan:** Savannah's last suicide attempt was right after his death, correct?
>
> **Tom:** Yeah, she had a few bad days over it.
>
> **Susan:** Were there other times?
>
> **Tom:** I don't know. There might have been another time when we were young, but I'm not sure . . . How are you getting paid?
>
> **Susan:** Why change the subject?

As is seen, Tom does not seem to like the turn that the conversation takes. Instead of satisfactorily answering Susan's query, he chooses to ask an irrelevant question at that moment of the talk. We also see that Susan does not fail to understand Tom's attempt to change the subject, which is uncomfortable from his own viewpoint.

Disclosures. Another type of implied meanings covered in the study is Disclosures, which are defined as indirect replies used to avoid disclosing embarrassing information (Taguchi, 2002, p. 157). To the best of the researcher's knowledge, the implied meaning type of Disclosures has not yet been openly reported as formulaic, routinized, homogeneous or predictable. Nevertheless, the researcher still thought that they could be teachable, thus suitable for being included in the study. The rationale was that the definitions and examples in

the relevant studies (Taguchi, 2002; Taguchi, 2005) can be considered to contain some semantic clues that point to a tentatively identifiable pattern: When one is questioned about the reality of something and when the answer would urge him/her to give embarrassing or disturbing information from his/her own viewpoint, s/he might not make a full confession. Instead, s/he might just give the reason(s) why the consequence (to be mentioned in a direct answer of confession) really arose or not. Doing that, s/he could produce an indirect answer of revelation, confirmation or negation about the reality that is being questioned. See the following example:

Jim: Hi Mom, I'm home.

Mom: Hi Jim. Didn't you get the report card today? How were your grades this semester?

Jim: <u>You know mom, I don't think the teacher grades fairly</u>. (Taguchi, 2002, p. 171)

We see that Jim does not respond to his mother's question with a direct answer of confession that his grades were poor, which appears to be an item of too embarrassing information for Jim to disclose directly. Instead, he just gives the reason in his opinion (the fact that the teacher does not grade fairly) why the grades in the report card were low. In that way, he indirectly makes the revelation that the reality is his poor grades. It can be thought that the answer is intended to function also as a call for understanding and empathy.

Another example of Disclosures provided below is from the American sitcom "Friends (1994)":

Monica, the mother hen in her group of friends and a chef known for her perfectionist, bossy and competitive nature (Retrieved on July 21, 2016 from http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/Friends#Characters), is trying to organize a big special dinner. She is in search of a waitress for it. Rachel, Monica's best friend

from childhood and a waitress herself, infers from Monica's telephone conversation that she has arranged for another waitress to serve in the organization.

[Phone rings. Monica answers it.]

Monica: [on phone] Hello? Oh, hi Wendy! Yeah, eight o'clock. What did we say? Ten dollars an hour?... OK, great. All right, I'll see you then. Bye. [hangs up]

Rachel: Ten dollars an hour for what?

Monica: Oh, I asked one of the waitresses at work if she'd help me out.

Rachel: [hurt] Waitressing?

Joey: Uh-oh.

Monica: Well... of course I thought of you! But... but...

Rachel: But, but?

Monica: But, you see, it's just... <u>this night has to go just perfect, you know? And, well, Wendy's more of a... professional waitress</u>.

Rachel: Oh! I see…

As we see, Rachel questions Monica so that she states the obvious fact for Rachel that she was not hired as the waitress to help Monica out. Instead of a direct response in the affirmative or negative, Monica just gives the reason (the fact that the hired waitress is more professional than Rachel is) why she did not pick Rachel. In that way, Monica indirectly makes the confirmation that she did choose another waitress, which seems to be an item of embarrassing information hard for Monica to disclose directly. It can be thought that her reply is also an attempt to justify her decision and a call for understanding.

Indirect requests (requestive hints). Another type of implied meanings included in this study is Indirect Requests, which were labeled as Requestive Hints (Rinnert & Kobayashi, 1999; Weizman, 1985, 1989, 1993) in the pertinent literature.

Considering the pursuit in this study of some formulaic implied meanings with several clues that point to a particular pattern, the fact must be acknowledged here that Requestive Hints have never been reported to be formulaic, routinized or homogeneous. They represent a heterogeneous category which includes various sub-strategies (Weizman, 2007, p. 144). According to the model that Weizman (1985, 1989, 1993) posits, requestive hints should be considered in two dimensions, which are the propositional and illocutionary meaning of the request.

The first dimension, 'propositional content' of the request, contains 3 categories: (1) *zero* (no reference to the hearer, the act or any of its components, e.g., 'There's a problem'), (2) *component* (reference to some component of the requested act, e.g. 'Are there any batteries?'), and (3) *act* (reference to the requested act, including some or all of its components, e.g. 'The sign to change the master [for the duplicating machine] came on but ...'.

The second dimension, 'illocutionary device', contains 4 categories: (1) *zero* (no statement of illocutionary intent, e.g., 'Here's the mail' as a request to take the mail to the mailroom); (2) *stating potential grounder* (giving a reason why the request is necessary, e.g., 'The printer is running out of ink'); (3) *questioning feasibility* (asking about some prerequisite for the request to be granted, e.g., 'Do you have any chalk? '); and (4) *other* (illocutionary device not falling into one of the three preceding categories, e.g., 'I'm going to borrow this pen'). (Rinnert & Kobayashi, 1999, p. 1188)

In the heterogeneity of implied requests as itemized above, it was out of question for this study to be aimed at measuring the comprehension of and teaching about all the reported categories. However, considering the facts that speech acts have commanded a good deal of attention in pragmatics research (Cohen, 2012a, p. 33) and requesting is one of the especially popular speech acts (Cohen, 2012b, p. 280) in terms of instructed pragmatics as well

(Taguchi, 2015, p. 5), the researcher had the intention to include the requests in the study since the very beginning.

In that regard, the decision to be made was which category of the aforementioned indirect requests would be integrated into the data collection instrument and instruction program of this study. The choice was the ones that are based on "stating potential grounder (giving a reason why the request is necessary)". The primary basis for that decision was the fact that they were found to be the most frequent English hints on the illocutionary scale (47.2%) in the naturally occurring data in Rinnert and Kobayashi (1999, p. 1189). What is more, when the analyses of the occurrences on the propositional and illocutionary scales were combined, English speakers' most frequent strategy was "potential grounder" added "component" (30.6%) (Rinnert & Kobayashi, 1999, p. 1189).

Besides the research findings on their frequency as mentioned above, the other basis for the inclusion of "requestive hints by stating potential grounder" was the fact that the way they are reported to occur sounds fairly clear: giving a reason why the request is necessary (Rinnert & Kobayashi, 1999, p. 1188). This was thought to be compatible with the present study's principle of including formulaic, routinized or predictable, thus teachable implied meanings. For an example of the requestive hints mentioned so far and integrated into the study, see the situation and dialogue below taken from the sitcom "Friends (1994)":

Monica, a chef, is trying to finish the job of preparing enough food for a special meeting. She has figured out that it will not be possible for her to complete the preparation in time as she did not schedule things properly. While cooking, she is talking about the situation to her housemate Rachel.

Monica: <u>Anyway, see, I planned everything really well. I planned and I planned and I planned. It just turns out, I don't think I planned enough time to actually do it…</u>

Rachel: Hey, Mon, you want some help?

Monica: If you want.

As is seen, Monica does not use a direct statement of request like "(Could/Can you) please help me finish cooking. (?)" Instead, while cooking hastily at the same time, she just indicates the problem (Taguchi, 2005, p. 549), which is the reason why a request for help is necessary. In that way, she makes the requestive hint that her housemate Rachel cooks with her so that she can finish the job in time. Considering Rachel's offer of help that follows Monica's words, we also see that it does not take long at all for Rachel to get the hint. Monica jumping at the offer confirms the fact that her initial words were meant to function as an implied request (requestive hint) for Rachel's help.

Indirect advice. The last type of implied meanings included in this study is Indirect Advice (Matsumura, 2001; 2007), which is explained as "indirect comments with no advice" (Matsumura, 2001, p. 646) where the speaker's intentions are not made explicit (Brown & Levinson, 1987; Levinson, 1983). As is the case with Disclosures and Indirect Requests, to the best of the researcher's knowledge, indirect pieces of advice have not yet been openly reported as formulaic, routinized, homogeneous or predictable. Nevertheless, examining the advice-giving scenarios and options in Matsumura's (2001, p. 676; 2007, p. 187) multiple-choice questionnaire adapted from Hinkel (1997), the researcher believed that at least a certain way of indirect advice-giving could be teachable, thus suitable for being included in this study. The rationale was that the advice-giving way in question can be considered to contain some semantic clues that point to a tentatively identifiable pattern: Without using forms like "should (not), had better (not) etc", one offers the advice indirectly by just giving a/the reason why the hearer should or should not do the thing which is the subject of the advice. See the following example modified and adapted from Matsumura (2001, p. 679; 2007, p. 190), which was not used in the data collection instrument or instruction program of

this study as it would require knowledge about the Canadian cities Banff and Vancouver, especially the distance between them:

You have just heard from your supervisor that s/he is considering a trip to Banff from Vancouver in a car which breaks down frequently. You think it would be appropriate to say:

"Taking such a long trip in this car may be risky."

As shown here, without employing some well-known advice-giving patterns like "should (not), had better (not) etc", the speaker offers his/her advice by just giving the reason why the hearer should not take the car for such a long trip and that reason is the fact that doing it might be risky. The logic here could be likened to what is typically done by people who work as financial advisors. As is known, they often set forth a good number of reasons to buy or sell some particular financial instruments. However, with the concern that their statements could be interpreted as sound advice likely to burden them with responsibility for any loss of addressees, they use warning notices like the following:

This document is for information and illustrative purposes only and does not purport to show actual results. It is not, and should not be regarded as investment advice or as a recommendation regarding any particular security or course of action (Retrieved on July 7, 2016 from http://www.nisa.com/psrx-disclaimer/).

The strategy described above can be claimed to be one of the advice-giving options in most of the scenarios in Matsumura's (2001, p. 676; 2007, p. 187) multiple-choice questionnaire. The only exception can be considered to be the scenario about a broken vending machine from which people cannot get a pop or the money back (Matsumura, 2001, p. 677; 2007, p. 188).

Besides viewing it as formulaic and teachable because it contains some semantic clues that point to a particular pattern, there were two more reasons why the above-discussed advice giving way was included in this study as modified from Matsumura's (2001, 2007) scenarios.

First, Matsumura (2001) reported that offering indirect advice was a strategy favored to a considerable extent by his native speaker participants. When we exclude that "broken vending machine" item from his four-option multiple-choice questionnaire, for the three scenarios where advice is to be offered to a higher status person, "Indirect" was the native speakers' most frequent choice in one of the scenarios and the second most in the other two. For the three scenarios where advice is to be offered to an equal status person, "Indirect" was the native speakers' most frequent choice in again one of the scenarios and the second and third most in the other two. For the three scenarios where advice is to be offered to a lower status person, "Indirect" was the native speakers' most frequent choice in two of the scenarios and the third most in the other one.

It is worth noting here that the lower status hearers were 1st-year university students addressed by higher-year university students, about which Matsumura (2001, p. 645; 2007, p. 172) asserts that it is a part of an existing Japanese hierarchical system where 2nd- and 3rd-year students are considered to be *senpai*, that is, to be in a higher status than 1st-year students, and according to this hierarchy, 1st-year students normally use polite expressions when talking to *senpai*. Considering the status relationships from the viewpoint of the 1st- and higher-year university students in Turkey, where it is impossible under normal conditions to talk about such a hierarchy and titles like "senpai", the higher status speaker-lower status hearer interactions in Matsumura (2001, 2007) were adapted to this study as scenarios where individuals of relatively equal statuses interact.

The second reason why indirect advice was included in this study as modified from Matsumura (2001, 2007) concerns the consideration given in the ending of the preceding

paragraph. For the data collection instrument of this study, all the test items were based on either conversations that take place between people of relatively equal statuses or utterances that speakers make to themselves. Similar to what Roever (2005) did for the speech acts section of his pragmatic assessment battery, the aim was to keep the social distance and power differential relatively low so that the participants' comprehension performance of implied meanings would be measured under as controlled contextual parameters as possible. In this regard, the higher status speaker-lower status hearer interactions in Matsumura (2001, 2007) were included in the data collection instrument of this study as scenarios where people of relatively equal statuses interact.

Fillers. Like in Taguchi (2005), in addition to the item types described so far, a certain number of filler items that tested literal comprehension were included in the test. They dealt with basic, direct interpretation. They were excluded from the analyses.

The filler items were meant to deflect the participants' attention from the true purpose of the test, which is to investigate how test takers comprehend the nonliteral meanings. If the test had been composed of only implied meaning items, participants who discover it after answering some initial questions could stop examining the rest and continue by just searching for the response options that give indirect interpretation.

Chapter III. Methodology

This chapter consists of four sections. Section 3.1 explains the research model adopted in the study. Section 3.2 provides detailed information about the development, design and key features of the data collection instrument. Section 3.3 describes the two piloting phases before the main study. Section 3.4 gives information about the main study itself with details like the research site, participants and procedure.

Research Model

This study aimed first to reveal the way in which EFL teacher trainees, who could also be considered advanced EFL learners, interpret implied meanings in English in reference and comparison with the NSs of the language. Besides that, it set out to test the efficiency of a specially designed instruction program dedicated to help the trainees better and faster interpret the implied meanings in question.

In this regard, the current study employed a "pretest - treatment – posttest" procedure in a quasi-experimental design, where the researcher was interested in an "interventional treatment effect" investigated by comparing groups including control and referent groups and where the treatment and control groups were identified in advance with no use of randomization in allocating the subjects to the treatment conditions (Aussems, Boomsma & Snijders, 2011).

In addition, in order to more convincingly ascribe the significant performance changes to the treatment given to the experimental group and to look at also the "process" in which such differences arose, systematized semi-structured interviews were conducted with selected participants. The other but equally important aim here was to meet the requirements of the concept of "triangulation" in social sciences research, which is the combination of qualitative and quantitative methods in the study of the same phenomenon (Denzin, 1978, p. 291), and an

operational vehicle to cross-validate that two or more distinct methods are found to be consistent with each other and present comparable data (Jick, 1979).

Development and Design of the Main Data Collection Instrument

After the review of the related literature that had thitherto accumulated, the first practical step in this study was to start the development of the data collection instrument. Considering the previous high-profile studies specifically on the interpretation of implied meanings (Bouton, 1988, 1992, 1999; Roever, 2005; Taguchi, 2002, 2005), a multiple-choice discourse completion test (MDCT) was decided to be adopted as the central data collection instrument.

Theoretical background to the data collection instrument. First of all, a certain number of scenarios (situations) that contain the target implied meanings had to be determined. Those scenarios were supposed to provide the basis on which the test's questions and response options would be built. To that end, all of the related studies providing appropriate scenarios were examined to be adapted to this study. The table below shows the final numbers of the test items in each group of target implied meanings and the studies from which they were adapted.

Table 1

The Numbers of the Test Items in Each Group of Implied Meanings and their Sources

Implied Meaning	Number of Test Items	Source
Pope Questions	5	(Bouton, 1994)
Indirect Criticism	4	(Bouton, 1994; Kubota, 1995)
Indirect Advice	4	(Matsumura, 2001; 2007)
Topic Change	4	(Roever, 2005)
Disclosure	3	(Taguchi, 2005)
Irony	3	(Colston, 2000)
Indirect Refusals	3	(Taguchi, 2005)
Indirect Requests	2	(Rinnert and Kobayashi, 1999)
Filler Items	5	(Taguchi, 2005)

The number of items in each group and the total number of items were determined with the intention of devising a test which can be administered in a 40-minute class hour.

As previously mentioned, the abovementioned studies can provide even more situations and items that include both the implied meanings covered in this study and those that are not. Therefore, the need is felt here to explain why particularly the above-listed implied meanings were chosen to compose the main data collection instrument of this study.

In the very beginning, the study was already planned to include an instructional dimension. The intention was to measure the participants' pre and posttest performances only on the implied meanings that they would be taught in the instruction period. To prepare for that, Bouton's (1988, 1994, 1999) studies served as the guiding light. The reason was the fact that his studies were the pioneering ones to investigate how native and nonnative speakers of English interpret implicatures and whether nonnative speakers' interpretive skills can be

improved through instruction. One of Bouton's key findings was that the more formulaic an implicature is, the less resistant it is to formal instruction. He had conceptualized a formulaic implicature as one which contains structural or semantic clues that point to a particular pattern (Bouton, 1999, p. 66).

In this regard, considering the related literature, it should be restated here that some of the implied meanings listed above are ones that have already been reported as formulaic. For the rest of them, the claim in the present study is that at least some of their variations can be deemed formulaic, thus teachable. This rationale is discussed thoroughly in the related subsections of the "Literature Review" section with a focus on each implied meaning type covered in this study.

Modification of the language in the test items. After deciding on the initial versions of the scenarios and ensuing talks in the test items, a (British) native speaker of English, who is a colleague with 25 years' experience in foreign language teaching and EFL teacher training, was asked to proofread them all. This step was seen strictly necessary as the researcher had tried to shorten and/or simplify the language of all the scenarios and utterances. The aim was to minimize the effect of language proficiency nuances between the participants so that the validity of the test could be enhanced to primarily measure the construct of implied meaning comprehension.

This simplification and modification procedure was inspired by the way Roever (2005, p. 46) standardized, shortened and simplified the items that he had adapted from Bouton's (1988, 1994, 1999) test, which will be described later in detail.

Following Roever (2001), Taguchi (2005, p. 550) as well tried to reduce the effect of some construct-irrelevant factors in the implied meaning comprehension measurement to be done by her test. In order to minimize the variance from her learners' difference in vocabulary knowledge for example, all vocabulary in her items was drawn from Longman's 2,000-word

defining vocabulary list (Longman, 1995). The 2,000 words in question are identified as common and basic English words, which makes them the ones chosen to write all the word definitions in the Longman dictionary. Accordingly, the 2,000-word-level vocabulary items were considered to be relatively attainable by her L2 participants. Besides that, Taguchi (2005, p. 550) took great care to keep the lengths of all of the conversations in her test approximately the same. Her aim was to control the burden on short-term memory. Moreover, she used equal number of words in her question and option sentences across item categories so that the effect of some irrelevant variables like reading time could be lessened.

After the aforementioned colleague proofread the initial versions of this study's test items, a meeting was held with him to discuss the alteration and revision suggestions that he had come up with. In that meeting, almost all the items were refined to varying extents in terms of grammar and some word choices.

With the refined versions of the test items at hand, the next step was writing response options for each item so that the data collection instrument could serve as a multiple-choice test.

Writing the response options for the test items. Appointing the correct answers in the multiple-choice test developed for this study was fairly easy. The favored responses in the studies that the items had been adapted from were already self-evident.

As for the selection of the incorrect responses, some were adopted with no or minor changes from the studies that the items had been borrowed from. For the rest, the present study drew on a synthesis of three methods employed in the related literature to write response options for multiple-choice tests designed to investigate implied meanings comprehension.

As mentioned above, there were a certain number of test items adapted already with some ready-made response choices. In this regard, the synthesis of methods in question was

intended to serve also as a step to converting the other borrowed items (originally with no response options) into multiple-choice test items.

Bouton's (1988) method was the first to be manipulated for that synthesis. It called for having nonnative speakers of English respond to the item stems and then using their responses different from the favored ones as distractors. To that end, the first step was dividing the total number of the test items into three even groups. After that, they were printed on three separate handout forms and administered to three different teacher trainee groups of 60 people. They were students who had enrolled in the summer school courses of 2012-2013 academic year and they did not participate in any further phase of the study. They were asked to respond to each item, which consisted of a brief description of the situation, the utterance(s) and an open ended question that reads: *"What does (the last speaker's name) probably mean?"* Below is an example:

> *Maria and Frank are working on a class project together but they won't be able to finish it by the deadline.*
>
> *Maria: "Do you think Dr. Gibson is going to lower our grade if we hand it in late?"*
>
> *Frank: "Do fish swim?"*
>
> *What does Frank probably mean?*

As explicated before in the section devoted to Pope Questions, the favored interpretation for the item above would be something like "he (Dr. Gibson) will of course lower our grade if we do that." Accordingly, the teacher trainees' responses which differed from such an interpretation were all recorded as the distractor alternatives for the item. An example to the erroneous interpretations was interestingly in reference to a well-known saying in Turkish where the central figure is a fish: "Battı balık yan gider." Within the context of the

item above, it can be interpreted to mean something like "As we do not seem to have any other chance, let's just take the risk and hand in the project late to face the consequences."

This procedure was followed for each item and the first group of distractor alternatives was thereby obtained.

For the second group of distractor alternatives, Taguchi's (2005, p. 550) principles for distractor writing were considered. They are as follows:

* **Principle 1:** The option contains a meaning that is the opposite of the implied meaning.

* **Principle 2:** The option contains words taken from the last part of the dialogue.

* **Principle 3:** The option is related to the overall conversation.

For each item, the researcher tried to apply all the above-mentioned principles. However, just as the impossibility that Taguchi (2005, p. 560) encountered herself, it was not possible for the researcher to follow all the three distractor principles for all the items. An example reason is the fact that, when the last utterance in a dialogue was extremely short, containing only a few words, it was difficult to write a distractor following the second principle, "taking words from the last utterance" (Taguchi, 2005, p. 560).

Nonetheless, the procedure did contribute to the pool of distractor alternatives for almost all the items in the present study. For example, two of the distractors in the item below were provided by this procedure:

Roger is thinking of taking his car to a repair shop in the city centre. His friend

Melanie knows that the shop is known for doing careless work.

Melanie: "I don't usually take my car there. It has a really bad reputation."

What does Melanie probably mean?

○ Roger should take his car there for only small repairs.

○ She advises Roger not to take his car to that repair shop. (the   favored   response)

○ The reputation of a place is important.   (the one based on principle 2)

○ Roger can take his car there. (the one based on principle 1)

As mentioned before, this study drew on a synthesis of three methods to develop the response options to be counted as the distractors. Accordingly, for the third group of distractor alternatives, Roever's (2005) viewpoint was taken into consideration.

Despite finding it intuitively appealing, Roever viewed Bouton's aforementioned procedure for item design as questionable. His postulation was that incorrect response choices produced by nonnative speakers does not guarantee unambiguous, good distractors (Roever, 2005, p. 46), which is reported by Hudson, Detmer and Brown (1995) as well. In this regard, exercising his own judgment, Roever built new distractors wherever he found the ones borrowed from Bouton ambiguous for some reason. This procedure was followed in this study too when the distractors developed with the two aforementioned methods were not considered quantitatively or qualitatively inadequate. Below is an item to exemplify how it was done. In it, all the three distractors were written with the researcher's own judgment as the ones produced with the two other procedures had not been considered unambiguous or challenging enough:

Susan and Tom, friends, are talking about what is going on in their lives. Susan

knows Tom had a job interview recently.

Susan: 'So how was your interview? Did you get the job you applied for?'

Tom: 'Um . . I think I need to improve my interview skills.'

What does Tom probably mean?

- ○ He did not get the job. *(the favored response)*

- ○ He wants help from Susan to improve his interview skills.

- ○ He will have the interview when he feels his interview skills are good enough.

- ○ They gave him the job with the advice that he should improve his interview skills.

Conversion of the data collection instrument into a web-based test. After developing the initial version of the test items with the principles and procedures described above, the next step was to create a web-based multiple-choice discourse completion test (MDCT) out of it. The following two sections give some fundamental aspects of that web-based MDCT.

Technical aspects of the test. First of all, a professional computer programmer was paid to cooperate. Keeping in close touch with the researcher before and during the development of the system, he designed the test as a web-based one that should run on any common web browser. He wrote the codes in a way that the system would control item delivery, scoring, data storage and all other functionality. More details about especially the test taking practice are provided later in the "Procedure" section.

Content aspects of the test. The idea of using a multiple-choice test with certain components and its conversion into a web-based one grew from the fact that both of these procedures had been successfully used in related previous studies (Bouton, 1988, 1994, 1999; Roever, 2005; Taguchi, 2005). Permission for the adoption or adaption of the test items used in this study was obtained from all the referenced researchers who could be contacted.

Each test item had the same format and elicited what a character in the item stem probably means with his or her utterance. What the test taker would say or mean in the

situation was not elicited in any way, which is common in pragmatics research instruments (Roever, 2005, p. 45). The idea was to investigate test takers' interpretation of the implied meanings rather than their favor or disfavor of some particular strategies.

The response choices counted as "correct" were designed to occur as equally frequent as possible in all response option positions. The aim was to ensure that systematic guessing by test takers would lead to only chance level correctness.

In a similar way to Roever's (2005) test on implicatures, all the items were standardized as explained below:

1. All the characters in the items have names and all are introduced in the item stems. This is intended to be an improvement to Bouton's (1988, 1994, 1999) items with generic descriptions like "two friends", "two teachers" etc and to some scenarios adapted from studies like Matsumura's (2001, 2007) where the characters are given false names like "P.D", "C.J", "X.L".

2. Except for two of them, every item is based on a conversational situation where a male interlocutor addresses a female one or vice versa. This is for the sake of gender balancing and aimed to be an improvement to male-male or female-female items.

One of those two exceptional items includes an ironic utterance that the male speaker makes to himself like muttering. Its original version in Colston (2000) was already that way. Besides that, the researcher and the assisting native speaker colleagues could not figure out a way to add a female interlocutor in the situation without making the item sound unnatural. Below are the original version of the item stem and the related ironic utterance (Colston, 2000, p. 1581):

Henri was an avid cyclist and was eagerly awaiting a new, very expensive, high tech bicycle he had ordered from this new company. When it finally arrived, it turned out to be really heavy and poorly constructed. When Henri saw that he was cheated by the bike company, he said,

"This company is incredibly honest."

The other exceptional item includes a scenario with indirect criticism (damning with faint praise) and its original version takes place between two female characters as given below (Bouton, 1988, p. 194):

Brenda and Sally have lunch every Tuesday. As they meet on this particular day, Brenda stops, twirls like a fashion model, and the following dialogue occurs:

Brenda: I just got a new dress. How do you like it?

Sally: Well, there certainly are a lot of women wearing it this year. When did you get it?

How does Sally like Brenda's new dress?

For the initial version of the test used in the first pilot study, it was one of the items that were included in the attempt to achieve gender balancing. It was modified so that it took place between one male and one female speaker. The result is provided below:

Brenda is waiting for her boyfriend Jim at a cafe for lunch. When he comes to the table, Brenda stands up, and twirls like a fashion model, smiling.

Brenda: I just got a new dress. How do you like it?

Jim: Well . . . there certainly are a lot of women wearing it this year. When did you get it?

What does Jim probably mean?

In the period between the first pilot study and the main study, six native speakers were interviewed about each item. The consensus emerged between them on the fact that the item

would sound much more natural if the dialogue happened between two female characters, which is the situation in its original version anyway. One native speaker even objected that Jim sounded homosexual in the way the item was modified as shown above. Therefore, in the versions of the test used after the first pilot study, the item was re-modified so that the conversation occurred between two female characters and with a rephrased answer to the first character's question.

3. The question before each set of response options is always in the same format, which was adopted from Roever (2005): "What does NAME of the SPEAKER probably mean?" This is intended to be an improvement to Bouton's (1988, 1994, 1999) items using different questions for different items like "Which of the following best says what Bill meant?", "Which of the following is the closest to what the friend meant by this remark?"

This standardization served also as another step to the conversion into multiple-choice test items of some adapted scenarios originally with no question and/or response options.

Vocabulary explanations in the test. In order to minimize the effects of vocabulary knowledge differences between the participants, all the previously selected vocabulary items were displayed as underlined on the computer screen. Whenever a test taker positioned his/her cursor on any of them, the related definition from Cambridge Learner's Online Dictionary (reference) automatically appeared.

Most of the words underlined for this functionality were determined as early as when the test items were administered to teacher trainee groups in the open-ended format previously explained. Before, during and after responding to the items, the teacher trainees were systematically encouraged to ask about any lexical units that posed a problem for them. Every query of theirs was noted down so that the decision could later be made on the vocabulary that required the incorporation of explanations from Cambridge Learner's Dictionary. Besides

that, the researcher included some other vocabulary items that he considered salient even though they had not been queried by the teacher trainees.

Having developed the initial version of the web-based multiple-choice discourse completion test (MDCT) with the procedures and aspects described in this section, the following step for the researcher was to conduct the pilot study to refine the test as the central data collection instrument of the main study.

Pilot Studies

First pilot study. In the way Roever (2005) did to pilot his data collection instrument, the pilot study in this research was carried out with different groups at different times.

The first group consisted of two subgroups: 69 first year EFL teacher trainees at Uludag University and 13 Turkish citizens (all over the age of 30) who had been schooled and lived in an English-speaking country for between 9 and 36 years. The first subgroup was meant to work like Roever's EFL group of target proficiency while the second one was intended to function as his English as a Second Language (ESL) group.

The second group was comprised of 23 EFL learners at the School of Foreign Languages at Uludag University. They had all been ranked at beginner/elementary level a year earlier by the university's official placement test. They participated in this study after a year's intensive EFL instruction given to put them at a level relatively higher than intermediate. They were meant to function as Roever's EFL group below target proficiency.

The third group was 12 native speakers of English (5 American, 4 British, 1 Canadian, 1 Australian and 1 South African). They were intended to work like Roever's group above target proficiency. Besides that, as seven of them (5 American, 1 British and 1 Australian) were later interviewed one by one about each test item, they functioned also like Roever's native speaker participants that produced verbal protocols.

The aim of collecting pilot study data from such distinctly different groups was to cross-validate the decisions to refine and improve the test.

In this regard, the results provided by especially the EFL teacher trainees, ESL group members and native speakers were examined to determine the test items with malfunctioning response options. The distractors which had not been chosen by any of the EFL teacher trainees and ESL group members were identified as to be altered. Additionally, the common items with the lowest item-total correlations for all the three groups were categorized as to be revised or completely replaced.

The scores of the EFL teacher trainees were separately considered to identify the general suitability of the test for the target proficiency group. The test proved relatively suitable, with test takers scoring on average 52.95%.

The scores of the EFL learners at the School of Foreign Languages were used in a comparison with those of the ESL group members. The objective was to have more data on the evaluation of general suitability and item revision. The expected great variability between the groups did arise in the test scores: EFL learners scored 29.19% while ESL group members scored 73.90%.

The results seemed promising in that the test proved generally suitable for the EFL teacher trainees, who were the prospective participants of the main study. In addition, the test reflected the variability between the relatively low and higher proficiency groups. However, as they would serve also as the referent group for the favored responses in the test, the average performances of the ESL group and native speakers were relatively unsatisfactory with 73.90% and 72.91% respectively. Besides, there were items with some particular response options chosen saliently less or more frequently than expected.

The doubts arising were resolved when seven native speakers were interviewed about the test items. Their comments that overlapped with each other led to a considerable number of rightful changes in terms of the points laid below:

* The wording of the situations in some item stems was revised. This hopefully added clarification to the contexts in which the implied meanings happen.

* The distractors were altered or replaced when any of them was interpreted as not clearly enough correct or incorrect. This hopefully decreased the number of the ambiguous items where two or more response options were likely to be picked as the favored option.

* Several revisions were made in the grammar and/or word choices of some items. This hopefully helped them sound more native speaker-like.

The most important result of the debriefing sessions with the seven native speakers was that a second pilot study was decided to be conducted, which had not been planned in the very beginning at all.

Second pilot study. Before carrying out the second pilot study, four (three American, one British) of the native speakers who had contributed in the previous debriefing sessions were interviewed again one by one. Their common point was that they were all trained and experienced in the field of language teaching (in Turkey as well). Before the talks, a considerable number of revisions and alterations had already been made according to the data gathered in the first pilot study. Moreover, thanks to the help of a friend of the researcher's, a new native speaker group of 14 people at the physics department of an American University had taken the revised version of the test, with five of them providing also their direct feedback on wording and some alternative distractors.

Eventually, in the printouts prepared for each one of the four abovementioned ELT professionals, beneath the revised version of every test item, there were also the alternative

revision ideas inspired by the debriefing sessions of the first pilot study and the contributions of the additional 14 American test-takers. In this way, the ELT professional native speakers, who were assisting the researcher face-to-face, were provided the favored revisions together with their alternatives so that they were able to discuss the most appropriate changes by taking account of all the options that had accumulated.

The new version of the test was developed in consideration of these four native speakers' paralleling views on the revision alternatives. The new ideas that came up during the talk with any one of them were later shared with the others via emails, and compromise was sought.

Some information is provided below to exemplify how a considerable number of items evolved to varying extents through the painstaking stages of the test development procedure explained so far. First, the sample item is given in the way it was in its source (Colston, 2000, p. 1581):

Henri was an avid cyclist and was eagerly awaiting a new, very expensive, high tech bicycle he had ordered from this new company. When it finally arrived, it turned out to be really heavy and poorly constructed. When Henri saw that he was cheated by the bike company, he said,

This company is a tiny bit sneaky. (UNDERSTATEMENT)

This company totally stole my money. (LITERAL)

This company is incredibly honest. (VERBAL IRONY)

What follows is its final version used in this study:

Henry loves cycling. He orders a new, very expensive bicycle from a new bicycle company. When it arrives, he sees that it is really heavy and does not look well-made at all.

Henry: "Wow, this company's really honest."

What does Henry probably mean?

- ○ The company is dishonest.

- ○ The company is a bit sneaky.

- ○ The company is really honest.

- ○ It is normal as the company is new.

As seen above; apart from the abridgement and simplification work, the test items sometimes needed to be added characters, a question and proper response options.

In addition, as Taguchi (2005, p. 549) did for the dialogues in her study, linguistic units that characterize the interactive nature of spoken English, such as discourse markers (e.g., *well, you know*), interjections (e.g., *oh*), or hesitation markers (e.g., *um*; see Biber, Johansson, Leech, Conrad, & Finegan, 1999) were included in as many utterances as possible with the help of the assisting native speakers.

Consequently, the new test with the finally decided changes were administered to

* 43 EFL Teacher Trainees at Uludag University (10 to 11 students from 1st, 2nd, 3rd and 4th graders each),

* 21 native speakers of English (13 American, 3 British, 2 Australian, 2 Canadian, 1 New Zealander),

* 14 EFL learners at the School of Foreign Languages at Uludag University, who had been ranked at pre-intermediate level four months earlier by the university's official placement test and participated in this study after a three and a half months' intensive EFL instruction,

* 11 high school students, who had been grouped with regard to their previous achievements in EFL and were getting a language intensive education to enroll for such

university programs as ELT, English Language and Literature, Translation and Interpreting Studies.

The data were analyzed with SPSS 22.

The Cronbach Alpha's Reliability Coefficient for the EFL teacher trainees (both the target and biggest group) was calculated as ".777", which can be considered acceptably high.

To see if there were any significant differences between the four participant groups, one-way ANOVA was performed. As the homogeneity of the variances of groups (Levene's test) was not satisfied (p<0.01), non-parametric tests (Kruskal Wallis) were conducted. The tests showed significant differences among the groups investigated: $\chi^2 = 54.589$, p<0.01.

To see if there were significant differences between the specific pairs of participant groups, Mann-Whitney pair-wise comparisons were performed. The tables below show the results:

Table 2

Mann-Whitney Pair-wise Comparisons between the Teacher Trainees and School of Foreign Languages Students in Pilot Study 2

Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	P
EFLTT*	43	34.64	1498.50	58.50	0.000
EFLL**	14	11.68	163.50		

EFLTT*: EFL Teacher Trainees

EFLL:** EFL Learners at the School of Foreign Languages

As displayed in Table 2, a significant difference (p<0.01) was found between the two groups in favor of the EFL teacher trainees, which would be expectable considering the differences in terms of the length and content of their work with English.

Table 3

Mann-Whitney Pair-wise Comparisons between the Teacher Trainees and Native Speakers of English in Pilot Study 2

Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	P
EFLTT*	43	22.78	979.50	33.500	0.000
NAT**	21	52.40	1100.50		

EFLTT*: EFL Teacher Trainees

NAT:** Native Speakers of English

As Table 3 suggests, a significant difference (p<0.01) was found between the two groups in favor of the native speakers, which would be expectable considering the fact that English is their mother tongue while it is still a foreign language for the other group's members though they were at a relatively advanced level.

Table 4

Mann-Whitney Pair-wise Comparisons between the Teacher Trainees and High School Students in Pilot Study 2

Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	P
EFLTT*	43	27.23	1171.00	225.000	.804
HSS**	11	28.55	314.00		

EFLTT*: EFL Teacher Trainees

HSS:** High School Students

As the Table 4 above shows, a significant difference (p>0.05) was not detected between the two abovementioned groups. This could be considered predictable as students like those in the high school group function as the primary source of undergraduates for university programs such as English Language Teaching. Therefore, it is possible to postulate that the

teacher trainee participants had the position of the high school students a couple of years ago while some of the latter would probably be the 1st year students of different ELT departments a couple of months later.

Table 5

Mann-Whitney Pair-wise Comparisons between the School of Foreign Languages Students and Native Speakers of English in Pilot Study 2

Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	P
EFLL *	14	7.50	105.00	.000	.000
NAT**	21	25.00	525.00		

EFLL*: EFL Learners at the School of Foreign Languages

NAT**: Native Speakers of English

As put in Table 5, a significant difference (p<0.01) was found between the two groups in favor of the native speakers, which would be expectable considering the fact that English is their mother tongue while the students of the School of Foreign Languages were officially diagnosed as "false beginners" for English nearly a year earlier.

Table 6

Mann-Whitney Pair-wise Comparisons between the School of Foreign Languages Students and High School Students in Pilot Study 2

Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	P
EFLL*	14	8.89	124.50	19.500	.002
HSS**	11	18.23	200.50		

EFLL*: EFL Learners at the School of Foreign Languages

HSS**: High School Students

As can be seen in Table 6, a significant difference (p<0.05) was found between the two groups in favor of the High School students. This would be predictable considering the fact that they were a group that formed with regard to their former achievements in EFL and they were getting a language intensive education to enroll for university programs based on EFL study. On the other hand, as mentioned before, the students of the School of Foreign Languages were officially diagnosed as false beginners nearly a year earlier.

Table 7

Mann-Whitney Pair-wise Comparisons between the Native Speakers of English and High School Students in Pilot Study 2

Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	P
NAT*	21	21.29	447.00	15.000	.000
HSS**	11	7.36	81.00		

NAT*: Native Speakers of English

HSS**: High School Students

One can see in Table 7 that a significant difference (p<0.01) was found between the two groups in favor of the native speakers, which would be expectable considering the fact that English is their mother tongue while a foreign language for the other group's members although they were at a relatively advanced proficiency level.

As the tables above suggest, the results fulfilled the expectations and predictions more satisfactorily than the first pilot study. The performance of the native speakers was remarkably high, which is plausible. Moreover; there were statistically significant differences between their performance and those of all the other participant groups, which showed that the study could address a problem worth investigating and then addressing with pragmatic instruction.

Apart from the comparison between the native speakers and the other three groups, it is also seen that the performance differences between particular pairs of groups seem to be attributable to the proficiency differences, which should be predictable. This could be argued to be a strength of the test as it seemed to reflect the performance variability between participants from different proficiency levels.

Another positive feature of the test can be considered the fact that all the distractors of every item were chosen by the target group members (EFL teacher trainees) in varying frequencies. This means that none of the distractors was just an ineffective space filler, which could give the possibility to claim that they functioned in the way they had been supposed to.

After the piloting phases, which turned out to be a strenuous long effort, the major data collection phase was to begin. Like Roever's (2005, p. 52) experience following Hudson et al. (1995), the piloting process took nearly a year but it was felt that a well-designed test was essential to obtaining meaningful results. From the administration of the initial pilot test till that of its final version for the main study, after receiving a thank-you note from the researcher, some native speaker participants e-mailed their comments about their experience even though none of them had been asked or encouraged to in any way. The change between the beginning and end of the process could be viewed as quite dramatic, which justifies the work during the hard, long piloting period. Below are given some comments to illustrate the point that has just been made. While the first three are from the beginning, the fourth one is from the midst and the others are from the end of the process:

1) "Hope it works out. I'm sure you know what you're doing but some of the phrases weren't actually idioms?"

2) "Some parts do not sound like native English at all!"

3) "It was still possible in most cases to see what the intent was but it just sounded weird if that makes any sense. Anyways, best of luck!"

4) "It was an interesting test, although I do admit, I think some of the questions had 'wrong' answers."

5) "The test was very well written, and one can see a lot of thought went into it."

6) "Good evening, I wanted to let you know that I have completed your exam, it looks great! If there is anything else I can help with, please do not hesitate to let me know."

7) "Hi Ugur, I have completed the test. It was kind of fun. I enjoyed it. Glad i was able to help."

8) "Thought this to be very interesting. Went quickly. The discussions seemed pretty clear cut to me."

Main Study

Research site and participants. The main study was carried out mainly in the ELT Program of the Education Faculty of Uludag University in Bursa, Turkey. It offers a Bachelor of Arts (B.A.) in ELT and also a Master of Arts (M.A.) program in the same field to follow the B.A. The teacher trainees admitted to the first degree are students who are able to pass the two-phased national level university admission exam (LYS), which in its second phase measures solely the English language proficiency level of the test-takers who aim to study at the ELT programs of universities. The fundamental components of both the undergraduate and graduate programs consist of several courses each year on methodological and pedagogical approaches to foreign language teaching and testing, language acquisition, language skills and the system of English language. Besides that, the undergraduate program organizes one-year practice teaching in selected state and private elementary and high schools in the metropolitan city of Bursa, Turkey.

The first group of participants in the study comprised 144 (40 males and 104 females aged between 18 and 21) 1st year EFL teacher trainees who studied the spring semester of 2013-2014 academic year at Uludag University, Education Faculty, ELT department. (Within the bigger group of 220 students who had participated in the research in the very beginning, only their data were subject to the final analyses as they were the ones who took the pretest, missed none of the sessions during the instructional treatment and then took also the posttest). They had similar educational backgrounds. Being at university level, they had received an average of 8 years of formal English instruction at elementary and high school. This means that the participants were expected to be fairly advanced learners of English. It should be mentioned here that the impossibility of giving a test like TOEFL to the participants before the study is a limitation. There is no official data on how good their English was at the starting point.

All the participants took the "Contextual Grammar" course taught by the researcher, in which the module of "Implied Meanings" was added for the experimental group as a part of the experimental dimension of the study. In this regard, the experimental group members' basis for participation in the study was for course credit: 31% of their final exam content was allocated for the implied meanings posttest items, while the final exam on its own added up to 50% of the overall assessment for the course. On the other hand, the control group members took the course without the module of "Implied Meanings". Their inclusion in the study occurred only when they took the pre and posttest. Therefore, it can be stated that their participation in the study was only for research purposes.

The other group of participants for the main study consisted of 127 native speakers (NSs) of English. 79 were American, 32 were British, 10 were Canadian and 6 were Australian. As to genders, 63 were male and 64 were female. Their average age was 37.6.

The basis for the native speaker participation was of complete voluntariness. They can be considered in two groups. The first group was comprised of the researcher's personal contacts available for face to face communication. The second one consisted of people who were reached through their e-mail addresses acquired with the help of the personal contacts or found in some traditional and electronic mailing lists on the Internet. They were all asked to participate online from different cities, countries and even continents wherever and whenever they felt free to. In the end, out of nearly 200 people that had been requested to assist in the research, 127 agreed to participate and did so. They were of varying nationalities, ages and occupations, among whom one can find a 19-year-old female American waitress working for a fast-food restaurant, a British welfare officer in her forties, a 78-year-old male American software engineer of Israeli origin, a 32-year-old female Canadian elementary education teacher with expertise on curriculum development, a 48-year-old male Australian avionics technician and others.

The Main data collection instrument. For the sake of reminding, one major purpose of the assessment in the study was to explore the differences between native speakers of English and Turkish EFL teacher trainees in terms of comprehending indirectness (implied meanings) in English. To this end, the online multiple-choice test, which had been piloted and refined as explicated earlier in the text, was used. The following are some more technical and practical details about the test.

Each item was allocated one minute. The test was designed to be taken in a total of 35 minutes, where the aim is to make it suitable for completion in one classroom period. Although the responding time was rigorously limited, the test takers had the chance to use as much time as they wished to read through the instructions on how to take the test and to fill in the form calling for background information.

A computer and internet connection with a standard web browser were the basic requirements to take the test. Every test taker went through the same sequential steps, which are listed below:

1) A welcoming page categorizing the participants into native speakers and others,

2) A background questionnaire appearing according to the category chosen in the previous step,

3) The main test section consisting of sequential pages for each item.

Once the item on the last page of the main test section was answered, a message appeared to thank the test taker for the participation and say that s/he may close the window to log out.

To give more details about the two background questionnaire versions, we should mention that the teacher trainee test takers began with the statement that the data would be kept confidential and used for research purposes only. After that, they were asked to provide

* their names,

* gender,

* age,

* length of stay in English-speaking countries,

* how long they studied in English-Language-study intensive prep classes,

* their department and year in the department,

* when they began to learn English in their school life

* a self-rating (on a 5-point scale) of their ability to communicate in English.

Except for the name, gender and age, all the other fields were left optional as the piloting showed that people either may not clearly remember or do not prefer to enter the other pieces of information elicited.

Like the one for the teacher trainees, the background page for the native speaker test takers began with the statement that the data would be kept confidential and used for research purposes only. They were further prompted to enter their full name or a pseudonym, gender, age and nationality. After that, they were channeled to the text of instructions on how to take the test and lastly the test itself.

The details about the texts of instructions (provided in the Appendices 1 and 2 with translations where necessary) were informed by the piloting phases. Highlighting some of their parts was deemed necessary in consideration of the points that the piloting participants tended to miss or ignore. For example, as some pilot study participants seemed not to have noticed the function of the underlined words in the test items, the related part in the instructions were enlarged and colored.

The instructions text for the EFL teacher trainees was provided in Turkish. The aim was to eliminate any possibility that the test taking procedure would be spoilt because of misunderstanding how to take it. This was done in Roever (2005, p. 60) too with Japanese as

his Japanese participants were believed to have too weak reading comprehension to understand the instruction pages in English.

As mentioned before, following the background information and instructions pages, the main test section started for both the teacher trainees and native speakers. The first item was one of the easy filler items intended to serve as an icebreaker in the beginning. The rest of the items were displayed in the same order to every test taker when s/he clicked to continue from the previous item after choosing one or without picking any of the response options given.

From the main test section, a sample item for each group of items is provided below (in the way they looked to the participants on the related website). The full test is in Appendix C:

* Indirect Criticism:

Toby and Ally are trying a new buffet restaurant in town. Toby is eating something, but Ally cannot decide what to have next.

Ally: 'How do you like what you're eating?'

Toby: 'Well, let's just say it's . . colorful.'

What does Toby probably mean?

- He thinks it is important for food to look good.

- He likes the food.

- He wants Ally to try something colorful.

- He does not like the food much.

* Pope Questions:

Maria and Frank are working on a class project together but they will not be able to finish it by the deadline.

Maria: 'Do you think Dr. Gibson is going to lower our grade if we hand it in late?'

Frank: 'Do fish swim?'

What does Frank probably mean?

- ○ He thinks they should choose a new project topic on fish.

- ○ He thinks Dr. Gibson will not lower their grade.

- ○ He thinks they will get a lower grade.

- ○ He suggests just giving in the project to see the result.

* Topic Change:

Dale runs into his friend Julia. He knows Julia recently had a job interview.

Dale: 'By the way, did you get that job you applied for?'

Julia: 'Good God, I'm so tired of this cold weather.'

What does Julia probably mean?

- ○ She does not want to talk about the interview.

- ○ She is bored of searching for a job.

- ○ She did not understand Dale's question.

- ○ She could not attend the interview because of cold weather.

* Disclosure:

Susan and Tom, friends, are talking about what is going on in their lives. Susan knows Tom had a job interview recently.

Susan: 'So how was your interview? Did you get the job you applied for?'

Tom: 'Um . . I think I need to improve my interview skills.'

What does Tom probably mean?

- He did not get the job.

- He wants help from Susan to improve his interview skills.

- He will have the interview when he feels his interview skills are good enough.

- They gave him the job with the advice that he should improve his interview skills.

* Irony:

Henry loves cycling. He orders a new, very expensive bicycle from a new bicycle company. When it arrives, he sees that it is really heavy and does not look well-made at all.

Henry: 'Wow, this company's really honest.'

What does Henry probably mean?

- The company is dishonest.

- The company is a bit sneaky.

- The company is really honest.

- It is normal as the company is new.

* Indirect Refusals:

Jack sees his classmate Jane in the faculty hallway.

Jack: 'Oh, Jane. I'm so glad I ran into you. I need your help!'

Jane: 'What's up?'

Jack: 'I have a paper due tomorrow, but I'm working tonight in the cafe. Can you type my paper?'

Jane: 'Shoot! I have to study for my finals tonight.'

What does Jane probably mean?

- ☐ She will type the paper.

- ☐ She will think about it.

- ☐ She cannot type the paper for tomorrow.

- ☐ She can type it when she is done with everything.

* Indirect Requests (Requestive Hints):

Carol, an office secretary at a university, is typing at her desk. Jeff, a teacher, is in Carol's office to make a lot of printouts.

Jeff: 'The printer is almost out of ink.'

What does Jeff probably mean?

- ☐ He wants Carol to refill the ink.

- ☐ He uses the printer really very often.

- ☐ He does not want to do the printing himself.

- ☐ Carol can continue what she is doing.

* Indirect Advice:

Michael is planning not to come to today's class. His housemate Angela knows one absence loses five points in the end.

Angela: 'Well, you know, one absence loses five points from the final marks.'

What does Angela probably mean?

- ○ Michael has already lost 5 points.

- ○ She advises Michael to come to the class.

- ○ She will remind the teacher to take off five points.

- ○ She recommends that he should do as he wishes.

* Fillers:

Tom is from Atlanta. His friend Sally has recently moved to Atlanta.

Tom: 'How do you like Atlanta so far?'

Sally: 'I love it!'

What does Sally probably mean?

- ○ She thinks that Atlanta is a dirty city.

- ○ She has not seen much of the city since she moved in.

- ○ She thinks the city needs more great changes.

- ○ She likes Atlanta and enjoys living there.

As exemplified above, every item in the test section began with a statement where the characters and context are introduced. A brief conversation consisting commonly of two or three turns followed. Below the introduction and conversation, a question always of the format *"What does ……… probably mean?"* and the four response options were placed.

In addition to the parts of introductory statement, conversation, question and four answer choices, the item pages had some technical aspects to be described. They all looked as a standardized frame set. Up on the left and right were shown the item number and the time left to complete the test. Below the response options was placed the "Submit" button to finalize the decision on the answer and move on to the following item. On the bottom of every item page were found the "End Test" and "Instructions" buttons. When clicking the "End Test" button, the test takers were asked if they were sure whether they really wanted to abandon the test, and with the appearing new buttons "Yes" and "Cancel", they were given the chance to resume the test at the point where the pause had happened. When clicked, the "Instructions" button offered the test takers the possibility of seeing once again the notes on how to proceed further in the test and what to take into consideration while taking it.

Another important technical feature was that the system, simultaneously with the online test administration, stored all the responses given and recorded the average time spent for each item by each test taker. Besides that, a certain design feature was incorporated so that the test takers could not get back to the items they had answered earlier to change their recorded responses.

The time allowed for the test section was set rigorously. The moment a test taker used the last second of the 35 minutes given for the 35 items, an information window appeared on the screen to warn him/her that the time allotted had expired and s/he could log out.

As mentioned earlier; starting right from the piloting phases, a main concern was to minimize the effects of vocabulary knowledge and general language proficiency differences. To this end, besides the language of the items simplified to a significant extent, all the vocabulary items selected in the very beginning of the piloting process were displayed as underlined on the screen and whenever a test taker positioned his/her cursor on any of them,

the related definition from Cambridge Learner's Online Dictionary (reference) automatically

appeared.

The figure below provides the look of an item page with all the aspects described so far:

Question 1:

Tom is from Atlanta. His friend Sally has recently moved to Atlanta.
Tom: "How do you like Atlanta so far?" | not long ago, or at a time that started not long ago |
Sally: "I love it!"
What does Sally probably mean?

○ She thinks that Atlanta is a dirty city.
○ She has not seen much of the city since she moved in.
○ She thinks the city needs more great changes.
○ She likes Atlanta and enjoys living there.

Submit

End Test - Instructions

Figure 4. The Screen shot of a sample test item.

A point worth noting to end this part is that the detailed performance of every test taker

was automatically downloaded to the database of the software system but it was not shared

with any test taker. The reason was that almost every native speaker participant encouraged

one or more people around him/her to assist in the research, and they had all been warned

about the fact that it was vitally important that the participants taking the test earlier not give

any clue about it to those to take it later. In this regard, they knew nothing for certain about

the favored responses in the test as none was informed about how their answers were scored.

The situation was similar for the EFL teacher trainees. As will be detailed later in the

"Procedure" section, they took the test as a pretest, posttest and delayed posttest at certain

intervals and they never got feedback on their responses or scores. They never saw the items

printed or published elsewhere either.

Procedure

Recruiting the participants. To recruit the native speaker participants, the total number of whom was eventually 127, the first step was to see or contact the people with whom the researcher had personal or professional communication. They all gave their consent and participated voluntarily to take the online multiple-choice test, which is the data collection instrument of the study as described above. Later, upon the researcher's request, they asked some other native speakers around them to participate too. A certain number of people responded positively and they were all sent the identical e-mail including a personal password and the steps to reach the website to take the online test. After they took the test; like the first circle of the native speaker participants, they were requested to share the e-mail addresses of any other native speakers around them who would declare to be willing to assist. Some of them returned with one or more e-mail addresses. The same procedure was followed with the holders of those new e-mail addresses who replied positively to participate in the research. The same chain of events happened with the people who were contacted via some traditional and electronic mailing lists found on several websites like those of the organizations that bring together the foreign people living in Turkey.

This cycle repeated itself until the time when the accumulated data was finally decided to be put into analysis. As mentioned before, the native speakers from the first to the last one took the online test wherever and whenever they felt free to. They were all volunteers, and what they only needed to participate in the research was a computer with an Internet connection. Therefore, it is not possible to mention a particular setting where the study took place for them.

The recruitment of the teacher trainee participants was by far easier. They were undergraduates to take the compulsory Contextual Grammar course in their first year from the

researcher. The procedures related with the research had already been built into the content of the course.

Administration of the pretest. At the beginning of the spring semester of 2013-2014 academic year, out of the 249 students who had enrolled in the course, 220 were administered the online test firstly as a pretest. (As mentioned before, only the data provided by a specific group of 144 students were subject to the final analyses as they were the ones who took the pretest, missed none of the sessions during the instructional treatment and then took also the posttest). The pretest was taken simultaneously in a large computer laboratory in five groups on the five consecutive days of the same week. Apart from the sequential instructions automatically provided after logging in the website that housed the test, all of the trainees were given a printed set of identical instructions where they found the address of the website, a personal password and some brief directives on what to do with the hardware before, during and after the administration of the online test.

In accordance with the descriptive side of the study, which is devoted to investigating the differences between native speakers of English and Turkish EFL teacher trainees in terms of interpreting some particular implied meanings, the primary statistical analyses of the teacher trainees' performance were made after their pretest data were amassed. However; as native speaker participation in the study continued in an irregular manner until quite late in the procedure, the comparison with the performances of the native speakers became possible only when the accumulated native speaker data was eventually decided to be put into analysis. This comparison was also the finalization of the descriptive look of the study.

Experimental Phase of the Study. The experimental work of the research was initiated after the administration of the pretest to the teacher trainees. Out of the total number of 220 test takers in six classes, the population of four classes (n=141 with 39 males and 102 females) was assigned to the experimental group while that of two classes (n=79 with 26

males and 53 females) was designated as the members of the control group. The selection was completely random. As described before, they had been admitted to their department with very similar educational backgrounds and academic achievements. Besides that; they had been grouped into the six classes (officially coded with the letters A, B, C, D, E, F) according to their preferences as to the days and times they wanted to attend the lessons on, which were processed and finalized by the university's online course registration system considering the predetermined quotas. Therefore, the random assignment of the intact class populations into experimental and control groups was deemed appropriate as there was no reason to think that any of the classes was at a decisive advantage or disadvantage compared with any other one.

The experimental group was significantly larger than the control group. It was anticipated that the number of the participants in the experimental group who would regularly attend the pragmatic instruction sessions would eventually be close to the number of the participants in the control group. The outcomes vindicated the anticipation. The number of the experimental group participants who took the pretest, regularly attended all the instruction hours and finally took also the posttest was 77 (17 males and 60 females) while the number of the control group members who were able to take both the pretest and posttest was 67 (23 males and 44 females).

In a couple of weeks after the pretest, the results of the test takers in both the experimental and control groups were calculated, compared and stored.

The Pragmatic instruction (treatment)

Instructional materials. In the ensuing five weeks between the compilation of the pretest results and beginning of the treatment period, the finishing touches were put to the materials to be used for the treatment. The preparation had been under way for over one year anyway. Out of the 238 episodes of the American sitcom "Friends (1994)" aired for ten seasons, the scripts of 103 episodes had been perused word by word. The aim was to extract

the best conversations possible that exemplify the use of the implied meanings covered in the study. The dialogues chosen from the scripts served as the template on which the researcher built the treatment sessions, where he gave instruction on the interpretation of the implied meanings in question.

Language of TV shows and specifically "Friends (1994)" has been the object of academic scrutiny for different purposes (Bo, 2008; Chidester, 2008; Collins, Elliott, Berry, Kanouse & Hunter, 2003; Quaglio, 2009). The logic behind a TV sitcom for the specific purpose of pragmatic instruction lies in the pertinent literature too. The interest in bringing natural conversation to the ESL classroom, the dearth of readily available spoken corpora and the difficulty in collecting spoken data prompted some scholars to recommend using sitcoms in the ESL classroom, especially for pragmatic language teaching and learning (Washburn, 2001).

The reasons why "Friends (1994)" was chosen in a myriad of other TV series are several. First of all, the researcher was intimately familiar with it as he had watched it turning into a keener fan at each episode. That was the reason why perusing the scripts for some efficacious details to be used in the instruction was "just an arduous task" rather than a mental physical torture. Second, it was thought that the participants would enjoy watching it too as one can justifiably claim that "Friends (1994)" is one of the finest shows in television history as a commercial success and cultural phenomenon. The weekly American magazine "TV Guide" ranked it twenty-first on their list of the 50 greatest TV shows of all time. In 1997, the episode "The One with the Prom Video" was ranked hundredth on TV Guide's 100 Greatest Episodes of All-Time. Furthermore, in 2013, "Friends" ranked twenty-fourth on the Writers Guild of America's 101 Best Written TV Series of All Time. In the United States of America (U.S.), 52.5 million viewers watched the finale on May 6, 2004. Although it was not the series' most watched episode, the finale was the fourth most watched series finale in television

history (Retrieved on July 21, 2016 on http://en.wikipedia.org/wiki/The_Last_One_(Friends).

Its popularity affected the American public in various ways, from the style of women's

hairdos to the use of language (Quaglio, 2009, p. 12).

As confirmed by Quaglio (2009), the language of the sitcom was one of its strengths

alluring that many viewers for such a long time. The approximation of that language to every

day American English and its influence on regular American English conversation (Quaglio,

2009, p. 12) was most probably a key to the success of the sitcom. What is more, as Quaglio

(2009, p. 12) put it, excerpts from "Friends (1994)" have been used to exemplify features of

conversational English in ESL classrooms in the United States.

The materials prepared to be used in the instruction period were not based solely on

"Friends (1994)". Some other conversations from different TV series, movies and

commercials were used to support the ones from "Friends (1994)". The idea behind that was

to add versatility to the treatment sessions and show the students the fact that the content of

the instruction is not peculiar to the language in "Friends (1994)". The other TV series,

movies and commercials that the researcher benefited from are given in the table below:

Table 8

The Filmic Materials Used in the Pragmatic Instructional Treatment

Movies	TV Series	Commercials
Free Willy (1993)	Murphy Brown (1988)	GEICO (2009)
When Harry Met Sally (1989)	Star Trek: The Next Generation (1987)	
The Shop around the Corner (1940)	Breaking Bad (2008)	
About a Boy (2002)	Orange Is the New Black (2013)	
The Prince of Tides (1991)		
Batman (1989)		

Some of the abovementioned movies, series and commercials were chosen as the

researcher had previously watched them and remembered the instances where the target

implied meanings occurred. The rest were decided searching a website on tropes mostly in television programs (http://tvtropes.org), which is a wiki that collects and expands on various conventions and devices (tropes) found within creative works such as literature, comics, video games etc.

The Instruction period and procedure. With the instruction materials finalized as based on the aforementioned sources, the five-week period of treatment began for the teacher trainees in the experimental group. Two types of implied meanings were studied each week in one 40-minute class hour, which means that all the eight types were covered in four weeks in roughly 160 minutes. The fifth and last week of the treatment period was allocated for a revision on each type in one more 40-minute class hour, which makes the whole period a 200-minute work completed in five class hours of 40 minutes.

Arguments could be developed on whether the treatment period could have been shorter or longer. However, as Koike and Pearson (2005, p. 495) emphasizes in their study on the effect of instruction in formulating suggestions and suggestion responses in Spanish, more time spent on a particular pragmatic construct during a semester of language study is unlikely to occur, since the demands of the curriculum for the other elements of language study are unlikely to allow for that to happen. In this regard, the researcher believes that devoting even more hours to an instruction program like the one developed in this study would be against practicality. This could sound like an arbitrary decision. However, as Taguchi (2015, p. 32) puts it in her comprehensive review of studies on instructed pragmatics, decisions on treatment length have typically been arbitrary, reflecting practicality and convenience in the given study context.

Table 9 below shows the organization with the details of which types of implied meanings were studied in which week:

Table 9

The Organization of the Instruction Period on a Weekly Basis

Weeks	Types of Implied Meanings Studied	Duration
Week 1	Pope Questions	40 minutes
	Indirect Criticism	
Week 2	Irony	40 minutes
	Topic Change	
Week 3	Disclosures	40 minutes
	Indirect Requests	
Week 4	Indirect Refusals	40 minutes
	Indirect Advice	
Week 5	Revision on All Types	40 minutes
	Concluding Remarks	

It is not a coincidence that the instruction period started with Pope Questions. It was thought that it is the best alternative to generate the participants' motivation and interest at the first step. The rationale behind that thinking was the use of Pope Questions for humor and/or sarcasm and their potential to give us smiles. Besides that, one of the instructional materials prepared on Pope Questions was the humorous GEICO commercials, in which the actor Mike McGlone walks into an empty room and queries the viewer, "Could switching to GEICO really save you 15% or more on car insurance?" After that, he pauses and then asks a rhetorical Pope Question immediately followed by a funny scene cut to the subject at hand. It was eventually observed that the aim was achieved and the participants responded to the study with interest and smiles on the first day of the treatment.

The sequence of the other implied meaning types in the instructional program was not coincidental either. Although the materials for each type were made ready before the beginning of the treatment, the researcher wanted to read more from the scripts of the TV series "Friends (1994)" to see if there could be any better conversations to exemplify the implied meanings to be studied after the first week. Doing that, he used one extra week to search for more Irony and Topic Change examples, two extra weeks for more Disclosures and Indirect Requests examples, three extra weeks for more Indirect Advice and Indirect Refusals examples and four extra weeks for additional examples of all the types to be used in the revision. As a matter of fact, the procedure produced the desired outcome and some minor but notable additions and modifications were made to the materials.

All in all, the present study had been conceived in the very beginning to meet such eligibility criteria as those laid down in Taguchi's (2015, p. 3) state-of-the-art article, which brings together the research and developments of instructed pragmatics over the past three decades. Accordingly; in addition to a pre-/posttest design with a control group, fully described participants and comprehensive data that show the outcomes of the instruction, this study was supposed to include also richly detailed information about the teaching methods employed in it. The following paragraphs are intended to do that.

The pedagogical rationale behind the instruction program was to provide metapragmatic opportunities in which learners can reflect on cross-cultural differences and their understanding of pragmatics (Taguchi, 2015, p. 2). As for the practice of instruction, the template adopted was Ishihara's suggestions below on how conversational implicature might be addressed in an advanced ESL/EFL classroom:

1) Introduction of each type of implicature with the label, definition, and several examples for each;

2) discussion of new examples of implicature:

■ identification of the implicature;

■ explanation of how literal meaning did not hold and how the implicature was detected;

■ identification of what is actually implied in the messages;

■ illustration of learners' experiences with implicature;

■ identification of similar implicature in learners' L1s;

3) group work creating dialogues containing implicature;

4) analysis of new examples of implicature provided by the teacher or by the learners. (Ishihara, 2010, p. 154-155)

The figures below provide a presentation of how Ishihara's (2010) steps were adapted to teach each type of implied meanings covered in the study. The presentation is specific to "Pope Questions", but just the same procedure was adopted for all the other implied meaning types (the procedure followed for each type of implied meanings with one example can be found in the Appendices between 4 and 10):

* Introduction (in Microsoft PowerPoint slides) of the implied meaning type with the label and definition:

Figure 5. A visual illustrating how the step of "introducing each implied meaning type" was realized in the instruction.
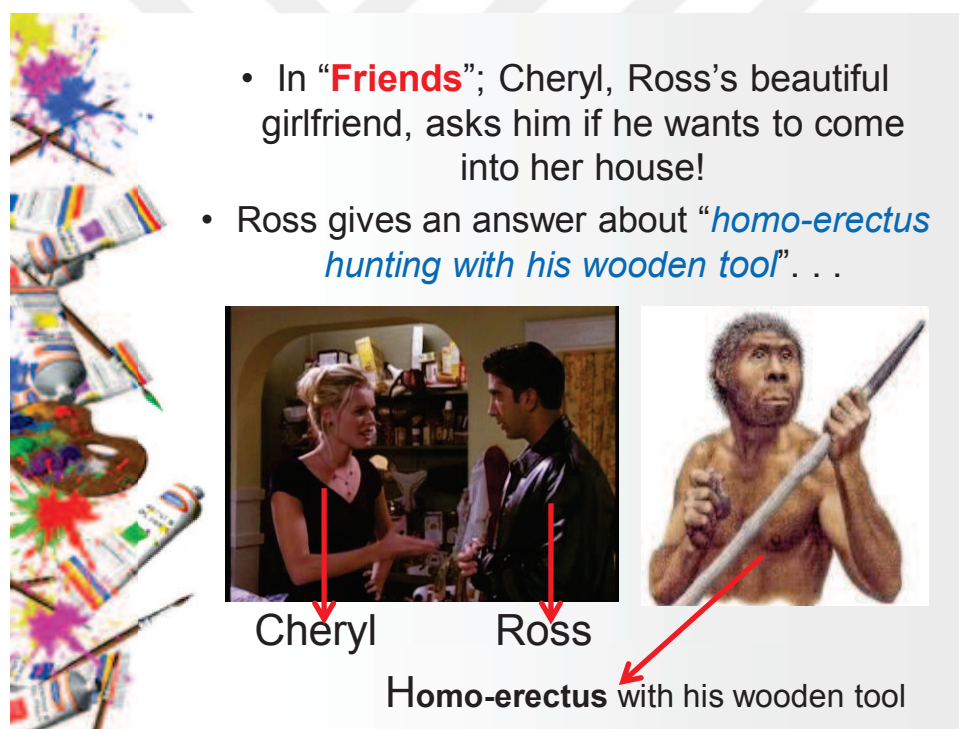
As it is seen, the labeling was not made with the term "Pope Questions", which would not have made much sense to the participants in the beginning. Instead, the labels always referred to the content and/or function of the implied meaning type at hand and they served also as the definitions to a certain extent. However, in the fifth and last week of the treatment period, which was dedicated to the revision for all the types, the technical terms like "Disclosures", "Non-conventionally Indirect (Implied) Requests" etc were provided too so that the participants who would need them for some reason could have them.

It can also be detected that the complementary definitions were not made with technical and/or academic expressions either. Instead, as illustrated above, the participants were sometimes invited to imagine themselves in a general context first, and then their thoughts were directed with some questions. At other times, after providing the label as described

above, the introductory example of the implied meaning at hand was directly given. Next, what happened in that specific context was provided so that the participants could see how the content in the label was put into practice.

* Discussion (as based on Microsoft PowerPoint slides) of examples:

■ identifying the implied meaning;

■ explaining how literal meaning did not hold and how the implied meaning was noticed;

■ identifying what is actually implied in the message;

■ hearing learners' experiences with the implied meaning (if there are any);

■ identifying a similar implied meaning in learners' L1s:

Figure 6. A visual illustrating how the step of "contextualizing the examples" was realized in the instruction.

As the visual above suggests, the context of the exemplary situation was firstly introduced. The characters were shown with their names in a screenshot, which was always taken from the scene to be used so that the participants could gain familiarity to what is to

come. Also, any element likely to be new to the participants was pre-taught with visual ads whenever possible (like about "homo-erectus" above).

Figure 7. A visual illustrating a scene in which the related example was embedded for instruction.

The slide above shows the first frame of the first scene that was used to exemplify the situations where Pope Questions can occur. Using a video-editing software, every scene was cut from the full episode or movie including it. The beginnings and ends of the scenes were determined by considering how much the participants would need to see to have a good grasp of the context without any ambiguity.

After the participants saw the starting frame as above, the scene was played as a linked video in the PowerPoint presentation so that everybody could watch and listen to it with the help of a mobile amplifier wired up to the computers in the classrooms. When the participants demanded it for some listening comprehension problems, the scene was played the second or third time.

- *Cheryl*: Um, would you like to come in?

- *Ross*: **Did homo-erectus hunt with wooden tools***?*

- As we know, homo-erectus did not have automatic guns. He, **of course**, hunted with wooden tools.

  SO,

  asking a new question with the clear answer "**YES**", Ross answers Cheryl's question with an indirect but humorous "**YES**".

Figure 8. A visual illustrating how the step of "identification of what is actually implied in each example" was realized in the instruction.

As it is seen above, after having a slide that introduces the context of the scene to come and then watching the scene itself, the participants saw the transcription of the conversation that took place in the scene. The primary aim was to clear up any lack of comprehension or miscomprehension that still continued.

The figure above gives the impression that everything in the slide was shown in one go, but that was not the case. Firstly, the turns of the conversation appeared so that the participants could come up with and discuss their preliminary ideas on the identification of the implied meaning at hand. Then along came the explanation of how the literal meaning did not hold and how the implied meaning was detected. If sought at that point, any related further clarification was given. Later, the explanation to identify what was actually implied in the message was provided. These steps were followed just as described here for two or three additional examples for all the implied meaning types covered in the study. Illustration of the learners' experiences with the implied meaning and identification of any similar implied

meaning(s) in Turkish came as the concluding steps after all the related examples were provided.

In practical terms, the steps in Ishihara (2010) not followed in this study was group work to create dialogues with the target implied meanings and their analysis. As explained before, a 40-minute class hour was dedicated each week for two particular implied meaning types. This means that 20 minutes were to be used for each type, which impelled the researcher to make a decision on how to make the best out of those 20-minute periods. The choice was providing the participants with the maximum number of examples from clips of varying lengths and making the aforementioned whole-class discussions before and after each example. If group work had been encouraged to create dialogues containing the implied meaning types studied, it would have been at cost of reducing the number of the related examples prepared. Besides, it could have caused problems about time management as every group or group member might not be equally competent or quick to produce the dialogues.

One might argue that it would still be worthwhile to encourage the dialogue writing. However, the researcher gave his preference to providing as many examples as possible considering also the possibility that not every group or group member in the classroom might work as hard as the others to create the elicited dialogues, which would have caused considerable differences between the individuals in terms of what they got from and what they did with the instruction in a particular class hour. Instead, due to the procedure described earlier in the text, all the participants had the role of an active hearer exposed to the same audiovisual examples with the same preceding and succeeding sessions in each class hour. The pace never slowed and all the students were exposed to the same continuous slide shows, during which explanations with short statements, clips and open discussions alternated.

This allowed almost no time for the students to take notes. They had already been encouraged to just follow the presentations without hurrying to write things. The materials

were not shared after the instruction either. The aim was to minimize the effects of individual differences between the students to prepare for the posttest. As far as possible, the treatment was isolated as the central source of any result to be provided by the posttest. However, the fact should be acknowledged here that it cannot be possible to talk about complete equality between the participants in terms of the processes that they went through during the lessons and their preparation for the posttest.

Administration of the posttest

Nearly four months after the administration of the pretest and 10 days after the end of the treatment period, all the available teacher trainees in the experimental and control groups took the online test this time as a posttest. The participants in the experimental group took it in two subgroups simultaneously in two large computer laboratories on the same day under the supervision of the researcher and a colleague. Those in the control group took it collectively the following day in a large computer laboratory under the supervision of the researcher. Just like in the pretest, apart from the sequential instructions automatically provided after logging in the website that housed the test, all of the trainees were given a printed set of identical instructions where they found the address of the website, a personal password and some brief directives on what to do with the hardware before, during and after the administration of the online test.

In a couple of weeks after the posttest, the results of the test takers in both the experimental and control groups were calculated and stored. However, in the comparisons with the control group and native speaker participants, only the results of those in the experimental group who took the pretest, regularly attended all the treatment sessions and finally took the posttest (n= 77 with 17 males and 60 females) were used. The results of the experimental group participants who missed even one of the treatment sessions were excluded from the performance comparisons with others. The aim was to be able to attribute the

performance changes primarily to the participation in the instruction. This was hoped to enhance the validity of the comparisons between not only the pre and posttest results of the experimental group itself but also between the experimental group and other participant groups.

Interviews

First round of the interviews. Interviewing participants had already been decided during the conception of the study. Even if a positive statistically significant difference between the pre and posttest performances would arise after the treatment, the intention was not to feel satisfied with those quantitative results and to look at the "process" in which that difference emerged. The aim was to be able to attribute the positive performance changes mainly to the gains that the treatment would bring to the students. The other but equally important aim was to meet the requirements of the concept of "triangulation" in social sciences research, which is the combination of qualitative and quantitative methods in the study of the same phenomenon (Denzin, 1978, p. 291). Operationally, it is a vehicle to cross-validate that two or more distinct methods are consistent with each other and present comparable data (Jick, 1979).

Accordingly, two weeks after the posttest, the first round interviews were conducted with a certain number of experimental group participants whose pretest and posttest results had been included in the data storage of the study. They were chosen according to some pre-established criteria.

First of all, during the comparisons between the pretest and posttest results, the participants who improved their performance on all the implied meaning types were determined. Among the students who met that criterion, seven were found to be still staying in the city of Bursa. They were all requested to meet the researcher for an interview of nearly 30 minutes. They were informed that it was about an issue relating to the course they had recently taken from the researcher. All of them complied with the request and were

interviewed in three days according to the schedule arranged in consideration of their convenient times for the meeting.

At the beginning of every interview, the interviewee was informed that the talk would be taped and his/her consent was obtained for it. The focus of every interview was the test items from each implied meaning type where the interviewee did well in the posttest while s/he had failed in the pretest. The researcher had the item-by-item pretest and posttest results of each interviewee before every interview and determined the items to focus the interview on. Throughout each talk, the researcher and the interviewee had the same printed version of the online test so that the conversation could go on in coordination till the end.

The interviews were conducted mostly in Turkish as the participants preferred to do so. It is possible to mention that they were semi-structured. They all began with an introductory statement like the following:

"You know you took a test for the module on implied meanings in my course at the beginning of the last semester, and you retook it in the end after a period of instruction based on some TV clips. You are one of the students who performed markedly better in the second test when compared to the one at the beginning of the semester. Now I have all the items where you failed on your first try and then did well in the second test. I want to talk to you about them. I aim to learn your reasoning process about each one of them and what made you select the favored options in the second go."

After the introduction above, the item-by-item queries were done as based on the template below:

"For item (the item number), you chose option (A, B, C or D) in the first test. However, in the second test, you chose option (A, B, C or D) for it, which is the favored option. Now read the item and its options once again. Try to remember as much as you can about it and

tell me the steps of thinking you followed to arrive at the correct conclusion on your second try."

After this stimulus given about each item, the rest of the conversation was shaped according to the response of the interviewee. The participants talked about the steps they followed to reach the conclusion, or they mentioned a TV series, movie or commercial that they benefited from to reach the conclusion. It is worth noting here that this procedure made each interview a stimulus recall interview to some extent.

When a participant explained the steps s/he followed to reach a favored conclusion, no further explanation was demanded if his/her explanation matched the one given in the treatment about the implied meaning type under discussion. S/he was only asked if s/he remembered and got help from at least one of the TV clips that they saw as related examples. When the answer was "Yes", s/he was asked to explain how the implied meaning worked in that particular example and how it applied to the one in the test item being discussed. When a participant tried but was not able to refer to any of the TV clips, s/he was given clues about one of them as to the characters and context in it. When s/he remembered, like in the abovementioned procedure, s/he was asked to explain how the implied meaning worked in that example and how it applied to the one in the test item under discussion. When s/he did not remember, the other related clips were tried.

When a participant's explanation of his/her route to a favored conclusion was thought to be significantly different from the one suggested in the treatment, s/he was asked if s/he could explain the route given in the treatment as well. In addition, just in the way mentioned above, s/he was asked if s/he remembered and got help from at least one of the TV clips shown as related examples. When the answer was "Yes", s/he was asked to explain how the implied meaning worked in that example and how it applied to the one in the test item being discussed. When none was recalled, the participant was given clues about one of the clips as

to the characters and context in it. When the clip was remembered, the abovementioned procedure was followed for it. When not remembered, the other related clips were tried one by one.

As stated before; when asked to talk about the steps of thinking they followed to arrive at a favored conclusion, some participants directly mentioned a TV series, movie or commercial that they benefited from. They did it saying something like *"We watched a scene where there was/were ..."* When a participant did that, s/he was asked to elaborate on how the implied meaning exactly worked in that clip and in what way s/he drew a parallelism between the clip and the test item being discussed. In addition and to conclude, s/he was asked whether it was possible for him/her to come up with the general explanation given in the treatment about the implied meaning in question.

In the stage of the interview data analysis, the researcher looked at the extent to which the participants responded to the queries above. The aim was to crosscheck that the positive performance changes can be attributable mainly to the gains brought by the instruction the participants had received.

Second round of the interviews. The second round interviews were nearly three months after the posttest when the participants returned to the faculty for the new semester. It was an ad hoc decision based on the comparisons between the pre and posttest results. The focus was now on the items where a considerable number of participants seemed to show an insistent tendency to choose a disfavored response option in the two tests. The aim was to understand why it happened and why the instruction could not do more about such items.

Like in the first round, some criteria were laid down to choose the participants to be interviewed. First of all, the students with remarkably high posttest scores were listed and the items where they chose a disfavored response option both in the pre and posttest were determined.

The researcher had long before collected all the participants' contact details from the Registrar's Office. With that database, the next step was contacting the students listed according to the abovementioned criterion. While doing that, the channel of communication that they had declared to prefer was used. Some were called or texted while the others were sent an email. Out of the nine people contacted, all responded and met the researcher. They were already around for the beginning of the new semester. In ten days' time, all of them were interviewed according to the schedule arranged considering their convenient times for the meeting.

In the same way as the first round of interviews, in the very beginning, each interviewee was informed that the talk would be taped and his/her consent was obtained for it. As mentioned before, the focus was on a couple of items where the participant seemed to show an insistent tendency to choose a disfavored response option in both the pre and posttest. The researcher had the item-by-item pretest and posttest results of each interviewee before every interview and already determined the relatively few items to focus the interview on. Throughout every talk, the researcher and the interviewee had the same printed version of the online test so that the conversation could go on in coordination till the end.

The interviews were carried out mostly in Turkish and it is possible to mention that they were semi-structured. They all began with an introductory statement like the following:

"You know you took a test for the module on implied meanings in my course at the beginning of the last semester, and you retook it in the end after a period of instruction based on some TV clips. For research purposes, I now have a small number of particular test items that I want to discuss with you as a test taker. I aim to learn your reasoning process about each one of them and how you arrive at your own conclusion about it."

After the introduction above, the item-by-item queries were done based on the template below:

"Look at item (the item number) please. Try to remember as much as you can about it. Thinking out loud, please talk to me about what you understand from the situation and the utterance(s) and response options in it. Then tell me the steps of thinking you follow to arrive at the option that you now consider to be correct."

After the stimulus above, the rest of the conversation was shaped according to the response of the interviewees. When they failed to express their understanding of the situation, utterances or response options in an item or when they neglected to verbalize their reasoning process about the option they had selected, they were asked to complete. They were warned to keep thinking aloud every time they stopped it. When considered necessary, they were asked to repeat things or start all over.

The next step came in different ways after the point where the researcher made sure that an interviewee expressed all s/he was able to.

It was seen that, in spite of having chosen a different one in the posttest, some interviewees chose the favored response option as their correct option in the interview. Moreover, they explained their route to that conclusion in a way paralleling the one suggested in the instruction. When an interviewee did so, to cross-check that s/he got what s/he was supposed to get from the treatment, s/he was asked if s/he remembered and got help from at least one of the TV clips shown as related examples in the instruction. When the answer was "Yes", s/he was asked to explain how the implied meaning worked in that particular example and how it applied to the one in the test item being discussed. When none was recalled, the participant was given clues about one of the clips as to the characters and context in it. When the clip was remembered, the abovementioned procedure was followed for it. When not remembered, the other related clips were tried one by one. After all these, when the interviewee was confirmed to have properly put the theory into practice, s/he was told the

different response option she had chosen in the posttest. As the final step, some possible reasons for that discrepancy were discussed.

The more frequent case in the second round interviews was that the participants reselected the disfavored response options that they had selected in the posttest. When an interviewee did that, s/he was not immediately told that s/he was on the wrong track. The researcher first mentioned how the implied meaning type in the item was called, and asked the participant if s/he could explain it with reference to a TV clip exemplifying it. When no result was obtained that way, the researcher talked about the TV clips including related examples, and asked the participant to explain how the implied meaning worked there and how it applied to the one in the test item in question. In addition, s/he was asked whether it was possible for him/her to come up with a general explanation about that implied meaning. As the last move before proceeding to the next step, the participant's responses to the other test items from the discussed implied meaning type were checked.

The procedure described above showed that there was no participant who got "nothing" from the instruction on the implied meaning type(s) investigated. When the researcher felt assured of that, he brought into focus again the item(s) where the participant reselected the disfavored response option that s/he had selected in the posttest. Asking the question *"Then what could be the reasons why you still selected option (A, B, C or D) here?"*, he began a renewed discussion with the perspective gained until that moment. This time, some details like a critical word in the item that the participant had seemed to miss were included in the discussion. For an example, the item below can be considered as one which is excluded from the final analyses by virtue of the insights provided by the interviews, which is discussed in detail in the following sections:

Susan and Bill, old friends, meet again after a long time. Susan has heard Bill got arrested but is not sure.

Susan: "Oh, by the way, is it true you got arrested for drinking and driving at the end of last semester?"

Bill: "Well, it's hard not to celebrate the end of semester."

What does Bill probably mean?

○ He was set free at the end of last semester.

○ He confirms the arrest.

○ He is trying to change the topic.

○ He denies the arrest.

When the participants gave their consideration and/or translation of the item above, they were found to have either missed the word "not" in Bill's utterance or failed to properly understand its semantic function there. When their attention was attracted to the word itself and/or its role in that context, they agreed more fully on the disclosure content of the utterance.

The renewed talks continued until the time when the participants agreed on why the favored response items would be more preferable in comparison to their initial interpretations.

Administration of the delayed posttest. In the body of research on the instruction of pragmatic information, we know that a considerable number of studies employing explicit instruction indicated positive effects of such efforts. However, as Koike and Pearson (2005, p. 482) emphasize, whether or not the pragmatic gains from the instruction could be retained over time is questionable. This matter of concern was the inspirational idea for the use of a delayed posttest in the present study.

The administration of the delayed posttest happened nearly seven months after the posttest. This interval was not an arbitrary decision. After the week when the posttest was administered, all the participants left the faculty for summer holiday. They came back nearly three months later. They were second year students now and had no course to be taken from

the researcher in the new semester. Besides, they did not continue as the groups of the previous academic year because they enrolled in their new courses according to their preferences as to the days and times they wanted to attend the lessons on, which were processed and finalized by the university's online course registration system. For these reasons, there was no chance for the researcher to meet them as separate groups in particular classrooms. It was not possible either to arrange a schedule in which all of them could take the online test simultaneously once again in computer labs. After the course registration weeks they spent with sometimes a big fuss, they began the new semester (2014-2015 academic year fall semester).

Instead of trying to gather them from the classes they were distributed to and breaking their routines for new big computer lab meetings, the researcher waited for the end of that semester for the delayed posttest. As mentioned before, he had collected the participants' contact details from the Registrar's Office. Towards the end of the final exams period, which was nearly four months after the beginning of the term, all the experimental group students were contacted according to the channel of communication that they had declared to prefer. Some were texted while the others were sent an email. Out of the 61 people that could be contacted, all responded and met the researcher. They were all given an identical sheet of paper including a personal password and the steps to reach the website to take the online test as a delayed posttest this time. In the following days, they went home (most to different cities of the country) for the three-week break until the next semester. From then on, they were just like the native speaker participants of the study, who took the test wherever and whenever they felt free to as the only requirement was a computer with an Internet connection. Out of those 61 students who responded to the call of the researcher for the delayed posttest, 47 (11 males and 36 females) took action in three weeks' time. Just before the day they came back to

the faculty for the beginning of the new semester, the delayed posttest results that had thitherto accumulated were calculated and stored.

At this point, it could be considered a matter of concern that the experimental group participants had taken the posttest for 31% of their final exam while they took the delayed posttest voluntarily for research purposes only under much less controlled conditions. If such a rightful concern is voiced, the first argument to offer is the fact that there could not be another way for the researcher as the participants were not taught a course by him anymore and it was not possible to demand anything from them with reference to course credits.

Secondly, the procedure for the delayed posttest was followed in that way with a particular expectation. If a positive significant difference is explored between the pretest and posttest scores, it is completely understandable to discuss the possibility that the difference is mainly because of the participants' motivation for obtaining a certain percentage of the course credits. However, if that difference is more or less kept in the delayed posttest taken with no worries about failing the course, the argument would be more convincing that the difference arose mainly from the efficiency of the treatment.

Chapter IV. Results

The present chapter consists of five sections organized in consideration of the research questions in order. Section 4.1 reports on the "comprehension accuracy" differences between Turkish EFL Teacher Trainees and NSs of English in terms of the implied meanings covered in this study. It does so as firstly based on the data collection instrument as a whole and then on the particular subsets of items in it, which refer to specific implied meaning types. Section 4.2 provides the answer to whether NSs of English and Turkish EFL teacher trainees differ in "comprehension speed" for the implied meanings in the present study.

Section 4.3 gets to the experimental side of the study and presents the findings on the effect of the instructional treatment with filmic materials on Turkish EFL Teacher Trainees' "comprehension accuracy" of the implied meanings in this study. It does so as firstly based on the data collection instrument as a whole and then on the particular subsets of items in it, which refer to specific implied meaning types. The addition is the delayed posttest results to discuss the extent to which the pragmatic gains from the instruction could be retainable over time. Section 4.4 provides the answer to whether or not the instruction made any difference in the trainees' "comprehension speed" for the implied meanings in this study. In addition to all these, Section 4.5 gives detailed information about the results yielded by the interviews.

Comprehension Accuracy Differences between Turkish EFL Teacher Trainees and NSs of English

Results in terms of the whole test. When the procedures for the pretest (which was the only test that the NSs took as they did not receive the instructional treatment) phase were completed, the software that controlled the administration of the online pretest had already stored the data with the details needed. Information on how each participant responded to which item in what way and in what time was all recorded in separate sections on a large electronic sheet ready to be printed.

As the next step, the data in question were meticulously transferred to a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet manually for each participant with the help of a colleague and then entered in the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) in the same way. Consequently, in order to answer the first research question, the following data were ready for analysis:

a) Participant names

b) Pretest item scores of the Turkish EFL teacher trainee participants as one group

c) Pretest item scores of the Turkish EFL teacher trainees in the experimental group

d) Pretest item scores of the Turkish EFL teacher trainees in the control group

e) Test item scores of the NSs of English participants

This was a phase when the experimental and control groups did not matter much yet as there was more than a month to the start of the instructional treatment for the prospective experimental group. For this reason, without considering whether they had been appointed to the experimental or control group before, all the teacher trainees were coded as in one independent group of participants versus the NSs of English as the other one. This would allow for the descriptive comparison of implied meanings interpretation between two relatively big groups of Turkish EFL Teacher Trainees and native speakers of English.

After the relevant data were entered in the SPSS software, *Tests of Normality* were carried out to check if the participants' scores were normally distributed, which is a pre-determined procedure before comparing two different data sets. The output in Table 10 shows the results of the normality tests conducted:

Table 10

Results of the Normality Tests for the Overall Pre-test Scores of Turkish EFL Teacher Trainees and NSs of English

Group	Test	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Teacher Trainees	Pretotal	.113	144	.000	.966	144	.001
NSs of English	Pretotal	.229	127	.000	.835	127	.000
a. Lilliefors Significance Correction							

The sample sizes were relatively large (n= 144 for the teacher trainees and n= 127 for the NSs of English). For that reason, the results of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test were taken into consideration (Can, 2013, p.89), where the statistical limit for normality is secured with "p" values greater than "0.05". In this regard, as can be seen in the table above, the normality tests showed that the scores were not normally distributed ($p < 0.01$ for both the EFL teacher trainees and NSs of English).

Given these results, due to another pre-determined statistical procedure, the nonparametric *Mann-Whitney U test* was applied to compare the performances of Turkish EFL Teacher Trainees and NSs of English as two independent participant groups. In the two tables that follow, basic descriptive statistics information and the output of the Mann-Whitney U test are displayed:

Table 11

Basic Descriptive Statistics on the Overall Pretest Totals of Turkish EFL Teacher Trainees and NSs of English

Group	N	N of Items	Mean	%	Std. Dev.
Teacher Trainees	144	28	19.81	70.75	3.886
NSs of English	127	28	26.61	95.4	1.454

As Table 11 above indicates, there is an almost 25% NS superiority at opting for the favored interpretations of the implied meanings in this study. What follows is to answer whether this difference is statistically significant or not.

Table 12

Mann-Whitney U Test Results of the Overall Pretest Totals of Turkish EFL Teacher Trainees and NSs of English

Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	p
Teacher Trainees	144	76.77	11055.50	615.500	.000
NSs of English	127	203.15	25800.50		

As Table 12 reveals, the Mann-Whitney U test found a significant difference between the pretest totals of Turkish EFL teacher trainees and NSs of English ($p < 0.01$). This suggests that, in terms of the test as a whole, NSs of English are significantly more accurate at choosing the favored interpretations of the implied meanings included in the present study.

Results in terms of the item subsets. For the subsets of the test items, the same statistical analysis procedures as those for the overall scores were followed. In this regard, as the initial step, *Tests of Normality* were carried out to check if the participants' scores for each subset were normally distributed. The output in Table 13 shows the results of the normality tests conducted:

Table 13

Results of the Normality Tests for the Item Subset Scores of Turkish EFL Teacher Trainees and NSs of English

Subset	Group	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Irony	Teacher Trainees	.288	144	.000	.841	144	.000
	NSs of English	.493	127	.000	.474	127	.000
Indirect Advice	Teacher Trainees	.282	144	.000	.778	144	.000
	NSs of English	.511	127	.000	.370	127	.000
Pope Questions	Teacher Trainees	.220	144	.000	.835	144	.000
	NSs of English	.496	127	.000	.477	127	.000
Indirect Refusal	Teacher Trainees	.485	144	.000	.503	144	.000
	NSs of English	.540	127	.000	.239	127	.000
Disclosure	Teacher Trainees	.301	144	.000	.773	144	.000
	NSs of English	.473	127	.000	.536	127	.000
Topic Change	Teacher Trainees	.249	144	.000	.821	144	.000
	NSs of English	.532	127	.000	.301	127	.000
Indirect Request	Teacher Trainees	.329	144	.000	.730	144	.000
	NSs of English	.529	127	.000	.347	127	.000
Indirect Criticism	Teacher Trainees	.259	144	.000	.842	144	.000
	NSs of English	.427	127	.000	.615	127	.000

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

The sample sizes were relatively large (n= 144 for the teacher trainees and n= 127 for the NSs of English). For that reason, the results of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test were taken into account (Can, 2013, p.89), where the statistical limit for normality is secured with "p" values greater than "0.05". In this regard, as can be seen in the table above, the normality tests

showed that the scores for the item subsets in the pretest were not normally distributed (*p=* *.000* for the EFL teacher trainees and NSs of English both).

Given these results, as the following statistical analysis procedure, the nonparametric *Mann-Whitney U test* was applied to compare the performances of Turkish EFL Teacher Trainees and NSs of English regarding the interpretation of each item subset. In the two tables that follow, basic descriptive statistics information and the output of the Mann-Whitney U test are displayed:

Table 14

Basic Descriptive Statistics on the Pretest Scores of Turkish EFL Teacher Trainees and NSs of English by Item Subsets

Subset	N of Items	Group	N of Participants	Mean	%	Std. Dev.
Irony	3	Teacher Trainees	144	1.91	63.6	.801
		NSs of English	127	2.80	93.3	.477
Indirect Advice	4	Teacher Trainees	144	3.28	82	.816
		NSs of English	127	3.85	96.2	.456
Pope Questions	5	Teacher Trainees	144	3.83	76.6	1.225
		NSs of English	127	4.81	96.2	.393
Indirect Refusal	3	Teacher Trainees	144	2.78	92.6	.461
		NSs of English	127	2.94	98	.229
Disclosure	3	Teacher Trainees	144	2.33	77.6	.774
		NSs of English	127	2.76	92	.483
Topic Change	4	Teacher Trainees	144	3.09	77.2	.945
		NSs of English	127	3.91	97.7	.309
Indirect Request	2	Teacher Trainees	144	1.45	72.5	.613
		NSs of English	127	1.90	95	.304
Indirect Criticism	4	Teacher Trainees	144	1.14	28.5	1.101
		NSs of English	127	3.64	91	.626

Table 14 suggests that there is a NS superiority in terms of each item subset to varying extents. While the difference seems to be narrower in "indirect refusals" and "indirect advice", it is rather broad when we consider "indirect criticism", "irony" and "indirect

requests". In this regard, the following are to display the item subsets where there is a statistically significant difference in favor of the NSs of English.

Table 15

Mann-Whitney U Test Results for the Item Subset Scores of Turkish EFL Teacher Trainees and NSs of English

Subset	Group	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	p
Irony	Teacher Trainees	96.23	13857.00	3417.000	.000
	NSs of English	181.09	22999.00		
Indirect Advice	Teacher Trainees	109.66	15791.50	5351.500	.000
	NSs of English	165.86	21064.50		
Pope Questions	Teacher Trainees	105.11	15136.00	4696.000	.000
	NSs of English	171.02	21720.00		
Indirect Refusal	Teacher Trainees	127.08	18299.50	7859.500	.001
	NSs of English	146.11	18556.50		
Disclosure	Teacher Trainees	116.50	16775.50	6335.500	.000
	NSs of English	158.11	20080.50		
Topic Change	Teacher Trainees	102.91	14818.50	4378.500	.000
	NSs of English	173.52	22037.50		
Indirect Request	Teacher Trainees	111.23	16016.50	5576.500	.000
	NSs of English	164.09	20839.50		
Indirect Criticism	Teacher Trainees	78.86	11355.50	915.500	.000
	NSs of English	200.79	25500.50		

As shown in Table 15, the Mann-Whitney U test found a significant difference between all the item subset scores of Turkish EFL teacher trainees and NSs of English ($p < 0.01$ for each item subset except "Indirect Refusals", where "p" is 0.01).

To sum up, no matter looked at on the whole or type by type, the findings suggest that there is an apparent statistically significant difference between the accuracy degrees of Turkish EFL teacher trainees and NSs of English at choosing the favored interpretations of the implied meanings covered in this study. In other words, the hypothesis that NSs of English would do significantly better than EFL teacher trainees in comprehension accuracy for implied meanings in English is confirmed.

Comprehension Speed Differences between Turkish EFL Teacher Trainees and NSs of English

As indicated previously, when the procedures for the pretest phase were completed, the software that controlled the administration of the online pretest had already stored the data with all the necessary details. These details included also in what time each participant responded to each test item, which was automatically recorded on a large ready-to-print electronic sheet.

As the following step, the data in question were transferred in a rigorous manner to a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet manually for each participant with the help of a colleague and then entered in the Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS) in the same way. Consequently, in order to answer the second research question, the following data were ready to be analyzed:

a) Participant names

b) Pretest item response times of the Turkish EFL teacher trainee participants as one group

c) Pretest item response times of the Turkish EFL teacher trainees in the experimental group

d) Pretest item response times of the Turkish EFL teacher trainees in the control group

e) Test item response times of the NSs of English participants

This was a phase when the experimental and control groups did not matter much yet as there was more than a month to the start of the instructional treatment for the prospective experimental group. For this reason, without considering whether they had been appointed to the experimental or control group before, all the teacher trainees were coded as in one independent group of participants versus the NSs of English as the other one. This would allow for the descriptive comparison of responding speed between two relatively big groups of Turkish EFL Teacher Trainees and native speakers of English.

After the relevant data were entered in the SPSS software, as a pre-determined statistical procedure before comparing two different data sets, *Tests of Normality* were carried out to check if the participants' response times were normally distributed. The output in Table 16 shows the results:

Table 16

Results of the Normality Tests for the Pre-test Response Times of Turkish EFL Teacher Trainees and NSs of English

Group	Test	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Teacher Trainees	Pre-times	.034	144	.200*	.995	144	.885
NSs of English	Pre-times	.115	127	.000	.941	127	.000

*. This is a lower bound of the true significance.

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

As can be seen in the table above, the normality tests showed that the response times were not normally distributed for the NSs *(p= .000)* while their distribution proved to be normal for the teacher trainees *(p= .200)*. As the former situation would call for the nonparametric *Mann-Whitney U test* while the latter would require *the t-test*, both of them were conducted to see whether their results would support each other's. In the following three tables, basic descriptive statistics information and the outputs of the Mann-Whitney U test and t-test are displayed respectively:

Table 17

Basic Descriptive Statistics on the Pretest Response Times of Turkish EFL Teacher Trainees and NSs of English

Group	N	Mean (in seconds spent)	% of the "Time Allowed"*	Std. Dev.
Teacher Trainees	144	1064	63.3	192.331
NSs of English	127	769.48	45.8	230.567

* "27 X 60=1680 seconds" for 28 items as 60 seconds were prescribed for each item

As can be seen in Table 17, the teacher trainees used 63.3% of the maximum time allowed while the NSs used 45.8% of it. What follows are to see whether this difference is statistically significant or not.

Table 18

Mann-Whitney U Test Results of the Pretest Response Times of Turkish EFL Teacher Trainees and NSs of English

Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	p
Teacher Trainees	144	179.77	25886.50	2841.500	.000
NSs of English	127	86.37	10969.50		

As the table above suggests, the Mann-Whitney U test found a significant difference between the pretest response times of Turkish EFL teacher trainees and NSs of English ($p < 0.01$).

Besides these, the output of the independent-samples t-test is provided in the table that follows:

Table 19

Independent-samples T-test Results of the Pretest Response Times of Turkish EFL Teacher Trainees and NSs of English

Group	N	Mean	S	Sd	t	p
Teacher Trainees	144	1064.00	192.331	269	-11.461	.000
NSs of English	127	769.48	230.567			

As Table 19 displays, just like the Mann-Whitney U test did, the independent-samples t-test found a significant difference between the pretest response times of Turkish EFL teacher trainees and NSs of English ($p < 0.01$). This suggests that, in terms of the test as a whole, NSs

of English are not only more accurate at choosing the favored interpretations of implied meanings but also significantly quicker to respond to them. In other words, the hypothesis that NSs of English would do significantly better than EFL teacher trainees in comprehension speed with implied meanings in English is confirmed.

Effect of the Instructional Treatment with Filmic Materials on Turkish EFL Teacher Trainees' Comprehension Accuracy of Implied Meanings

Results in terms of the whole test. When the instruction with filmic materials to the experimental group was concluded and once the posttest procedures with both the experimental and control groups were completed, the software that controlled the administration of the online posttest had already stored the data with all the necessary details. Just as the case with the pretest data, information on how each participant responded to which item in what way and in what time was all recorded in separate sections on a large electronic sheet ready to be printed.

As the next step, like in the previous queries for the pretest phase, the data were transferred in a scrupulous manner to a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet manually with the help of a colleague and then entered in SPSS in the same way. Consequently, in order to answer the third research question, the following data were ready for analysis:

a) Participant names

b) Pretest item scores of the Turkish EFL teacher trainees in the experimental group

c) Pretest item scores of the Turkish EFL teacher trainees in the control group

d) Posttest item scores of the Turkish EFL teacher trainees in the experimental group

e) Posttest item scores of the Turkish EFL teacher trainees in the control group

On account of the pre-determined statistical procedure before comparing two different data sets, *Tests of Normality* were carried out once more to check the normal distribution of the scores to be taken into account.

First of all, the differences between the pre and posttest scores were computed via SPSS for each participant from the experimental and control groups. The results were made into new variables to be put to tests of normality. The output in Table 20 shows the results obtained:

Table 20

Tests of Normality Results for the Pre and Posttest Score Differences of Turkish EFL Teacher Trainees in the Experimental and Control Groups

Group	Test	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Experimental	Pre – Posttest Difference	.123	77	.006	.962	77	.022
Control	Pre – Posttest Difference	.116	67	.025	.975	67	.201

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

The sample sizes were relatively large (n= 77 for the experimental group and n= 69 for the control group). Therefore, the results of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test were taken into account (Can, 2013, p.89), where the statistical limit for normality is secured with "p" values above "0.05". In this regard, as can be seen in the table above, the normality tests showed that the scores were not normally distributed (*p= .006* and *p= .025* for the experimental and control group EFL teacher trainees respectively).

Given these results, due to another pre-determined statistical procedure, the nonparametric *Mann-Whitney U test* was applied to find out and compare the probable differences between the pre and posttest performances of the experimental and control group participants. In the two tables below, basic descriptive statistics information and the output of the Mann-Whitney U test are provided:

Table 21

Basic Descriptive Statistics on the Differences between the Pre and Posttest Scores of the Experimental and Control Group Participants

Group	N	Mean	% when proportioned to the whole test	Std. Dev.
Experimental	77	5.55	19.82	3.455
Control	67	1.33	4.75	2.930

As Table 21 presents, the experimental group participants seem to have achieved a progress of over 15% superiority in proportion to the scope of the test as a whole. The following output is to see whether this is a statistically significant difference or not.

Table 22

Mann-Whitney U Test Results of the Differences between the Pre and Posttest Scores of the Experimental and Control Group Participants

Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	p
Experimental	77	94.39	7268.00	894.000	.000
Control	67	47.34	3172.00		

As Table 22 above reveals, the Mann-Whitney U test found a significant difference between the pre and posttest score differences of the experimental and control group participants (p < 0.01). This suggests that the instructional treatment with filmic materials generated an apparently positive effect on Turkish EFL Teacher Trainees' overall comprehension of the implied meanings covered in this study.

Results in terms of the subsets of items. For the subsets of the test items, the same statistical analysis procedures as those for the overall performances were adopted. In this regard, as the initial step, *Tests of Normality* were implemented to check if the differences

between the pre and posttest item subset scores were normally distributed. The output in

Table 23 presents the results of the normality tests conducted:

Table 23

Results of the Normality Tests for the Differences between the Pre and Posttest Item Subset

Scores of the Experimental and Control Group Participants

Subset	Group	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Irony	Experimental	.255	77	.000	.830	77	.000
	Control	.268	67	.000	.855	67	.000
Indirect Advice	Experimental	.319	77	.000	.831	77	.000
	Control	.228	67	.000	.908	67	.000
Pope Questions	Experimental	.279	77	.000	.794	77	.000
	Control	.233	67	.000	.915	67	.000
Indirect Refusal	Experimental	.469	77	.000	.567	77	.000
	Control	.386	67	.000	.684	67	.000
Disclosure	Experimental	.248	77	.000	.869	77	.000
	Control	.254	67	.000	.867	67	.000
Topic Change	Experimental	.258	77	.000	.858	77	.000
	Control	.207	67	.000	.908	67	.000
Indirect Request	Experimental	.382	77	.000	.735	77	.000
	Control	.261	67	.000	.866	67	.000
Indirect Criticism	Experimental	.206	77	.000	.876	77	.000
	Control	.224	67	.000	.891	67	.000

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

The sample sizes were relatively large (n= 77 and n= 67 for the experimental and control group respectively). Accordingly, the results of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test were taken into account (Can, 2013, p.89), where the statistical limit for normality is secured with "p" values over "0.05". In this regard, as displayed in the table above, the normality tests showed that the differences between the pre and posttest item subset scores were not normally distributed (*p= .000* for the experimental and experimental group both at each subset).

With these results in hand, as the ensuing statistical analysis procedure, the nonparametric Mann-Whitney U test was applied to compare the performances of the experimental and control group regarding the interpretation of each item subset. In the two tables given below, related descriptive statistics information and the output of the Mann-Whitney U test are displayed:

Table 24

Basic Descriptive Statistics on the Differences between the Pre and Posttest Item Subset Scores of the Experimental and Control Group Participants

Subset	N of Items	Group	Mean	% of N of Items	Std. Dev.
Irony	3	Experimental	.79	26.3	.800
		Control	.36	12	.811
Indirect Advice	4	Experimental	.40	10	.847
		Control	.07	1.7	1.119
Pope Questions	5	Experimental	.94	18	1.116
		Control	.49	9.8	1.050
Indirect Refusal	3	Experimental	.19	6.3	.460
		Control	-.01	-0.3	.615
Disclosure	3	Experimental	.04	1.3	.834
		Control	.16	5.3	.790
Topic Change	4	Experimental	.61	15.2	.845
		Control	-.06	-1.5	.983
Indirect Request	2	Experimental	.17	8.5	.571
		Control	-.03	-1.5	.797
Indirect Criticism	4	Experimental	2.40	60	1.330
		Control	.34	8.5	.946

As Table 24 suggests, except for "Disclosure", the experimental group seem to have made a progress in all the item subsets at varying extents of superiority to the control group in proportion to the number of items in each subset. The following output is to see which of the differences between the two groups are statistically significant.

Table 25

Mann-Whitney U Test Results on the Differences between the Pre and Posttest Item Subset Scores of the Experimental and Control Group Participants

Subset	Group	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	p
Irony	Experimental	81.82	6300.00	1862.000	.003
	Control	61.79	4140.00		
Indirect Advice	Experimental	79.04	6086.00	2076.000	.030
	Control	64.99	4354.00		
Pope Questions	Experimental	78.73	6062.50	2099.500	.042
	Control	65.34	4377.50		
Indirect Refusal	Experimental	78.62	6053.50	2108.500	.009
	Control	65.47	4386.50		
Disclosure	Experimental	70.18	5404.00	2401.000	.441
	Control	75.16	5036.00		
Topic Change	Experimental	84.94	6540.50	1621.500	.000
	Control	58.20	3899.50		
Indirect Request	Experimental	77.60	5975.50	2186.500	.072
	Control	66.63	4464.50		
Indirect Criticism	Experimental	98.69	7599.50	562.500	.000
	Control	42.40	2840.50		

To sum up considering the results above and those provided in the preceding subsection, we could postulate that the instructional treatment produced a noticeable positive effect on overall comprehension and also on six out of the eight implied meaning types in specific terms. As can be detected in Table 25, the "p" value was calculated lower than "0.01" for four

of the six item subsets (irony, indirect refusals, topic change and indirect criticism) where a statistically significant difference arose. For the other two (indirect pieces of advice and Pope Questions), the "p" value was calculated as smaller than "0.05." In this regard, the hypothesis that the instruction would make a significantly positive difference in trainees' comprehension accuracy for implied meanings in English is confirmed to a considerable extent. When it comes to the two implied meaning types where the treatment does not seem to have produced a statistically significant difference, the "p" value is "0.72" and ".441" for "indirect requests" and "disclosure" respectively.

Retention of the effect of the instructional treatment. Though not directly included in the research questions or hypotheses, an additional attempt of this study was to respond to concerns like Koike and Pearson's (2005: 482), who emphasize the questionability of the extent to which pragmatic gains from instruction could be retainable over time.

In order to do that, a delayed posttest was conducted with 47 (out of 77) of the experimental group participants nearly seven months after the posttest. Consequently, the pretest, posttest and delayed posttest performances of those 47 participants were compared with each other.

The process took place in accordance with the pre-determined statistical policies when comparing more than two data sets provided by one particular sample. First of all, tests of normality were carried out to check the normal distribution of the scores in the abovementioned three tests. Table 26 below displays the results:

Table 26

Tests of Normality Results for the Pretest, Posttest and Delayed Posttest Scores of Turkish

EFL Teacher Trainees in the Experimental Group who Took the Delayed Posttest

	Group	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
PRE	Experimental	.128	47	.052	.951	47	.048
POS	Experimental	.191	47	.000	.912	47	.002
DEL	Experimental	.168	47	.002	.930	47	.007

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

The sample size was suitable to be considered relatively large (n= 47). Accordingly, the results of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test were taken into consideration (Can, 2013, p.89), where the statistical limit for normality is secured with "p" values greater than "0.05". In this regard, as can be seen in the table above, the normality tests showed that the scores were not normally distributed in two out of the three tests in question (*p= .052, .000 and .002* for the pretest, posttest and delayed posttest test respectively).

Given these results, as the assumptions necessary to run the one-way ANOVA with repeated measures were mostly violated, the Friedman test as the non-parametric alternative was used. Table 27 and 28 below display the results:

Table 27

The Friedman Test Descriptive Statistics Results for the Pretest, Posttest and Delayed Posttest Scores of Turkish EFL Teacher Trainees in the Experimental Group who Took the Delayed Posttest

Test	N	Mean	%	Sd	Chi-Square	df	p
Pretest	47	20.72	74	3.871	67.640	2	.000
Posttest	47	26.04	93	1.488			
Delayed Posttest	47	25.79	92.1	1.284			

The output above suggests that there is an overall statistically significant difference between the mean ranks in the three tests under investigation ($\chi2$ *(2) = 67.640, p = 0.000*). As the next step, to see between which specific pairs the differences actually occurred, the post hoc tests (Wilcoxon signed-rank tests) on different combinations were taken into consideration. So, the following combinations were compared:

1. posttest – pretest scores

2. delayed posttest – posttest scores

3. delayed posttest – pretest scores

The results are presented in the table that follows:

Table 28

The Friedman Test (with Post Hoc Tests) Results for the Pretest, Posttest and Delayed Posttest Scores of Turkish EFL Teacher Trainees in the Experimental Group who Took the Delayed Posttest

Test Statistics[a]			
Test Pair	N	Z	p
Pos-Pre	47	-5,791[b]	.000
Del-Pos	47	-1,139[b]	.255
Del-Pre	47	-5,833[b]	.000

a. Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test

b. Based on negative ranks.

The output above enables us to detect a significant difference between the pretest/posttest and pretest/delayed posttest scores ($p < 0.01$), which corroborates the previously-evidenced efficacy of the instructional treatment with filmic materials. Moreover, we see that there is not a significant difference between the posttest/delayed posttest scores ($p > 0.05$), which could enable us to assert that the gains from instruction were retained over time.

Effect of the Instructional Treatment with Filmic Materials on Turkish EFL Teacher Trainees' Comprehension Speed of Implied Meanings

Results in terms of pretest-posttest comparisons. When the instruction with filmic materials to the experimental group was concluded and once the posttest procedures with both the experimental and control groups were completed, the software that controlled the administration of the online posttest had already stored the data with all the details needed. Just as the case with the pretest data, these details included also in how many seconds each

participant responded to the items, which were all automatically recorded in separate sections on a large electronic sheet ready to be printed.

As the next step, like in the previous queries for the pretest phase, the data were transferred in a scrupulous manner to a Microsoft Excel spreadsheet manually with the help of a colleague and then entered in SPSS in the same way. Consequently, in order to answer the fourth research question, the following data were ready for analysis:

a) Participant names

b) Pretest item response times of the Turkish EFL teacher trainees in the experimental group

c) Pretest item response times of the Turkish EFL teacher trainees in the control group

d) Posttest item response times of the Turkish EFL teacher trainees in the experimental group

e) Posttest item response times of the Turkish EFL teacher trainees in the control group

On account of the pre-determined statistical procedure before comparing two different data sets, tests of normality were carried out once more to check the normal distribution of the scores to be taken into account.

First of all, the differences between the pre and posttest item response times were computed via SPSS for each participant from the experimental and control groups. The results were made new variables to be put to tests of normality. The output in Table 29 below shows the results obtained:

Table 29

Tests of Normality Results for the Pre and Posttest Item Response Time Differences of Turkish EFL Teacher Trainees in the Experimental and Control Groups

Group	Test	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Experimental	Pre – Posttest Difference	.084	77	.200*	.972	77	.092
Control	Pre – Posttest Difference	.092	67	.200*	.932	67	.001

*. This is a lower bound of the true significance.

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

The sample sizes were relatively large (n= 77 for the experimental group and n= 67 for the control group). For that reason, the results of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test were taken into account (Can, 2013, p.89), where the statistical limit for normality is secured with "p" values above "0.05". In this regard, as can be seen in the table above, the normality tests showed that the response times were normally distributed for both of the groups in question (*p= .200*), which would require *the t-test* for comparison. Accordingly, the output of the independent-samples t-test is provided in the following table:

Table 30

Independent-samples T-test Results of the Pre and Posttest Item Response Time Differences of Turkish EFL Teacher Trainees in the Experimental and Control Groups

Group	N	Mean	S	Sd	t	p
Experimental	77	47.6956	172.44482	142	.057	.955
Control	67	45.7686	232.94330			

As Table 30 displays, the independent-samples t-test did not find a significant difference between the pre and posttest item response time differences of Turkish EFL teacher trainees in the experimental and control group (p > 0.05). This perspective suggests that, although the instruction brought about a noticeable positive effect on Turkish EFL Teacher Trainees' interpretation/comprehension accuracy, it did not make them significantly quicker to respond to the implied meanings covered in this study.

Results in terms of the Delayed posttest perspective. An additional perspective can be provided by the further analyses of the study. As mentioned before, a delayed posttest could be conducted with 47 (out of 77) of the experimental group participants nearly seven months after the posttest. Consequently, just as was done for the accuracy performances, the pretest, posttest and delayed posttest response-time performances of those 47 participants were compared with each other.

The process took place in accordance with the pre-determined statistical policies when comparing more than two data sets provided by one particular sample. First of all, *Tests of Normality* were carried out to check the normal distribution of the scores in the abovementioned three tests. Table 31 below displays the results:

Table 31

Tests of Normality Results for the Pretest, Posttest and Delayed Posttest Response-time Scores of the Experimental Group Turkish EFL Teacher Trainees who Took the Delayed Posttest

Test	Group	Kolmogorov-Smirnov[a]			Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
PRE	Experimental	.095	47	.200*	.949	47	.038
POS	Experimental	.124	47	.070	.958	47	.088
DEL	Experimental	.083	47	.200*	.985	47	.801

*. This is a lower bound of the true significance.

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

The sample size was relatively large (n= 47). Therefore, the results of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test were taken into consideration (Can, 2013, p.89), where the statistical limit for normality is secured with "p" values greater than "0.05". In this regard, as can be seen in the table above, the normality tests showed that the scores were normally distributed in all the tests in question (*p= .200, .070* and *.200* for the pretest, posttest and delayed posttest respectively).

Given these results, as the necessary assumptions were proved, the one-way ANOVA with repeated measures was used. Table 32, 33 and 34 below display the results:

Table 32

The One-way ANOVA "Descriptive Statistics" Results for the Pretest, Posttest and Delayed Posttest Response-time Scores of the Experimental Group Turkish EFL Teacher Trainees who Took the Delayed Posttest

Test	N	Mean	Sd
Pretest	47	1037.4270	147.63710
Posttest	47	967.5448	175.63181
Delayed Posttest	47	946.9262	222.81490

Table 33

The one-way ANOVA "Mauchly's Test of Sphericity" Results for the Pretest, Posttest and Delayed Posttest Response-time Scores of the Experimental Group Turkish EFL Teacher Trainees who Took the Delayed Posttest

Mauchly's Test of Sphericity[a]

Within Subjects Effect	Mauchly's W	Approx. Chi- Square	df	Sig.
Pre.-Pos.-Del.	.935	3.029	2	.220

a. Design: Intercept

Within Subjects Design: Pre.-Pos.-Del.

As seen above, Mauchly's Test of Sphericity indicates that the assumption of sphericity was not violated (p = .220), which is important for the repeated measures ANOVA in that it would not tend to yield erroneous results.

Table 34

The one-way ANOVA "Tests of Within-Subjects Effects" Results for the Pretest, Posttest and Delayed Posttest Response-time Scores of the Experimental Group Turkish EFL Teacher Trainees who Took the Delayed Posttest

Tests of Within-Subjects Effects

Source		Mean Square	F	Sig.
Pre.-Pos.-Del.	Sphericity Assumed	105737.265	5.776	.004

The output above suggests that there is a statistically significant difference between the response-time scores in the three tests under investigation (p = .004). To see between which specific test-pairs the differences actually occurred, the following combinations were compared:

1.   posttest – pretest response-time scores

2.   delayed posttest – posttest response-time scores

3.   delayed posttest – pretest response-time scores

The results are presented in the table that follows:

Table 35

The One-way ANOVA "Pairwise Comparisons" Results for the Pretest, Posttest and Delayed Posttest Response-time Scores of the Experimental Group Turkish EFL Teacher Trainees who Took the Delayed Posttest

Pairwise Comparisons

(I) Pre.-Pos.-Del.	(J) Pre.-Pos.-Del.	Mean Difference (I-J)	Std. Error	Sig[b]
1	2	69.882*	25.778	.028
	3	90.498*	31.257	.017
2	1	-69.882*	25.778	.028
	3	20.616	26.375	1.000
3	1	-90.498*	31.257	.017
	2	-20.616	26.375	1.000

Based on estimated marginal means

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

b. Adjustment for multiple comparisons: Bonferroni.

The output above in Table 35 suggests that, within that cluster of 47 participants in the experimental group who voluntarily took the delayed posttest, there is a significant difference between the pretest/posttest and pretest/delayed posttest response-time scores ($p < 0.05$), which corroborates the efficacy of the instructional treatment in making one significantly quicker to respond to the implied meanings covered in this study. Moreover, we see that there is not a significant difference between the posttest/delayed posttest response-time scores ($p > 0.05$), which could enable us to postulate that the speed gains from instruction were retained over time.

At this point, it could be worth noting that those 47 participants from the whole experimental group of 77 people might be viewed as some "strong" students who willingly took the delayed posttest after seven months from the posttest. For this reason, one might find it foreseeable that those 47 teacher trainees would naturally get faster between the tests and retain their pragmatic gains over time. In such a case, the following fact could also be worth noting: While the experimental group as a whole (n=77) had proved already faster than the control group in the pretest (t-test p= .014), those particular 47 trainees were not found significantly different in speed from the control group participants at all (t-test p= .066).

Given this perspective, it could be appropriate to add here that while those 47 participants did not differ in speed from the control group participants in the pretest, the former did significantly better in the posttest (t-test p= .019). Furthermore, with their delayed posttest response-time scores, the former outperformed the latter's both pretest and posttest scores (t-test p= .000 and p= .009 respectively).

In the light of the abovementioned results, the instructional treatment with filmic materials could be deemed at least promising to make one significantly quicker to respond to the implied meanings covered in this study, thus to confirm the hypothesis that it would make a significantly positive difference in EFL teacher trainees' comprehension speed for implicatures.

Results of the Interviews

      Results of the first-round interviews. For the sake of reminding, it can be mentioned here that the first-round interviews aimed to crosscheck that the positive performance changes of the participants could be attributable mainly to the gains that the treatment had brought. The interviews were conducted with particular item-by-item queries that were based on a template like the one below:

      "For this item / for item (the item number), you chose option (A, B, C or D) in the first test. However, in the second test, you chose option (A, B, C or D) for it, which is the favored option. Now read the item and its options once again. Try to remember as much as you can about it and tell me the steps of thinking you followed to arrive at the correct conclusion on your second try."

      After this stimulus, the rest of the conversation was shaped according to the interviewee's response, which is in accordance with the semi-structured design of the interviews. The details on how the conversations proceeded were provided earlier in the text. No matter how it happened, the basic idea was to learn about the reasoning process about each item discussed and to discover what made the participant select the favored option in his/her second try.

      With all these in mind, the interview records were listened to several times. Any course taken by the queries was revealed. According to the findings, an interview analysis template was developed. In the additional sessions of record-listening with it, the template made it possible to find out which interviewee took which route of reasoning for which item. The template in question is presented below section by section dedicated to the different reasoning routes in order of frequency, together with the results on which route occurred for how many times and about which item type:

Table 36

Interviews Results on Reasoning Route "A" to Favored Interpretations and the Item Types for which it was Adopted

Route of reasoning "A"	Frequency (f) and percentage (%) by implied meaning type			Total frequency and percentage as to the "sum of the items discussed (n= 57)"	
	f	**%**	**Type**	**f**	**%**
Reaching the favored conclusion	**8**	**42.1**	(ind. crit.)*	**19**	**33.3**
with steps (roughly) matching the	**4**	**21.05**	(topic change)		
ones given in the treatment	**3**	**15.7**	(indirect requests)		
+	**2**	**10.5**	(irony)		
Remembering to have gotten help	**1**	**5.2**	(indirect advice)		
from the filmic materials used in	**1**	**5.2**	(Pope Questions)		
the instructional treatment					
+					
Explaining how the implied meaning					
worked in a particular filmic example					
as well					

indirect criticism

As can be seen above in Table 36, out of the 19 occurrences of reasoning route "A", eight were for "indirect criticism", which had been found in the quantitative analyses as the most problematic implied meaning type for the participants. It is followed by "topic change" and "indirect request" with four and three occurrences respectively. Two occurrences were for "irony", and one was for "indirect advice" and "Pope Questions" each.

With an overall look, we see that this reasoning route was employed for one-third (33.3%) of the total of the item-by-item interviews (n=57), which means the most frequent occurrence of all. We can also see that it was employed for six of the seven implied meaning types about which the participants had quantitatively made progress in interpretation. Considering the argument that reasoning route "A" would be the one with the most direct references to the instructional treatment, the findings above could be viewed as in high favor of the benefits of the treatment.

To make what has been presented clearer with an example, a transcription from this route of reasoning is given below (the name of the participant is used with her permission). It is exemplified for an "indirect request" with the transcription of an interview extract on item 9 of the test.

As it will be seen, the talk turns to a scene from the TV series "Friends" where the character called "Ross" is preparing to fly to London to marry a British girl named "Emily" there. Emily liked a wedding dress in London, but she could not find one in her size anywhere in the city. Ross learned from her that a store in New York has the dress in Emily's size, but he thinks it is inauspicious for a groom to see the dress before the wedding ceremony. He is talking about all these to his close friends:

Researcher: For this item, let's see what you did … Um, you chose option "B" in the first test, but in the second test, you chose option "A" for it, which is the favored option. Now read the item and its options once again. Try to remember as much as you can about it and tell me about the steps of thinking you followed to arrive at the correct conclusion on your second try.

Kubra: Here, the thing is … that the speaker, in fact, makes a request, but he, once again, doesn't do it directly. In an indirect way, maybe because he doesn't want to get refused … . It's not .. direct.

Researcher: So you say this is an indirect request?

Kubra: Yeah, that's right!

Researcher: Do you remember the logic behind the way indirect requests are made?

Kubra: Um…

Researcher: Well, as a matter of fact, we don't make indirect requests by saying whatever we like. We use expressions with a certain logic. Do you remember about that?

Kubra: Well, what I think is … you just talk about your problem .. to ask for help.

Researcher: Ok. Do you remember any example about it? From the films, TV series or

…

Kubra: I do! I dare say … we once again watched a scene from a TV series, from the TV series "Friends". There we had … he was about to get married ..

Researcher: Ross?

Kubra: Ross, that's right! And, the wedding dress of the girl he was to get married was in America, if my memory serves me correctly. Well, because he thought seeing the wedding dress before the ceremony would bring bad luck .. by just giving this excuse, he made a .. request. He didn't say it directly, but once again, indirectly.

Researcher: Yes. Not saying anything like "Could you go and get the wedding dress for me?" to anybody, by just hinting or implying ..

Kubra: Yeah, by just hinting, implying.

Researcher: By just mentioning the problematic situation he is in ..

Kubra: He asked for help, in a way.

Researcher: Yes.

Table 37

*Interviews Results on Reasoning Route **"B"** to Favored Interpretations and the Item Types for which it was Adopted*

Route of reasoning "B"	Frequency (f) and percentage (%) by implied meaning type			Total frequency and percentage as to the "sum of the items discussed (n= 57)"	
	f	**%**	**Type**	**f**	**%**
Reaching the favored conclusion with steps (roughly) matching the ones given in the treatment	**3**	**23.07**	(ind. crit.)*	**13**	**22.8**
	3	**23.07**	(irony)		
	2	**15.3**	(indirect requests)		
	2	**15.3**	(indirect advice)		
+	**2**	**15.3**	(topic change)		
	1	**7.6**	(disclosure)		
Being not able to refer to any filmic material, thus getting clues about one as to the characters and context in it					
+					
Remembering on the first try, explaining how the implied meaning worked in that particular filmic example as well					

indirect criticism

As seen above, among the 13 occurrences of reasoning route "B", three were for both "indirect criticism" and "irony". Two occurrences were detected for "indirect requests", "indirect advice" and "topic change" each. One was found to have been used for "disclosure".

With a wider perspective, one can see that this reasoning route was taken for about 23% of all the item-by-item interviews, which makes it the second best one. Besides, we see that nearly half of its occurrences were for "indirect criticism" and "irony", about which the quantitative analyses suggest that the treatment solved some really pressing interpretation problems of the participants'. Considering the argument that reasoning route "B", like "A", is one with direct references to the instructional treatment, the abovementioned findings could be deemed to be in particular favor of the effects of the treatment.

In order to make what has been presented clearer with an example, a transcription from this route of reasoning is given below (the name of the participant is used with her permission). It is exemplified for "irony" with the transcription of an interview extract on item 16 of the test, which includes a female speaker who profusely thanks the male listener for "doing almost nothing" when she needed help for her house move.

As it will be seen, the talk turns to a scene from the TV series "Friends" where the well-known actor Charlie Sheen plays a naval officer called "Ryan" working in submarines. The group of close friends meets him at a café as the new lover of a friend of theirs. They ask questions to Ryan to learn about submarines, but the problem is that Ryan is not very talkative…

Researcher: … And this one (item) refers to another type of implied meanings. You chose "D" in the first test .. I correct it. You chose "B" in the first test. In the second test, in the test at the end of the semester, you went to "D", which is OK. Once again, please tell me about the system of thinking that led you to the favored option, step by step.

Onur: Well, this time .. Um, I don't know how I can explain it, but … Um, it's like saying "you've been of great help, thank you very much". Saying just the opposite thing as if it were a good thing, she states her original intention. This is what I remember. Reading it again here, I am led straight to option "D" now.

Researcher: Ok. You know this is called "verbal irony", which is, just like you have mentioned it, "saying just the opposite of what you really mean."

Onur: Uh huh.

Researcher: Well, while responding to the item, while you were getting led to the favored option, did you remember any scene from the TV series or films that you had watched?

Onur: Um…

Researcher: Even if you don't remember which specific scene, do you at least remember that you remembered a scene?

Onur: I do. There was a sentence .. from the TV series "Friends." I'm not sure about it and if it is the right example, but I remember keeping that in mind.

Researcher: Uh huh. About this, I mean, about this implied meaning type .. irony, which is "saying just the opposite of what you really mean" to make what you are saying more effective in some way, I let you watch some clips like this: The group in "Friends" met a submarine naval officer ..

Onur: Yeah, one said "how enjoyable it's been to learn things about submarines." I don't distinctly remember the words there in English, but the naval officer said nothing about submarines, he just kept saying "I can't say", "I can't say." That's why Ross … What was the name of that character?

Researcher: Ross!

Onur: Ross, yeah, he said that. That scene, yeah.

Researcher: So you say .. saying "how enjoyable it's been to learn this many things about submarines", he, in fact, meant that they couldn't pump the officer for any information at all, which sets an example of the implied meaning type we've discussing here.

Onur: Yeah.

Table 38

Interviews Results on Reasoning Route "C" to Favored Interpretations and the Item Types for which it was Adopted

Route of reasoning "C"	Frequency (f) and percentage (%) by implied meaning type			Total frequency and percentage as to the "sum of the items discussed (n= 57)"	
	f	**%**	**Type**	**f**	**%**
Reaching the favored conclusion with steps (roughly) matching the ones given in the treatment + Being not able to refer to any filmic material, thus getting clues about one as to the characters and context in it + Not remembering on the first try, thus getting clues about others as to the characters and context in them + Remembering on the second or third try, explaining how the implied meaning worked in that particular filmic example as well	**3**	**30**	(irony)	**10**	**17.5**
	3	**30**	(ind. crit.)*		
	2	**20**	(disclosure)		
	1	**10**	(indirect requests)		
	1	**10**	(topic change)		

indirect criticism

As we see above, out of the 10 occurrences of reasoning route "C", three were for both "irony" and "indirect criticism". "Disclosure" comes next with two occurrences. One occurrence was for "indirect requests" and "topic change" each.

Taking a closer look, we detect that this reasoning route was followed for 17.5% of all the item-by-item interviews, which makes it the third most frequent one. What is more, just like with the former two reasoning routes, we see that more than half of its occurrences were for "indirect criticism" and "irony", which are two implied meaning types that the participants had been found to benefit from the treatment when they were in real need of it. Taking account of the argument that this reasoning route is one with slow but clear references to the instruction, the findings above could be considered in high favor of the benefits of the treatment.

As an example of reasoning route "C", a transcription is given below (the name of the participant is used with her permission). It is exemplified for "indirect criticism" with the transcription of an interview extract on item 15 of the test, where the speaker asks the other one about how he found the dish served and the latter comments on only the way its color looks.

As it will be seen, the talk ends with an important scene (in terms of the interview) from a Hollywood movie where a male speaker asks his friend whether the girl he just met is really beautiful and the latter responds with remarks only about her high intelligence. Their dialogue comes to an end with the former coming up with the conclusion which is formulated as "Ah, she's not so very pretty then!"…

Researcher: Item 15. Firstly "B", then you opted for option "D", which is the correct one. What was it that properly led you to "D" in the second test? What kind of a thinking system did you follow?

Havvanur: Um, for this too .. Um, like the one earlier in our talk .. I think I thought here like I did about that one. Well, you know we had an item on a student essay, a (speaker) asked about the content of the essay, and the other one mentioned only the way it was written. I think I likened the item here to that one, to some extent. Um, well, one asks about the taste of the dish, but the other one talks about its appearance by just saying "It's colorful".

Researcher: Uh huh.

Havvanur: This means that he didn't like it. Well, if he had liked it, he would have mentioned it by saying something like "It tastes good".

Researcher: Yeah. So you say he seems to be praising only a particular feature, but in fact, he ..

Havvanur: He doesn't cover (the whole).

Researcher: He doesn't cover, thus he criticizes the whole of it, the real questioned thing.

Havvanur: Yeah, he criticizes it.

Researcher: Ok. While arriving at this conclusion, did you remember any scene from the TV series or films that you had watched?

Havvanur: Um, I did indeed, but .. well …

Researcher: Do you remember which one it was?

Havvanur: I'm trying to remember it…

Researcher: But you remember that you remembered a scene.

Havvanur: Yes. I do.

Researcher: You remember remembering a scene.

Havvanur: I remember remembering one, but I don't remember it at the moment.

Researcher: Let me remind you of the scenes that exemplify this kind of implied meanings. Two friends were talking to each other, for example. One had met a new girl. The other one asked "Is she pretty?"

Havvanur: Ah teacher! I remembered this.. Um, there we had, I can't remember his name, but an actor, a person who is an actor. They came to their flat for sequestration..

Researcher: That was to exemplify a different, a different type of implied meanings.

Havvanur: Then I remembered wrongly.

Researcher: Uh huh. Um, but you remember that you remembered a scene that exemplifies the type here.

Havvanur: I do remember that I remembered, but while listening to you here, that scene just came to my mind.

Researcher: I see … What else did we have? Well, there was "Monica", the master chef. I'm again mentioning this as a scene that exemplifies the type here. Um, she cooked a dish with salmon. I don't know if you remember it or not. And she asked that actor a question like "How is it?" or "How does it taste?" or "Does it taste good?" And he responded saying "It's creamier", "It's creamier than the ones before", for example.

Havvanur: Yeah. I remember things when you tell about them.

Researcher: Yeah. In another one, once again, a speaker questioned his friend about the looks of a girl he had just happened to know. The latter answered saying something like "She has such a philosophical depth that .."

Havvanur: He talked about her intellects, yeah. I remember all when you talk about things. From that one, I understood that .. he didn't like her looks much. If he had, he would have given information about the way the girl looked.

Researcher: Uh huh.

Havvanur: That part-whole stuff, I mean.

Researcher: Yeah. Praising a part to speak ill of the whole, huh?

Havvanur: Yeah yeah.

Researcher: Okay.

Table 39

Interviews Results on Reasoning Route "D" to Favored Interpretations and the Item Types for which it was Adopted

Route of reasoning "D"	Frequency (f) and percentage (%) by implied meaning type			Total frequency and percentage as to the "sum of the items discussed (n= 57)"	
	f	%	Type	f	%
Directly mentioning a filmic material that was benefited from to reach the favored conclusion	3	42.8	(disclosure)	7	12.2
	2	28.5	(Pope Questions)		
	1	14.2	(indirect advice)		
+	1	14.2	(indirect criticism)		
Being able to elaborate on how the implied meaning worked in that clip and in what way a parallelism was drawn between the clip and the test item being discussed					
+					
Coming up also with the general explanation given in the treatment about the implied meaning in question					

As shown above, out of the seven occurrences of reasoning route "D", three were for "disclosure". "Pope Questions" come after it with two occurrences. One occurrence was for both "indirect advice" and "indirect criticism".

With a wider perspective, we see that this reasoning route was taken for about 13% of all the item-by-item interviews, which makes it the fourth among all in terms of frequency. It is relatively low. However, considering the argument that it would be one of the routes with "direct and clear references to the treatment" based on filmic materials, we could add it to the former three in that it is another one which supports the aforementioned interview findings in favor of the efficiency of the instruction.

To make what has been presented clearer with an example, a transcription from this reasoning route is provided below (the name of the participant is used with her permission). It is exemplified for "disclosure" with the transcription of an interview extract on item 30 of the test, which includes a female speaker who abruptly asks a male friend of hers whether or not it is true that he has got divorced. The latter responds by just giving the excuse formulated with the fact that they got married at a very young age.

As it will be seen below, just in the beginning, the talk centers on a TV series scene where a character has to watch his properties getting confiscated because he unthinkingly spent his first salaries on really needless things. A close friend of his arrives to save at least some of those properties with his own money. Helplessly, he asks the extravagant character if he really gave large amounts for such pointless purchases. He is answered not with a direct "Yes" or "No", but with just the excuse for those unnecessary expenditures…

Researcher: Now item 30. It is one from an implied meaning type that we have not dealt with so far. An item to which you responded wrongly first, but correctly afterwards. First you chose "A", but in the test at the end of the semester, you properly went to option "B". Once again, tell me the thinking steps that led you to the favored option.

Asaf: Um … Um, here is what I thought … Um, well, teacher, I just remembered this: he (a character called "Joey" in the TV series "Friends") bought a knick-knack. Something amazingly expensive.

Researcher: Uh huh.

Asaf: When he was asked the question "Did you really give that much money for this?", he gave the answer "Yes" with an explanation just giving the excuse "Well, I'm a person who spends much on things like this, one who cannot know what to buy, one who buys almost whatever he sees."

Researcher: Yeah. You know we called this "disclosure", or "indirect confession" in a way.. What would you say about it considering the test item here?

Asaf: Um, well, when she pointedly asks there the question "Is it true that you've got divorced?", he explains things not with a direct answer, but by just giving his excuse for the divorce.

Researcher: Absolutely.

Table 40

*Interviews Results on Reasoning Route **"E"** to Favored Interpretations and the Item Types for which it was Adopted*

Route of reasoning "E"	Frequency (f) and percentage (%) by implied meaning type			Total frequency and percentage as to the "sum of the items discussed (n= **57**)"	
	f	**%**	**Type**	**f**	**%**
Reaching the favored conclusion with steps different from the ones suggested in the treatment	**1**	**50**	(ind. crit.)*	**2**	**3.5**
	1	**50**	(Pope Questions)		
+					
Remembering to have gotten help from an instructional filmic material					
+					
Explaining how the implied meaning worked in a particular filmic example with a consistent piece of rationalization					

indirect criticism

As we see above, out of the two occurrences of reasoning route "E", one is for "indirect criticism while the other one is for "Pope Questions".

On the one hand, we clearly see that this route makes a very small proportion (3.5%) of the total of the item-by-item interviews. On the other hand, its starting point tends to stay off the reasoning that was suggested in the instructional treatment. With the second one of the aspects just mentioned here, no matter how infrequently it was adopted, this reasoning route

could be considered to go against the aims of the treatment. However, as shown in the table above and exemplified in the upcoming interview extract, the teacher trainees who followed this route are not two participants who got "nothing" from the treatment although they reported their reasoning process to have begun with different steps.

As an example of the route in question, a transcription is given below (the name of the participant is used with her permission). It is exemplified for "Pope Questions" with the transcription of an interview extract on item 14 of the test, where a speaker asks his friend if she really has a lot of relatives. The respondent, who has just talked about her mother urging her to stay home to entertain the relatives during their summer visit, reacts with a question whose answer is a clear "Yes".

As it will be seen, at a certain point of it, the talk gets to the wording of a scene from the TV series "Friends", where a female character called "Phoebe" tells her close friends how she handles the situation of having two boyfriends at the same time. Upon hearing that, a friend of hers asks if the two boyfriends know about each other. She responds by asking if a dog's lips move when he reads…

Researcher: How about item 14?

Ayşenur: Let me have a look at it. … This is … I understood this as the way to answer a question with another question.

Researcher: Uh huh.

Ayşenur: So she indicates that she has a lot of relatives.

Researcher: Yeah.

Ayşenur: It went like this..

Researcher: Ok. Answering a question with another question.. Well, that question, which is used to respond to another question.. Would it be just "any" question or have a special characteristic?

Ayşenur: Well, it would be an irrelevant one.

Researcher: Uh huh.

Ayşenur: So here, we understand .. "Yes.. she has a lot of relatives." I understand it as a "Yes".. And about this, we had … he (a character called "Joey") asked that girl .. who was going out with two boys. "Are they aware of each other?" We had the answer "Does a dog move his mouth when he reads?" … Well, with that system, I mean it was that which came to my mind while answering this (test) item.

Researcher: So you considered this implied meaning type to be saying "Yes" or "No"..

Ayşenur: Yes.

Researcher: .. by asking an odd, totally irrelevant question..

Ayşenur: Yes.. The answer to the (first) question is so obvious that you don't need to respond to it with a proper answer.

Researcher: I see. Okay.

Table 41

Interviews Results on Reasoning Route "F" to Favored Interpretations and the Item Types for which it was Adopted

Route of reasoning "F"	Frequency (f) and percentage (%) by implied meaning type			Total frequency and percentage as to the "sum of the items discussed (n= 57)"	
	f	**%**	**Type**	**f**	**%**
No reporting or clear explanation despite all the attempts of query	**2**	33.3	(ind. crit.)*	**6**	**10.5%**
	2	33.3	(disclosure)		
	1	16.6	(indirect request)		
	1	16.6	(indirect advice)		
indirect criticism					

As we see above, among the six occurrences of reasoning route "F", which in fact refers to the lack of a proper route, two were for both "indirect criticism" and "disclosure" while one went to "indirect request" and "indirect advice" both.

This case was decided to have occurred when a participant kept responding to the researcher's attempts of query with remarks like "I don't remember what I thought while answering this", "How should I know?", "Well, I know the answer, but I can't explain how", "I just sense that this is the correct option" etc. or with prolonged silences or sometimes with broken, incomplete sentences.

We detect that such cases amount to more or less 10% of the total of the item-by-item interviews. This proportion can be considered relatively far from vitiating the aforementioned findings that prove to be in high favor of the efficiency of the treatment in implied meaning interpretation.

It is another fact that four of the six occurrences of this case came from a particular participant. In this light, besides the reasonable possibility that the treatment was really of no use to her, we might also think that factors like fatigue, poor morale, sleeplessness etc. played their part during the interview.

At this point, a supplementary table is provided below so that it could help to see the contents of this section at a glance:

Table 42

An Overview for the Frequencies and Percentages of All the Reasoning Routes and the Implied Meaning Types for which They were Employed

Route of Reasoning	Indirect Criticism	Irony	Topic Change	Pope Questions	Indirect Requests	Indirect Advice	Disclosure	Total/%
A	8	2	4	1	3	1	-	19/33.3
B	3	3	2	-	2	2	1	13/22.8
C	3	3	1	-	1	-	2	10/17.5
D	1	-	-	2	-	1	3	7/12.2
E	1	-	-	1	-	-	-	2/3.5
F	2	-	-	-	1	1	2	6/10.5
Total	18	8	7	4	7	5	8	57/100

As previously disclosed for per reasoning route, the table above confirms the fact that 86% of the participants went to the favored interpretation options taking the routes with direct references to the instructional treatment (Routes "A", "B", "C" and "D"), which could be viewed as in high favor of the benefits of the treatment.

Moreover, table 42 reshows that the interviews focused more on the specifically problematic implied meaning types discovered beforehand in the quantitative analyses. "Indirect Criticism" for example, about which 18 (31.5%) of the interviews were conducted,

had been statistically found as the implied meaning type for which the treatment was supposed to solve the most pressing interpretation problems of the participants'.

To sum up in consideration of what has been presented about interview findings in this section, we can state that the vast majority of the reasoning routes adopted by the participants to go to the favored interpretations of the test items have some direct and/or clear references to the instructional treatment with filmic materials, which had been designed by the researcher. This lends the support of a qualitative data collection method to the quantitative findings of the study, which already suggested that the treatment was efficient to a significant extent in helping a language learner to properly interpret the use of implied meanings. In this regard, a final and equally important point here would be the fact that the findings as a whole could be viewed as in tune with the concept of "triangulation" in the social sciences, which is (in operational terms) a vehicle for *cross validation when two or more distinct methods are found to be congruent and yield comparable data* [italics added] (Jick, 1979: 602).

Results of the second-round interviews.

First phase. As a timely reminder at this point, it can be mentioned that the second-round interviews focused on some specific items where a considerable number of participants seemed to show an insistent tendency to choose a disfavored response option in both the pre and posttest. The primary aim was to understand why it happened and why the instruction could not do more about such items. Similar to the first-round ones, the second-round interviews were conducted with particular item-by-item queries that were based on a template like the one below:

"Look at item (the item number) please. Try to remember as much as you can about it. Thinking out loud, please talk to me about what you understand from the situation and the utterance(s) and response options in it. Then tell me the steps of thinking you follow to arrive at the option that you now consider to be correct."

After the stimulus above, the rest of the conversation was shaped according to the interviewee's response, which is in accordance with the semi-structured design of the interviews. The details on how the conversations proceeded and some other due procedures were provided earlier in the text in the related section. Regardless of how they were operationalized, the basic idea behind the second-round interviews was to discover the factors to which some recurring misinterpretations of the test items could be ascribed.

Bearing all these in mind, the interview records were listened to several times. All the cases that arose during the talks were noted down. According to the findings, like for the first-round interviews, an interview analysis template was developed by the researcher. In the additional sessions of record-listening with it, the template made it possible to find out which case arose with which interviewee for which item. The template in question is presented below section by section dedicated to the aforementioned different cases in order of frequency, together with the results on which case occurred for how many times and about which item type:

Table 43

*Interviews Results on Case **"A"** and the Item Types for which it Arose*

Case "A"	Frequency (f) and percentage (%) by implied meaning type			Total frequency and percentage as to the "sum of the items discussed (n= **27**)"	
	f	**%**	**Type**	**f**	**%**
Reselecting the disfavored response	**6**	**46.1**	(disclosure)	**13**	**48.1**
option that was selected in the posttest	**4**	**30.7**	(indirect request)		
+	**1**	**15.3**	(indirect criticism)		
Being told how the implied meaning type	**1**	**7.6**	(Pope Questions)		
in the item is called and being asked	**1**	**7.6**	(topic change)		
if s/he could explain it with reference to					
a TV clip exemplifying it					
+					
Upon a proper answer, being asked					
whether it is possible for him/her to come					
up with a general explanation about that					
implied meaning					
+					
Upon a proper answer, check of the					
participant's responses to the other test					
items from the implied meaning type					
under discussion					

As presented in the table above, out of the 13 occurrences of this case, six (46.1%) were for "disclosure". This would be predictable in that the quantitative findings already suggested that "disclosure" was the implied meaning type about which the instructional treatment had proved the least influential.

"Indirect requests" come the next with four occurrences. Interestingly enough, just the way it is here, "indirect requests" come after "disclosure" among the two implied meaning types on which the instruction was found to have produced less positive effect when compared to the others according to the quantitative results.

"Indirect criticism", "Pope Questions" and "topic change" got ranked the last with only one occurrence for each.

Table 44

*Interviews Results on Case **"B"** and the Item Types for which it Arose*

Case "**B**"	Frequency (f) and percentage (%) by implied meaning type			Total frequency and percentage as to the "sum of the items discussed (n= **27**)"	
	f	**%**	**Type**	**f**	**%**
Reselecting the disfavored response option that was selected in the posttest	**2**	**40**	(topic change)	**5**	**18.5**
	2	**40**	(irony)		
+	**1**	**20**	(indirect requests)		
Being told how the implied meaning type in the item is called and being asked if s/he could explain it with reference to a TV clip exemplifying it					
+					
Because of the lack of a proper answer, being told about the TV clips including related examples and asked to explain how the implied meaning worked there					
+					
Upon a proper answer, being asked whether it is possible for him/her to come up with a general explanation about that implied meaning					
+					
Upon a proper answer, check of the participant's responses to the other test items from the implied meaning type under discussion					

As seen in Table 44, among the five occurrences of case "B", two were for "topic change" and "irony" each. "Indirect requests" were the next with only one occurrence.

At this point, it is worth mentioning the fact that case "B" and the upcoming ones hereafter have relatively few occurrences. Thanks to the design of the interviews described above, they still contribute to the finding that even the participants who had misinterpretations on some particular implied meanings did acquire "something" about those uses. Nevertheless, on the one hand, it is hard to claim that they mean more on their own with their aforementioned few occurrences. On the other hand, they add to the findings yielded by the consecutive phase of the interviews on the details that "caused" the participants' misinterpretations on the implied meanings about which they were found to be not always erring.

The results of that phase will be presented in detail later in the text with due transcriptions. There it will be hopefully possible to see also the fact that each arising case during the interviews, regardless of their occurrence numbers, contributed to some critical findings in the study.

Table 45

*Interviews Results on Case **"C"** and the Item Types for which it Arose*

Case "C"	Frequency (f) and percentage (%) by implied meaning type			Total frequency and percentage as to the "sum of the items discussed (n= 27)"	
	f	%	Type	f	%
Despite having chosen a different one in the posttest, choosing the favored response option as the correct one in the interview, plus explaining the route to that conclusion in a way paralleling the one suggested in the instruction	2	50	(disclosure)	4	14.8
	1	25	(indirect requests)		
	1	25	(Pope Questions)		

+

Being asked if s/he could explain it with reference to a TV clip exemplifying it

+

Upon a proper answer, being asked whether it is possible for him/her to come up with a general explanation about that implied meaning

+

Upon a proper answer, check of the participant's responses to the other test items from the implied meaning type under discussion

As shown above in Table 45, out of the four occurrences of this case, two were for "disclosure". "Indirect requests" and "Pope Questions" follow with only one occurrence for each.

Table 46

*Interviews Results on Case **"D"** and the Item Types for which it Arose*

Case "**D**"	Frequency (f) and percentage (%) by implied meaning type			Total frequency and percentage as to the "sum of the items discussed (n= **27**)"	
	f **%**	**Type**		**f**	**%**
Despite having chosen a different one in the posttest, choosing the favored response option as the correct one in the interview, plus explaining the route to that conclusion in a way paralleling the one suggested in the instruction + Being asked if s/he could explain it with reference to a TV clip exemplifying it + Because of the lack of a proper answer, getting clues about a TV clip as to the characters and context in it + Upon remembering on that first try, being asked whether it is possible for him/her to explain how the implied meaning worked in that particular example + Upon a proper answer, check of the participant's responses to the other test items from the implied meaning type under discussion	**2 66.6** **1 33.3**	(topic change) (irony)		**3**	**11.1**

As one would see in Table 46 above, in terms of case "D", "topic change" takes the lead with two occurrences. "Irony" is the only other one with a single occurrence.

Table 47

Interviews Results on Case "E" and the Item Types for which it Arose

Case "E"	Frequency (f) and percentage (%) by implied meaning type			Total frequency and percentage as to the "sum of the items discussed (n= 27)"	
	f	%	Type	f	%
Despite having chosen a different one in the posttest, choosing the favored response option as the correct one in the interview, plus explaining the route to that conclusion in a way paralleling the one suggested in the instruction	1	50	(topic change)	2	7.4
	1	50	(irony)		
+					
Being asked if s/he could explain it with reference to a TV clip exemplifying it					
+					
Because of the lack of a proper answer, getting clues about related TV clips (one by one) as to the characters and context in them					
+					
Upon remembering on the second/third/fourth try, being asked whether it is possible for him/her to explain how the implied meaning worked in that particular example					
+					
Upon a proper answer, check of the participant's responses to the other test items from the implied meaning type under discussion					

Table 47 above shows that, among the only two occurrences of this case, one was for "topic change" and the other one for "irony".

At this point, a supplementary table is provided below so that it could help to see the contents of this section at a glance:

Table 48

An Overview for the Frequencies and Percentages of All the Cases and the Implied Meaning Types for which they were Employed

Case	Indirect Criticism	Irony	Topic Change	Pope Questions	Indirect Requests	Indirect Advice	Disclosure	Total/%
A	1	-	1	1	4	-	6	13/48.1
B	-	2	2	-	1	-	-	5/18.5
C	-	-	-	1	1	-	2	4/14.8
D	-	1	2	-	-	-	-	3/11.1
E	-	1	1	-	-	-	-	2/7.4
Total	1	4	6	2	6	-	8	27/100

As Table 48 presents once again, 18 (66.6%) out of the 27 participants were those who reselected the disfavored response option in the interview that s/he had chosen in the posttest (cases "A" and "B"). It was previously documented that they still had their gains about the implied meaning types that cover those 18 occurrences. However, that rate of 66.6% strengthens the idea that it was a real need to make this round of the interviews, where the aim was to figure out why the instruction failed to do any more about some particular test items about which there was a marked misinterpretation tendency.

Moreover, it is reshown that "disclosure" and "indirect requests" are the two implied meaning types with most occurrences. This would be predictable in that they were the two

types about which the instruction was found to have produced less quantitative positive effect when compared to the others. In this regard, the targets got clearer for the following interviewing phase, in which the investigation was into where the errors could have arisen from.

As mentioned before briefly, the procedure described above gives just one dimension of what is investigated here. It does serve to show that there was no participant who got "nothing" from the instruction on the implied meanings under discussion, which supports the earlier findings in favor of the instructional treatment despite some seemingly recurring errors. We even see that in nearly 34% of the interviews reported as in cases "C, D and E", the final decision of the participants was on the favored response option anyway although they had chosen a different one in the posttest.

This extent, however, does not say much about the "source" of the errors wherever they happened, and that is the factor which justifies the prolongation of each interview with a second phase explained in the following subsection.

Second phase. After each initial phase, where one of the five cases above arose, the researcher proceeded to the next interviewing phase. By that point, thanks to the crosschecking circle in the interviews described in the preceding subsection, each interviewee had been confirmed to have benefited from the instruction to a relatively sufficient extent about the implied meaning under discussion.

When the researcher felt assured of that, each interview acquired its second, complementary dimension with the renewed focus on the item(s) where the participant reselected the disfavored response option that s/he had selected in the posttest. Asking a question like *"Then what could be the reasons why you still selected option (A, B, C or D) for this item here?"*, the researcher started a renewed discussion with the perspective gained until that moment. If the participant chose the favored response option as the correct option during

the interview although s/he opted for a different one in the posttest, which is a case that arose for nine times, s/he was informed about the different response option that she had selected in the posttest. In such a case, the renewed discussion started with a question like *"Then what could be the reasons why you selected option (A, B, C or D) for this item in the posttest?"*

This procedure helped to discover the details that caused the participants' misinterpretations on the implied meanings about which they not only were found to have received a proper theoretical approach from the instruction but also have selected the favored interpretation(s) elsewhere. In this regard, the table below presents (in order of frequency) which source of errors/misinterpretation occurred for how many times in general and about which implied meanings specifically.

Table 49

Sources and Frequencies about the Misinterpretations of the Test Items Discussed

Source of misinterpretation	Frequency (f) and % by implied meaning type			Overall frequency and % as to the "sum of the items discussed (n= **27**)"	
	f	**%**	**Type**	**f**	**%**
(A)					
Miscomprehension or no	5	50	(disclosure)	10	37.03
proper comprehension of a	4	40	(irony)		
certain structural and/or	1	10	(topic change)		
semantic element					
(B)					
Having made cultural transfer	5	100	(indirect requests)	5	18.5
(C)					
Surprised at his/her own	2	50	(topic change)	4	14.8
response and cannot explain	2	50	(Pope Questions)		
why s/he did so					
(D)					
Lexical miscomprehension	1	50	(indirect criticism)	2	7.4
	1	50	(topic change)		
(E)					
Having confused with another	1	50	(disclosure)	2	7.4
implied meaning type	1	50	(topic change)		
(F)					
Impetuousness/Time Pressure	2	100	(disclosure)	2	7.4
(G)					
Over-interpretation (Excessively	1	100	(topic change)	1	3.7
heightened sensitivity towards					
attributing implicit messages to					
all the utterances)					
(H)					
Having lost the concentration	1	100	(indirect requests)	1	3.7

As previously mentioned, the second step of the interviews yielded some valuable information in terms of all the dimensions of the study. Looking more closely at the results displayed in Table 49 above, we see that at almost 15% of the cases, the participants were surprised to have made the errors and could not explain why, which suggests that they would opt for the favored interpretations in any occasion. Besides that, in almost 19% of the cases, factors like "momentarily mistaking a particular word", "impetuousness" and "loss of concentration for no clear reason" were found to have been at play, about which the instruction would not be expected to be remarkably effective. The cases where the participants confused the implied meaning types and where they resorted to over-interpretation could be ascribed to some flaws in the instruction, but they amount to only 11% of all the cases. These findings as a group can be considered in favor of the efficiency of the instructional treatment, which was previously confirmed with different perspectives.

The two most frequent cases, where the participants wrongly interpreted the use of a certain structural element (case "A") and where they went astray because of cultural/sociopragmatic transfer (case "B"), merit special attention.

First of all, similar to the case about "misunderstanding a particular word", case "A" could be claimed to be another asset in favor of the instructional treatment. It is an observable fact that, for validity enhancement, the researcher had put in considerable effort to simplify the language of the test items with the aim of minimizing the effect of language proficiency nuances between the participants. In this respect, the treatment would not be criticized just because some participants still failed to properly comprehend a specific structural or semantic element in a test item. Nonetheless, the issue was observed to be deeper with a closer look, and it led to some critical ad hoc decisions on which test items should be included in the analyses.

It was seen that, out of the 10 occurrences of case "A", five were for one specific "disclosure" item while four concerned one particular "irony" item. What is more, the interviews showed that the comprehension problems arose from one specific structural element in both items in question. Besides that, returning to the interviews with the participants who chose the favored options in the posttest for those two items, it was seen that they too sounded hesitant about the abovementioned structural elements in the items.

Condensation of problems in this manner cannot be observed about any of the other items included in the interviews, the records of which take dozens of hours. Having all these in mind, it was seen that the problem was too obvious to overlook as a natural consequence of the flaws in some participants' language proficiency levels. On the contrary, it appeared to be a straightforward fact that the two problematic test items had not been simplified enough for the participants of this study back in the phase of data collection instrument. In this respect, since treating them as successful test items like the others would have damaged the validity of the results, the two items in question were excluded from the final analyses.

To make the issue clearer with examples, interview transcriptions on both of those items are given below in the text. This will also show how the second phases of the interviews were conducted and how the cases previously reported came out.

The first one refers to the excluded "disclosure (indirect confession)" item, where two close friends meet each other after a considerable period of time. One (Susan) asks the other (Bill) if he really got arrested at the end of the last academic semester because of drunk driving. He responds with the following utterance: "Well, it's hard *not to* celebrate the end of semester." [Italics added]

Researcher: … This one.. Once again, first remember about the item and please tell me which response option you now consider to be appropriate.

İrem: Uh huh… Hmm… Um… "C".

Researcher: You would say "C".

İrem: Uh huh.

Researcher: Yes. You are highly consistent… with yourself.

İrem: But in fact, I now get what it is .. "A". No! How come it could be "A"? He confirms?

Researcher: Yeah, he confirms it. So what led you to "C" in the test and here?

İrem: What led me to "C"? Um, I believe it once again was caused by misunderstanding, not fully understanding the utterance. It sounded to me like he is trying to change the topic there, but it mustn't be so.

Researcher: So you thought that what is said is something totally irrelevant to what has been asked, and the topic is wanted to get changed.

İrem: Yeah.

Researcher: But I see you deduce now that it is "disclosure" here what we're talking about. Did we study it as "disclosure" or "indirect confessions"?

İrem: … Um, well, um.. It is .. One does not fully express the situation s/he is in and responds about it using a different expression. But it is telling the truth here.

Researcher: Yeah.

İrem: So he's not changing the topic here.

Researcher: Yeah. So.. You know you said you most probably didn't fully understand the target utterance. This means the reason for your error was that you couldn't properly decipher the English in Bill's utterance?

İrem: Uh huh. Yes.. Well, besides, I remember that I answered this item and many others really fast after reading for only once. But I would probably have gone wrong again even if I had read it for the second time, I don't know, you see I've just made the same error here as well.

Researcher: Yeah.. Well, what does Bill say in his answer here? Would you please translate it for me?

İrem: Um…

Researcher: How do you consider it now? .. What is the question? … "Oh, by the way, is it true that you got arrested at the end of the semester for drinking and driving?" This is the question.

İrem: Um… It's kind of .. Not celebrating.. oh no.. celebrating the end of the semester is not hard…? [Italics added]

Researcher: Celebrating is not hard?

İrem: Uh huh. It's kind of .. celebrating this is not hard. [Italics added]

Researcher: "It's hard *not to* celebrate."

İrem: … How on earth did I translate this?

Researcher: So you still have difficulty in deciphering the meaning of the utterance..

İrem: Exactly. I'm still having trouble with it. [Italics added]

Researcher: So its English constrained you in the first place. That "not to" stuff maybe.

İrem: Yeah, yeah. It's obvious.

As displayed above, the problem is that the participant was not able to get to a point of pragmatic interpretation as she had been blocked by the use of a "negative to-infinitive" in "not to celebrate" in Bill's answer. This suggests that the effects of the instructional treatment, even if there were any, could not come into play at all. What is more, in all the other cases where a participant made an error in the test item under discussion here, the same use of infinitive was determined as the sole reason for the lack of proper comprehension.

The other problematic item is the excluded "irony" item, where a boy (Walter) comes to visit her girlfriend (Sheila), who was looking forward to see him. Shortly after he appears, he begins to talk angrily and even shouts at his girlfriend and her housemates. Seeing that, his

girlfriend reacts with the following utterance: "Ooh, *aren't we* in a pleasant mood?" [Italics added]

Researcher: …now, would you please have a look at this item as well? … First of all, could you tell me what you understand from the situation and the utterance by thinking out loud?

Tuğba: Um, Sheila is looking forward to see her boyfriend, Walter. When Walter arrives, in a really hot-tempered manner, he shouts at Sheila and her housemates, I suppose.

Researcher: Yeah.

Tuğba: And Sheila says to him … It's kind of saying .. *"Are you fine?"* [Italics added] Is it like *"This situation is a bit terrible"?* [Italics added] … She says something like that.

Researcher: If you were to translate this, how would you do that?

Tuğba: Um… … *"Are we fine?"* [Italics added] (The participant giggles here). Like that!

Researcher: "Are we fine?"

(The participant lets out a higher-pitched giggle)

Researcher: Ok, which response option do you consider to be appropriate?

Tuğba: Um… … "A".

Researcher: You say "A". Well, can we say you did this on the basis of the "irony" item that we previously discussed? Can we say it helped you?

Tuğba: If what I've done is correct.. I don't know whether it is or not.. I'll talk according to that (She giggles again).

Researcher: … In the posttest, this is your answer, you considered "C" to be appropriate.

Tuğba: Is it correct? .. Wrong!

Researcher: Yeah. The favored option was "A", yes… Then what could have led you to "C" in the posttest, what thoughts?

Tuğba: Let me have a look… I suppose I weighed things considering myself.

Researcher: How's that?

Tuğba: If my boyfriend were angry that way, I would first try to soothe him and understand the situation. I probably didn't carefully consider the utterance, I just evaluated the situation.

Researcher: You did not focus on what is uttered.

Tuğba: Yeah.

Researcher: Just see. (The researcher points to the utterance) Could this be said to soothe the boy? We need to consider that. What does she say here? Something like "Oh, we're absolutely fine, huh?", "Hey, what an enjoyable mood it is that we're in, huh?" or "You're in a really good mood today!"

Tuğba: Ah! Just like in the one before.

Researcher: So what we have is "irony", don't we? She says just the opposite of what she means, so she says what she has to say and does it maybe in a more striking way.

Tuğba: Yeah yeah.

Researcher: Then could we, once again, attribute your error to not focusing on some details in the situation or in the utterance?

Tuğba: Yes.

Researcher: Are the things clear to you now?

Tuğba: Now they are.

Researcher: And here is what caught my special attention: Well, when you were commenting on the utterance or when I asked you to translate it, you almost totally failed to produce the expected equivalent. Could also this be a reason?

Tuğba: Well, for example, *when "aren't"s and such come into play, I can't figure things out*. [Italics added] I just suppose I do but … don't. Plus, she addresses the boy here, but says .. "we"? .. The English is odd.

Researcher: I see. That seems to be a major factor..

Tuğba: Yeah.

As shown above, just like with the other excluded test item previously discussed, the problem here is that the participant was not able to reach a point of pragmatic interpretation as she had been blocked by the misconception of the negative question in "Ooh, aren't we in a pleasant mood?" Moreover, despite naturally considering Sheila's remark to be direct to the boy, she found it hard to make sense of its happening with the pronoun "we" instead of "you".

These all indicate that the effects of the treatment, even if there had been any, could not get even involved in the reasoning processes. What is more, in all the other cases where a participant made an error about the item in question here, the same negative question (added the use of "we" in a way that could mean the pronoun "you") was established as the principal reason for the lack of proper interpretation.

With all these findings in mind, it was concluded that the two abovementioned test items had not been sufficiently simplified earlier in the phase of data collection instrument. The reasoning processes about them did not occur in the area of pragmatics mainly because a proper semantic basis could not be initially formed. In the light of this fact, keeping them as if they were like the other successful items would have damaged the validity of the results. For this reason, the two items in question were excluded from the final analyses.

These findings and the move that they prompted in the study is believed to be especially important in that they exhibit how the potentially insightful nature of qualitative findings could enlighten the quantitative results. Among the inspirational studies for this one, Bouton (1988, 1994, 1999) adjusted the language of his test items considering also the proficiency

level of his NNS participants that had managed to have university education in the USA. With his own judgment supported by pilot findings and a debriefing session with NS of English, Roever (2005) made some even more extensive modifications to his test items. Likewise, Taguchi (2005) minimized the variance from her participants' difference in vocabulary knowledge. The entire vocabulary in her items was drawn from Longman's 2,000-word defining vocabulary list (Longman, 1995), which was considered within reach of her L2 learners. In much the same vein, this study incorporated some painstaking efforts for item simplification and modification, which were fully explained earlier in the text. However, again in the same way as the abovementioned studies, the final versions of the test items were not discussed beforehand with a pilot group similar to the main study's target population. As suggested by the findings here, such a step turned out to be necessary as all that modification work had still failed to make the items cleared enough of the factors that would prevent one's reasoning process from occurring in an isolated area of pragmatics. It now seems that such an interviewing procedure before the main study could have let the researcher understand what the test items were to signify to the target population. Thus it would have been possible to revise them even further to initiate the main study with a relatively flawless data collection instrument.

Within the framework of this study, the abovementioned diagnosis is believed to be a significant one. It was understood that such an "early interviewing phase" would have completed the picture that had been developed by the pilot results, three debriefing sessions on each test item with the same native-speaker ELT professionals and the researcher's months-long efforts for proper item-modification. In this regard, the diagnosis in question could be also an asset that informs the related future research so that it would consider making "such an early-interviewing procedure" an indispensable part of piloting.

As previously stated, the other frequent case was where the participants went astray due to some kind of "cultural/sociopragmatic transfer" (case "B"), and this would merit special attention too. What is interesting is that all the occurrences of this case are with one specific implied meaning type: indirect requests. Moreover, unlike with the first case, it is not possible here to talk about a scenario in which the errors stemmed from misinterpreting some lexical or structural elements in the test items. In this regard, this case can be viewed as one which predominantly works in "disfavor" of the treatment in that the participants still committed some pragmatic interpretation errors although they had had a proper semantic basis. The effects of the treatment could not stop it from happening. Remembering the fact that all the occurrences are about "indirect requests", which is an implied meaning type where the instruction failed by a narrow margin to produce a statistically significant performance change, the uncovered reason in the interviews for those occurrences becomes especially important, and that reason appears to be a notion which can be called "cultural/sociopragmatic transfer".

To make the issue clearer with an example, a related interview transcription is given below (the name of the participant is used with her permission). In the final version of the test, it is focused on item 29, where we have "Nina", an office secretary at a university, working at her desk. Tom, a teacher, is there to make photocopies but the machine is not working. Seeing that, Tom says: "The copy machine isn't working."

Researcher: Asude, here is how I would like to start. Could you try to remember this .. particular item by looking over it?

Asude: Um…

Researcher: This is the situation, and this is the utterance. (The researcher points at the relevant places on the printout)

Asude: I chose option "B", teacher. (That option sees only "indirect criticism" in the utterance)

Researcher: Yeah, that is exactly where I wanted to get at. You gave an outstanding performance on all this here in both the first and second test. However, interestingly enough, you chose option "B" for this item in both tests..

Asude: Uh huh.

Researcher: Well, now.. What were the factors here that led you to option "B"? I want to learn about that.

Asude: Um, secretary .. Actually, I was a bit.. torn between, but because I thought that we can talk about a duty of hers here as the secretary, and you know the test is all about how people might not say things directly, that is to say, indirectly.. You know, I inferred something like "It's not working, and this is your responsibility. You should have het it fixed."

Researcher: Yeah.

Asude: But, you know, actually, if someone were to ask "Are you 100% sure about that?".. I'm not.

Researcher: Then what would be your second choice here?

Asude: … It would be "C".

Researcher: It would be "C".

Asude: Uh huh.

Researcher: Now, OK, we're on the right track. Well, we studied eight different types of implied meanings. I suppose you remember that.

Asude: Yes.

Researcher: One was "indirect criticism".

Asude: Uh huh.

Researcher: But, how is that type of meanings formed? Let's remember that.. Roughly speaking, one is asked for his/her opinion on something.

Asude: Uh huh.

Researcher: Seeming to praise an irrelevant part of that thing, the person, in fact, makes criticism about the thing as a whole. I mean, whatever feature of it he or she was asked to give an opinion about.

Asude: Yeah.

Researcher: So, that is how "indirect criticism" is supposed to work.

Asude: Yeah yeah.

Researcher: So when we look at what we have here.. There is no such logic.

Asude: There is not. At all. Yeah.

Researcher: Well, in spite of that.. in spite of the fact that things are like that, what was it that led you to "B"?

Asude: Um, it was the word "secretary". I seriously considered her, as the office secretary there, the responsible person for the proper functioning of the equipment in that office, for the work there.. And, at the end of the day, to a person who is responsible for something.. Well, how can I say? For example, we buy something at a supermarket, we get a Coke thinking that it is cold. If we say "the coke is warm", what do we really want (to say)? - "The coke should have been cold".

Researcher: Yeah.

Asude: That would be what we mean. This was the kind of logic I used here, but.. Well, it could be.. more possible with the *Turkish way* of reasoning.. [Italics added] It may not coincide with the use of reason here. (The participant giggles here)

Researcher: I see.. Well, plus, as another type of giving indirect messages, we studied "indirect requests".

Asude: Yes.

Researcher: You remember about that.

Asude: Yes.

Researcher: How is such discourse constructed? Do you remember that?

Asude: Yes, I do. In such a case, for example, we would say "I need to get something at a particular place, but I'll not be able to go" so that whom we are addressing would say "I can go and get it for you!" (She refers here to a specific TV series scene that she watched during the instructional treatment)

Researcher: Yeah.

Asude: That's the way it is done. Well, here.. he (the teacher named "Tom" in the test item) wanted it (the copy machine) to get fixed. He spoke… so that the other one would say "Then I'll do something for the fix."

Researcher: Yeah.

Asude: Ok, I've just figured it out.

Researcher: Well, if you can remember.. Actually, you did remember it. You know, instead of directly using such patterns as "Can you …, Could you … please?"..

Asude: That's right!

Researcher: By just mentioning the problematic situation that we're in..

Asude: Yes, yes.

Researcher: By just sharing it, together with the object of our request..

Asude: That's right.

Researcher: We could try requesting indirectly that people would do something for us about that. That's the kind of logic we once talked about.

Asude: Actually, I here..

Researcher: And, just looking at the situation here and what is uttered in it..

Asude: Right. That's what we have here. I see I acted with quite a bit of *Turkish* logic [Italics added] or.. my own logic. (She giggles here) When we consider what we studied in our classes, option "C" shows itself up.

Researcher: Yeah… You do not have any other error anyway.

Asude: Oh thank you.

Researcher: But, as I told you before, it caught my attention that you somehow went to a different option here. So.. it seems you did that most probably because you made an extra interpretation, one that was not covered in our classes at all.

Asude: Yes, yes, teacher. Well, I really didn't.. I.. If I had reviewed in my mind the discourse types one by one, I would have chosen the correct option. Plus, you know, I was stuck with the question whether it was her (the secretary's) duty, but even if it was, things don't change when we think over what was studied in our classes. So now, yes, I understand. Well, um.. My thinking was so.. ready-made that I didn't even review the types properly.

Researcher: I see.. Well, you know we had a pretest, posttest and an instructional period in between. On the whole, almost all the students made remarkable progress, but the performance on "indirect requests" does not seem to be at the desired level. So you're not alone, and I'm trying to uncover the reasons for that..

Asude: Ah, teacher, so can we say.. "cultural difference stuff"? Maybe, um, we failed to think according to the culture in this item, because - really, among the factors we have talked about, the major one is .. seeing such a *Turkish way* of reasoning [Italics added] in this item before anything else and running to that. I can say this.. about myself at least.

Researcher: I see… Well, so.. that major factor you're mentioning .. It seems to fit with what we call *"laf sokma (needling someone with indirect pejorative expressions)"* [italics added] in Turkish..

Asude: Yes, yes.. Yes. I (She giggles here), I considered things directly in that way. I immediately saw the secretary's neglect of duty here, and I thought Tom emphasizes that and such.

As presented in the transcription above, what was primarily at play in "indirect request" interpretation seems to be an established practice of everyday Turkish. When coined as "laf sokma", it was *wholeheartedly approved* by all the participants, and it was determined to have operated as a deciding factor about all the "indirect request" items in the test. What is more, it had been met in the first-round interviews as well, which were focused on the positive performance changes characterized by the choice of favored response options in the posttest. It was there seen that even the participants who chose the favored options for the "indirect request" items viewed "laf sokma" as a viable alternative for interpretation. In this regard, at any time when a test taker tended towards a disfavored response option while dealing with an indirect request, we see that the supposition of a "laf sokma" incidence was always there to outpace the proper considerations expected to come from the treatment period.

Within the framework of the present study, the abovementioned finding is believed to be a pedagogically and methodologically significant one in terms of how implicature should be addressed in classroom and how the insightful nature of qualitative findings in a triangulated research design could enlighten the quantitative results, which will be discussed thoroughly in the "Discussion" section.

Interview findings reflecting some general comments. Apart from the ones presented so far in this section, the interviews yielded some spontaneous findings that are worth reporting to serve as the final remarks here. They are some unprompted comments that the participants made just because they wanted to. They reflect a general overview on the study as a whole and, in more specific terms, the instruction with filmic materials in it. Below are

given some quotes that characterize those comments (the names of the participants are used with their permission):

Asaf: We had always been taught as if a remark would have only one direct interpretation, and we just didn't have the awareness of things like "satire" in English.

Münir: We were demonstrated in practice some things about which we had been told "people do use them in English."

Tuba: If you had just verbalized things, instead of using "scenes", they wouldn't have stuck in my mind. What we studied *put down roots in my mind* [italics added] with the visual quality.

Onur: What had just been written in the test was now (in the posttest) *shaped in sounds and visions* [italics added]. It was really cool.

Ümit: Our awareness of all these increased greatly. I just need to congratulate. It's a really nice study.. We would not know about these if you hadn't taught that way, or if we had gone abroad and met things like these, serious occasions of misunderstanding could have arisen. So, this (the instruction) was really good for us. The video clips were fun, you labored over them. Thank you.

Nagehan: You may learn something, but its being there to stay is different. Without the video clips, it would not be possible to retain all these.

Rabia (she had taken ELT courses in an Erasmus program at a German university by the time the interview took place)**:** The experience in Germany approved that grammar is not enough to communicate. The language takes on different meanings according to the context and discourse. In your lessons, we had had a chance to get a perspective on using the language in daily life concept. I can say that the films contributed positively to the development of my English. Besides, they helped to make me more conscious in some courses on Semantics, Pragmatics and Intercultural Communication, which I took in Germany.

We took notice of (in your course) the benefits of watching filmic materials. *We should apply it in our own language classes* [italics added] by showing some sections of TV series or films to make our students aware of any kind of language use.

To conclude, the need is felt to remind that the participants made such comments totally on their own initiative at a moment they liked during the interviews. All the assessment and evaluation procedures had long been completed, and the participants had no reason to try to please the researcher by saying things without really meaning them. In this regard, we can assert that such remarks put the finishing touches to the previously-mentioned findings in favor of the study and the instruction given in it. Besides that, they can be thought to have some further-reaching implications for teaching any particular linguistic content with film.

In consideration of the scope of this study and/or a broader perspective, it seems that the participants

- raised their awareness of the fact that one could sometimes need to speculate on indirectly-produced meanings as well, which would be particularly important in an environment where students are used to "learning English in a way that parcels up meaning tidily" (Lazar, 1993: 105),

- were prompted to think over possible future encounters with NSs of English and felt somewhat more equipped for that,

- viewed the study of linguistic features in filmic materials as an occasion of "theory being put into practice",

- saw that "the things that had just been said to be used in English" must really have a place in everyday language and thus began to find them really worth learning (more) about,

- felt that the audiovisual quality of the instruction program helped the retention of what they had studied,

- felt that the language "that had just remained on paper" came to life in a way, which supported the fun and motivation elements of the lessons,

- were provided with a foundation for the pragmatic and intercultural communication aspects of the language,

- were prompted to consider integrating filmic materials in their own teaching practice when they enter the profession.

Chapter V. Discussion

The present study had been conceived to have a twofold purpose. In the first place, with a meticulously developed multiple-choice discourse completion test (MDCT) fit for purpose, it set out to investigate how accurately and fast NSs of English and Turkish EFL teacher candidates interpret some particular types of implied meanings in English. Secondly, with the intention of adding an experimental dimension, it aimed to test the effects of a film-based instructional kit that had been devised by the researcher to help the comprehension of the implied meanings in question.

Within this framework, following a procedure based on a pre-, post- and delayed posttest design with a control group, the quantitative set of results were produced with suitable statistical analyses. Later, to lend them the support of qualitative data, interviews were conducted in two rounds to cross-validate the relationship between the instruction and positive performance changes and to uncover the reason(s) why the participants showed a marked tendency to disfavored interpretations about some specific test items.

In this context, sequentially considering what the study investigated in the light of the research questions, the present chapter aims to interpret, compare with the literature and evaluate the findings after restating them briefly.

Comprehension Accuracy and Speed Differences between Turkish EFL Teacher
Trainees and NSs of English

Taking the test as a whole, NSs of English were found to be significantly more accurate than the teacher candidates at choosing the expected interpretations of the implied meanings included in the study ($p < 0.01$). In harmony with that, a statistically significant difference in favor of the NSs was detected between all the item subset scores ($p < 0.01$ for each item subset except "Indirect Refusals", where "p" was equal to 0.01). It would be worth noting herein that the present study could be a pioneering one to demonstrate that things do not seem

to change much for EFL learners/teacher trainees about the interpretation of "requestive hints (indirect requests)", "disclosures" and "indirect advice" either, which were made by this study the subject of investigation for the first time in a MDCT format as one of the principal methods of investigating implicature comprehension in the literature.

What is given above should all be conforming to Bouton (1988, 1992), who found with his pioneering studies in the related body of research that NNs of English tend to interpret implicatures in English differently from the way NSs do. We see within the present study that, despite their relatively long years of language study that had brought them to an academic setting of ELT training, the teacher candidates were significantly inferior to NSs' accuracy level. This could be understandable when we consider Bouton's (1994, p. 99) another finding which reveals that NNS perform noticeably worse on implied meanings (particularly on the types like ones included in this study) even after having been immersed in an American educational environment for an extended period.

When it comes to the comparison of the response times to the test, it was found that the teacher trainees had used 63.3% of the maximum time allowed while the NSs used 45.8% of it, which was also a statistically significant difference between the two (p < 0.01). This suggests that NSs of English are not only more accurate at choosing the favored interpretations of implied meanings but also significantly quicker to respond to them.

This obviously poorer performance of the teacher trainees in interpretation speed would be explicable too if we take Taguchi (2008) as an example, where a group of ESL learners in the USA outperformed an EFL learner group in Japan in speed of pragmatic comprehension. Given the fact that this is mainly attributable to the abundant incidental processing practice available in the ESL environment (Taguchi, 2011a, p. 913), one can predict quite precisely that NSs of English would be significantly quicker to respond to implied meanings than NNSs

even in a case where the latter are advanced learners of English on the brink of EFL teaching as a profession.

In the light of these, taking the results from the native speaker participants as a norm, it is possible to conclude that Turkish EFL teacher trainees are not sufficiently accurate and quick in interpretation when confronting implied meaning use in English. We should here remember also the fact that the differences between the two participant groups arose in a setting where most of the native speakers were complete strangers to the researcher from different cities, countries and even continents while the teacher trainees had just become his new students to give him some first impressions. As previously mentioned, as a relatively homogeneous group who had come to university level with similar academic backgrounds by passing the national university admission exam, it is possible to consider teacher trainees to be advanced Turkish FL learners of English as well. Thus it would be possible also to generalize the findings to the preceding stages of the EFL learning environment in Turkey.

At this point it would be worth mentioning that, in our day characterized by globalized communication in multiculturalism, using NS norms as a benchmark for pragmatic behavior may not be so crucial in a foreign language situation (Wyner & Cohen, 2015, p. 547). Nevertheless, in the strenuous attempt to develop a valid and recent multiple-choice test to measure pragmatic comprehension about implied meanings, this study had the compelling need for norms to count as the "favored interpretations of the test items", and no other appropriate way to have them could be conceived than taking the response options on which the native speaker participants reached a satisfactory compromise in the measurements of the three piloting stages, plus the main study. Apart from that, as Wyner and Cohen (2015, p. 547) put it with a comprehensive look, NS norms as a benchmark can be valuable for learners to have familiarity with what these norms are, regardless of whether they attempt to adhere to them. What is more, such norms would help learners to figure out not only what went wrong

in experienced pragmatic failures but also ways in which they could be avoided in future interactions (Wyner & Cohen, 2015, p. 547).

In this regard and reconsidering the results from a group of advanced learners, who are even authorized to study ELT as a profession, this study can be claimed to demonstrate that Turkish learners of EFL would have considerable benefits from instruction on implied meanings as an essential constituent of pragmatics (Levinson, 1983), the competence of which is reported to be crucial for general communicative competence (Bachman & Palmer, 1996; Council of Europe, 2001).

In the grand scheme of things, this proven need for enhancement of pragmatic competence would be predictable from the general air of "neglect" about handling "pragmatics as a learning target" in especially EFL environments (Brubæk, 2012; Chen, 2009; Hu, 2014; Rose, 2005; Rueda, 2006; Segueni, 2014; Yu, 2006). This need would be understandable with a closer look as well in the light of several earlier reports about FL contexts, where learners' opportunities to come into contact with the target language are circumscribed (Alagözlü, 2013; Cenoz, 2007; Kasper, 2001b; Li, 2015; Martinez-Flor & Soler, 2007; Taguchi, 2008; Taguchi, 2011), many commercially produced textbooks offer classroom learners little opportunity or questionable information for learning L2 pragmatics (Alagözlü, 2013; Bardovi-Harlig, Hartford, Mahan-Taylor, Morgan & Reynold, 1991; Bardovi-Harlig, 2001; Economidou-Kogetsidis; 2015; Grant & Starks, 2001; Ishihara, 2010; Li, 2015; Myers-Scotton & Bernstein, 1988; Pearson, 1986; Thomas, 1983; Vellenga, 2004; Wong, 2002) and thus instruction is strongly needed to heighten learners' pragmatic awareness (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001; Kasper, 1997, 2001a). When looked within the scope of this study, it would be reasonable to expect that instruction on implied meanings can be beneficial too as the abovementioned general neglect on pragmatics suggests that implied

meanings have not been frequently made the focus of attention in language education practices either.

When we reconsider the results of the study as specific to FL teacher trainees this time, the fact that the participants revealed signs of weakness in implied meaning interpretation is in line with earlier research reporting about the potentially weak pragmatic competence of non-native English-speaking teacher candidates (Alagözlü & Büyüköztürk, 2009; Bektas-Cetinkaya, 2012; McNeill, 1993; Milambiling, 1999; Pasternak & Bailey, 2004), which would be a likely consequence of teacher education programs predisposed to neglect pragmatic aspects of language and effective techniques for teaching pragmatics (Alagözlü, 2013; Bardovi-Harlig, 1992; Biesenback-Lucas, 2003; Eslami, 2011; Karatepe, 2001; Vásquez & Sharpless, 2009; Taguchi, 2011b; Wyner & Cohen, 2015) in spite of the fact that teacher training is critical as it inevitably influences the ways in which instructional methods and materials are utilized. This situation could be viewed as even graver when we recognize the fact that it is prospective EFL teachers who are supposed to help future EFL learners have pragmatic competence besides the other areas of general language ability. We should note here that the incorporation of pragmatics in foreign language teachers' instruction is reported even to be "imperative", particularly if student motivation is lacking to pay attention to the subtleties associated with that construct. In case of teachers' intentional or unintentional neglect of it, students may view it as a silent acknowledgement that pragmatics is either unimportant or does not exist at all. (Wyner & Cohen, 2015, p. 542).

In a country like Turkey, where language teaching practices, materials and assessment tend to be grammar-oriented (Coskun, 2011; Erkan & Saban, 2011; Erkmen, 2014; Kizildag, 2009; Ozsevik, 2010; Özmen, 2012; Tercanlioglu, 2005; Uztosun, 2013), and in the light of the reports indicating that sufficient pragmatic competence will not be necessarily displayed even when high grammatical proficiency is achieved (Bardovi-Harlig, 1996; Jianda, 2006),

the appropriateness of integrating pragmatic instruction modules into the EFL teaching and EFL teacher training programs in Turkey is substantiated once again. It would be naïve to assume that pragmatic competence could take care of itself in an EFL program that focuses on grammar or any other linguistic construct(s) without devoting any attention to pragmatics. This is corroborated by the results of this study, where the participants were both EFL learners and prospective EFL teachers who had produced ample proof of relatively high grammatical competence in their academic history.

Considering the findings of this study together with some others in the related literature, which brings up issues like Turkish EFL teacher candidates' being expected to grasp pragmalinguistic aspects of English just along the process of training (Karatepe, 2001), their pragmatic comprehension level being low and remaining low even after years of formal instruction (Alagözlü, 2009; 2013) and their tending to perform speech acts in ways that veer from native speaker norms (Bektas-Cetinkaya, 2012), we face up to the reality of preservice language teachers who could well be deficient in important pragmatic skills. When this is the case, it would be quite natural that they may have difficulties in teaching pragmatic use of language to students at schools. As Alagözlü (2013, p. 8) postulates, this partly explains the fact that Turkish students lag far behind in foreign language learning compared to many other world countries.

Looking more closely at the abovementioned points in terms of "pragmatic flaws and communication", we would come to see preservice EFL teachers, thus their prospective students, at risk of having future breakdowns in cross-cultural communication especially with NSs of English. As Thomas (1983, p. 97) puts it, differently from grammar errors likely to show a language-user as "not so proficient" at worst, pragmatic failures could reflect badly on him/her as a person. Misunderstandings of this nature almost certainly underlie unhelpful and offensive national stereotyping: the abrasive Russian/German', the obsequious

Indian/Japanese', the insincere American', and the standoffish Briton'. In a similar vein, Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnyei's (1998) study into metapragmatic awareness suggests that native speakers may tend to evaluate pragmatic errors more severely compared to grammatical ones. What is more, the non-native speaker with the pragmatic error may be seen as rude (Crandall & Basturkmen, 2004, p. 38).

If we specifically focus on implied meaning misinterpretation as a distinct type of pragmatic flaws, preservice EFL teachers, thus their prospective students, could be deemed as lacking in handling of implicature as an absolutely "unremarkable and ordinary" conversational strategy (Green, 1989, p. 92), which is one far from being a rhetorical trick that only clever and accomplished writers and conversationalists use (Green, 1996, p. 66). This lack would take on more meaning in view of such reports as ones suggesting that strict adherence to directness does not necessarily represent 'ideal' communication and part of the communicative competence expected of a speaker situated in a culture is the ability to know when to be alert for implicature and *how to process implicature-based utterances* [italics added] (Lakoff, 2009, p. 104). Likewise, McTear (2004) states firmly that a significant facet of conversational competence is meanings that are expressed in a roundabout fashion as people do employ indirect language for purposes like sarcasm, politeness, softening requests etc. In much the same vein, Pichastor (1998) posits that everyday conversations see commonplace use of implicit communication strategies, which is a case that should result in sufficient inclusion of such strategies in textbook materials so that learners could take advantage of their value. In a parallel manner, Bardovi-Harlig (2001, p. 30) declares that providing learners with authentic input for support in handling indirect speech acts and implicature should be viewed as an action of "fair play: giving the learners a fighting-chance" (Yoshida, 2014, p. 262). This support can be considered to rise even more in importance when we recognize the fact that the natural inclination of L2 learners is for literal interpretation,

taking utterances at face value rather than thinking that there may be a hidden meaning in what is said (Kasper, 1997).

To avoid misunderstandings, misjudgments and communication breakdowns that could stem from pragmatic flaws like ones mentioned above, Kramsch (1998) emphasizes the need to incorporate the cultural dimension into language teaching and use, which could be seen as the pragmatic functions and notions expressed through language. As a response to such calls in a context where communicative language teaching model and the notional-functional approach have covered pragmatics as an important objective of instruction (Taguchi, 2013) and organizations like ACTFL (1999) and Council of Europe (2001) have earmarked pragmatic competence as part of the target constructs of measurement, this study took an active step and made a determined attempt to produce an audiovisual instruction program on a particular dimension of "conversational implicature" as one of the five main areas of the study of pragmatics (Levinson, 1983). In other words, despite having identified an improvable aspect in preservice EFL teachers' pragmatic skills, the study was meant not to remain in that diagnostic/descriptive domain only and "do something" with an instructional/experimental move for the betterment of the pragmatic competence of any EFL/ESL teacher trainee or learner who would need that.

Effect of the Instructional Treatment with Filmic Materials on Comprehension Accuracy and Speed

In terms of the experimental domain of the study and about the effects of the instruction on comprehension accuracy in the first place, a significant difference was found between the pre and posttest score differences of the experimental and control group participants ($p < 0.01$) in favor of the former, which meant a progress of almost 15% superiority in proportion to the scope of the test as a whole. As for the results in terms of the item subsets, except for "Disclosure (*p= .441*)", the experimental group made a progress in all the seven item subsets

at varying extents of superiority to the control group. The difference was statistically significant with respect to six implied meaning types while not for "Indirect requests (*p= 0.72*)" only, where just one more correct response in the posttest could have made the positive performance change also statistically significant at "p < 0.05" level. Besides these, in the light of the delayed posttest given nearly seven months after the posttest and taken by 61% of the experimental group participants, a significant difference was found between the pretest/posttest and pretest/delayed posttest scores (p < 0.01 for both), which would confirm the efficacy of the instructional treatment with filmic materials. Moreover, there did not emerge a significant difference between the posttest/delayed posttest scores (p > 0.05), which could enable us to assert that the gains from instruction were retained over time as well.

The fact that the abovementioned improvements would be attributed mainly to the instruction program was corroborated by the interview findings as well. The first data set there, which was meant to serve to crosschecking that the positive performance changes of the participants could be ascribed mainly to the gains that the treatment had brought, showed that the overwhelming majority (86%) of the reasoning routes taken to go to the favored interpretations had some clear references to the instructional treatment. In this way, the qualitative and quantitative data collection methods of the study were found to give consistent results in high favor of the instruction, which also meant the fulfillment of "triangulation" in social sciences cross-validating that the two distinct methods were congruent and did yield comparable data (Jick, 1979).

With an overall look, the considerable success of the instruction based on direct explanation of the target features accords with the reported superiority of explicit approaches over implicit ones in teaching pragmatics (Jeon & Kaya, 2006; Taguchi, 2015; Takahashi, 2010). What is more, the success in question is line with the reports of instructional studies specifically on implied meanings as well (Bouton, 1994, 1999; Blight, 2002; Kubota, 1995).

They confirm the central role of explicit metapragmatic explanation for pragmatic development within the scope of helping learners properly interpret implied meanings in English.

When we look at the findings in more detail on an item-subset basis, the success of the instruction specifically in "Pope Questions", "Indirect Criticism", "(Verbal) Irony", "Indirect Refusals" and "Topic Change", which had previously been reported to be formulaic in the literature (Bouton, 1994, 1999; Roever, 2011; Taguchi, 2007), testifies to Bouton's inferences that the effectiveness of instruction rests upon the focus on *formulaic implicatures (those containing some sort of structural, semantic or pragmatic clues that point to a particular pattern)* as less formulaic forms prove resistant to formal instruction [italics added] (Bouton, 1994, 1999). The novelty here about these implied meaning types would come from the novel, researcher-developed instruction program, which successfully managed to fit into the established pattern in the related literature based on the following premise: the formulaicness of an implied meaning can bring about its teachability. We see that the instruction program was able to engender a statistically significant performance increase in even "Indirect Refusals", which had previously been reported as relatively easy (Taguchi, 2005) and where the experimental group of this study had already put in a performance over 90% in the pretest. The instruction program was found to have the potential to make even that performance better and improve the experimental group participants to the extent that they got significantly differentiated from the control group to become not any different from the native speakers.

The instruction managed to engender positive performance changes about also the variations of "Indirect Advice" and "Indirect Requests" included in the study, which had not been overtly called "formulaic" in the pertinent literature. When we consider this in the light of the fact that the teachability of an implied meaning type could attest to its formulaicness/being inherently systematic (Bouton, 1994, 1999), the present study's

formulaicness conceptualization and teaching approach about "Indirect Advice" and "Indirect Requests" would be tenable. With a broader look, these findings turned out to be an appropriate response to the call of Lawrence F. Bouton's. As the first scholar who experimentally investigated implicature comprehension in L2 with a MDCT that he had developed, Bouton (1992, p. 64) highlighted the need to broaden our understanding of the different types of implied meanings that exist and to learn which could be troublesome to learners of English and why. This is backed up by Taguchi (2005, p. 545) as well, who specified that different implied meaning types to be integrated into the design of studies could help us better understand and learn more about pragmatic comprehension in a target language.

In the present study, including "Disclosure" as an implied meaning type was another attempt to properly respond to calls like Bouton and Taguchi's mentioned above. Like "indirect pieces of advice" and "indirect requests", "Disclosure" had not been explicitly labeled "formulaic" in the related literature. In this regard, including these three implied meaning types was a risk for the present study, but one that is worth taking as the intention was to respond to Bouton's (1994, p. 106) another call that we should be alert to implicature types of which we are not fully aware *with an eye to including them in instruction programs*. Nevertheless, unlike the results about "Indirect Advice" and "Indirect Requests", "Disclosure" was the type about which the instructional treatment turned out to be the least influential. The effects of the treatment could be viewed as even detrimental to the way the participants interpreted disclosure situations.

On the one hand, we could postulate that the results might have been more positive if there had been one or two more test items on "disclosure" and/or if the metapragmatic explanations about it had been combined with supplementary production practices (Taguchi, 2015). On the other hand, if we look at the situation within the framework of the aforementioned relationship between the formulaicness of an implied meaning type and its

teachability, we should firstly conclude that the formulaicness conceptualization brought by this study to "Disclosure" was based on some erroneous assumptions, and it would be hard for disclosures to be considered formulaic in a sense compatible with instruction. In this regard, the present study revealed that "Disclosure" must be an implied meaning type among the less formulaic ones that prove resistant to formal instruction (Bouton, 1994, 1999), like the types that should not be taught at all until the need arises when specific cases prove difficult (Bouton, 1994, p. 105). Seen in a different perspective, though in the light of negative findings in terms of teachability, the abovementioned results about "Disclosure" are still a theoretical and pedagogical contribution to the field when we reconsider Bouton (1992, 1994) and Taguchi's (2005) calls that our understanding of different implied meanings and pragmatic comprehension should be broadened.

When it comes to how the instruction affected the participants' comprehension speed of implied meanings, the primary finding was the lack of a significant difference between the pre and posttest item response time differences of Turkish EFL teacher trainees in the experimental and control group ($p > 0.05$). This perspective suggests that, although the instruction produced a noticeable positive effect on their comprehension accuracy, it did not make the participants significantly quicker to respond to the implied meanings covered in the study. This could be attributed in large measure to the fact that explicit instruction like that of the present study's may be effective in developing declarative pragmatic knowledge in a relatively short time, but the development of procedural pragmatic knowledge (efficiency in pragmatic functions), thus "speed", takes a longer time and requires sustained, abundant, incidental processing practice available in an ESL environment (Taguchi, 2011; Taguchi, 2015, p. 34). Apart from that, besides any probable shortcoming(s) of the instruction, a plausible reason for the result in question would be the fact that the experimental group members felt the need to respond relatively slow as the posttest items amounted to nearly 30%

of their final exam content while the final exam on its own constituted 50% of the overall assessment for the course. This assertion is supported by the results of the delayed posttest conducted with the volunteering 61% (47 out of 77) of the experimental group participants, which did point to "quickness in responses". The analyses within that cluster showed a significant difference between the pretest/posttest and pretest/delayed posttest response-time scores ($p < 0.05$), which corroborates the efficacy of the instructional treatment in making one also significantly "quicker" to respond to implied meanings. This finding came to light when the concern for grades was cleared away. Moreover, no significant difference was detected between the posttest/delayed posttest response-time scores ($p > 0.05$), which could enable us to posit that the speed gains were retained over time as well.

At this point, it could be worth remarking that those 47 participants from the experimental group might be considered the "good" students there, who did not mind voluntarily taking the delayed posttest after seven months from the end of everything about "the whole experience" in their perspective. For this reason, one might find it fairly predictable that those 47 people would naturally get speedier between the tests and preserve their pragmatic gains over time as well. In such a case, the following fact could be worth noting too: While the experimental group as a whole (n=77) had proved already faster than the control group in the pretest (t-test p= .014), those particular 47 trainees were not found significantly different in speed from the control group participants at all (t-test p= .066). They were far from being a bunch whose mere existence was making the experimental group notably "quick". Given this perspective, it could be appropriate to add here also the fact that while those 47 participants did not differ in speed from the control group participants in the pretest, the former did significantly better in the posttest (t-test p= .019). Furthermore, with their delayed posttest response-time scores, the former outperformed the latter's both pretest

and posttest scores (t-test p= .000 and p= .009 respectively). All this suggests that the instructional treatment with filmic materials has the potential to quicken those who need it.

In the light of the abovementioned results and reconsidering the initial interviews, where the participants openly declared that it was the instruction that enabled them to do whatever they later could, the instructional kit in the study could be deemed at least promising to make one also significantly quicker to respond to implied meanings.

The ensuing interviewing phases of the study, which were meant to shed light on why the instruction could not do more about some repeated mistakes, contributed even more to the confirmation of the instructional efficiency. It was evidenced there in a qualitative manner that a good number of mistakes in the posttest (15%) could not even be "explained" by their makers. They were just "surprised" and seemed sure that they would really choose the favored interpretations in any occasion. Some other factors indicated to have been in effect about the mistakes were "momentarily mistaking a particular word", "impetuousness" and "loss of concentration for no clear reason" (19%), against which it would not be fair for the instruction to fight effectively. Besides all these; the interviews revealed that the misinterpretations about two particular test items, which were later excluded from the data analyses, stemmed from either lexical miscomprehension or no proper comprehension of a certain structural and/or semantic element. As the reasoning about those two items were found to have occurred mainly outside the area of pragmatics, we would have the chance not to ascribe the misinterpretations to any shortcoming of the instruction in terms of teaching the target pragmatic constructs. Without the interviews, it would not have been possible to discover any of the abovementioned points.

The dimension of the interviewing phases conducted to illuminate the marked tendencies to some disfavored response options led to additional significant findings. It was discovered that there was a class of misinterpretations that the participants still committed

although they had had a proper lexical/semantic comprehension basis. In this regard, they were apt for being viewed as "pragmatic errors" that could point to some shortcomings of the instruction program. What is particularly interesting is that all the occurrences of this case were with "indirect requests", which is a finding to be seen as another benefit of introducing them into the design of studies like the present one and lending the support of interview data to quantitative ones. The uncovered reason for the class of misinterpretations under discussion is a notion that would be called "cultural transfer/sociopragmatic" from L1. It was revealed that the reasoning processes on the "indirect request" test items were largely shadowed by an established practice of Turkish language pragmatics, which can be called "*laf sokma* (needling someone with indirect pejorative expressions)." Whenever a participant chose a disfavored response option while interpreting an indirect request, the presumption of a "laf sokma" occasion easily surpassed any other proper consideration that was supposed to source from the instructional treatment. Consequently, the narrow margin by which the instruction failed to produce a statistically significant performance change cropped up.

Within the framework of the present study, the abovementioned diagnosis is believed to be another significant one in terms of how implied meanings could be addressed in an ESL/EFL classroom. As previously explained, Ishihara's (2010, p. 154-155) suggestions were used as the template for the instruction in this study. At this point, in accordance with the aim of the paragraph to follow them, two specific steps in it are reminded below:

* Identification of any similar implicatures in learners' L1s.

* Group work creating dialogues that contain the implicature.

In the light of the findings under discussion here, we see that "identification of any similar implicatures in learners' L1s" should not be among the expendable practices if the implied meanings in an L2 were to be addressed in classroom. On the contrary, it should be broadened to the identification of L1 implied meanings that might be "presumed" to be

similar to the studied L2 implicature. If the researcher of this study had done that extensively enough through brainstorming during the study of "indirect criticism" for example, it appears that "laf sokma" would have been brought up as an established implicature for indirect criticism in colloquial Turkish. In addition to providing a valuable insight as to the order in which the implied meanings should be taught any next time, such a session would also have let the researcher take precautions so that the participants could control the considerations that come from Turkish while interpreting "indirect request" occasions from English. By the way, it should be restated here that the steps in Ishihara (2010) not followed in this study was the abovementioned "group work to produce dialogues with the target implied meanings" and "their analysis". This was out of the concern for time management as the researcher wished to provide as many filmic examples he had compiled as possible. Considering Taguchi's (2015, p. 18) report that there is a consistency among instructed pragmatics studies in the benefit of "metapragmatic explanation combined with *production practice"* [italics added], the conclusion to be drawn here is the fact that the metapragmatic information given in advance should later be consolidated by means of production practice. Although the interviews seem to have clearly revealed the source of errors in the indirect requests, if time had somehow been made for such a production step in this study, the missing piece(s) might have been placed.

With a broader perspective, the findings above (especially the Turkish-related one) could be regarded as especially important in that it is another exhibition of the potentially insightful nature of qualitative findings to enlighten quantitative results. In this regard, it would be possible to claim that the present study achieved to a certain extent the intellectual goals for which qualitative studies are especially useful, one of which is reported by Maxwell (1998, p. 221) as follows:

Understanding the processes by which events and actions take place: Although qualitative research is not unconcerned with outcomes, a major strength of qualitative studies is their ability *to get at the processes that lead to these outcomes* [italics added], processes that experimental and survey research are often poor at identifying.

With all these in mind, we can conclude that the interviewing procedures of this study greatly facilitated the access to the processes that led to the outcomes, which were initially only a set of quantitative data. It became possible not only to develop causal explanations about how the participants' both favored and disfavored interpretations occurred but also "to identify some unanticipated phenomena and influences" (Maxwell, 1998, p. 221). This would light the way for data collection and instruction procedures in related further research and, in more specific terms, the next time when the data collection instrument or the instruction program developed by this study is to be used.

To sum up in light of all the findings presented by the quantitative and qualitative data sets, we can postulate that the current study produced some quite promising results. The participants were found to have raised their awareness of and felt more equipped about indirectly-conveyed meanings with a fun, memorable and inspiring instruction program giving them the impression that "theory is really being put into practice." In this regard, one should not overlook the fact that the results in question happened at the very first implementation of the program. Even the teaching failures detected, which were obviously in the small minority, could change for the better at subsequent implementations in consideration of the experiences learnt. For instance, about the implied meaning types on which the treatment proved less influential, the number of the audiovisual examples could be increased and/or the explanatory notes could be added or revised. Apart from such details, it must be worthy of notice that the instruction at its initial step was able to draw such teacher candidate comments as the ones saying that it can really provide people with a foundation for the

pragmatic and intercultural communication aspects of the language and inspire language teachers to integrate the teaching philosophy and procedures in the study in their own teaching practice.

Chapter VI. Conclusion

In summary of the whole process before the concluding remarks, it would be worthwhile to state that the first practical step of the study was the piloting phases that took almost a year to develop a well-designed test as the main data collection instrument. As the following step, the test in question was administered to the experimental group as well as the control group and native speaker participants to have comparable sets of data. The results showed that the native speakers were significantly faster and more accurate in implied meaning comprehension than the teacher trainees in both the experimental and control group while the last two did not differ at all in direct comparison with each other. After that, the five-week instruction program, which had been devised by the researcher, was implemented for the members of the experimental group. Ten days after the end of that treatment period, all the available participants in the experimental and control group took the same test this time as the posttest. The results demonstrated that the instruction brought some statistically significant overall and specific gains to the experimental group while the control group remained almost the same.

As the next step, in order to look at the "process" in which those gains emerged, the first round interviews were conducted with experimental group participants two weeks after the posttest. In keeping with the aim pursued, the interviews revealed that the positive performance changes would be attributable mainly to the instructional treatment designed and given by the researcher. The qualitative inquiry integrated into the study did not stop there. The second round interviews were conducted as the following step. The focus was now on the test items where a considerable number of participants seemed to show an insistent tendency to choose a disfavored response option even after having been instructed. The aim was to understand the underlying reasons and why the treatment could not do any more about such

items. The discovery there was that the participants' reasoning processes about two particular test items did not occur in the area of pragmatics mainly because they had failed to form a proper semantic basis. The problem was that the language used in the phrasing of those two items had not been sufficiently simplified earlier in the phase of data collection instrument. In this regard, the two items in question were excluded from the final analyses to enhance the validity of the results, which provided some useful insights as to the phases of piloting and development of data collection instruments in studies of the present one's kind.

To briefly mention the significance of this study in the light of the procedure outlined above, we could begin with the fact that it set out to develop a valid and up-to-date multiple-choice discourse completion test (MDCT) that measures "accuracy" together with "speed" of pragmatic comprehension. Special care was taken in the test to include some particular subsections of items in response to the calls in the literature for integration of different implied meaning types to add to our understanding of pragmatic comprehension in a target language. What is more, the focus of the test overall, thus the study itself, was on "implicature (implied meanings)" so that the study could keep out of the reported weight of "speech acts" in pragmatics research and provide a new perspective upon another important but lesser-studied component of pragmatics.

A major point that we believe to be adding a lot to the significance of the study is that it is a pioneering one to devise, implement and test the effects of a special instruction program based on filmic materials to facilitate implied meanings comprehension, the content of which could be exploited for both explicit teaching approaches (direct explanation of target pragmatic features followed by practice) and implicit ones (withheld explanation but provision of input and practice opportunities where learners can develop implicit understanding of pragmatic forms). With that instructional/experimental aspect, the study got freed of being restricted with only a descriptive focus and gained "a material development"

dimension as well. This is particularly important in the light of the postulations that films are an optimal tool to teach students about pragmatic strategies, both for learning and as a jumping-off point for language use. Besides this, in view of many other academic reports, the significance of this study should grow even bigger as the instruction was conducted in a foreign language context, where a learner's opportunities to come into contact with the target language are not plenty and instruction is noted to be especially necessary in developing pragmatic awareness. What is more, the instruction addressed non-native English-speaking teacher trainees, who have been reported to be in a disadvantageous position when compared to native speaker teachers in many areas including pragmatics. Given the fact that teacher training is critical as it inevitably influences how instructional practices are used in the future, it is important that the present study set out to teach about a major area of pragmatics to prospective EFL teachers, who will be supposed to help their own students to have pragmatic competence as well. Another point that would enhance the significance of the study is that it was conducted with participants with a relatively less studied L1 background (Turkish language), which was a response to the call in instructional pragmatics literature that the range of L1 and target languages needs to be extended so that researchers and language educators are better supported to evaluate to what extent descriptive and/or instructional findings from studies of a particular L1 or target language could be transferable to other language combinations.

In addition to those provided above, a particular significance of the study would lie in its methodological aspects. First of all, one could have felt well satisfied with the quantitative sets of data suggesting strongly that the improved performance of the participants resulted from nothing but the instruction given in the experimental phase of the study. Nevertheless, the researcher put the quantitative outcomes to the test of a qualitative crosscheck and

confirmed with interviews that the positive changes would be attributable mainly to the gains that the treatment had brought.

The qualitative inquiry embedded in the study did not come to an end there, which could be claimed to have made an especially important contribution to the related body of research. As the second step, the researcher conducted an extra round of interviews to figure out why some particular occasions of miscomprehension kept occurring. The findings were quite interesting. For instance, some negative transfer effects from colloquial Turkish were discovered, which suggests that *identification of similar implicature in learners' L1s* should, if possible, be an indispensable part of instruction even to the extent of identifying the L1 implied meanings that might be "presumed" to be similar to the studied L2 implicature. This finding provided a valuable insight as to in what order the implied meanings covered in this study should be taught in a Turkish context and how some probable detrimental considerations from Turkish language could be controlled. Besides all these; the interviews in pursuit of the sources of the errors, which had not been included in the inspirational studies for this one, led to the significant discovery that the reasoning processes about two specific test items did not occur in the area of pragmatics just because a proper semantic basis could not be initially formed despite all the painstaking efforts that had been expended for item modification in the pilot studies. In other words, the participants could not get at the pragmatic content of those two items as their propositional content kept being obscure to them. For that reason, in order not to damage the validity of the results, the two items in question were excluded from the final analyses. This experience showed that researchers could benefit substantially from discussing the prospective test items beforehand with a pilot group similar to the main study's target population to understand what the items are likely to signify to them, which would make it possible to revise the items even further to initiate the main study with a more valid data collection instrument.

To conclude the account of why this study is a significant and advantageous one, we should reemphasize the fact that it has developed three tangible products:

1) As the product of two piloting phases fine-tuned with the findings of the main study, a data collection instrument on the comprehension of eight particular implied meanings in English that have all been conceptualized in the pertinent literature. Being a test which is usable both in a computerized and pen-and-paper format, it proved to be one on which a big, heterogeneous group of NSs of English reached a good compromise with their interpretations of the items included.

2) A specially designed and tested instructional kit for implied meaning interpretation based on filmic materials, which can be used in any ELT or English Language Teacher training program concerned to help the students to enhance their pragmatic competence as one of the acknowledged requisites for overall communicative competence. What is more, the kit could well be made a component of any course or session on "spoken English, daily English, informal English etc.", which might not always be covered in textbooks with the content presented in this study. It has been devised in a context where the pertinent literature reports that few L2/FL teacher development courses provide *practical techniques* for teachers to integrate pragmatics instruction into their respective classrooms.

When possible, the kit can be used in an audiovisual format with all its filmic elements to be shown via a projector or smart board. When it is not, it is conducive to utilization in pen-and-paper format or with slide shows too: First of all, its content introduces in detail (with related pictures) the context of each exemplary situation for any implied meaning to be brought into focus. After that, the transcription of the conversation in that particular situation is provided. Thirdly, how the literal meaning would not hold there and how the implied meaning could be detected is discussed.

Next, the explanation to identify what is actually implied in the statement(s) is provided. Illustration of learners' experiences with that implied meaning and identification of any similar implied meaning(s) in L1 are to come as the concluding steps. As can be seen, even at times when it cannot accompany the audiovisual materials, this ready-made content with the abovementioned procedure could have a considerable potential in the practice of teaching implied meanings.

3) A concrete methodological perspective that mixes the quantitative and qualitative paradigms for pragmatics research, which meets the requirements of the concept of "triangulation" in social sciences research. First, the study substantiated that the two distinct methods yielded congruent data that cast light on the process in which the desired results came out. Second, which is more of a significant contribution to the related body of research as it had not been exercised in the inspirational studies for the researcher, this study investigated thoroughly the process of the undesired outcomes as well and it revealed that the inclusion of a certain qualitative component in the design of pragmatic comprehension/interpretation studies could be really critical: It was seen that, despite the huge amount of effort put into test-item modification, an early interviewing procedure with a group similar to the main study's target population would have disclosed what the test items (with all the lexical and structural elements included) were to signify to them. This would have facilitated the addition of some finishing touches to the test so that the main study could be initiated with a relatively flawless data collection instrument. All this suggests that such a procedure is necessary for researchers to make any instrument on pragmatic interpretation cleared enough of factors that would prevent one's reasoning process from occurring in an isolated area of pragmatics.

On the grounds of the limitations of this study and the experiences that accumulated throughout its conduct, some recommendations can be made for further research.

First of all, considering the fact that this study measured pragmatic comprehension with a reading instrument (like in many other previous inspiring studies) while people mostly "see and hear" in real-life communication, the data collection procedures in similar future studies could be designed as based on a sufficient number of readymade video extracts or fictionalized dramas to the purpose. Provided that this is achieved with proper validation work in a manner where audiovisual items would not impede but aid the watchers or listeners, the measurement of pragmatic interpretation could include such clues as tone of voice, setting, gestures and facial expressions, which all can express so much meaning together with or independently of the words there. In this regard, the filmic materials utilized for the instructional aspect of this study could well be tried for that purpose as well. Besides these, the ideal to be pursued within this framework would most probably be extracting discourse samples with the target implied meanings via corpora/concordance work and producing scenes out of them with proper use of tone of voice, facial expressions and gestures not open to ambiguity. The fuller the extent to which this is achieved, the more likely it would be to use the products in both data collection and instruction procedures, which would give the researchers the chance to base their studies on authentic materials as much as possible.

In the context of discussing the content and scope of studies which are similar to this one, another recommendation for further research could me made about the identification and integration of even more implied meaning types into the designs so that we can add to our understanding of pragmatic comprehension/interpretation and learn which ones of them could be troublesome to EFL/ESL learners and why, which is an attempt made by the present study with the integration of "indirect pieces of advice" and "indirect requests". What is more, the range of L1s and target languages in studies on pragmatic interpretation and instruction could

be expanded so that investigators and language educators can better assess whether and to what extent findings from studies of a particular L1 or target language may be valid in terms of other language combinations. Besides all these, incorporating the abovementioned features and more for the best validation work possible, further research could be conducted also on how competent language learners are in terms of "producing" implied meanings. This would provide a new perspective in studies of this one's kind beyond the focus merely on comprehension/interpretation. As even one further step, one could investigate to what extent it is possible to teach learners so that they can employ implied meanings as a set in their productive potential whenever needed or possible. This would directly contribute to their general communicative competence with the target language. To that end; reconsidering the postulations that films would be "an ideal medium for teaching about pragmatic strategies, both for learning and as a springboard for language use", the efficiency of the film-based instruction program utilized for the experimental aspect of this study could be tested. Alternatively, different special programs could be developed and tested for instruction on producing implied meanings.

Taking account of the fact the present study was conducted only with the first-year EFL teacher candidates at a national university in northwestern Turkey, who would be viewed also as relatively advanced learners of English in a FL context, similar studies could be carried out with learners of different proficiency levels and/or characteristics both in EFL and ESL environments so that the findings can be enhanced in generalizability beyond the subjects of the present study. This would pave the way for understanding who lag behind to what extent at implicature comprehension and what instruction (with the features in this study) could do to help them.

In particular reference to the dimension of "pragmatics teaching" once again, within the framework of enlightening us as to whether understanding of one pragmatic area facilitates

understanding of other areas (i.e.; transfer of conceptual understanding) (Taguchi, 2015, p. 40), it is possible to suggest that further research could investigate if the highly promising instructional program developed in this study on "formulaic implicatures" would prove to be effective in the interpretation of "non-formulaic implicatures" as well, which were considered in the pertinent literature to be more frequent in use when compared to formulaic ones. What is more; being "less formulaic forms", they were found to be "resistant" to even the teaching efforts devoted specifically to their interpretation. As those attempts lacked the employment of audiovisual features like in the instruction program tested in this study, it would be worth looking at the possible effects of filmic materials on the way such non-formulaic or less formulaic implicatures are interpreted.

To conclude with its most salient points, the basic revelation of the present study is that prospective EFL teachers are likely to remain significantly slow and inaccurate with regard to implied meanings as a constituent of pragmatic competence while they will be naturally expected to help their own students to have it in the near future. In response to that, the special instruction program as the central product of this study proved to be highly promising in helping the teacher trainees to interpret a particular set of implied meanings in English more accurately and faster. In relatively very few class hours, the program helped the participants to pick up some skills which had been reported to be important in daily interaction but learned in three or more years even in an ESL environment. From this point of view, the final remark to be made about this study would be the fact that it presents a real asset that could be useful in any ELT teaching and/or teacher training program for learners at upper-intermediate or higher level of proficiency.

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Appendices

Appendix A. The Steps to Take the Test (in the way and order they appeared on the website)

for Nonnative Speaker Participants:

* The Screen Where Participants are Categorized

Login[Turk vatandaslari ve Turkiye'ye okumaya gelen ogrenciler icin]
Login[for native speakers of English]

* The Screen Where Nonnative Speaker Participants are Categorized

Lütfen sizi en iyi tanımlayan seçeneği seçiniz:

Lise Öğrencisi	Devam
Üniversite Öğrencisi (Ingilizce bölümü öğrencisi değil)	
Üniversite Örencisi (İngilizce bölümü öğrencisi)	
Diğer	

* The Screen Where Background Information is Elicited

Değerli katılımcı,

- **Bu testten elde edilecek sonuçlar gizli tutulacaktır ve sadece araştırma amaçlı kullanılacaktır.**
- **Sizden tek beklenti, bu testi yardım almadan tamamıyla kendinizin yapmasıdır.**
- **Bu testi istediğiniz anda sonlandırma hakkına sahipsiniz. Şimdiden candan teşekkürler…**

Formu doldururken lutfen turkce karakter (ç,ğ,ü,ş,ö,büyük İ) kullanmayiniz

- Adınız Soyadınız:
- Cinsiyet: Bay ∨
- Yas:
- Daha önce ingilizce konuşulan bir ülkede kaldıysanız, bunun süresi: *
- Daha önce ingilizce hazırlık okuduysanız, kaç yıl okuduğunuz: *
- Bölümünüz?
- Kaçıncı sınıftasınız?
- Öğrenim hayatınızda kaçıncı sınıfta ingilizce öğrenmeye başladınız?
- İngilizce iletişim kurmada kendinizi ne kadar yeterli görüyorsunuz? 1-5 arasında kendinizi değerlendirin. Burada 1 çok yetersiz, 5 ise oldukça yeterli anlamına gelecektir. 1 ∨

PassCode:

Devam

*(ornegin 1 yil icin "1" yaziniz. eger hic hazirlik okumadiysaniz veya yurtdisinda bulunmadiysaniz "0" yaziniz.)

* The Screen Where Instructions to Take the Test are Provided

AÇIKLAMALAR

Bu sayfadaki açıklamaları dikkatlice okuyunuz. Daha sonra, teste ilk maddeden başlamak için aşağıda
bulunan örnek soruyu cevapladıktan sonra "Submit" butonuna tıklayınız.

**Test boyunca ihtiyaç duyduğunuz takdirde alt çizili olarak gördüğünüz tüm kelimelerin
üzerine farenizi getirerek anlamlarına bakabilirsiniz.**

Bu test toplam 35 maddeden oluşmaktadır ve testi tamamlamanız için 35 dakikanız bulunmaktadır. Süreniz
örnek sorudan sonra belirecek olan "Next" butonuna tıklayıp ilk test maddesine geçtiğiniz anda başlayacaktır
ve 35 dakika dolduğunda siz testi bitirmemiş olsanız da sona erecektir.

Kalan sürenizi sağ üst köşeden takip edebilirsiniz.

Her bir test maddesinde, önce diyaloğun geçtiği durum anlatılır. Ardından diyalogda geçen cümleler görülür.
Bu cümlelerin altında diyalogla ilgili bir soru bulunur. Sorudan sonra da cevap seçenekleri verilir. Size en
doğru gelen cevabı içeren seçeneği tıklayarak yanıtınızı veriniz.

Test boyunca, ihtiyaç duyduğunuz takdirde sayfa altlarında bulunan "Instructions" butonuna tıklayarak
yeniden bu sayfaya dönebilirsiniz. Dilerseniz "End test" butonuna tıklayarak, testi istediğiniz zaman
bitirebilirsiniz.

Şimdi aşağıdaki örnekle bir prova yapabilirsiniz (süreniz bu örnekle değil, bir sonraki sayfada bulunan ilk test maddesiyle başlayacaktır):

Question (Ex) Jay is waiting for the light to change so he can cross the street when a woman approaches him and says:
"Excuse me; do you know where the train station is?"
What does the woman probably mean?

- ○ She is asking for directions.
- ○ She is testing Jay's knowledge of the town.
- ○ She is looking for a taxi.
- ○ She isn't sure if the light is green.

[Next (Page)]

* The Screen before the Main Test Section

Next

So you have answered the example item. Click on "Next" above and start the test and your time. You have
35 minutes for 35 items.

**Böylece örnek soruyu cevaplamış oldunuz. Yukarıdaki Next ibaresine tıkladığınız zaman testi ve
sürenizi başlatacaksınız. Hazır olduğunuzda tıklayın. 35 soruyu cevaplamak için 35 dakika süreniz
var.**

Appendix B. The Steps to Take the Test (in the way and order they appeared on the website)

for Native Speaker Participants:

* The Screen Where Participants are Categorized

Login[Turk vatandaslari ve Turkiye'ye okumaya gelen ogrenciler icin]
Login[for native speakers of English]

* The Screen Where Background Information is Elicited

Dear participant,

- **Data from this test will be kept confidential and used for research purposes only. If you are a student, your results will have no effect on your grades.**
- **You are kindly and specifically requested to do the test on your own without getting any help.**
- **You have the right to terminate the test at any time without any adverse consequences.**

As the researcher, I gratefully thank you in advance.

- Full Name OR Pseudonym :
- Gender: Male
- Age:

- Citizenship/Nationality:

- PassCode:
  Continue

* The Screen Where Instructions to Take the Test are Provided

INSTRUCTIONS
Read these instructions carefully and then click the "Next Page" button at the bottom to go on. Whenever a word is underlined, you can click on it to see an explanation of what it means if you need.

There are 35 items in the test and you have 35 minutes to complete it. Your time will start when you click the "Next Page" button and get to the first item of the test, and it will finish at the end of 35 minutes even if you cannot finish the test with its all items.
You will be able to see your remaining time on the upper right-hand corner of the page.

In each item, a situation will be described and a person in the situation will say something. In each situation you will be asked what that person probably means. Click on the best answer from the four answer choices shown.

During the section, you can see these instructions again by clicking on the "Instructions" button at the bottom. You will also see buttons like 'submit', 'next', 'next page'. Please click them only once and wait for the following page to appear. The system has proven quick enough so far.

Now try the following example (your time will not start with this item but with the first test item you will get to after clicking the "Next" button at the bottom):

Question (Ex) Jay is waiting for the light to change so he can cross the street when a woman approaches him and says:
"Excuse me; do you know where the train station is?"
What does the woman probably mean?

- She is asking for directions.
- She is testing Jay's knowledge of the town.
- She is looking for a taxi.
- She isn't sure if the light is green.

Next (Page)

* The Screen before the Main Test Section

Appendix C. The Multiple Choice Discourse Completion Test (MDCT) Item Specifications:

Implied Meaning Types	Item Numbering
1. Fillers (5 items)	1, 7, 13, 23, 31
2. Pope Question (5 items)	5, 10, 14, 19, 22
3. Indirect Criticism (4 items)	3, 15, 25, 32
4. Topic Change (4 items)	8, 11, 18, 26
5. Indirect Advice (4 items)	4, 12, 20, 28
6. (Verbal) Irony (3 items)	2, 16, 21
7. Indirect Refusals (3 items)	6, 27, 33
8. Disclosure (3 items)	17, 24, 30
9. Indirect Requests (2 items)	9, 29

Appendix D. Test Items (in the way and order they appeared on the website)

Question 1:

Tom is from Atlanta. His friend Sally has recently moved to Atlanta.

Tom: "How do you like Atlanta so far?"

Sally: "I love it!"

What does Sally probably mean?

○ She thinks that Atlanta is a dirty city.

○ She has not seen much of the city since she moved in.

○ She thinks the city needs more great changes.

○ She likes Atlanta and enjoys living there.

Question 2:

Henry loves cycling. He orders a new, very expensive bicycle from a new bicycle company.

When it arrives, he sees that it is really heavy and does not look well-made at all.

Henry: "Wow, this company's really honest."

What does Henry probably mean?

○ The company is dishonest.

○ The company is a tiny bit sneaky.

○ The company is a really honest one.

○ It is normal as the company is new.

Question 3:

Jose and Tanya are professors at a college. They are talking about a student, Derek.

Jose: "How did you like Derek's essay?"

Tanya: "Well . . I thought it was well-typed."

What does Tanya probably mean?

○ She did not like Derek's essay.

○ She does not really remember Derek's essay.

○ She thought the topic Derek had chosen was interesting.

○ She liked Derek's essay quite a lot.

Question 4:

Judie and her classmate David are community college freshmen. Judie is considering taking a course but David has heard it is really difficult.

David: "I don't know . . . but people say it's really difficult."

What does David probably mean?

○ He thinks the course may not be very difficult.

○ He thinks Judie can take that course.

○ He recommends not taking that course.

○ He thinks Judie should not listen to what people say about the course.

Question 5:

Rob is telling his friend Sheila about a card game he played last night. He lost money and

decides not to play with those guys again.

Sheila: "They were good, huh?"

Rob: "Good? Let's say awfully lucky".

Sheila: "Lucky? What's the matter? Don't you trust them?"

Rob: "Is the sky green?"

What does Rob probably mean?

○   He thinks they are OK.

○   He does not want to talk about the card game anymore.

○   He suddenly saw something in the sky.

○   He does not trust them at all.

Question 6:

Jack sees his classmate Jane in the faculty hallway.

Jack: "Oh, Jane. I'm so glad I ran into you. I need your help!"

Jane: "What's up?"

Jack: "I have a paper due tomorrow, but I'm working tonight in the cafe. Can you type my paper?"

Jane: "Shoot! I have to study for my finals tonight."

What does Jane probably mean?

○ She will type the paper.

○ She will think about it.

○ She cannot type the paper for tomorrow.

○ She can type it when she is done with everything.

Question 7:

Susan and John, friends, are watching a film together.

Susan: "This film is too boring! I can't watch it anymore."

John: "Really? I don't think it's so bad."

What does John probably mean?

○ He thinks the film is really bad.

○ He is doing something else, not watching the film.

○ He does not think the film is very bad.

○ He is not quite sure.

Question 8:

Bob and Maggie, friends, are talking about school and courses. Bob is taking introductory

chemistry this semester.

Maggie: "How are you doing in chemistry?"

Bob: "So . . . did you watch that basketball game yesterday?"

What does Bob probably mean?

○ The content of yesterday's lesson was completely irrelevant to chemistry like a basketball

game.

○ He is doing badly in chemistry.

○ Chemistry is like an easy game for him.

○ He is doing so well in chemistry that there is no need to talk about it.

Question 9:

Carol, an office secretary at a university, is typing at her desk. Jeff, a teacher, is in Carol's

office to make a lot of printouts.

Jeff: "The printer is almost out of ink."

What does Jeff probably mean?

○ He wants Carol to refill the ink.

○ He uses the printer really very often.

○ He does not want to do the printing himself.

○ Carol can continue what she is doing.

Question 10:

Mike is trying to find an apartment in New York City. He just looked at a place and is telling

his friend Jane about it.

Jane: "So, is the rent high?"

Mike: "Is the Pope Catholic?"

What does Mike probably mean?

○ He does not want to talk about the rent.

○ The rent is high.

○ He did not understand Jane's question.

○ The rent is not very high.

Question 11:

Felicity is talking to her co-worker Brian during a coffee break.

Felicity: "So, life must be good for you. I hear you got a nice raise."

Brian: "Um, this coffee is awfully weak. You'd think they'd at least give us decent coffee."

What does Brian probably mean?

○ He does not want to talk about how much money he earns.

○ He does not like the coffee.

○ Reality may not be what you think it is.

○ He does not care about money.

Question 12:

Roger is thinking of taking his car to a repair shop in the city centre. His friend Melanie

knows that the shop is known for doing careless work.

Melanie: "I don't usually take my car there. It has a really bad reputation."

What does Melanie probably mean?

○ Roger should take his car there for only small repairs.

○ She advises Roger not to take his car to that repair shop.

○ The reputation of a place is important.

○ Roger can take his car there.

Question 13:

Paul and Mary, two friends, are having a talk. Paul remembers that he must pay his

apartment's rent today but has no money for it now.

Paul: "Oh, the rent is due today, but I don't get paid until Monday. Could I borrow $50? I'll

give it back next week."

Mary: "Sure, no problem."

What does Mary probably mean?

○ She is not sure about giving money to Paul.

○ She will give the money to Paul.

○ It is a problem for Paul.

○ She will not give the money.

Question 14:

Barbara and Brad, classmates, are talking about what they are going to do during the summer. Barbara's mother wants her to stay home, and entertain the relatives when they come to visit them at the beach.

Brad: "Do you have a lot of relatives?"

Barbara: "Does a dog have fleas?"

What does Barbara probably mean?

○ She does not like her relatives and feels like an unlucky dog.

○ She does not have very many relatives.

○ She has a lot of relatives.

○ She wants to learn if a dog usually has fleas.

Question 15:

Toby and Ally are trying a new buffet restaurant in town. Toby is eating something, but Ally cannot decide what to have next.

Ally: "How do you like what you're eating?"

Toby: "Well, let's just say it's . . colorful."

What does Toby probably mean?

○ He thinks it is important for food to look good.

○ He likes the food.

○ He wants Ally to try something colorful.

○ He does not like the food much.

Question 16:

Peter promises his friend Mary to help her move to a new apartment. That day, he moves the clock on the wall while Mary moves the heavy boxes.

Mary: "Thanks, you've been terribly helpful."

What does Mary probably mean?

○ Peter helped her a lot.

○ Moving the clock was really important as it needed special care.

○ Peter is weak.

○ Peter was not helpful at all.

Question 17:

John's friend Mary asks him about their classmate Sally.

Mary: "You know. I've been curious to know if you went out with Sally."

John: "Um . . Sally's not really my type."

What does John probably mean?

○ He is not sure of his feelings.

○ He is talking bad about Sally as she refused him.

○ Mary is his type.

○ They did not go out.

Question 18:

Dale runs into his friend Julia. He knows Julia recently had a job interview.

Dale: 'By the way, did you get that job you applied for?'

Julia: 'Good God, I'm so tired of this cold weather.'

What does Julia probably mean?

○ She does not want to talk about the interview.

○ She is bored of searching for a job.

○ She did not understand Dale's question.

○ She could not attend the interview because of cold weather.

Question 19:

Maria and Frank are working on a class project together but they will not be able to finish it by the deadline.

Maria: "Do you think Dr. Gibson is going to lower our grade if we hand it in late?"

Frank: "Do fish swim?"

What does Frank probably mean?

○ He thinks they should choose a new project topic on fish.

○ He thinks Dr. Gibson will not lower their grade.

○ He thinks they will get a lower grade.

○ He suggests just giving in the project to see the result.

Question 20:

Hillary sees that her boyfriend Bruce has forgotten to leave a tip while leaving the restaurant they had dinner in.

Hillary: 'You know, leaving a tip is important.'

What does Hillary probably mean?

○ She advises him to leave a tip.

○ She indirectly asks Bruce if they should leave a tip or not.

○ It is OK now but Bruce should not forget the tip next time.

○ She wants to leave quickly without tipping.

Question 21:

Jenny is out in the freezing cold after basketball practice. As she often has to do, she has been waiting for her mom to pick her up for an hour. She throws a quick glance at her watch, talking to herself.

Jenny: "She's a bit late huh?"

What does Jenny probably mean?

○ Her mom is not very late yet.

○ She is anxious about her mom.

○ Her mom is really late once again.

○ She needs to look at her watch again.

Question 22:

Susan and Ronald, two officemates, are having lunch in a café and discussing their boss.

Ron: 'So, do you think Mr. Davis will give me a raise?'

Susan: 'Do pigs fly?'

What does Susan probably mean?

○ She wants to change the topic.

○ The boss will not give Ron a raise.

○ She has seen outside a pig falling down from a high place.

○ Ron will get a raise.

Question 23:

Joan and Dave, classmates, see each other in the school corridor.

Joan: 'Hi Dave.'

Dave: 'Hi Joan. What's up?'

Joan: 'I was going to ask you a favor. Would you read my paper for English 101?'

Dave: 'Oh, Joan, sorry I can't. I have a class in about 10 minutes.'

What does Dave probably mean?

○ He will read the paper.

○ That is a difficult thing to do for him.

○ He will read it after the class.

○ He will not read the paper because he is busy.

Question 24:

Susan and Tom, friends, are talking about what is going on in their lives. Susan knows Tom had a job interview recently.

Susan: 'So how was your interview? Did you get the job you applied for?'

Tom: 'Um . . . I think I need to improve my interview skills.'

What does Tom probably mean?

○ He did not get the job.

○ He wants help from Susan to improve his interview skills.

○ He will have the interview when he feels his interview skills are good enough.

○ They gave him the job with the advice that he should improve his interview skills.

Question 25:

Ken bought a new car and he showed it to his co-worker, Tina. She drove it around for a couple of times and they are talking at lunchtime the next day.

Ken: 'So what do you think of this new car?'

Tina: 'Well, the color's fine.'

What does Tina probably mean?

○ What she liked most about the car is its color.

○ She thinks the color of a car is very important.

○ She does not know much about cars.

○ She did not like the car very much.

Question 26:

Hilda is looking for a new job. She is having lunch with her friend John.

John: "So how's the job search coming along?"

Hilda: "Um, this curry's really good, don't you think?"

What does Hilda probably mean?

○ She did not understand John's question.

○ She is not looking for a job anymore.

○ She wants to talk about nothing but food.

○ Her job search is not going very well.

Question 27:

Tom and Mary share the same apartment. Tom finds Mary in the kitchen.

Tom: 'Hey, ah . . . could you clean the house this weekend? I have plans.'

Mary: 'Oh, ah . . I'm going to see my parents this weekend.'

What does Mary probably mean?

○ She will clean the house.

○ She will try to make some new arrangements.

○ She refuses Tom's request.

○ She thinks the house does not need cleaning.

Question 28:

Michael is planning not to come to today's class. His housemate Angela knows

one absence loses five points in the end.

Angela: 'Well, you know, one absence loses five points from the final marks.'

What does Angela probably mean?

○ Michael has already lost 5 points.

○ She advises Michael to come to the class.

○ She will remind the teacher to take off five points.

○ She recommends that he should do as he wishes.

Question 29:

Nina, an office secretary at a university, is working at her desk. Tom, a teacher, is there to

make photocopies but the machine is not working.

Tom: 'The copy machine isn't working.'

What does Tom probably mean?

○ He asks permission to make the photocopies.

○ He indirectly criticizes Nina for not doing her job.

○ He wants help from Nina with fixing the machine.

○ He wants Nina to continue what she is doing.

Question 30:

Sally and Dennis, old friends, see each other again after a long time. Sally has heard that

Dennis got divorced but is not sure.

Sally: 'By the way, is it true you got divorced?'

Dennis: 'You know . . . I think we got married too young.'

What does Dennis probably mean?

○ They are still in that unhappy marriage.

○   They are not married anymore.

○   They are OK, but it would have been better if they had got married older.

○ He does not want to answer the question.

Question 31:

Bob and Sarah, two school friends, are halfway to finishing this semester. They are talking

about the courses they are taking.

Bob: 'By the way, how are you doing in history?'

Sarah: Um . . . not so well. I got a 'C' on the last test.

What does Sarah probably mean?

○ She is doing really well in history.

○ She loves history.

○ She is not sure about her performance.

○ She is not doing so well in history.

Question 32:

Brenda and Sally, friends, have lunch every Tuesday. As they meet on this particular day,

Brenda stops and twirls like a fashion model, smiling.

Brenda: 'I just got a new dress. How do you like it?'

Sally: 'Well . . . it's certainly a popular style'

What does Sally probably mean?

○ Brenda should have bought it earlier.

○ She really likes it.

○ Every dress is the same for her.

○ She does not like it much.

Question 33:

Mark and Jane work in the same factory. They are both at work.

Mark: 'Hey Jane. Are you busy?'

Jane: 'Ah . . not right now. We just finished that big project.'

Mark: 'Wow, good for you. I know that was a lot of work. By the way, can you work my

night shift this Friday Jane? My son is graduating from college.'

Jane: 'Um . . I'm having a party Friday.'

What does Jane probably mean?

○ She indirectly invites Mark to the party.

○ She will not work Mark's shift.

○ She will relieve her tiredness of the night shifts with the party.

○ She can work Mark's night shift.

Appendix E. Sample Slides from the Instruction on Indirect Criticism

* The Definition and a General Context Where Indirect Criticism Could Happen

2) How People Criticize Things without Sounding Apparently Negative

- Somebody has asked for your opinion on something.

  - In fact, you don't like that thing much.

  - However, **you don't want to criticize it directly**. You think it might hurt the person asking or you somehow feel that you are expected to give a positive response.

  - What could you say? See the example:

* The Introduction of the Context in the Clip Where Indirect Criticism Happens
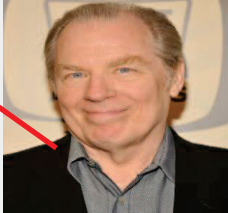
- In "**Friends**"; **Monica** is talking to **Mr. Ratstatter**. She is trying to get a job at a food company.

- The company has developed something called "*Mockolate*", an alternative to "*Chocolate*".
- Monica tastes it, and Mr. Ratstatter (the boss) says "Yeah?" to ask for her opinion.
- See how Monica **indirectly** expresses that she doesn't like it:

Mr.Ratstatter

Monica

* The First Frame of the Clip Where Indirect Criticism Happens

* The Transcription of the Conversation in the Clip and the Explanation on how Indirect Criticism Happened There

- *Mr. Ratstatter: Yeah?*
- *Monica: **I love how it crumbles**… Now see, your chocolate doesn't do that.*

- As we see; Mr. Ratstatter asks about **how the mockolate tastes, in the first place**.

- However, Monica **comments only on "how well it breaks into particles"** although the boss directly asked nothing about it.
- In this way; seeming to say a good thing about a specific feature of the mockolate, **Monica indirectly criticizes it as a whole, and more specifically its taste**.

Appendix F. Sample Slides from the Instruction on (Verbal) Irony

* The Definition of (Verbal) Irony and Introduction of the Context in the Clip Where It

Happens

* The First Frame of the Clip Where (Verbal) Irony Happens

* The Transcription of the Conversation in the Clip

Rachel: So uh, Ryan, where are you shipping off to?

Ryan: I really can't say.

Ross: So do you have like any nuclear weapons on board?

Ryan: I can't say.

Rachel: Well do you get to look through one of those like, those periscope things?

Ryan: I'm sorry but I can't say.

*Ross: **Wow, it's neat learning about submarines…***

* The Explanation on how (Verbal) Irony Happened in the Conversation

- After their unanswered questions, Ross says that **it is "enjoyable" to learn about submarines**,

- but what he really means is that Ryan is terribly close-mouthed!

- In this way, Ross gives his message <u>**indirectly**</u> **but in a more emphatic and wittier way**.

Appendix G. Sample Slides from the Instruction on Topic Change

* The Definition of Topic Change and Introduction of the Context in the Clip Where It

Happens

* The First Frame of the Clip Where Topic Change Happens

* The Transcription of the Conversation in the Clip

Joey : Uh huh... oh my God! Okay! Okay, I'll be there! … That was my agent. My agent has just gotten me a job... in the new Al Pacino movie!

All : Oh my God! Whoah!

Monica : Well, what's the part?

Joey : Can you believe this? Al Pacino! This guy's the reason I became an actor! .. *"I'm out of order ? Pfeeeh. You're out of order! This whole courtroom's out of order!"*

Phoebe : Seriously, what-what's the part?

Joey : Just when I thought I was out, they pull me back in !

Ross : C'mon, seriously, Joey, what's the part?

Joey : Huh... I'm his...

Rachel : You're, you're 'mah mah mah' what?

Joey : I'm his butt double. Kay? I play Al Pacino's butt. Alright? He goes into the shower, and then- I'm his butt.

* The Explanation on how Topic Change Happened in the Conversation

- <u>After the first question </u>on his part in the film, Joey talks about his admiration for Al Pacino and says famous words from a film of his.

- <u>When the question is repeated</u>, he says he got the role just when he thought he lost his chance.

- *His main aim is not giving information about such details to his friends.*

- *He is trying to change the uncomfortable subject **to indirectly give the message that he does not want to talk about his role in the film**…*

Appendix H. Sample Slides from the Instruction on Disclosures

* The Definition and A General Context Where Disclosures Could Happen

5) When People are Asked if Something is **Really** True and when it Urges them to Give Embarassing or Disturbing Information about Themselves,

They might not Make a Full Confession and just Give the Reason why that Thing is True or Not,

and that can be an Indirect Answer of Confirmation or Negation with Several other Functions.

See the Examples............

* The Introduction of the Context in the Clip Where Disclosure Happens

- In "**Friends**"; Joey got a job to act in a TV series. Thinking that it would go on for a long time, he spent a huge amount of money with his credit card.

- However, the character he plays dies after a short while.

- Because of his debts, they are now getting back the things he bought.

- Ross is there to pay for and save at least some of what he bought. One is an odd, plastic bird . . .
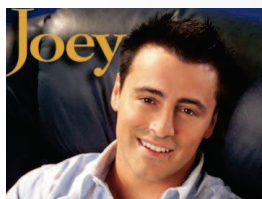
* The First Frame of the Clip Where Disclosure Happens

* The Transcription of the Conversation in the Clip

Joey: Oh, not my parrot.

Ross: What?

Joey: I can't watch this.

Ross: Hey hold on, hold on. How much for the uh, how much to save the bird?

Mover: 1200.

Ross: Dollars? You spent 1200 dollars on a plastic bird?

Joey: Uhhh, I was an impulse buyer, near the register.

Ross: Go ahead, go ahead with the bird…

GLOSSARY:

impulse buyer: *someone who suddenly decides to buy things that he/she did not plan to buy before*

register: *a machine used in shops to keep the money in and record the amount of money received from each sale*

* The Explanation on how Disclosure Happened in the Conversation

- Ross asks if Joey really paid 1200 dollars for that bird.

- Instead of directly saying "Yes" or "No", Joey just mentions why he paid that much money.

- In this way; **he indirectly says that he did give 1200 dollars,** together with the reason why. The answer is supposed to function also as a call for understanding and empathy.

Appendix I. Sample Slides from the Instruction on Indirect Requests

* The Labeling and Preliminary Information on Indirect Requests

6) HOW PEOPLE MIGHT MAKE INDIRECT REQUESTS without USING PATTERNS LIKE "CAN YOU … / COULD YOU … / WOULD YOU … PLEASE?"

See what the examples would suggest about it…

* The Introduction of the Context in the Clip Where Indirect Request Happens

- In "**_Friends_**", Ross is preparing to fly to England to marry Emily in London.

- Emily liked a wedding dress in London, **but she could not find one in her size there**.

- Ross learned that **a store in New York has the dress in Emily's size**,

but <u>he wants that the first time he sees the dress be in the wedding ceremony</u>.

* He is just talking all about these to his friends.
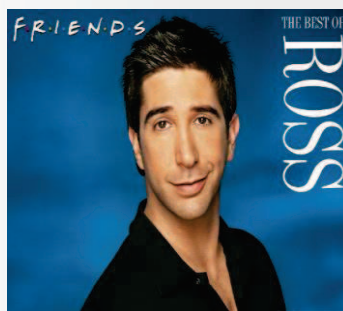
Emily (the bride in London)
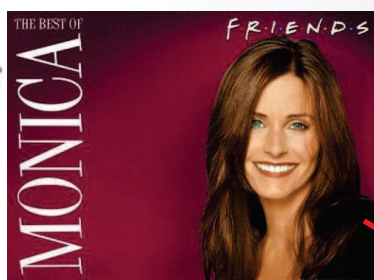
Ross's sister

* The First Frame of the Clip Where Indirect Request Happens

* The Transcription of the Conversation in the Clip

> *Ross: Yeah—oh! Hey listen umm, Emily found this wedding dress in London…*
>
> *Phoebe: Already?!*
>
> *Ross: Yeah, but it didn´t fit. Well, luckily there´s a store here that has one left in her size, but I´m the groom, I´m not supposed to see the dress…*
>
> *Monica: I´ll pick it up for you!*
>
> *Ross: Thank you.*

* The Explanation on how Indirect Request Happened in the Conversation

WHAT HAPPENED?

- Ross did not use <u>a direct statement</u> like "Could you please go and get the dress for me?"

- He **<u>just referred to the object of the request (the wedding dress) in his mention of the problematic situation he is in,</u>** which forces him to ask for help.

- In this way, **<u>he indirectly made the request</u>** for someone to go and get the dress instead of him.

Appendix J. Sample Slides from the Instruction on Indirect Refusals

* The Labeling and Preliminary Information on Indirect Refusals

7) HOW PEOPLE MIGHT MAKE

INDIRECT REFUSALS

<u>without SAYING THINGS like</u>

"NO / NO, I CAN'T" etc.

* The Introduction of the Context in the Clip Where Indirect Refusal Happens

- In "**_Friends_**", Joey met Annabelle at the place where he recently began to work and he liked her.

- In the scene to come, he offers her to have coffee together after work…
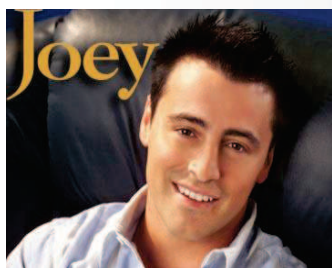
Annabelle

* The First Frame of the Clip Where Indirect Refusal Happens

* The Transcription of the Conversation in the Clip

Joey : *Hey, Annabelle, Uh, listen, I was wondering if maybe after work we could go maybe grab a cup of coffee.*

Annabelle : <u>*Oh, actually I sorta have plans*</u>.

* The Explanation on how Indirect Refusal Happened in the Conversation

WHAT HAPPENED?

- Annabelle did not use <u>a direct statement</u> like "No / No, we can't / Sorry, but we could not" etc.

  - She **just gave an excuse** for not accepting the offer.

  - In this way, **she indirectly refused** Joey's offer in a less disturbing, relatively polite way as Joey can avoid a direct embarrassment of rejection by her.
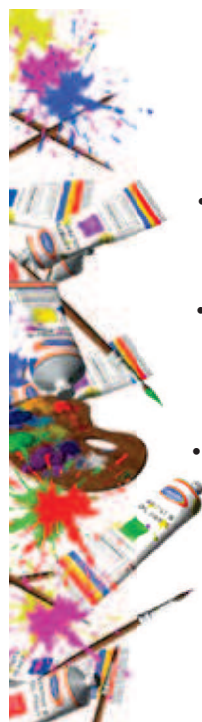
Appendix K. Sample Slides from the Instruction on Indirect Pieces of Advice

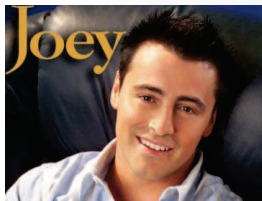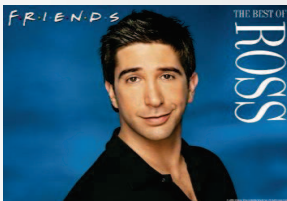* The Labeling and Preliminary Information on Indirect Pieces of Advice

8) HOW PEOPLE COULD GIVE INDIRECT ADVICE without using the classic patterns _"SHOULD / SHOULDN'T / HAD BETTER" etc . . ._

* The Introduction of the Context in the Clip Where Indirect Advice Happens

- In "**Friends**"; things around Joey are not going so well.

  - A bill from the bank arrives. **His debt is so large!**

- He has the chance to get a new acting job, but he does not like the role.

- The last character he played was a neurosurgeon while the new one has to be a taxi driver. His pride does not allow him to accept it!

- Considering the huge debts, Ross thinks Joey should try his chance . He offers a bit of advice. See how . . .

* The First Frame of the Clip Where Indirect Advice Happens

* The Transcription of the Conversation in the Clip

Joey: What?

Ross: That audition.

Joey: That's a two line part.

Ross: Joey, you owe $ 1100 at "I Love Lucite".

I Love Lucite: a plastics-fabricating, decorating store

* The Explanation on how Indirect Advice Happened in the Conversation

WHAT HAPPENED?

- Ross did not use <u>a direct statement</u> like *"You should go to the audition"*.

- He offered the advice **by just giving a reason why Joey should do the act** and that reason is his big debt to just one shop!

- In this way, **he indirectly passed on his advice** that Joey should do his best to take that role because he simply needs money…