



HACETTEPE ÜNİVERSİTESİ
EĞİTİM BİLİMLERİ ENSTİTÜSÜ

DEPARTMENT OF FOREIGN LANGUAGES EDUCATION
ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING PROGRAM

DEVELOPING PRAGMATIC COMPETENCE OF B LEVEL TERTIARY
STUDENTS IN ENGLISH PREPARATORY CLASSES

Merve Nur ÖZET

Master's Thesis

Ankara, (2019)

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ÖĞRENCİLERİN EDİMBİLİMSEL YETKİNLİKLERİNİN GELİŞTİRİLMESİ

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Acceptance and Approval

To the Graduate School of Educational Sciences,

This thesis, prepared by **MERVE NUR ÖZET** and entitled “Developing Pragmatic Competence of B Level Tertiary Students in English Preparatory Classes” has been approved as a thesis for the Degree of **Master** in the **Program of English Language and Teaching** in the **Department of Foreign Languages Education** by the members of the Examining Committee.

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Prof. Dr. Ali Ekber ŞAHİN
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Abstract

This research explores the effect of strategy-based instruction on pragmatic competence of 62 tertiary level students studying at İstanbul Sabahattin Zaim University in İstanbul. To be more specific, (1) the effect of strategy-based instruction on appropriate use of speech acts, (2) awareness about speech act modification strategies, and (3) perceptions of learners about the effectiveness of instruction were examined. Strategy-based instruction involves the integration of explicit or implicit teaching activities to create autonomous learners and achieve the learning goals. To integrate strategy-based instruction and create autonomous learners, experimental group conducted activities adapted by taxonomy of strategies for learning speech acts and used language biography part of European language portfolio. Language Biography was used as a tool to do self-reflection and self-assessment. Among mixed methods study designs, the current research adopts explanatory design as qualitative analysis was conducted to explain quantitative results in detail. The present study employed a true-experimental research design that involves a treatment process, pretest-posttest, an experimental group and a control group. Multiple data collection tools which are open ended written discourse completion test (OWDCT), oral discourse completion test (ODCT) and focus group interview were utilized. Quantitative analysis indicated that experimental group outperformed control group in appropriate use of speech acts. Analysis of numbers and frequencies of modification strategies, modals of politeness, and amount of errors indicated that experimental group exhibited a better performance in producing speech acts. Moreover, analysis of focus group interviews showed that students had positive perceptions about the strategy-based instruction and use of Language Biography.

Keywords: Pragmatic competence. Speech acts. Strategy-based instruction. Learner autonomy.

Öz

Bu çalışma Strateji temelli eğitim'in edimbilim yetisine etkisini arařtırmak için İstanbul Sabahattin Zaim Üniversitesinde Üniversite Hazırlık Okulunda okuyan 62 öğrenci ile gerçekleştirilmiştir. Özellikle, sözeylemlerin kullanımı ve sözeylemlerin modifiye edilmesinde strateji temelli eğitimin etkisi arařtırılmıştır ve bu eğitim hakkında öğrenci görüşleri odak grup mülakatları aracılığıyla alınmıştır. Strateji temelli eğitim örtülü ve bariz öğretime tekniklerinin öğrencinin öğrenme özerkliğinin artması ve öğrenme hedeflerine ulaşması için kullanımını anlamına gelir. Uygulama süreci öğrenme stratejisi taksonomisine dayanan aktivitelerin ve Dil Biyografisi kullanımından oluşur. Dil biyografisi öğrencilerin öz-yansıtım ve özdeğerlendirme yapmaları amacıyla kullanılmıştır. Bu arařtırma karışık desenli arařtırma tiplerinden açıklayıcı arařtırma kullanılmıştır çünkü nicel veriler nitel verileri açıklamıştır. Bu çalışmada bir control grup, bir deneysel grup, ön test- son test ve uygulama sürecinden faydanılarak tam-deneysel çalışma kullanılmıştır. Data toplama araçları açık uçlu yazılı sözeylem tamamlama testi, sözlü sözeylem tamamlama testi ve odak grup mülakatıdır. Nicel analizlere göre deneysel grup sözeylemlerin uygunluğu konusunda control gruptan daha iyi performans göstermiştir. Sözeylem modifiye stratejileri, incelik yardımcı fiilleri ve edimbilimsel hataların sayılarının ve sıklıklarının analizi deneysel grubun son-testte daha fazla sözeylem ve incelik yardımcı fiili kullanmış ve daha az sayıda hata yapmış olduğunu göstermiştir. Odak grup mülakatı sonuçlarına göre öğrenciler strateji temelli eğitim ve dil biyografisi kullanımına karşı olumlu algı geliřtirmiştir.

Anahtar sözcükler: Edimbilimsel yeti. Söz eylemler. Strateji temelli eğitim. Öğrenme özerkliği.

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Symbols and Abbreviations

CEFR: Common European Framework of Reference

CR : Consciousness-raising Tasks

ELP: European Language Portfolio

ELT: English Language Teaching

SLA: Second language acquisition

ODCT: Oral Discourse Completion Test

OWDCT: Open Ended Discourse Completion Test

ELT: English Language Teaching

L2: Second/Foreign language

Chapter 1

Introduction

Pragmatics as a branch of linguistics is an inquiry into how language is used in different social contexts and how various social and contextual factors shape the language. LoCastro (2003) defines pragmatics as “a study of speaker and hearer and the meaning created in their joint interactions that include both linguistic and non-linguistic signals in the context of socio-culturally organized activities”. Based on this definition, pragmatics is primarily concerned with social and contextual cues in interaction as well as the linguistic elements (Leech, 1983). Due to the emphasis of pragmatics on study of meaning in interaction, it differs from other branches of linguistics that investigate only the structural properties of language (Leech, 1983). Deixis, conversational implicature, presupposition, speech acts, and conversational structure are the main areas of pragmatics.

With increasing popularity of communicative approaches in language teaching, researchers in the field of second language studies took an interest to investigate the best approaches to teach the pragmatic elements of a second language and the most effective ways to improve learners' pragmatic competence. Pragmatic competence is concerned with using linguistic resources and communication strategies in congruent with the context, topic, power relations and social status of the interlocutors to express the appropriate level of directness, politeness and formality (Taguchi, 2018). Appropriate use of speech acts is directly related to pragmatic competence. It is concerned with realizing communicative functions of apologizing, making requests and many others effectively through interpretation of intention and negotiation of demand. In a sense, it creates the norms of interaction in a speech situation. This feature of speech acts is what makes it a major field of study in second language pragmatics research.

In addition to linguistics, second language acquisition (SLA) research has also been very interested in the study of speech acts. Second language instructors attempt to introduce pragmatic elements such as sociocultural aspects of language and norms of interaction in language classrooms to raise pragmatic awareness of students aiming to enable learners to use speech acts effectively (Taguchi, 2018). They have a rich array of resources to teach speech acts and other pragmatic

elements at their disposal from online materials to textbooks (e.g., Bardovi-Harlig & Mahan-Taylor 2003; Mart'inez-Flor & Uso-Juan 2006; Ishihara & Cohen 2010; Houck & Tatsuki 2011). Nevertheless, it is a challenging task to integrate pragmatics into classroom instruction. Research suggests that (1) lack of necessary L2 input, (2) having L1 pragmatic system in receptors' mind and (3) curricular restrictions are the main causes of the challenge (Kasper & Rose 2002; Taguchi, 2018). In Turkey, studies related to pragmatics in language education, signaled an inefficiency in gaining pragmatic skills (Ekin & Damar, 2013; Mede & Dikilitaş, 2015).

Taguchi (2018) offers gaining autonomous learning skills as a novel way to facilitate gaining pragmatic skills after she reviews many studies on teaching speech acts, other pragmatic elements and investigating low pragmatic competence of even advanced language learners. Taguchi (ibid.) argues learners will be able to raise their pragmatic awareness through autonomous learning, such as planning study agendas, creating learning strategies and self-assessment. Hence, students will be equipped to learn appropriate use of speech acts and transfer their knowledge in one area to the other by learning strategies effectively.

It is necessary to define learner autonomy in order to understand its contribution to learning process and gain an insight on the tools to enhance autonomous learning skills of the students. Learner autonomy is defined as “a capacity— for detachment, critical reflection, decision-making and independent action (Little, 1994, p. 4). This definition implies that monitoring, evaluating, and planning of learning activities and self-assessment lies at the heart of autonomous learning. Taguchi (2018) emphasizes the use of learning strategies as part of autonomous learning process to enable learners to use these strategies in learning different areas of pragmatics. Tools to make learners more independent and encourage them to think about their process might also enhance learner autonomy. Equipping learners with language learning strategies has become a significant tool to foster learner autonomy. Language learning strategies are concerned with “procedures that facilitate a learning task” (Chamot, 2005:112). Oxford (2011) classified these strategies as cognitive, metacognitive and affective strategies to analyze and interpret learning processes. Cognitive learning strategies refers to strategies employed in dealing with a language task (Oxford,1990; Oxford 2011). Metacognitive strategies are concerned with monitoring learning process

(Oxford,1990; Oxford 2011). Affective strategies are related to handling the emotional state effectively and maximizing motivation during the learning process (Oxford,1990; Oxford 2011).

Cohen (2005) situated his work on speech acts and language learning strategies to create autonomous learners. He offered a strategy-based instruction; that is, a range of strategies for initial learning of speech acts, strategies employed during actual conversations and metacognitive strategies for evaluating the performance. Cohen & Ishihara (2005) created online teaching units to help learners to learn autonomously using learning strategies. It is this study that led Cohen (2005) to generate a taxonomy of learning strategies for speech acts. He also benefited from online learning journals to encourage learners to do self-reflection and self-evaluation. Use of portfolios might also be a tool to do self-assessment and enhance the autonomous learning skills of learners. To put it another way, use of portfolios might support increasing learner autonomy as it creates independent learners equipped with the abilities of self-reflection and self-assessment (Ferris & Hedgcock, 1998).

European Language Portfolio is a type of portfolio that was created by the Council of Europe in 1998 as a result of the efforts of the European Council to achieve unity in assessment system. Its goal is to help learners become autonomous and life-long learners by enabling learners to take the responsibility of learning. ELP is composed of three parts. Each part aims at improving different skills. These are setting learning goals, creating learning strategies, do self-reflection and self-evaluation. It is necessary to explain the origins and aims of ELP to understand its potential contribution to a strategy-based learning process and pragmatic competence and especially to learning of speech acts.

Efforts of Council of Europe to create a standardized document that language learners use to record their language qualifications and have a life-long learning process led to the formation of ELP (Little,2002). ELP is comprised of three parts that serve for the purposes of reporting language competences and fulfilling pedagogical principles of Common European Framework: Language Passport, Language Biography and Dossier. All three parts of ELP are complementary to each other. ELP-users display their profile in terms of languages learned, formal qualifications and certificates, and identify their language levels in the 'Language

Passport' part. 'Language Biography' is vital for putting learning goals, keeping track of their progress, thinking about the intercultural experience, and self-assessment. 'Language Dossier' is used as a showcase by students that exhibit the learner's language skills and improvement.

The Language Biography part of ELP is particularly important in learning speech acts. It would be insightful to have a closer look at the part in order to understand the function of ELP in helping learners to do self-reflection and self-evaluation in learning speech acts. The Language These parts are concerned with recording the cultural attitudes learned, not learned and communication problems. Learners are expected to monitor their learning of speech acts on a regular basis with the use of Language Biography. Additionally, reflecting on cultural attitudes can raise their pragmatic awareness. As well as monitoring and reflecting on cultural attitudes, Language Biography also provided the chance to reflect on learning tools. The parts of Language Biography require sources of learning cultural information cited; thus, help learners think about the learning process, record their progress, discover weak points and update learning goals. Biography has two parts: Intercultural Competence and Learning Experience.

Based on the assumption that taxonomy of strategies for speech acts and use of ELP will help learners enhance pragmatic awareness (Cohen,2005) current study sets out to investigate the use of strategy based-activities and Language Biography part of European Language Portfolio as a means of tackling the problem of inefficiency in teaching pragmatics and improving learners' pragmatic competence. ELP and strategy-based activities are expected support learner autonomy which in turn changes the learning behavior of students in a positive way that would contribute to improvement of their pragmatic competence.

The study will be conducted at School of Foreign Languages in English Preparatory class B level learners at a private university in Turkey. The main objective of the study is to enable learners to use speech acts of apology and request more appropriately. B level is more appropriate for study purposes as it is easier to monitor the progress for the researcher and to study pragmatics for the students at advanced levels. In performing speech acts of requests and apologies, using politeness conventions and having an awareness of social imposition, power

and solidarity in addressing directness and formality are the main concerns of the study.

In order to evaluate the effects of using ELP and strategy-based activities, students were divided into two groups: experimental group and control group. Students in the experimental group filled in the parts of ELP and participated in strategy-based activities adapted by Cohen (2005) and Little & Perclova (2003). Whereas the control group covered the subjects according to the school's original curriculum which does not contain ELP. After seven weeks of treatment phase, performances of the students in control and experimental groups in using speech acts of request and apology appropriately according to (1) social power, (2) rank of imposition and (3) social distance was tested with oral discourse completion test (ODCT) and an open-ended written discourse completion test (OWDCT). Politeness theory by Brown and Levinson (1987) was the base of the current study to analyze the appropriateness of the speech acts used by the students and identify the strategies they used. OWDCT used in current study was composed of 8 apologies and 8 requests and created by Balci (2009). Role-play activity was adopted by the multiple-choice discourse test of use apologies by Jianda (2007) for 8 apologies, and a role-play activity of making requests for 8 requests by Safont- Jordà(2003). Results of the role play activity and DCT was analyzed with SPSS. Native raters evaluated the appropriateness of answers. In each of the 8 situations, one of the situational variables of power, distance and ranking of imposition was controlled to rate the awareness of the students in conveying the directness, indirectness, politeness of the utterances. After the completion of DCTs and role-play activities, students in experimental group had a focus-group interview to present their insights on their learning process and their efficiency in gaining pragmatic skills with the use of ELP and doing ELP-based activities.

Statement of the Problem

Pragmatic aspects of a language are culture-laden and proficiency in a language requires a certain level of awareness and consciousness of the subtle cultural language specific intricacies (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001). Therefore, it is not an easy task for learners to master the interplay between the use of language, social and contextual elements. For teachers, it may be a daunting task to teach the

functional aspects of language and improve the pragmatic awareness of language learners. It is especially so in foreign language learning settings (Kasper, 2001) as the learners will not be exposed to a sufficient level of pragmatic input. In addition to the insufficiency of pragmatic input, Thomas (1983) states that having an L1 [native language] pragmatic system in the conceptualization of languages causes interference of L1 pragmatic rules with target pragmatic features causing pragmatic failure.

Moreover, a number of studies investigating the content of pedagogical materials in teaching pragmatics revealed the inefficiency of textbooks in reflecting the real-life use of language (Bardovi-Harlig, Hartford, Mahan-Taylor, Morgan, & Reynolds, 1991). The problem spirals into an even bigger issue for learner. Taguchi (2018) puts it as challenging task of learning pragmatics, because learners acquire the pragmatic abilities slowly even in naturalistic settings.

Researchers in Turkey directed their attention to the teaching and learning of pragmatic elements, as well (Beştaş-Çetinkaya, 2012; Mede & Dikilitaş, 2015; Karatepe,2001, Otçu-Zeyrek). In Turkey, research on pragmatics has focused on (1) the pragmatic production of the learners (Balıcı,2009; İstifçi,2009;Otçu-Zeyrek,2008), teachers and (Bektaş-Çetinkaya, 2012; Terzi, 2014) possible problems in teaching pragmatics (Mede & Dikilitaş,2015). In relation to the research on pragmatic competence of teachers, studies by Karatepe (2001), Bektaş-Çetinkaya (2012), and Terzi (2014) focus on production of pragmatic elements by English teachers. Karatepe (2001) notes that nonnative English teacher trainees have difficulty in interpreting contextual cues and creating indirect requests in some cases. Furthermore, this study also shows that nonnative English teachers transfer their L1 knowledge in producing indirect requests. The study by Terzi (2014), revealed that pre-service English teachers do not have a rich repertoire of address forms to function in a wide range social events.

Study by Mede and Dikilitas (2015) is distinguished as it portrays the situation in teaching sociolinguistic and pragmatic features in a comprehensive and detailed manner. It points out that Turkish language learners do not display the expected performance in practicing sociocultural aspects of language due to pedagogical and testing issues, lack of exposure to native culture and lack of motivation. In addition to the problems arising from external factors, teachers also lack confidence in

teaching pragmatic components of the language. Terzi (2014) and Ekin & Damar (2013) report that English teachers have difficulty in expressing and understanding pragmatic meanings of the utterances. As Mede and Dikilitas (2015) highlights the assessment system in Turkey prioritizes grammatical proficiency. Teaching materials of second language learning in Turkey also lack pragmatic focus. It is safe to argue that students do not foster interest in functional aspects of the language and consequently they are unable to comprehend the pragmatic meanings of the utterances as a consequence of the absence of a pragmatic focus in assessment and curriculum.

In addition to the problems arising from pedagogical input, assessment system and teaching focus, teachers also report lacking confidence in teaching pragmatic components of the language. Terzi (2014) and Ekin & Damar (2013) also report that English teachers have difficulty in addressing pragmatic elements. Study by Ekin & Damar (2013) indicated that teachers struggle with transferring their pragmatic knowledge into teaching practice.

As well as studies with a focus on problems in teaching pragmatics, studies on pragmatic competence of the EFL learners also indicated a problem in producing appropriate utterances. Studies by İstifçi (2009), Balcı(2009), Otçu-Zeyrek (2008) showed that Turkish EFL learners deviate from native pragmatic norms in achieving pragmatic appropriacy in producing speech acts.

Taguchi (2018) proposes learner autonomy and strategic learning as a way to overcome challenges in addressing the pragmatic features of language in classes. Limited access to pragmatic input in classroom environment and inexistence of pragmatic elements in syllabus, curriculum and assessment (Bardovi-Harlig, 1996) have led language teachers to emphasize learner initiative and effort in learning process. Taguchi (2018) argues that teachers will foster the pragmatic competence of language learners by encouraging learner autonomy and by teaching self-regulated learning strategies. Learners will keep track of their learning process and notice pragmatic features in language input, monitor and control their progress with learner autonomy and strategy training.

Taguchi (2015) considers the classroom context as being poor in opportunities to display a rich array of pragmatic elements. To illustrate, it is not

possible for teachers to teach each speech act due to time restrictions. Moreover, students are exposed to L2 pragmatics through classroom lectures. Classroom discourse illustrates one variation of sociolinguistic variable which high social power versus low social power. Therefore, students are unable to use speech acts appropriately in accordance with different combinations of sociolinguistic variables (Brock & Nagasaka, 2005). As well as the issue of classroom pragmatics, reviewing studies on the effect of instruction in pragmatic she concludes that instructional studies investigate very few areas on pragmatics. Studies mostly focus on certain speech acts such as requests, apologies and refusals. Not all of the speech acts were given the equal emphasis. As a result, she offers that challenges in teaching pragmatics may be overcome and learners will gain the ability to transfer their learning to learning to learn habits in one area to the other and thus use their pragmatic skills in “different settings and different targets”. Furthermore, Taguchi (2018) articulates that autonomous learning efforts of students to take initiative and organize plan and evaluate their learning, will enhance the efficiency of learning process.

Sercu (2002) also recommended learner autonomy and learner initiative to develop the pragmatic competences of the students. She notes that meaningful learning activities and problem-solving tasks, as part of an autonomous learning process, will trigger collaborative decision making and self-initiated knowledge. She especially emphasizes the important elements of learner autonomy which are self-awareness and self-reflection to improve the way students learn. Through self-assessment, learners can observe the strengths and weaknesses in their own performance and create their own learning strategies. Self-initiated knowledge and learning to learn are pivotal to the research by Sercu (2002) and Taguchi (2018) as creating learning strategies to be autonomous language learners seem to have a great contribution to learning functional properties of languages.

In relation to use of learning strategies in learning pragmatic elements, Cohen & Ishihara (2005) created an autonomous learning environment using self-access online units that foster strategic instruction. These online units are composed of explicit information about linguistic knowledge and socio-pragmatic knowledge on the appropriate use of speech acts. Moreover, researchers offered a rich range of activities at the end of each unit to help learners practice and evaluate their

knowledge. Thus, learners obtained the chance to learn speech acts at their own pace and continue learning process outside the school to commit to quest to have a life-long learning process. During this strategy-based online instruction, learners engaged in self-reflection and self-evaluation using online journals.

Cohen (2005) gleaned a taxonomy of speech act learning strategies from his research that put the learner autonomy at the center with Ishihara (2005). The taxonomy of strategies offered a step by step learning with tasks: determining pragmatic targets, collecting resources, creating practice opportunities, conducting cross-cultural analysis. The taxonomy is composed of three parts that are initial learning of speech acts, strategies for learning speech acts and metapragmatic strategies of monitoring and evaluating speech acts (Cohen & Ishihara, 2010). As being of the few examples of strategy-based instruction, the study by Shively (2011) also sought out to equip learners with the strategies of speech act learning such as collecting data, analyzing pragmatic meanings of expressions and interpreting the pragmatic information.

It is important to note that study by Shively (2011) took place in an immersion context, but it also attempted to create autonomous learners that collect information on pragmatic elements during their encounters with native speakers and engage in authentic communication. Thus, learners gained the awareness to pursue a learning process that extend beyond the classroom. They had the opportunity to build on their pragmatic knowledge gained in immersion context through keeping in contact with native speakers via online communication. Taguchi (2011) articulates that these ventures to create autonomous learners trace back to the idea of creating autonomous learners who discover pragmatic knowledge adopting the role of ethnographers (Bardovi & Harlig, 1996).

Taguchi (2011) extends the issue of gaining learner autonomy to pragmatics instruction and cited the significance of having learner autonomy under the framework of strategy instruction. He posited that an autonomous learning process envisioned learners who discover the most effective learning methods and are aware of their own capabilities. Thus, individual differences in terms of learning styles grow in importance. These learning styles are concerned with the preferences on either engaging in authentic communication or dealing with written materials to collect information and create practice opportunities. Learning Journals can be

effective tools for discovering learning styles and strategies through reflecting on a strategy based learning process and evaluating learning outcomes.

Along with the journals, Language Biography part of ELP might prove to be an effective tool for self-reflection and self-evaluation. Language Biography enables language learners to learn the pragmatic aspects of language effectively through helping learners gain autonomy and boosting their motivation. In order to explain how ELP can foster functional aspects of language especially use of speech acts, through improving learner autonomy and in turn, self-directed learning and out-of-class learning, it will be useful talk about parts of Language Biography. The part called “My cultural language and Intercultural experience” invites learners to record the learning sources, learning tools and intercultural encounters. Cultural awareness part require learners to reflect on the cultural attitudes they learn and cultural aspects that they have difficulty in understanding. Goal setting and learning how to learn part provided learners with a means to record their learning goals and reflect on learning methods and styles. All in all, ELP creates a cycle of defining objectives, creating strategies, evaluating performance and reflecting on the process as a final step.

Self-assessment and creating learning strategies which are the main components of learner autonomy contribute to the development of functional competencies. Therefore, use of ELP and strategy- based activities might also contribute to the pragmatic competence of the language learners in using speech acts appropriately. Positive effects of using ELP on the learning process is evident in the results of Pilot projects by Scharer (2008). An increase in self-confidence, motivation and capability to self-reflection are the observed changes in learning behavior in the study. These pilot projects encompass 15 member states of Council of Europe that designed individual ELPs and test their practicality, feasibility and pedagogical impact between 1998-2000 at all educational levels. Regarding the results of studies conducted at university level, primary finding was that students were able to put more realistic learning goals and grew a positive attitude towards self-assessment. (Little, 2005; Mansilla & Riejos, 2007; Schärer, 2000)

There are several studies in Turkey that pilot the use of ELP as well (Glover & Mirici & Aksu, 2005, Demirel, 2005) They were mostly conducted to contribute to the policies of ministry of education to integrate learner autonomy into educational

system. Therefore, there is a considerable interest among Turkish scholars to use ELP to increase autonomy of language learners. Earlier efforts to implement ELP includes pilot projects that are carried out in Private schools with the attempts of Ministry of Education at secondary school level.

Studies by (Demirel,2005 ;Glover, Mirici & Aksu 2005) pioneered the implementation of ELP at higher level at university and priming language researchers to conduct more studies at university level. Some of the studies concentrate on offering syllabus and curricula that are learner-centered and compatible with Reference Level Descriptors in ELP (Ekşi 2008; Mut, 2007;Okçu 2007). Research by Ceylan (2006) on the other hand, offers insight on the use of ELP in relation to gaining learner autonomy and its contribution to language learning process. There are a few studies related to ELP and its effects on the developing language skills of learners. Macro language skills of language learners such as reading and communicative skills are at the center of these studies (Ataç, 2008; İşısağ, 2008; Göksu, 2011). However, there is no in-depth study to investigate the micro skills of language learners such as pragmatic abilities.

This study aims to investigate the effects of strategy-based instruction along with ELP on improving pragmatic competence of tertiary level learners , if any, through exploring the contribution of ELP and strategy-based instruction on pragmatic competence development. In the case of a positive result in identifying the effects strategy based instruction combined with the use of ELP on pragmatic competence I shall investigate the applicability of the use of ELP and integrating strategy-based instruction into the university curricula in teaching speech acts. The research shall be conducted on B level university preparation class students. Conducting the research at the level B is deemed to be the best level to monitor pragmatic development. Following part shall state the aim of the research and put forth its significance in detail.

Aim and Significance of the Study

Politeness conventions, register differences and directness and indirectness are important dimensions of pragmatic competence (Leech,1983, Thomas, 1983) and gaining pragmatic awareness is “the mastery of these socio-cultural features that ensure appropriacy in a speech situation” (Soler & Jordà, 2007, p. 193). This

study aims to improve the pragmatic competence of the students in using speech acts through conducting strategy-based activities and filling in the parts of ELP. A need to create novel methods to teach pragmatic elements have arisen in foreign language teaching context as a solution to ease the difficulty of gaining pragmatic awareness due to the L1 transfer and other handicaps (Bodman & Eisenstein, 1988; Takashi, 1996; Wannaruk 2008). Researchers base their study on a range of explicit and implicit methods and tasks to direct the attention of learners to grasp the form-context-function mappings in using speech acts (Taguchi, 2018). This accumulation of research can be considered as an attempt to find the most effective way to raise the awareness of students to the importance of contextual factors in communication and display the interplay between contextual factors and its effects on real-life communication.

Turkish language scholars also recognized the inefficiencies in improving the pragmatic competence of the learners. Studies on pragmatic competence in Turkey signals a problem in teaching, and language learners and teacher, exhibit a low level of pragmatic and socio-linguistic competence (Atay, 2005; Kılıçkaya, 2010; Mede & Dikilitaş, 2015).

Current study undertakes to address the issue of low pragmatic competence of learners by raising their pragmatic awareness when using speech acts. Present study integrates the principles of learner autonomy in the form of several activities to encourage learners to reflect on their pragmatic knowledge and learning strategies with the use of ELP. It is aimed to enable students to be autonomous by integrating ELP and pragmatics learning strategies to course plan. Learners will use learning strategies, reflect on their learning process and gain awareness about the social and contextual factors when using speech acts. With the use of strategy-based instruction involving determining learning targets, gathering information, analyzing and interpreting information on the use of speech acts as well as filling in Language Biography part of ELP to reflect on learning process, learners will be able to create learning targets and evaluate their own progress.

Previous work has mostly focused on the reasons for low pragmatic performance of students. Researchers have not necessarily addressed to the issue of offering novel methods to teach speech acts. Current study might be insightful for pragmatics research in Turkey as it grounds the theoretical and practical basis of

the study on ELP and taxonomy of learning speech acts which will be newly introduced concepts in field of teaching pragmatics. Results will be insightful for teachers in terms of practicality of ELP and effects of an autonomous learning process in learning speech acts. Results of this research will be insightful for how to create learning tasks based on taxonomy of strategies for learning speech acts and how to tailor the parts of the ELP to do self-reflection and self-evaluation during this autonomous and strategy-based learning process.

This research might open the venue for investigating strategy-based instruction through creating innovative learning tools such as Web-based technology including online platforms that involve virtual communication. With insights on the use of strategy-based instruction accompanied by the use of ELP in raising awareness on learning speech acts, curriculum planners can reconstruct the language teaching methods and teaching philosophies. Moreover, focused-group interviews done with the students provided information about the effects of each step of the autonomous learning process on gaining pragmatic awareness in using speech acts with the use of ELP.

Along with its significance for pragmatics research, current study will also be influential in informing the ELP research from a different perspective. It shall investigate the issue in terms of the language success compared to most of the previous studies with a focus on the motivation, attitudes and self-directed learning. Preliminary studies on the usability of ELP conducted at the beginning of 2000s, aimed to pilot the use of ELP at primary, secondary and tertiary level (González, 2008; Kohonen, 2006; Román & Soriano, 2015). Major goal of these studies was to reflect the attitudes of the users and teachers and effects of use the ELP on learning process. However, they do not concentrate on the viability of ELP to facilitate the learning of a discrete language skill. Later studies advance the knowledge in positive effects of ELP on learning behavior. That is, main research area has been the development of learner autonomy and learning to learn skills.

Studies in Turkey also focus on the learning processes while very few study explored the effectiveness of ELP to teach language skills. Current study however, is distinguished in terms of its approach to ELP and strategy-based instruction as tools to take the attention of learners to target forms in teaching speech acts. The present study shows that ELP and strategy-based instruction foster learner

autonomy. Autonomous learners are expected to discover pragmatic elements with their own efforts. Therefore, it is argued that learners with high autonomy shall gain pragmatic awareness and use speech acts appropriately.

Research Questions

Pragmatic and sociolinguistic development of students in Turkey lags behind their linguistic competence. Moreover, language teachers have difficulty in addressing the pragmatic elements. In an attempt to overcome the handicaps in improving and teaching of pragmatic skills, current study used a strategy-based instruction as well as ELP to raise pragmatic awareness. Based on the findings of previous studies, learners would take initiative and become autonomous using ELP and use strategies for learning speech acts. Thus, learners would set objectives, create their own learning strategies and monitor their progress, and learn speech acts more effectively.

Main research question. This study will examine the following question:

1. Is there any effect of using strategy-based instruction on the improving pragmatic competence of the students?

Sub research questions. 1.a. Is there any effect of using strategy-based instruction on the use of the speech acts appropriately?

1.b. Is there any effect of using strategy-based instruction on raising the awareness about request modification strategies?

1.c. Is there any effect of using strategy-based instruction on raising awareness about apologizing strategies ?

1.d. What are the perceptions of students about strategy-based instruction?

Assumptions

Premises of this study are as follows. Activities used in this study are prepared in light of the opinions of experts in the field. Relevant and highly credible sources guide the planning process of the activities. Research instruments used in the study meets the expectations in terms of validity and reliability. Pre-tests and Post-tests that are done by experimental and control groups measures the pragmatic awareness of learners effectively. Students in both experimental group

and control group is affected by the variables that are not controlled at the same degree.

Based on the premise of meeting all the methodological requirements in terms of reliability, validity and receiving expert opinions on each phase of instruction, current study have certain assumptions in relation to the learning outcomes and effectiveness of the learning process. Present study assumes that activities created using taxonomy of strategies for learning speech acts assist raising pragmatic awareness of the students. Learners are expected to notice that in order to achieve appropriacy in using speech acts, they have a rich array of choices such as using direct, indirect expressions and modifying the requests. Having recognized the significance of directness and indirectness in using speech acts, learners will be able to collect data. Moreover, learners will create opportunities to practice pragmatic knowledge. In order to reflect on the learning process and discover the parts that needs to be improved, learners filled in the Language Biography part of ELP. Therefore, learners will have a better performance on posttests at the end of the treatment phase.

Limitations

One of the major limitation of this study could be the number participants and research settings. This study is conducted at only İstanbul Sabahattin Zaim University and research participants are the students of Preparation Class at B Level. Two classes of B level students are chosen as experimental group whereas two classes of B level students are chosen as control group. Conducting the research in wider context and having more participants could have offered more reliable results. However, conducting the activities in more than one research setting poses a great challenge for the researcher. Moreover, finding a setting that target forms are already being taught can be difficult for the researcher. Therefore, the researcher chose participants who study at B level classes of the school of foreign languages at İstanbul Sabahattin Zaim University. Another limitation of this study is the length of the treatment process. Treatment process lasted seven weeks which is a timespan for a module. After completing a module students take a proficiency exam and if they pass they start to study at a higher level class. Due to the changes

in class members after the completion of a module, treatment process lasted seven weeks which is the time period for a level to be completed.

Definitions

In order to highlight the terms that will be the primary bases of the study, following definitions will be helpful:

Pragmatics. “the study of communicative action in its sociocultural context” (Kasper,1997, no page).

Pragmatic Competence.“the ability to use language effectively in order to achieve a specific purpose and to understand language in context” (Thomas,1983, p. 92).

Learner Autonomy. “the ability to take charge of one’s own learning” (as cited in Benson, 2001; p. 48).

Speech Acts.“All the acts we perform through speaking, all the things we do when we speak.”(Schmidt & Richards, 1980, p.129)

Taxonomy of strategies for learning speech acts. “Key learner strategies in the acquisition of speech acts.The Taxonomy includes 1)Strategies for the initial learning of speech acts, 2) strategies for using speech acts that has been already learned to some extent and 3)metapragmatic considerations of learner’s regarding the deployment of these strategies.”(Cohen,2005, p. 287)

Strategy-Based Instruction.”is a learner-focused approach to teaching that emphasizes both explicit and implicit integration of language learning strategies in the language classroom, with the goal of creating greater learner autonomy and increased proficiency” (Yang,2003, p.295)

Common European Language of References. It is a tool that “provides a common basis for the elaboration of language syllabuses, curriculum guidelines, examinations, textbooks, etc.” (Council of Europe, 2001, p. 1).

European Language Portfolio. “The ELP is a document in which those who are learning or have learned one or more languages can record and reflect on their language learning and intercultural experiences” (Council Of Europe, 2001, p. 1).

Language Biography. It is a part of European Language Portfolio” which is designed to provide a reflective accompaniment to the process of learning and using second and foreign languages” (Little, 2009a)

Chapter 2

Literature Review

Pragmatics

Second Language Teaching and Linguistics Literature is rich with definitions of pragmatics. However, definitions differ according to the field of study (Ishihara & Cohen, 2010). Linguistic Philosophers such as Morris (1938) pioneered the attempts to conceptualize and study pragmatics. Later, researchers in Second Language Acquisition research and Second Language Teaching research set out to explore different aspects of pragmatics as communicative teaching methods started to receive a special prominence (Ishihara & Cohen, 2010; Kasper & Rose, 1999). It is essential to present the historical evolution of the definition of pragmatics to explore its subfields of studies and elaborate on the role of pragmatics in Second Language Acquisition Research.

Language Philosopher, Charles Morris defined the Pragmatics as 'the relation of sign to interpreters' in 1938 cited in (Levinson, 1983, p. 6) as a sub-branch of Semiotics in an attempt to achieve a pragmatic interpretation of the language. However, a pragmatic approach to understanding the nature of language started in 1950s (Arif, 2016). Before 1950s, philosophers oriented to isolate meaning and context in making sense of the different aspects of the language. Language scholars coming from this school of thought confine meaning to a system of rules that governed by semantic principles (Arif, 2016).

However, 1960s on, Language philosophers started to give a special attention to pragmatics to understand how meaning is constructed and interpreted in a conversation. Speech act theory by Austin (1975) and Searle (1969), Grice's Principle of Maxims of Conversation (1975) exemplifies the attempts of language philosophers to have an "inquiry on the nature, origin and usage of language" (Arif, 2016:26). The definition of pragmatics By Stalnaker (1972) reflects the interface of pragmatics and study of language. To him, pragmatics is the "the study of linguistic acts and the contexts in which they are performed" (1972, p. 383).

In 1980s, linguists delved into the confines and elements of pragmatics as a subfield of linguistics. Leech (1983) deemed the study of pragmatics as a first step to explore different aspects of language as pragmatics refers to "how language is

used in communication". Leech (1983) divided into two parts to propose a detailed definition. Leech (1983) put pragmatics on a continuum to reveal relation of pragmatics to linguistics on one end and sociology on the other end. Whereas pragma-linguistics reside in the linguistic end of the continuum, socio-pragmatics belongs to sociological end of the continuum. (Leech, 1983). Pragma-linguistics is the set of linguistic means to interpret and realize different layers of meaning that is beyond the literal understanding of utterances (Laughlin et al, 2015). Socio-pragmatics involves the social and cultural conventions and contextual features that entails using an appropriate language taking into consideration the social power, social imposition (Kasper, 1997).

Pragmatics extended beyond the confines of linguistics and have become the focus of research in Language Acquisition and Language Teaching (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001, 2010a, 2010b; Kasper & Rose, 1999, 2002). Most common definition of pragmatics in Language Teaching studies is the following definition by David (1997)

The study of language from the point of view of users, especially of the choices they make, the constraints they encounter in using language in social interaction and the effects their use of language has on other participants in the act of communication (p.301).

This definition rests on the idea of creation and interpretation of the meaning beyond sentence level. David (1997) noted that meaning of sentences is bound to context. Understanding texts entails interpreting contextual cues to infer the expressions beyond their literal meanings. Bardovi-Harlig (2013) also emphasized the relationship between the contextual knowledge and use of language in his definition pragmatics. In his words pragmatics is "study of how-to-say-what-to-whom-when and that L2 pragmatics is the study of how learners come to know how-to-say what-to-whom-when" (Bardovi-Harlig, 2013, p. 68). Kasper (1997) puts forward a simplistic definition that is the summary of other definitions. He contends that pragmatics is an inquiry on communicative acts, sociocultural context of these acts and their relationship with each other(Kasper,1997).

These definitions indicate that pragmatics is an integral part of the language teaching and acquisition research. Kasper and Rose (1999) noted that pragmatics is essential for research in SLA studies as it "acts as a constraint on linguistic forms

and their acquisition, and it represents a type of communicative knowledge and object of L2 learning in its own right" (Kasper & Rose, 1999, p. 81). Second role of pragmatics implies that grammatical knowledge should be accompanied by pragmatic knowledge to master the target language. Due to the emphasis of pragmatics on the study of language in use and growing interest to improve communicative abilities, researchers explored the pragmatic knowledge of native and non-native speakers.

Interlanguage pragmatics derives from the study of pragmatic production of nonnative speakers, learning processes of pragmatic elements, and differences between the pragmatic production of native speakers and nonnative speakers (Kasper & Dahl, 1991 & Kasper & Rose, 1999). In this regard, main research areas of interlanguage pragmatics is the teachability of pragmatics, pragmatic failure, acquisition and production of the elements of pragmatics (Kasper & Rose, 1999; Rose, 2005). Studies of speech acts dominated the research in interlanguage pragmatics. Another field of pragmatics is cross-cultural pragmatics. It derives on interlanguage pragmatics (e.g. Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper, 1989) and explores the native speakers' performances of speech acts in their language to reveal differences in terms of the use of strategies in the realization of speech acts.

In sum, earlier inquiry on pragmatics started within the language philosophy and later extended to the fields of linguistics and second language acquisition and Language Teaching research. Pragmatics is concerned with interpreting and understanding the relationship between communicative acts and cultural and social features of the speech event. To elaborate on the pragmatic knowledge of NNS and to improve the performance of students, second language acquisition research studied pragmatics under different frameworks. Thus, the cross-cultural pragmatics and interlanguage pragmatics emerged and presented important insights for the research in applied linguistics (Ishihara & Cohen, 2010).

Speech Act Theory

Research in second language acquisition and second language teaching in relation to pragmatics focuses on the speech acts, conversational structure, conversational implicature, conversational management, discourse organization and address forms (Taylor & Harlig, 2003). However, speech acts stand out as the

most commonly studied topic (Taguchi, 2018). Achieving appropriacy in realization of speech acts enables learners to communicate the message effectively (Brock & Nagasaka, 2005). It is vital to elaborate on the speech act theory to understand its potential to shape communication and appreciate its importance for research in second language teaching and second language learning.

Theory of Speech Acts has its origins in the works of Austin (1975). Austin (ibid.) notes that it is not possible to analyze sentences based on the idea of truth conditions. Some sentences function to perform actions in contrast to others that can be categorized under the labels of true and false. Performatives refer to speech acts that create action whereas constatives are concerned with descriptive utterances. Austin (1975) maintained that speech acts refers to expression of actions that are performed by words. He articulated that “saying something is also doing something” (Austin, 1975, p. 11). Schmidt & Richards (1980, p. 129) also argued that speech acts are “all the acts we perform through speaking, all the things we do when we speak”. Speech acts encompass apologies, requests, compliments, refusals, complaint to exemplify a few.

In performing speech acts, different dimensions of meaning of an utterance such as the intended meaning, implied meaning, literal meaning are at play Schiffrin (1994). Seeing different layers of meaning and their potential to realize various aims, Austin (1975) classified speech acts as locutionary, illocutionary, and perlocutionary speech acts (Austin, 1975). Locutionary acts involves the actual utterance, whereas illocutionary acts refer to the intended meaning of the utterance. Illocutionary function of a speech act refers to the actions performed by the speaker. Perlocutionary act refers to the effects of actions. Building on the work of Austin (1975), Searle (1976) elaborate on the types of speech acts to group them in terms of their functions.

Modifying the former classification by Austin, Searle (1976) categorized the speech acts into five groups that represent their functions.

1. Directive: It is concerned with the act of convincing or realizing an aim.
E.g. Requesting, inviting and advising exemplifies it.

2. Commissive: It is uttered to state aims and future plans. E.g. Vowing and promising
3. Expressive: Utterances serve for conveying feelings. Apologizing is one of them.
4. Declaration: Utterances that refers to a change of state. E.g. marrying...
5. Representative: Utterances that are used to propose something or putword ideas. E.g. insist, suggest.

In realizing these speech acts, speakers do not necessarily perform the actions that literal meaning suggests. Social and contextual features of the speech situation is influential in interpreting the hidden meanings beyond the literal meanings of the utterances. Searle (1975) argued that direct speech acts and indirect speech acts differ in terms of the purposes of speakers. In relation to direct speech acts, there is a correspondence between the literal meaning of the utterance and intended meaning of the speakers. For indirect speech acts, it is not possible to talk about a match between the actual utterance and intended meaning. Therefore, certain social and cultural issues shape the choices of the speakers to exploit correct strategies when using indirect speech acts (Holtgraves, 1986).

Blum-Kulka & Olshtain (1984) explore the strategies of direct, indirect, conventionally indirect making request and apologizing to discover common patterns and differences in performing speech acts with the project of Cross-cultural Speech Act (CCSARP). They categorized speech act performances of apologies and requests by native speakers in 8 different languages using a coding manual according to their directness level. They, then, analyzed the strategies used in different languages. Contextual factors such as power and social distance between the interlocutors, and the degree of imposition involved are the determining factors for analyzing the directness level of the utterances (Brown & Levinson, 1978; Thomas, 1995). Appropriate use of direct and indirectness strategies in performing speech acts differ across languages. The study by Blum-Kulka & Olshtain (1984) is prominent as it informs the research in interlanguage and cross-cultural pragmatics in terms of identifying common patterns in the use of directness and indirectness strategies across various languages.

In order to understand the strategies for sounding direct or indirect, the notion of face work by Goffman (1955) will be enlightening. Notion of face work (Goffman, 1955) lies at the heart of appropriate command of indirect speech acts. Face means the “public self-image a person assumes in a social encounter” (Holtgraves, 1986, p. 306). Face-threatening situations prevent people from maintaining their self-image, in other words, causes to lose their face. Communicative actions of people are driven by the motivation to eliminate any face-threatening situation (Brown,1970). Brown and Levinson (1987) elaborate on the notion of face management and proposed two types of face.

Positive Face: It refers to the emotional needs of people to be approved, appreciated and accepted.

Negative Face: It refers to the avoiding imposition and restriction to maintain personal space and personal rights.

Respecting positive and negative face in any interaction might require appropriate use of indirect speech acts (Holtgraves, 1986). Making direct requests can violate the negative face of the interlocutors in some cases as interlocutor might perceive it as an imposition. Blum-Kulka & Olsthain (1984) suggested that speakers use supportive moves to decrease the face-threatening forces of the requests. These supportive moves can in the form of downgraders and mitigators that will be discussed in the framework of Politeness Theory (1987) in the next section.

In sum, Speech Act Theory by Austin (1975) constitutes the base of other theories to explain the nature of communication. Importance of social and cultural features of context in constructing meaning and interpreting these cues in communication is explained by the notions of illocutionary, perlocutionary and locutionary acts. In line with this notion by Austin (1975), Searle (1975) put forward the idea of directness and indirectness of speech acts and classified speech acts in more clear categories. Face management by Goffman (1957) also illuminates the intricacies of communicative acts. Next section continues with the politeness theory to shed light on the determining factors in performing speech acts.

Politeness Theory

Brown and Levinson (1987) introduced the Politeness theory in their book titled "Politeness Some Universals in Language Usage". Brown & Levinson (1987) described a model person having 'face' and 'rationality'. Rationality refers to "capability of means-end reasoning" (Bou-Franch & Garcés Conejos, 2003, p. 4) and Face is concerned the public image of a person. People fulfill face needs through approval (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Each individual possess rationality and face that they are universal endowments. Brown and Levinson claimed that people engage in face-work in each interaction through losing or enhancing it (1987). Maintaining and enhancing each other's face is the desired action expected by all the parties in a communication. In other words, interlocutors are expected to satisfy face wants of each other's. Brown and Levinson (ibid.) explained the face-wants through presenting negative and positive faces.

The Model Person presented by Brown & Levinson (1987) possesses 'negative face' and 'positive face'. Negative face refers to the desire of every individual to avoid imposition. Namely, interlocutors wish "his[her] actions be unimpeded by others" (Bou Franch & Garcés Conejos, 2003, p. 4). Positive face is concerned with the desire of every individual to feel that their actions are justified and it refers to the feeling of acceptance (1987). In Communication, learners engage in face management task trying to maintain face of each other's. Face management is achieved when the interlocutors protect and maintain the face of their own and others' to avoid any face-threatening situation (Brown & Levinson,1987).

Communicative acts can cause the interlocutors to lose face. The threat of losing face constitutes what Brown and Levinson (1987) call as face-threatening acts. Speech acts have the potential to cause imposition and threaten both negative and positive face of the speakers. Learners should opt for politeness strategies such as indirectness to make sure not to commit a face-threatening act. Speakers can minimize the level of imposition using some indirect expressions.

Brown and Levinson 1987 (ibid.) noted that three important sociological variables are primarily important in relation to avoidance of losing face. Interlocutors choose to use specific face keeping strategies according to the requirements of situations depending on the variables of the Power, Social Distance and Ranking of

Imposition. 'Power' the degree of the imposition interlocutors has; whereas 'social distance' refers to the degree of familiarity and closeness between interlocutors. 'Ranking of Imposition' is the severity of a situation that determines the rights and obligations of the interlocutors to perform a communicative act.(Bou-Franch & Garcés Conejos, 2003). If ranking of imposition is high in a situation, it threatens the negative face of the other interlocutor and the speaker might need to minimize the imposition with the use of indirectness strategies. In relation to the asymmetrical relationship between interlocutors in terms of power and social distance protecting face involves a higher degree of indirectness and politeness. Strategies to eliminate losing face that require indirectness and others are grouped into five.

Interlocutors exhibit one of the four different types of action in performing face-threatening act or they avoid any face threatening act. Categorization of possible acts by Brown and Levinson (1987, p. 60) is as following. In order to protect the face of the interlocutor, speakers commit to redressive action that take the form of negative or positive politeness.

1. Do the FTA without redressive action: baldly on record.
2. Do the FTA with redressive action: positive politeness.
3. Do the FTA with redressive action: negative politeness.
4. Do the FTA off record.
5. Do not do the FTA.

Speakers tend to do redressive action when the sociological variables involve an asymmetrical relationship between two parties. They can employ negative politeness strategies to respect the right to be free from imposition. Positive politeness occurs when the interlocutors respect mutual interest of the parties and create solidarity. In making requests, mitigators and supportive moves will be effective in achieving indirectness to do redressive action. Blum-Kulka & Olshtain (1984) considers that politeness strategies are universal and (in)directness strategies determine the politeness of expressions. They explore the speech act realizations of native speakers and non-native speakers to discover the cross-cultural and individual differences in request and apologizing strategies in various

languages. Based on the results of this study, they revealed that in the use of requests, politeness exhibit a universal pattern that lie along continuum of directness of the strategies used in producing requests.

Directness of the strategies can be examined on three levels. First is the most direct level of speech act; imperatives or performatives. Second is the level of conventionally indirect strategies and, third level, non-conventionally indirect strategies. In English, learners use conventionally indirect strategies to soften the face-threatening nature of requests. Blum-Kulka & Olshtain (ibid.) offers a request realization pattern that is composed of following components.

Jone / May I borrow your bicycle / Mine was broken.

First part is address term, the second part is head act, and the third part is the adjunct to head act. Learners have a rich range of strategies available in English to minimize the imposition of the request and mitigate the expressions to soften the speech acts in the form of internal and external modifiers. Internal modifiers are achieved through modifying head act with the use of syntactic downgraders and lexical downgraders. External modifiers are supportive moves and can be used along with the Head Acts as adjunct to Head Acts.

1.Syntactic Downgraders

Interrogative:	Could you do the laundry?
Negation:	I wonder if you <u>wouldn't mind</u> fetching my daughter from school?
Past tense:	I <u>wanted</u> to ask for a favor.
Embedded "if clause":	I would be grateful <u>if</u> you do not tell anything to anybody.

2.Other Downgraders

Consultative Devices:	<u>Do you think</u> I could borrow your bicycle for the weekend?
Understaters:	Could you be a <u>bit</u> quieter?

Hedges: It will be great if you did something about the living room.

Downtoners: Will you be able to maybe help me do my laundry.

3. Adjuncts to Head Act

Checking on Availability: Are you going to come to the party tonight? If so, can we go together?

Getting a Pre-commitment: May I ask you for a favor? Is possible for you to do my make-up for the prom-night?

Grounder: I was sick last week and could not do my homework. Is it okey if I bring it next week?

Sweetener: You have a great accent. Could you join me showing the English guests around?

Disarmer: Excuse me, I hope you do not think that I sound too insistent, may I ask you to fill out the test in lunch break?

Cost Minimizer: I hope I do not interrupt but could you lend me your pen If you gave a break and do not use the pen? I lost mine and I have to write a petition.

Blum-Kulka & Olshtain (1984) used the term downgraders to refer to modifiers. They classified downgraders into three broad categories of syntactic downgraders, adjuncts head act and other downgraders. Other downgraders refers to lexical downgraders and clausal downgraders. Syntactic downgraders and other downgraders are internal modifiers. Adjuncts to head acts are external modifier strategies. They are supportives that are used alongside the request head acts. Takashi (1996) and Faerch & Kasper (1989) offered a simpler categorization of internal downgraders. Takashi (1996) and Faerch & Kasper (1989) also offered a categorization of internal modifiers that focused on syntactic modifiers, clausal and lexical modifiers. This categorization is as the following.

1. Syntactic Downgraders

Continuous Aspect: I am wondering if you could give me your notes?

Tense: I was wondering if you could give me your notes?

2. Lexical and Clausal Downgraders

Downtoner: I would appreciate if you *possibly* give me your notes.

Mitigated-preparatory questions: Would it be possible to give me your notes?

Mitigated-preparatory statements: I wonder if you could give me your notes.

Mitigated-want statements: I would appreciate if you give me your notes.

Takashi (1996) focused on “embedded if clause” in identifying the categories. Whereas Blum-Kulka & Olshtain (1984) presented a broader array of syntactic downgraders. They introduced “embedded if clause” under a separate category instead of merging it into other categories. In analyzing speech act patterns by non-native speakers both classifications might be fruitful depending on the purpose of the study. In current study, identification of the strategies is based on the three broad categories offered by Blum-Kulka & Olshtain (*ibid.*). Nevertheless, ‘if clause’ structures were analyzed based on the categorization offered by Takashi (1996) and Faerch & Kasper (1989) for in depth analysis of the data.

Along with the speech of request, Blum-Kulka & Olshtain (1984) analyze the apologizing strategies used by native and non-native speakers of different languages. Speakers apologize either using a direct expression which is Illocutionary Force Indicating Device (IFID), namely a formulaic expression. In the form of a performative verb, the speakers use, (be) sorry; apologize, regret; excuse, etc.). They may seek to sound more regretful by employing other accompanying apologizing strategies; these are intensifiers, an explanation or account of the cause which brought about the offence, an expression of the speaker’s responsibility for the offence, an offer of repair, a promise of forbearance (Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984, p. 206).

Interlocutors use one of the apologizing strategies such as promise of forbearance, offer of repair or acknowledgement of responsibility to intensify the apology in a situation in case there is an imbalance between interlocutors in terms of power relations and social distance (Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984).

In order to reflect the actual patterns in the realization of the speech acts of requests and apologies, researchers especially emphasized the importance of empirical studies such the one conducted by (Blum-Kulka & Olshtain,1984). Empirical studies provide a base for stakeholder in language education to design materials, and a benchmark to test language competences.

In conclusion, some pragmatic features of the speech acts play a significant part in producing situationally, and contextually correct utterances. Formality – informality, power and distance conditions altogether combine to determine appropriateness of a speech act. Protecting and maintaining face entails taking into consideration the abovementioned sociological variables to contribute to the success of a communication.

Communicative Competence

Communicative teaching methods started to dominate the field of second language teaching in 1980s. The realization that language competence does not equals to linguistic competence gave way to introduction of communicative competence models. Researchers directed their attention to linguistics to define and identify the elements of communicative competence. The theory of communicative competence by Canale & Swain (1980) can be cited as the basic source for a wide range of educational contexts in curriculum design and teaching methodology (Alptekin, 2002). Pragmatic competence emerged as an integral part of communicative competence (Bachman, 1990). It is crucial to review the evolution of communicative competence to elaborate on the relation of pragmatics and communicative competence.

Chomsky (1972) conceptualized a language competence model that is composed mainly of linguistic competence. He did not give any consideration to social and cultural aspects of the language. Yet, Savignon (1972) proposed an objection to the conceptualization of language competence model that excludes the socio-cultural factors. He asserted that language mastery not only involves knowledge of grammatical rules but also application of the rules in various socio-cultural contexts. Dell Hymes (1972) was the first to term communicative competence to integrate social and cultural aspects to a language competence model. Hymes (1972) introduced the notion of “competence of use” that is the

capability to analyze contextual cues and act accordingly. His view of communicative competence encompasses both linguistic and sociolinguistic aspects of language.

After the introduction of communicative competence by Dell Hymes (1972), Canale & Swain (1980) identified the main elements of communicative competence. They classified it as sociolinguistic competence, strategic competence, grammatical competence and discourse competence. Grammatical competence encompasses linguistic knowledge of phonology, syntax, semantics, morphology of and learners employed their grammatical competence to analyze the literal meanings of the utterances. Discourse competence is concerned with linking words and sentences coherently. Sociolinguistic competence is in parallel with Hymes's (1972) idea of appropriateness of language. It refers to communicating the message effectively in various sociocultural contexts. Strategic competence is about the ability to maintain conversation in the face of communication breakdowns using various strategies such as fillers.

Bachman (1990) presents a language competence model that includes pragmatic competence as one of the basic constituents and organizational knowledge, pragmatic knowledge and sociolinguistic knowledge constituted primary components. Later, Bachman & Palmer (1996) revised the communicative competence model of Bachman (1990) and added strategic competence to present a more comprehensive model. Bachman & Palmer (1996) formed two categories as language knowledge and strategic competence. Organizational knowledge as being a basic component of language knowledge refers to grammatical knowledge and textual knowledge. Grammatical knowledge is similar to grammatical competence and textual knowledge is similar to discourse competence of Canale & Swain (1980). They refer to creating coherent written texts and managing and controlling conversational turns.

Pragmatic knowledge is another component of Language Knowledge and it is classified into two categories of knowledge which are functional knowledge and sociolinguistic knowledge (Bachman & Palmer, 1996). Functional knowledge reflects the illocutionary competence of the learners in interpreting intended meaning and literary meaning and expressing and exchanging ideas and information. Sociolinguistic knowledge is the knowledge of register, language

variation, dialects, and entails interpreting cultural references effectively and producing culturally and contextually appropriate utterances.

Strategic competence encompasses metacognitive strategies that are activated in conducting a communicative task (Bachman & Palmer, 1996). These strategies are related to three phases that a learner deals with: goal setting, assessment and planning. In goal setting phase, learners assess and decided how to deal with the test. As these competence models are created in order to operationalize more concrete and detailed categories for language testing, all the competence types are offered in relation to communicative tests that include communicative tasks. In second phase, assessment phase, learners monitor their own performance during the task and finally in planning phase, learners utilize their relevant knowledge areas to achieve the task.

Celce-Murcia & Dörnyei & Thurrell (1995) offer a new understanding of the communicative competence. They emphasize the interrelation between the language competences. Other researchers (Martinez-Flor & Uso-Juan, 2006, Ishihara & Cohen, 2010; Schmigdall, 2015), similarly to Celce-Murcia et al (1995), in the conceptualization of their communicative competence model, they also state that language competences interact with each other. Celce-Murcia (ibid.) consider discourse competence as the primary skill that shape and affect the improvement of other competences of linguistic competence, actional competence, sociolinguistic competence and discourse competence. They operationalized the definition of communicative competence based on the model of Canale & Swain (1980). They added a new component to the model which is actional competence. Actional competence refers to ability to interpret and produce speech act appropriately. In 2008, Celce-Murcia (2008) revised the model and classified the communicative competence into categories of sociocultural competence, discourse competence, interactional competence, formulaic competence, interactional competence and strategic competence.

Celce-Murcia (ibid.) replaced Socioculinguistic competence with Socioculinguistic competence. It reflects the pragmatic knowledge that is composed of the awareness of linguistic and lexical variation according to context. Discourse competence refers to the ability to produce coherent sentences in a conversation or in written text. Discourse competence includes organizational knowledge and

knowledge of genres such as narratives, interviews or lecture. It is the competence to segment these appropriately to create and interpret meaning. Linguistic competence is what Canale & Swain (1980) called grammatical competence. It encompassed phonological, morphological and syntactic knowledge. Formulaic competence refers to the knowledge of daily phrases and competence of using “chunks of language” that are idioms, routine formulas and collocations. Celce-Murcia (2008) added interactional competence to his previous conceptualization of communicative competence to emphasize the role of turn-taking in shaping interaction.

Celce-Murcia (2008) subsumed actional competence and conversational competence under interactional competence. Actional competence is concerned with the ability to use speech acts in different interactional contexts such as in information exchanges, opinion exchanges and expressing emotions. Conversational competence embraces the knowledge of turn taking and conversation management to achieve the tasks of opening and closing a conversation, interrupting, and changing topics, back channeling. Strategic competence is related to learning strategies and communicative strategies.

Celce-Murcia (2008) also elaborated on the cognitive strategies of language learning to deal with the learning materials through use of some technics and analyze knowledge. Different from the strategic competence by Canale & Swain (1980), Celce-Murcia (2008) drew on the language learning strategies model by Oxford (1990). Metacognitive strategies of monitoring and planning of the learning process and use of memory-related strategies to facilitate the vocabulary retrieval constituted the main pillars of learning strategies offered by Celce-Murcia (2008). Language using strategies are similar to the strategies by Canale & Swain (1980) and it is concerned with the use of fillers, asking for clarification to compensate communication breakdowns.

Maldina (2015) notes that Common European Framework (2001) also put forward a communicative competence model that includes pragmatic competence as an integral part. It is striking to recognize the pragmatic competence as a component of communicative competence in CEFR, as it is a reference document for defining objectives, curricula and syllabus. This implies that pragmatic competence would be more apparent in syllabus design, thus guide the assessment

in countries that follow the principles of CEFR. Main components of communicative competence is as follows.

Linguistic Competence: CEFR (2001, p. 109) defines it “as knowledge of, and ability to use, the formal resources from which well-formed, meaningful messages may be assembled and formulated”. Linguistic competence is the “ability to and knowledge to use all of the components of linguistics” that are lexicology, grammar, semantics, phonology, orthography and orthoepic.

Pragmatic Competence: CEFR (2001, p. 123) divides pragmatic competence in three parts: discourse competence, functional competence and design competence. Discourse competence is of relevance to creating coherent sentences that are linked appropriately in terms of topic, cause and effect and register. Functional competence refers to using macro and micro functions of expressing emotions and dealing with narration and explanation in spoken discourse and written language effectively. Design competence refers to ability to “sequence utterances according to interactional and transactional schemata”.

Sociolinguistic Competence: According to CEFR (2001), it constitutes the social interface of the language. It is composed of the knowledge of and skills to use the following elements of sociolinguistic competence that are linguistic markers of social relations; politeness conventions, expressions of folk-wisdom, register differences, dialect and accent.

Pragmatic Competence

LoCastro (2003) articulates that pragmatics is “the study of speaker and hearer meaning created in their joint actions that include both linguistic and non-linguistic signals in the context of socio-culturally organized activities” (2003, p. 15). The definition recognizes the significance of sociocultural context in constructing and interpreting meaning. Taguchi (2015) also emphasizes the importance of sociocultural knowledge of social norms and conventions as well as linguistic knowledge in communication. Taguchi (2015, p. 1) defines pragmatic competence as “ability to deal with a complex interplay of language, language users, and context of interaction”. Pragmatic competence as a subfield of communicative competence first appeared in the communicative competence model by Bachman (1990). Later,

researchers offered a number of definitions to identify a pragmatically competent speaker.

Bachman (1990) classifies language competence into three broad categories of organizational knowledge, pragmatic knowledge and sociolinguistic knowledge. The definition of language competence by Bachman (1990) signifies the role of pragmatic knowledge or pragmatic competence in identifying a successful language speaker. Pragmatic knowledge is dealt under two subfields of functional and sociolinguistic knowledge. Functional knowledge is mainly the ability to interpret and create the illocutionary meanings of the utterances. It entails the knowledge of context and social norms to infer the illocutionary meanings.

Bachman (1990) refers to functional knowledge like the illocutionary competence and later Bachman and Palmer (1996) gave the essence of the functional knowledge with the following definition. To them, functional knowledge is the ability to draw inferences on the meanings of smallest to the largest units of language based on the relationship between each other. In other words, it refers to making meaning in accordance with connection between the communicative acts of words, sentences, utterances and underlying intentions of the speakers (Bachman and Palmer, 1996). Furthermore, functional knowledge enables people to use language functions of making requests, suggestions, greetings and controlling actions effectively. Sociolinguistic knowledge on the other hand is concerned with the knowledge of setting and cultural conventions to use and understand registers, dialects, figures of speech, natural or idiomatic expressions, cultural references without any difficulty. Obviously, communicative abilities are subsumed under the pragmatic knowledge according to the language competence model by Bachman and Palmer (1996).

Ishihara & Cohen (2010) also underscores the ability to interpret and create meaning appropriately as a salient feature of pragmatic ability in his definition. He emphasizes possible differences between implied meaning, intended meaning and propositional meaning that can lead to cross-cultural misunderstandings. He thinks, pragmatic ability refers to the ability to discern hidden or intended meaning from literal meaning and being able to understand all kinds of messages utterances or written texts intend to convey (Ishihara & Cohen, 2010, p. 5).

Ishihara & Cohen (2010) argues that pragmatic ability has multiple dimensions that are related to both receptive and productive skills. Indeed, pragmatic ability operates on both receptive skills of listening and reading and on productive skills of writing and speaking. Communication involves using various means that involve reading skills and listening skills as well as speaking and writing skills. As listeners, it is the ability to interpret the tone of voice, gestures, length of the responses. It is understanding the tone of the text (e.g. humorous, sincere) as readers. As speakers, it is using appropriate level of politeness, directness, formality in expressing emotions or exchanging information according to the social and contextual variables. It is the competence to convey the message effectively by considering the appropriate level of formality, politeness, directness as writers.

Ishihara & Cohen (ibid.) also emphasizes that speech acts as an important research area of pragmatics, is at the center of his conceptualization of pragmatic competence. They concentrate on differences in inferring and conveying intended and propositional meaning and they explain their point of view in the framework of speech acts. Achieving social functions involves use of the speech acts and interpretation of the illocutionary, locutionary and propositional meaning in producing speech acts involve pragmatic competence.

Although pragmatics has a broad realm as a concept, Ishihara & Cohen (2010) like Taguchi (2006) and Celce-Murcia (2008) focus on speech acts to define a pragmatically competent speaker. They dedicated a volume to illuminate how pragmatic competence operates in producing speech acts. Taguchi (2006) considers that a good command of speech acts lies at the heart of pragmatic competence. Ishihara & Cohen (2010, p. 11) like Taguchi (2006), also focus on speech act production of learners to evaluate pragmatic performance. They view appropriate pragmatic production as an indicator of pragmatic competence. Drawing on the politeness theory of Brown & Levinson (1987), they posited that Social Distance, Social Power and Size of Imposition are the criteria that determine the use of linguistic strategies of directness and politeness. They also added effective discourse control as a defining feature of a successful pragmatic production.

Celce-Murcia & Dörnyei & Thurrell (1995) other SLA researchers who deemed appropriate use of speech act as an important aspect of communicative competence. Their conceptualization of communicative competence derives partly

from the Canale & Swain's (1980) classification. They modified it to add two components: sociocultural and actional competence. Language skills that Ishihara & Cohen (ibid.) subsumed under the pragmatic competence, emerged as the components of sociolinguistic competence in communicative competence model offered by Celce-Murcia et al (1995). Actional competence is related to the appropriate use of the speech acts. Sociocultural competence refers to sounding pragmatically appropriate in terms of the match between the social and contextual features of the setting and use of linguistic strategies to sound (in)direct and polite. Celce-Murcia et al (1995) maintain that sociocultural competence reflects pragmatic knowledge and it entails performing pragmatic elements taking into account the sociocultural factors and stylistic appropriateness. Sociocultural context is related to social variables of power, social position, social distance, age, and gender of the interlocutors. Stylistic appropriateness is the politeness strategies and knowledge of register, cultural factors, and dialects.

Laughlin et al. (2015) pose a different stance in defining pragmatic competence in terms of exploring it from various aspects. They revisited the communicative competence models from Hymes to Bachman & Palmer (1996). They elaborated on the relationship between linguistic knowledge and knowledge of context and sociocultural norms in conceptualization of pragmatic competence. This was an attempt to identify relative roles of contextual knowledge and linguistic knowledge in definitions of pragmatic competence to reveal changes in notion of pragmatic competence. They consider proposed a novel understanding of pragmatic competence that sociocultural knowledge and context knowledge were of paramount importance. Due to the significance of sociocultural aspects in encoding and decoding meaning in intercultural environments, knowledge of context grew in importance in the models presented by Bachman & Palmer, 1996; Celce-Murcia, 1995, Martinez-Flor & Uso-Juan, 2006; Timpe, 2012.

Prior to offering their own definition, Laughlin & Wain & Schmidgall (2015) echoed the concerns of past researchers (Stalker,1989; Eslami-Rasekh, 2005) about the lack of a consensus on the definition of pragmatic competence. To operationalize a clear-cut definition of pragmatic competence, Laughlin & Wain & Schmidgall (2015) explore different aspects of pragmatics. Leech's (1983) classification of pragmatics into pragma-linguistics and socio-pragmatics inform

their construct of pragmatic competence. Pragma-linguistics refers to the linguistic resources that are used to realize pragmatic aims of sounding direct, indirect or expressing illocutions. Leech (1983) termed Socio-pragmatics in order to refer to cultural and social conventions used by speakers of a language such as taboos. Cultural and social conventions is of significance as it determines the mutual rights, obligations and acceptable and expected types of behaviors in a speech community (Roever, 2006).

Researchers (Blum-Kulka et al 1989; Lauglin & Wain & Schmidgall, 2015) claimed that pragmatic competence requires the knowledge of both pragma-linguistics and socio-pragmatics. Moreover, to present pragmatic competence in a comprehensive framework, Lauglin et al (2015) reviewed the L2 pragmatics literature and proposed three principles of pragmatic competence. Pragmatic competence underpins the interplay of meaning, context and interactive co-construction of meaning. Meaning principle refers to the paramount importance of decoding and decoding speaker intention. Context principle stresses that contextual factors such as social roles of interlocutors relative to each other, setting, age and gender of the speakers all shape the interaction. Co-construction principle is at the heart of pragmatic production as meaning is negotiated and created in an interactive manner. It can be inferred that performing pragmatically well depends on understanding the interplay between the meaning, context and interactive meaning making processes.

Taguchi (2015) also emphasized the multifaceted nature of producing pragmatically correct utterances. She asserted that pragmatic knowledge is required for comprehension and production of speech intentions, which encompasses a wide range of properties, including: “linguistic knowledge, functional knowledge (form-meaning associations), knowledge of discourse (i.e., coherence and cohesions), sociocultural knowledge (e.g., notions of politeness and norms of interaction) and knowledge of linguistic and social conventions”. (Taguchi, 2015, p. 242) That is, all of the elements of language competences cooperate to ensure the appropriateness of the pragmatic performance.

In sum, emergence of the pragmatic competence as a primary feature of communicative competence is to a great extent is related to the popularity of the communicative language teaching methodologies (Kasper & Rose,2002). Basically,

pragmatic competence is the use of language appropriately in accordance with the social and contextual factors. Appropriacy is concerned with the correct choice of register, speech style and choosing correct linguistic strategies to deal with the issues of directness, politeness and formality effectively. In light of the all of the explanations of all the constructs that inform pragmatic competence, next section will highlight the issues in L2 pragmatics.

Pragmatics and language teaching. There has been an upsurge of interest into pragmatics in Second Language Teaching Research communities (Ishihara & Cohen, 2010). Due to the realization that language competence requires pragmatic abilities as well as the mastery of structural properties of language such as grammar (Bachman, 1990; Bachman & Palmer 1996; Canale & Swain, 1980). Language acquisition research has seen a shift of emphasis (Taguchi, 2006; Brock & Nagasaka, 2005). Pragmatic abilities emerged as an indispensable part of the language competence in latest communicative competence models. (Bialystok, 1993; Bachman-Palmer, 1996, Celce-Murcia, 2007). Therefore, researchers in interlanguage pragmatics research delve into the pragmatic productions of non-native speakers, especially speech acts (Bardovi-Harlig, 2013; Kasper & Rose, 1999) and acquisition of pragmatic features such as conversational management, discourse control, and address terms (Kasper & Dahl, 1991). Testing appropriacy of the performances in the use of speech acts merited a great attention by the SLA researchers. Testing speech acts might be considered as an effective way to assess pragmatic competence as producing speech acts requires operating on the sociocultural and functional knowledge and it reflects the pragmatic proficiency of the learners.

There are numerous studies that explore use of strategies in performing speech acts and other pragmatic elements by non-native speakers (Cohen & Olshtain, 1981; Cohen & Ishihara, 2005; Faerch & Kasper, 1989; Hartford-Harlig, 1992; Lin, 2009; Yates & Wigglesworth, 2005). Studies report that non-native speakers diverge from native speaker in various ways (Bardovi-Harlig, 1996). It is seen that addressing indirect requests is a challenging task for learners (Fukushima, 1996; Lin, 2009).

In this vein, Yates & Wigglesworth (2005) examine the negotiation of requests in a workplace by native speakers and non-native speakers to delineate the

differences in terms of the choice of different semantic formulas and mitigating strategies. The study revealed that non-native speakers did not have an effective control of the linguistic and lexical means to use indirect request and mitigate the imposition in their requests. Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford (1993) compared the use of suggestions and rejections in academic sessions and non-native speakers mitigated the suggestions less often than native speakers and gave less detailed explanations in refusals.

It is striking that learners with high linguistic competence do not perform pragmatic elements at an expected level (Thomas,1983; Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford,1993; Dörnyei & Thurrell, 1995; Alagözlü & Büyüköztürk, 2009). It shows that not all learners with high grammatical proficiency in comparison to native speakers display a homogenous high performance in pragmatic elements (Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford,1993). Dörnyei & Bardovi-Harlig's (1998) research reveal that even high proficiency learners do not exhibit expected level of proficiency in pragmatic awareness and grammatical awareness tests. Whereas some of the learners noticed the pragmatic errors in tests more easily and identified the pragmatic errors, other learners had difficulty in detecting pragmatic inappropriacy in sentences. This finding supports the belief that pragmatic competence was independent of grammatical competence. Descriptive studies in interlanguage research yielded significant insights for second language acquisition research as it "provides a needs-assessment for pragmatics and language teaching" (Bardovi-Harlig, 1996, p. 21). As a result of a substantial body of research, scholars reached a consensus that pragmatics is a challenging area for language learners.

Researchers consider the transfer of L1 pragmatic knowledge, lack of authentic input, and intricacies of socio-pragmatic and pragma-linguistic aspects of functional language use were the primary sources of the divergence from the L2 pragmatic norms and poor pragmatic competence (Boxer & Pickering,1995; Ishihara & Cohen,2010). It is challenging for adult L2 learners to grasp and perform the pragmatic elements as they have an established L1 pragmatic system (Bialystok,1993; Kasper & Rose,2002; Taguchi,2018).

Pragmatics extends beyond just focusing on grammar structures. It is necessary for learners to master the dynamics of context, function, form and meaning as there are numerous possibilities in realizing a pragmatic function. With

regard to the problematic areas in pragmatic production, use of the speech acts pose a challenge for learners as “there are interlanguage, intralanguage” (Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984, pg 209) and individual differences in using speech acts.

Harlow (1990) notes that as use of speech acts is concerned with appropriateness of utterance in relation to sociocultural context, learners must mobilize linguistic resources along with sociocultural knowledge to interpret intentions of speakers. However, it is not easy for learners to infer the indirect meanings and understand how to achieve politeness (Wolfson, 1989). As well as the challenges posed by the sophisticated nature of sociocultural aspects of pragmatic production, pragma-linguistic dimensions of speech acts also create difficulties for learners to exploit linguistic strategies in uttering speech acts (Bardovi-Harlig & Dörnyei, 1998). It might be especially hard for learners to produce indirect requests and minimize the imposition and soften the expressions (Karatepe, 2001). These tasks are “conventionalized” and they demand pragma-linguistic knowledge as well as grammatical knowledge (Butler & Channel, 1989; Laughlin & Wain & Schmigdall, 2015; Taguchi, 2018).

In addition to the challenging task of mastering the relationship between, form, context, meaning mappings, learners face the problem of being exposed to a narrow range of pragmatic use of language in classroom environment (Bardovi-Harlig, 1996). Additionally, pragmatic development takes place slowly relative to other language competencies, even in naturalistic settings (Taguchi, 2011; Kasper & Rose, 2002). In order to cater to the low pragmatic performance stemmed from reasons stated above, learners resort to their L1 pragmatic knowledge (Thomas, 1983). Yet, it can cause pragmatic failure, and even more seriously creates a negative public image (Thomas, 1983). Pragmatic failure result in greater damage than grammatical mistakes would do (e.g. the speakers might sound rude). In this respect, Rintell-Mitchell (1989) makes it clear that inappropriate use of pragmatic elements causes a profound trouble for learners compared to grammar mistakes. He is of on the opinion that none of the grammatical mistakes leads to a bigger misunderstanding that pragmatic failure would (Rintell-Mitchell, 1989).

Kasper & Schmidt (1996) sought to explore the factors affecting pragmatic development to account for the low pragmatic performance of the learners. They along with other researchers (Kasper & Rose, 1999; Cohen & Olshtain, 1993) voiced

their concern regarding the scarcity of studies with a developmental focus on interlanguage pragmatics. They discussed the issues affecting acquisition of pragmatic elements that are similar to the discussions in SLA research, and the discussion on the link between motivation types and pragmatic acquisition might provide significant insight for future research. Kasper & Schmidt (1996) formulated that among various motivation types, assimilative motivation, that is the desire of becoming a member of the target speech community through adopting all cultural and social norms, might positively affect pragmatic development. Learners with assimilative motivation might more possibly created practice opportunities and experiment with pragmatic knowledge through observing native speakers, collecting information and monitoring their performance.

Research on acquisitional pragmatics and developmental pragmatics provided researchers with a framework for the discussion of intervention in interlanguage pragmatics (Bardovi-Harlig,2001; Bardovi-Harlig,2010b; Bardovi-Harlig & Dörnyei,1998; Bardovi-Harlig-Hartford, 1993). Necessity of instruction started to be discussed as developmental pragmatics revealed problematic areas in performing pragmatic elements (Bardovi-Harlig, 2013; Ishihara & Cohen,2010). Hence, teachability of pragmatics came into focus in interlanguage pragmatics. In time, issue of teachability of pragmatics instigated researchers to explore the effects of instruction and compare intervention with exposure in acquisition of pragmatic norms (Taguchi, 2018). Taguchi (2011) attributed this growing attention, to a large extent, to the Gabriele Kasper's opening talk at a conference in 1997 that called for research to examine the effects of different types of instruction on pragmatic competence. As a consequence of the arousal of interest into instructional pragmatics, a great amount of studies and reviews accumulated (Jeon & Kaya 2006; Roever 2006; Takahashi 2010a, 2010b; Taguchi 2011, 2015). Consequently, instructional pragmatics have become an important focus of studies in Interlanguage Pragmatics.

Instructed pragmatics. Taguchi (2011) highlighted the fact that learners are able to learn pragmatic features through different kinds of instructions as it is evidenced in past research (Wildner-Bassett, 1994; Tateyama, 2001; Kasper & Rose, 2002; Uso & Juan, 2013) and also included in reviews by (Jeon & Kaya, 2006; Taguchi, 2015). These instructional methods constitute the base of the studies in

instructional pragmatics and grounded in social and cognitive learning theories of second language acquisition (Kasper, 1997; Alcon-Soler & Martinez-Flor, 2008; Taguchi, 2011). Researchers draw on the Cognitive SLA theories of Noticing-Hypothesis (Schmidt, 1993), Input Processing Hypothesis (Vanpatten, 2012) and Skill Acquisition Theory (Anderson, 1993). Along with cognitive theories, researchers (Ohta, 1997; Hall, 2004; Shively, 2011) also based their studies on Social SLA theory of Language Socialization. Main was to construct new frameworks for explaining pragmatic development and devising teaching methodologies.

Quality of pragmatic Input in terms of authenticity and richness is at the heart of many discussions and learning theories in pragmatic intervention studies. Researchers point out the need to expose learners to pragmatically rich authentic input (Kasper, 1997; Brock & Nagasaka, 2005; Bardovi-Harlig, 2013). However, it is also claimed that classroom discourse does not represent a wide range of language functions and lack real life context features for providing authentic input for foreign language learning context (Kasper & Rose, 1999; Brock & Nagasaka, 2005; Bardovi & Harlig, 2013). As role relationships are pre-determined in classrooms, it might not be possible to represent all the sociolinguistic variables of Social Power, Social Distance and Ranking of Imposition thorough interaction between teacher and students. In relation to the shortcoming of classroom input due to lack of authenticity, Kasper & Rose (1999) examined classroom textbooks only to find out that dialogues do not reflect real-life uses of the speech acts and other pragmatic elements.

In this regard, Brock & Nagasaka (2005) and Bardovi & Harlig (2013) address the issue of lack of authentic input in classrooms by recommending the use of an array of awareness raising activities of observation of native speakers and practicing the target forms. Bou Franch & Garcés Conejos (2003) also emphasizes the significance of raising the awareness of learners using an explicit teaching approach to teaching pragmatics. As researchers illuminate, instructed pragmatics centers on the issue of raising pragmatic awareness of the students. Learners in foreign language learning context might lack authentic input and are unaware of the pragmatic differences that create cross-cultural variation in the realization of pragmatic elements, especially speech acts. Therefore, informing students about

the presence of social, cultural and linguistic nuances for sounding nice and well-mannered is of great importance for foreign language learners.

Researchers situated their studies in the framework of Noticing Hypothesis by Schmidt (1993) to raise the pragmatic awareness of the students through the use of implicit and explicit teaching methods. Awareness, attention and noticing are the three important pillars of the Noticing Hypothesis (Ishiara & Cohen, 2010). Noticing Hypothesis in relation to L2 pragmatics involves paying “attention to linguistic forms, functional meanings, and the relevant contextual features” in pragmatic elements. (Schmidt, 1993, p. 18). Building on the empirical research by experimental psychology, Schmidt (1993) stated that learning necessitates conscious attention to target forms. Noticing is the “subjective experience of this attention” (Schmidt, 1993, p. 18) and noticing of specific pragmatic features of the pragmatic elements leads to understanding.

Explicit and implicit teaching methods are born out of Noticing Hypothesis. Explicit teaching methods rely on meta-pragmatic explanation to raise the awareness of the learners to target forms and ensure “noticing” of contextual and social cues. Implicit teaching methods tap into implicit learning strategies of learners using “input flood, input enhancement, consciousness-raising tasks, and implicit feedback (e.g. recasts)” (Taguchi, 2015; p.17). Explicit teaching of pragmatic features or having a direct approach to pragmatics requires explanation of the rules governing the functional use of the language and involves production activities accompanied by meta-pragmatic explanations (Bou-Franch & Garcés Conejos, 2003).

Implicit teaching involves making the target features in input salient with the use of some activities (Kasper, 2001). These activities can take the form of input enhancement that learners receive input in bold forms or underlined in teaching materials. Input flood is another approach for implicit instruction and entails exposing learners to input through videos or written materials. Giving implicit feedback is another strategy for adopting implicit teaching approach and it entails correcting the utterances of learners using recasts or repeating the inappropriate productions of the students (Kasper, 2001). These methods all have the purpose of directing the attention of learners to pragmatic elements and expecting them to decode the pragmatic meanings. Researchers embrace implicit approach to

understand if students show any progress regarding pragmatic competence (Alcon-Soler,2007; et al,2014; Takashi,2001).

Studies in instructed pragmatics vary in accordance with their focus on comparing of implicit and explicit methods (Alcon & Soler,2007, Fordyce,2014 Ghobadi & Fahim,2009, Takashi 2001), exploring effectiveness of explicit methods or (Eslami-Rasekh & Eslami-Rasekh & Fatahi, 2004; Eslami & Eslami Rasekh, 2008; Taylor, 2002; Safont, 2004; Tan & Farasian, 2012; Nguyen, 2013) of implicit methods (Fukuya & Zhang, 2002; Sykes, 2009, 2013) over no-intervention. In implicit teaching, input alone can be presented to the students or it can be underlined through learning activities.

In order to exemplify how implicit and explicit teaching methodologies are applied in classroom environment, it is necessary to refer to past research. Ghobadi & Fahim(2009) in their study on teaching thanking formula, expose implicit groups to “anecdotes” that are about the uses of thanking formulas by native speakers. Explicit group on the other hand discuss the thanking formulas from aspects of social and cultural conventions and linguistic resources to realize communicative intentions. Results indicate that explicit group outperformed implicit group in gaining socio-pragmatic competence.

Nguyen(2013) compares effectiveness of explicit teaching versus implicit form focused instruction in teaching constructive criticism. Implicit group carried out input-enhancement activities in which they deal with texts including target features underlined and compare criticism pattern with their L1. After being exposed to the target form learners engage in communicative tasks accompanied by peer-feedback tasks. Furthermore, their mistakes in communicative tasks are corrected in the form of recasts. Explicit group performed better in in post-test compared to implicit group and control group.

Studies by Nguyen (2003) and Ghobadi & Fahim (2009) explored the effectiveness of teaching methodologies under a cognitive language acquisition framework. As Alcon & Soler (2009) put it, along with cognitive learning theories such as Noticing Hypothesis, Sociocultural learning theories also presented a framework for exploring pragmatic competence of the learners. Language socialization theory by Ochs & Schieffelin (1984) informed the developmental

studies in pragmatics. DuFon (2010) contends that studies in second language pragmatics should adopt a “holistic view” toward development of L2 pragmatics and take into account social and mental characteristics in the light of language socialization theory. It assumes that language skills improve through social interaction.

Studies by Hall (2004) illuminates how social interaction shapes the learning of pragmatic features. Hall (2004) concentrated on the meaning and knowledge construction in Spanish learning classroom through observing and analyzing turns in classroom interaction in learning “natural conversation” in Spanish. He put importance to classroom discourse in terms of the ways how teacher directs the talk and create learning opportunities for learners. Classroom observation concentrated on the four students. Two of them turned out to be allowed to initiate talk, whereas other two of them seemed to have supportive roles in interaction.

The study by Hall (2004) indicated the importance of interaction in gaining pragmatic competence. In a similar vein, the study by Ohta (1997) drawing on the Sociocultural Theory by Vygotsky and language Socialization Theory by Ochs & Schieffelin (1984) examined the relationship between social interaction and development of pragmatic competence. The study reveals that learners improve their pragmatic performance through engaging in communicative activities and going through the stages of producing the utterances with help in Zone of proximal development to stage of achieving goals of tasks without any help (Ohta, 1997). It would be worthwhile to wrap the general conclusions emerged as a result of research in instruction of pragmatic elements.

Here are the conclusions drawn from the review studies (Jeon & Kaya, 2006; Taguchi, 2011, 2012,2015; Rose 2005):

- Instruction rather than no instruction proved to be more effective.
- Explicit teaching methods are generally found to be more effective than implicit teaching methods.
- Implicit teaching methods can yield better results compared to explicit methods if there are more processing demands and activities raise the consciousness of the learners to form-context-mappings.

- Processing demands of the teaching methods either with an explicit or an implicit approach have a positive impact on raising the pragmatic awareness of the students.
- Mere exposure to the input is viewed to be insufficient for input to be intake. Some studies indicate that classroom interaction can improve the pragmatic competence of the learners as “classroom discourse offers opportunities for learning pragmatics” (Taguchi, 2011, p. 301 based on the study by Ohta, 1997).
- Acquisition of pragmatic skills is found to be related to the learner subjectivity as well as other external factors of instructional methods and teaching context. Learners’ social and cultural background, motivation and former learning experience are factors in determining their success.

Teaching pragmatics and learner autonomy. Kumaradivelu (1994) asserts that enabling learners to gain learner autonomy is essential for achieving learning targets. It entails “ helping learners learn how to learn, equipping them with the means necessary to self-direct their own learning, raising the consciousness of good language learners about the learning strategies they seem to possess intuitively, and making the strategies explicit and systematic so that they are available to improve the language learning abilities of other learners as well” (Kumaradivelu, 1994, p. 39-40). This definition underlines the significance of learner initiation in planning and organizing learning activities and employing language learning strategies.

In this vein, Bardovi-Harlig (1996) articulates that with the increasing importance of learner-centered teaching approaches in second language teaching, providing learners with the tools to build further knowledge on existing knowledge might prove to be fruitful in developing pragmatic competence. Raising the pragmatic awareness of students will be the first step to enhance learner involvement. Awareness raising is concerned with informing them about the existence of cross-cultural differences in the use of pragmatic elements. It will create a solid ground for learners to explore the pragmatic features themselves. Thus, learners will be more independent and autonomous.

Teachers touch upon the pragmatic elements to offer learners the opportunity to master the pragmatic elements to approximate to the native-speaker norms. In the same vein, Bardovi-Harlig (ibid.) formulate a learner model according to which the students discover the knowledge, create and test hypothesis to gain pragmatic knowledge rather than to confine themselves to classroom input. In this conception of classroom environment, problems stemming from the inauthenticity of classroom input and presentation of very narrow range of pragmatic elements seem to be eliminated to a great extent.

Similarly, some researchers in pragmatics field (Shively, 2011; Taguchi, 2015; Cohen, 2005) emphasize the role of learner autonomy in gaining pragmatic skills. They discuss the learner autonomy and teaching pragmatics in the framework of language learning strategies. Use of strategies for learning and using pragmatic elements came to fore after the research by Cohen (1998). This research analyzed the strategies used by Japanese learners. Having realized the parallel between achievement of learning targets and use of strategies, Cohen (2005.) tests the effectiveness of use of strategies for learning and using pragmatic elements in his study in 2005. Learners benefit from strategy-based instruction as their success in performing speech acts enhance. Shively (2011) also put the learners at the center of learning process in her study through teaching them how to collect data on pragmatic elements. These studies anchor in belief that learners should have a more active role learning pragmatics as being “researchers and ethnographers” (Bardovi-Harlig, 1996) through gaining learner autonomy.

Having realized the influence of the concepts of learner autonomy and language learning strategies, Taguchi (2012), explores the effects of strategy training in enhancing learner autonomy and in turn, improving pragmatic awareness of the students. Taguchi (ibid.) builds the theoretical assumptions of his study on “learner strategies on acquisition of speech acts” by Cohen (2005, p. 289) and Oxford’s strategic self-regulation model (Oxford, 2011). Taguchi (2018) highlights the problems that instructional studies revealed in teaching pragmatics and proposed learning autonomy and strategy training as a way to overcome the difficulties of slow pragmatic development and poor pragmatic input in classroom environment. Taguchi (2012) monitors learners’ progress in producing requests and opinions with the use 12 items DCTS. She found out in qualitatively analyzing the

data that one of the participants outperformed others through focusing on pragmatic elements and using strategies for learning speech acts (Taguchi, 2015, p. 473).

Interviews done by Mitsu (Taguchi, 2012) reveals that he paid extra attention to the pragmatic aspects of requests and opinions. He raises his pragmatic awareness and created opportunities to practice his pragmatic knowledge. The strategies by Cohen (2005) provided the impetus for elaborating on the pragmatic learning of Mitsu. Taguchi (2018) associated the Mitsu's learning with an autonomous and strategic type of learning. However, Taguchi (2015) draws on the cognitive and metacognitive strategies by Oxford (2011) to present a strategy training model. The model by Taguchi (2018) and Cohen (2005) bear some resemblances. Metacognitive strategies by Oxford (2011) was applied to learning process of pragmatics by Taguchi (2018). Steps of learning of pragmatic elements was portrayed as learning strategies. Metacognitive strategies and their functions for learning pragmatic elements given in table (created by Taguchi 2018) given below.

Table 1

Metacognitive strategies and functions for learning pragmatics

Strategy	Basic function	Basic function as applied to pragmatics
Focus and plan	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pay attention to specifics and general • Set goals and plan 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Pay attention to pragmatics-related concepts and set goals in attending them
Obtain resources, arrange environment, and implement plans	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Obtain resources • Organize the learning environment and materials • Put the plan into action 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Obtain resources for observing communicative acts • Obtain opportunities for participating in communicative acts
Monitor and evaluate	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Monitor and evaluate performance and strategy use 	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Monitor and evaluate the process of performing and interpreting communicative acts

Taguchi (2018) listed the main pillars of learning process as setting learning goals, finding resources and planning of practice opportunities and doing self-assessment. Taguchi (2018) identified the stages of learning pragmatic elements as learning strategies. Likewise, Cohen (2005) created a taxonomy of strategies for learning speech acts. Presenting the model by Cohen (2005) will be insightful to understand the essence of the strategies for learning speech acts that provided the motivation for later studies. Cohen (ibid.) proposed a list of strategies that will enable learners to plan and organize learning activities, manage to use resources in accordance with specific purposes and reflect on the whole process. This taxonomy of speech acts derives on the study by (Cohen & Ishiara, 2005) in which learners learned Japanese with the use of an online curriculum devised to give strategy-training. Strategies are as following.

Determining the learning focus. Identifying the speech act to learn.

- Finding sources to collect information on the uses of speech acts by people with different social roles. Pragmatic knowledge can be obtained through “interviews, observations, and written materials” (Cohen, 2005, p. 288).
- Analyzing the information collected based on L1 cultural information to compare the patterns of use in terms of the differences how speech acts are realized differently in L1 and L2. Furthermore, paying attention and recognizing how context manifests itself in linguistic structures and contemplating on achieving appropriacy.
- Asking or observing native speakers to learn how speech acts are used according to the sociological variables of social power, social distance and rank of imposition.
- Reaching resources that include academic information on speech acts such as textbooks and websites with instructional purposes.

Along with the use of explicit strategy training, use of the online sources also assisted learners to gain learner autonomy and learn the pragmatic targets better. Chapelle in Spolsky & Hult (2008) argues that Computer Assisted Language

Learning provides immense opportunities for learners to learn autonomously. Learners obtain access to a wide range of resources and finds various platforms to practice knowledge. The study by Cohen & Ishiara (2005) illuminates the strength of online tools in leading learners to acquire pragmatic elements independently.

They created online units on a platform has both instructional content and include a taxonomy of learning strategies. Learners do not receive any in-class instruction. They carry out the online pragmatic-awareness raising, evaluation and self-reflection activities. For data collection, a DCT, a strategy inventory and reflective e-journal are used. The most gain is observed in requests among other speech acts. Data reveals that answers to e-journal helped learners to reflect on their output to evaluate their performances. Moreover, answers to strategy inventory indicate that learners heightened their pragmatic awareness and use of strategies contributed to their speech performances. In this study learners are expected discover the pragmatic uses of the language. In this regard, Cohen & Ishiara (2005) seems to have the same stance Bardovi-Harlig (1996) in terms of the learner role in learning process as they both regard learners as “researchers and ethnographers”.

Taguchi (2018) also has the same viewpoints with Cohen & Ishiara (2005) and supports his position in teaching functional use of language and learner autonomy through referencing study-abroad studies. The study by Shively (2011) is striking in terms of emphasizing and illuminating learners active roles in organizing learning activities, practicing and evaluating performance. Shively (ibid.) uses naturalistic data collected by the exchange students who learn Spanish. After a short session of training by their teachers about how to use speech act appropriately before their leave to Spain. It appears, students grasped how to analyze and interpret pragmatic use of the language. Furthermore, they are expected to keep a journal about their experience. Analysis of the authentic data collected by students via voice recorders on service encounters in Spain, and personal Journals shows that pragmatic awareness of the students enhanced.

Bardovi-Harlig (1996) summarizes all the arguments represented in above paragraphs concerning the relationship between learner autonomy, use of strategies and pragmatic competences with the following lines. Bardovi-Harlig (1996) argued that it is advisable to let learners discover the pragmatic elements with their own efforts. To them, not all the textbooks provide reliable information or

represent the real-life use of pragmatic features of language. Therefore, they stated that novel teaching techniques that prioritize active participation of learners and noticing of pragmatic elements need to be devised (Bardovi-Harlig;1996). As Bardovi-Harlig (1996) reminded us, awareness of pragmatic functions and their roles in recognizing speech acts might lead learners to explore the different uses of speech acts in different settings. In this regard, it is essential for teachers to equip students with metacognitive strategies of collecting, analyzing and producing the target forms. Thus, students will have the chance to pursue a life-long venture to learn pragmatic forms through self-discovery.

Studies on Teaching Pragmatics in the World

This section will look at the studies on teaching pragmatics in relation to different instructional methods, their effects and comparison. It is important to note that teaching of speech act stands out as the most frequently studied topic among other pragmatic elements. Speech act of Apology and Requests are explored by many language researchers in relation to different teaching methods (Alcon-Soler, 2007; Eslami et al, 2004; Eslami & Eslami-Rasekh, 2008 Smin et al, 2014; Fukuya & Zhang, 2002; Johson & deHaan, 2013; Halenko & Jones, 2011; Martinez & Flor,2008; Tan & Farashaian, 2012; Takashi, 2001). Discussion on creating novel teaching methods to teach pragmatic features grounds in argument of the teachability of pragmatic elements.

Rose (2005) revisits studies on exposure versus intervention in teaching pragmatics. Studies by Wishnoff (2000), Lyster (1994) point out that exposure alone to pragmatic features yield positive results in terms of gaining pragmatic proficiency. A progress in the performance of control groups in the uses of hedges were obvious in the study by Wishnoff (2000). Similar results are observed in the study by Lyster (1994) in the use of compliments. However, experimental groups in both studies outperformed control groups. In the same vein, there are positive effects of instruction in improving pragmatic elements of compliments and understanding implicature (Bouton, 1994; Billmyer, 1990). As Bardovi-Harlig (2001) underlines, not all pragmatic features are amenable to exposure and instruction proved more effective than mere exposure to the target forms.

Based on the positive effects of instruction, researchers obtained a solid ground to further the discussions on teachability of the pragmatic features. A new research trend emerged to devise the most effective teaching methods drawing on Second Language Acquisition theories. Noticing Hypothesis by Schmidt (1993) was the primary source for creating implicit and explicit teaching strategies. Noticing Hypothesis (Schmidt,1993) presupposes that in order a pragmatic target to be intake, learners should notice the target elements and surface structure and understand the relationship between form and context. Some studies by (Halenko & Jones,2011; Safont,2004; Nguyen,2013 Tan & Farashaian,2012) adopted an explicit teaching approach. Meta-pragmatic discussion lies at the heart of explicit teaching of pragmatics. There are numerous studies that focused on explicit teaching methodologies.

Studies by Eslami & Eslami-Rasekh (2008), Eslami-Rasekh et al. (2004), Halenko & Jones (2011), Safont (2004), Tan & Farashaian (2012) explore the effects of explicit teaching of pragmatic elements on pragmatic competence of the learners. Eslami & Eslami-Rasekh (2008) study whether learners profited from explicit teaching of requests and apologies in the form of “teacher-fronted discussion, peer work, pedagogic tasks, small-group discussion, role-plays, semi-structured interviews, introspective feedback and meta-pragmatic assessment tasks” (Eslami & Eslami-Rasekh, 2008, p. 181). This study has the priority of investigating the gains in pragmatic awareness and development of pragmatic comprehension due to the desire to explore the pragmatic comprehension of learners along with their pragmatic production. Instruments are an Error Recognition Task (ERT) that is used to measure pragmatic awareness of the learners, and Discourse Completion Test (DCT) used to test appropriacy in pragmatic production. Pre-test and Post-test results confirmed the past research in the positive effects of instruction in pragmatic production and comprehension as experimental group outperformed the control group in both ERT and DCT.

In another study that explicit teaching of speech acts is the focus, Eslami-Rasekh et al. (2004) explore whether speech acts of apology, requests and complaints are acquired effectively as a result of explanations on directness, politeness and different strategies in the use of speech acts. The study uses a pretest and posttest to measure the difference between the performances of the

control and experimental groups. In experimental group, there are teacher-led discussions, small-group discussions and explanations of uses of speech acts in different contexts. Moreover, teachers conduct activities such as role plays, pragmatically focused tasks, and giving of introspective feedback. A striking finding of the study is that although learners in the study have advanced level of English, pretest results of Multiple Choice Discourse Completion Test (MDCT) indicate that learners lacked pragma-linguistic competence. Post-test results point out that learners in treatment group benefited from input enhancement activities as well as production activities. Mere exposure to target features falls short of increasing pragmatic awareness and helping learners to grasp pragmatic elements as control group did not exhibit the same performance with the treatment group.

The study by Halenko & Jones (2011) presents significant insights on the use of explicit teaching design in teaching speech acts in Study Abroad contexts. His subjects are Chinese learners in two intact EAP classes and divided into experimental and control groups. Learners in experimental group receive 12 weeks of instruction on the socio-pragmatic and pragma-linguistic aspects of the requests. Pragmatic instruction in this study focuses on the typical request sequence of alerter, head act, use of mitigators. After 12 weeks of treatment, learners carried out DCTs composed of six items. An increase in the use of requesting strategies is revealed in post test results of the experimental group. Overall results show that experimental group exhibit a better performance compared to pretest results whereas control group did show a progress. To understand the post instruction effects, a delayed post test was conducted, and learners did not perform as well as they did in the original posttest. Researchers conclude that a constant explicit treatment is needed to maintain pragmatic competence. Moreover, exposure to L2 in a study abroad does not cater to the needs of learners in terms of noticing and acquiring pragmatic features. Explicit meta-pragmatic explanations seem to necessary to internalize pragmatic input and transfer pragmatic knowledge to other areas.

Study by Safont (2004) responds the call by researchers to test expanding the targeted skills of both written and oral production including beginner level learners in teaching explicitly pragmatic features. Safont (ibid.) uses a pretest and posttest study design to investigate whether explicit pragmatic instruction leads to

the use of a wider range of linguistic formulas and request strategies in realizing requests. Oral tasks and written tasks show that learners produced more conventionally indirect strategies after treatment. They used a wider range of linguistic formulas and less direct strategies in making requests. Another study with a focus on explicit teaching of requests with an experimental and control group study design is conducted by Tan & Farashaian (2012). This study explores the effects of explicit teaching of lexical and syntactic downgraders in making polite requests and Open Ended Discourse Completion Test, a Listening Test and Acceptability Judgement Test is used as data collection instruments. Students in treatment group exhibit better performance in producing downgraders and judging the appropriateness of the answers in Listening Test and Acceptability Judgement Test.

Fukuya & Zhang (2002) also test the effects of instruction in making requests and use implicit teaching method of pragma-linguistic recasts. He uses a control and treatment group that recasts to correct linguistic and pragmatic errors. In both control group and experimental group learners do role-plays on situations that are designed to control the variables of social distance, social power and social imposition. Whereas in experimental group learners receive recasts when they do role-plays, students in control group do role-plays without any later recasts. Results of the DCT is notable in the sense that learners in experimental group used request conventions more appropriately than learners in control groups.

As well as Studies with a focus on comparing instruction with no instruction, use of implicit versus explicit treatment methods also gave important insights on the pragmatics and language teaching. Research by Alcon-Soler (2007), Li,(2012), Simin & Eslami & Eslami-Rasekh & Ketabi (2014), Takahashi (2001), Takimoto (2006) compared the instructional effects of implicit and explicit teaching of pragmatics. Learners in explicit groups outperformed learners in control groups. Not only learners receiving explicit treatment but also learners receiving implicit treatment are exposed to target forms underlined or given in bold forms in authentic materials. However, learners in implicit teaching groups did not exhibit a notable success in post-tests compared to learners in explicit teaching group.

Takashi (2001) explores the effectiveness of explicit teaching instruction over three other implicit teaching approach of form-search, form-comparison and meaning-focused instruction. Learners in form-search groups examined the

differences and similarities between the native language and target language in the transcripts given to them. Form search group attempted to identify the appropriate and native-like request forms whereas meaning-focused groups answered the questions related to the situations in transcripts. Learner in Explicit condition groups outperformed learners in three of implicit conditions.

Takimoto (2006) uses conditions of explicit and implicit instruction; while he also compares them with a non-intervention condition. His study focuses on teaching of syntactic and lexical downgraders in making requests. Learners in explicit teaching group and implicit teaching group carried out structured input tasks which require identifying the variables of social imposition, power and distance in situations and choose the appropriate answer out of two options. Then, they listen to the dialogues and evaluate the appropriateness of the answers based on Likert scale. Learners in explicit condition, received immediate feedback during the tasks. There is no significant difference between the performances of learners in explicit condition and implicit condition in pre-test and post-test whereas learners in control groups do not performs as well as other groups in Acceptability Judgement Test, Role-play Test, Open-ended Discourse Completion Test and Listening Test.

Alcon-Soler (2007) attempted to discover the groups' differences in implicit and explicit teaching of requests. Researchers conduct awareness-raising activities in both implicit and explicit teaching conditions. In implicit condition, pragmatic elements are made salient through the underlined film excerpts and follow-up awareness raising activities whereas in explicit condition learners are given explanations on the target forms. DCT results indicate that learners in both of conditions noticed the target features however, learners in explicit conditions used the target forms effectively. Study by Simin et al (2014) yielded similar results. Simin et al (ibid.) conduct a study of implicit versus explicit teaching of apologies. DCT results show that learners performed better in post-test after a treatment phase of four-months which includes writing apology emails and receiving feedbacks.

Study by Li (2012) reports striking results as learners in receiving input-enhancement instruction outperformed learners in explicit condition. Although previous studies emphasize the significance of input-enhancement on noticing and raising the awareness of learners about target structures; explicit instruction in the form of explanations or meta-pragmatic discussions seemed to be more effective in

ensuring the appropriate production of pragmatic elements. Learners receive instruction regarding the use of supportive moves for request modification. In explicit condition learners receive meta-pragmatic explanations related to the speech acts in dialogues. In input-enhancement groups target forms are given in dialogues. Input-Output group learners only role-play the dialogues. Post-test results of DCT show that learners in input-enhancement groups outperformed learners in other groups. Li (2012) concludes that target features play an important role in the effectiveness of the instruction type. Learning of supportive moves does not necessitate meta-pragmatic discussion as it might complicate the matters. Mere exposure to the target feature and making input salient seem to cater to the pragmatic needs of the learners.

Takimoto (2012b) presents another study that uses a control group and experimental group to analyze the effects of intervention in teaching downgraders making requests. His subjects are divided into three groups, one control and two experimental groups. Researcher conducts meta-pragmatic discussions and problem-solving tasks in one of the control groups. In the other experimental group learners engage problem solving tasks and in control group learners did not receive any treatment. The researcher conducts consciousness-raising activities that would help learners notice the target structures and turn input into intake. Results indicate that learners in both of the experimental groups outperformed learners in control group. In relation to differences between two experimental groups, learners in meta-pragmatic discussion group performed better in Discourse Completion Test, performed equally well on Acceptability Judgement Test, though.

Another study by Takimoto (2012a) also concentrated on downgraders in making requests and compared instructional effects using a control group and two experimental groups. Takimoto(2012a) engages learners in problem-solving tasks in both experimental groups but in one group learners engage the same problem tasks and this groups constituted the task-repetition condition. Other experimental group was named as identical-task repetition as learners engaged in different problem solving tasks in each section. Activities address both pragma-linguistic and socio-pragmatic dimensions of downgraders. In Problem-solving tasks, learners are given two dialogues and first discovered the pragma-linguistic aspects of requests and then analyze the situation from a socio-pragmatic aspect to identify role-

relationships and assess the gravity of the request situations. After problem tasks a meta-pragmatic discussion is conducted in both of the treatment conditions. DCT results in Post-test reports the advantage of task repetition whereas in Acceptability Judgement test, learners perform equally well. Takimoto (2012a) drew inferences based on the superiority of speech act performance of the learners in identical task repetition and suggest that learners are more easily fine-tuned with the task type and directed their efforts more towards internalizing the socio-pragmatic and pragma-linguistic elements. Thus, learners gained automatization in retrieval of pragmatic knowledge in pragmatic tests and exhibit better performance in DCT.

To discover the most effective method of teaching pragmatics, researchers started to benefit from advanced technology. Researchers (Johnson & deHaan, 2013; Cohen & Ishiara, 2005) designed web-based teaching units for students. Use of web-based technology in instructional pragmatics paved the way for strategy instruction. Strategy instruction was associated with an autonomous learning process as use of learning strategies foster learner autonomy. Researchers suggested that learners might progress more in an autonomous learning process as they carried out tasks online, do self-reflection, self-evaluation and receive immediate feedback from the teachers.

Johnson & deHaan (2013) uses wiki-space and digital video technologies to teach apologies and refusals in a business context in English. Learners were expected to role-play and record their performances and upload the transcripts of their performances as well as the video of the performances on wiki space. Thus learners did self-reflection and self-evaluation. Furthermore, researcher checked the online entries on a regular basis and gave feedback on the performances of the learner. Results of the study indicated learners improved their performance in producing the speech acts of apologies and requests. Their awareness about the contextual variables raised.

A similar study with the use of Web-based technology is conducted by Cohen & Ishiara (2005) to teach speech acts of requests, compliments, refusals, apologies, thanks in Japanese. Although no space is given to studies in other languages, as the focus was on requests and apologies in English in current study, it is worthwhile to touch upon the study by Cohen & Ishiara (2005). In this study a Speech Act Strategy Inventory is designed in the form of self-access instructional units that

introduce the topics and present strategies for learning and using speech acts and encourage self-reflection and evaluation at the end of the instructional units. Furthermore, to help learners to be more autonomous and keep track of learning and reflect on the use strategies for learning and performing speech acts, Reflective E-Journaling is used. Two of the studies with a web-based technology, yielded positive results as learners gained pragmatic knowledge, not on all of the competences though. Study by Johnson & deHaan (2013) indicate that learners in post-test exhibit a better performance in terms of appropriacy of the speech acts but do not exhibit the same performance on accuracy. Learners in the study by Cohen & Ishiara (2005) improved their performances on all of the speech acts and the least gain for the learners was for the compliments.

Taguchi (2018) presents the theoretical basis for strategic instruction of pragmatic elements and fostering learner autonomy. Her study provides the impetus for exploring autonomous learning of pragmatic features, especially requests and giving opinions. She offers Strategic Self-Regulation Model of Oxford (2011) to explain how learners acquire pragmatic targets in an autonomous learning process. A close observation of the individual pragmatic development of the learners reveals that one of the learners, exhibited a profound progress compared to other subjects.

Qualitative data and interview done with one of the learners in the study by Taguchi (2012) who is Mitsu, a pseudo name, reveals that Mitsu used self-directed learning strategies during learning process. Mitsu directed his attention to the sociolinguistic aspects of the utterances and discovered the form and context relationships that manifest themselves as directness, indirectness and politeness in speech acts. He looked for the pragmatic uses of language outside the class and recorded his findings on his notebooks. His attempts to analyze and interpret pragmatic meanings of the utterances and practice of target elements fostered his socio-pragmatic awareness.

Taguchi (2018) presents the learning strategies by Mitsu to offer strategy training as a novel way to teaching pragmatic features and extend learning process beyond the confines of formal education. Taguchi (2018) creates a learning taxonomy of strategy instruction based on metacognitive strategies by Oxford's (2011) strategic self-regulation model to indicate strategies for learning and producing speech acts. Oxford (2011) maintained that learners are actively engaged

in learning process through devising learning strategies of cognitive, affective, and sociocultural interactive strategies. Taguchi (2018) applied metacognitive strategies by Oxford (2011) to present a strategy training model that learners manage their own learning process. His contemplation of taxonomy for learning pragmatics adapted by Oxford (2011) is given in the table 1.

Like Taguchi (2015), Cohen (2005) also offers a taxonomy for teaching speech acts and these taxonomies are similar. In both of the strategy training models learners are expected to direct their attention to target forms, set learning goals, collect data on pragmatic uses of language, create practice opportunities, do self-reflection and self-assessment. Strategic learning of pragmatic elements in an autonomous manner constituted base of the study at hand. Learners are expected to grasp the syntactic and lexical downgraders in making requests and apologizing strategies with the use of ELP and strategy based learning activities and use of the ELP.

Studies Related to Pragmatic Instruction in Turkey

Studies on pragmatics in Turkey aims to evaluate pragmatic competence of learners and discover the insufficiencies in teaching pragmatics. A study by Mede & Dikilitaş (2015) reports that functional elements of language are absent in curriculum and teachers do not feel confident in teaching pragmatic and sociolinguistic features of the language. Moreover, the focus is on grammar and communicative competence of learners fell behind their linguistic competence (Alagözlü & Büyüköztürk,2009; Mede & Dikilitaş, 2015). Many studies are conducted to assess the pragmatic competence of learners and teacher trainees (Balıcı, 2009; Bektaş & Çetinkaya,2012; Ekin & Damar,2013; İstifçi,2009; Karatepe,2001; Otçu-Zeyrek,2008; Ülbeği,2009).These studies also confirmed the belief that Turkish learners and teacher trainees have difficulty in producing pragmatically appropriate utterances.

Studies by Ekin & Damar (2013), Bektaş-Çetinkaya (2012) and Karatepe (2001) seek to evaluate the pragmatic performances of English teacher trainees. The study by Karatepe (1998) examine the pragma-linguistic competence of teacher trainees. The results reveal that English Teacher Trainees were not proficient in using politeness markers in indirect requests, though they had pragma-linguistic

awareness. Bektaş-Çetinkaya (2012) evaluate the performance of teacher trainees in giving advice, using refusals, making requests and responding. Subjects deviated from native speaker norms in producing all of the speech acts. To illustrate; learners were unable to use indirect strategies in giving advice and do not produce the requests in a sequence of using head act, using request strategies and closing the conversation. Learners skipped opening and closing parts in making requests.

Ekin & Damar (2013) conducted a detailed study on the pragmatic competence of teacher trainees and explored the confidence and competence of teacher trainees in transferring their pragmatic knowledge into classroom environment. DCT results of speech acts of requests and apologies reveal that teacher trainees had pragmatic awareness on the use of conventionally indirect strategies making requests and using politeness strategies in apologizing. However, they expressed that they did not feel confident in addressing pragmatic elements and skipped pragmatic parts due to lack of knowledge on how to cover pragmatic elements.

İstifçi (2009) set out to measure the pragmatic competence of learners studying at university preparatory schools. Her subjects are students at intermediate and advanced levels. Focus of the study is apologizing speech act. DCT results of non-native speakers are compared with native speaker data to identify divergence from appropriate forms. A tendency to transfer from Turkish sociolinguistic norms in producing the target speech act is a common phenomenon among intermediate learners. Therefore, the researcher draws similar inferences with other studies conducted in relation to the pragmatic competence of Turkish learners. The conclusion is that there is a need to teach pragmatic elements explicitly. She argues that explicit instruction might result in notable gains pragmatic proficiency of the learners and can be a solution for the poor pragmatic performances of the learners.

Similar to İstifçi (2009), Balcı (2009) explored the pragmatic competence of ESL learners in Turkey. Her participants were students studying at secondary school. She focused on the request and apology productions by secondary school students. Balcı (2009) assessed the appropriacy of requests and apologies. In order to test pragmatic skills more effectively she compared ESL performances by ESL learners with native speakers. Additionally, she compared the modification strategies by ESL learners and by native speakers. Results indicated that students

did not perform as good as native speakers in Discourse Completion Test. Moreover, native speakers used a wider range of speech act modification strategies. Another study with a focus on learner production is conducted by Otçu-Zeyrek (2008) to explore the progress of learners. This study mainly concentrated on acquisition of requests. Therefore, request productions by lower intermediate learners, upper intermediate learners and request productions by native speakers were compared. Upper intermediate learners displayed a better performance in the use of politeness strategies. However, compared to native speakers learners, upper intermediate learners used a narrower range politeness strategies.

In addition to the studies with a focus pragmatic productions, studies related to the effectiveness of instruction are also insightful. Ülbeği (2009) conducts a study to explore whether instruction yield better results than no-instruction. She compares the effectiveness of implicit and explicit teaching of Polite Refusals in English. Subjects are 60 students at primary school studying at 8th grade. Both productive and receptive pragmatic skills are tested. The results show that after the treatment phase, learners in implicit teaching group outperformed learners in explicit teaching group. However, it is important to note that learners in three of the groups, control group, explicit teaching group and implicit teaching group, exhibited better performances on receptive tests. Moreover, learners receiving instruction exhibited better performances than learners in control group showing that instruction is effective in improving pragmatic skills of learners.

Gazioğlu & Çiftçi's (2017) study is distinguished as it is on the use of intervention in teaching requesting strategies explicitly. Their subjects are 9th grade students at an Anatolian High school. They aim to examine the effects of instruction on the use of requesting strategies. A four week of treatment that is composed of explanations of request strategies and production tasks contributed the pragmatic competence of the learners. Although quantitative data results indicate that there is no significant difference between the results of pre-test and posttest, there is an increase in total number of strategies used before and after the treatment phase. Use of indirect strategies enhanced after intervention.

The study by also Gazioğlu & Çiftçi (2017) confirms the claim that allocating time and effort for introducing pragmatic elements and consciousness raising activities might prove beneficial for developing pragmatic competence of the

learners. Pragmatic instruction can take many forms. As it is emphasized by researchers, it is essential to assist learners in noticing the target features. Noticing of the target forms can lead to creating form-function-context mappings. Practice of target forms might be last step to internalize input and ensure the persistency of the input in memory.

Common European Framework of References

Council of Europe aims promote communication and collaboration among European Countries (Little, 2006; Martyniuk, 2005). Empowerment of communication and dissemination of core values is the goal of the Council of Europe to facilitate the cooperation in economic and political undertakings (Little, 2006). Learning languages other than the mother tongue might contribute to an increasing respect and awareness for cultural and linguistic diversity. Therefore, Council of Europe has been running language projects since 1970s to contribute to the quality of language education in Europe. It would remove the language borders in its endeavor to foster political and economic cooperation (Little, 2006).

The projects have run through various stages and ultimately led to the formation of a framework titled Common European Framework (CEFR). The framework aims to define language competences comprehensively. It highlights necessary skills to gain the competences (North,2005). It is vital to touch upon the process that contributes to building the core values of CEFR. The language policies of Council of Europe is in parallel with its political mission. It mainly focuses on the following principles (Martyniuk, 2005, p. 10):

Language learning is for all

Language learning is for the learner

Language learning is for intercultural communication

Language learning is for life

Language teaching is coordinated

Language teaching is coherent and transparent

Language learning and teaching are dynamic lifelong processes, responding to experience as well as changing conditions and use.

These policies will be detailed in the following section and an overview of the historical evolution of the CEFR will be presented. In relation to the first principle, main motivation behind the language projects of Council of Europe has been to provide language education to all the citizens in line with the learner needs since 1970s (Little,2006). Council of Europe encourages plurilingualism in the sense that all the languages have equal status to be recognized in European countries (Candelier et al, 2012; Piccardo, 2013).

'Language education is for the sake of learners' principle is complementary to the plurilingualism principle as it recommends a teaching approach that enables learners to communicate in multiple languages. Language for learners principle puts weigh in the communicative needs of the students and reflects the learner-centered approach to language education. It is a recognition of individual characteristics of learners such as learner needs and learning patterns (Martyniuk,2005). Next principle, which is Language Learning for Intercultural Communication, encourages plurilingualism in the sense that all of the languages have equal status to be recognized in European countries (Beacco et al 2010; Beacco & Bayram, 2002).

When the principles are considered, the principles 'language learning for life' and 'language learning is dynamic' are relatable and include the essence of pedagogical function of European Language Portfolio (ELP) that will be explained in detail in coming sections. 'Language learning for life' and 'language learning is dynamic' principles conceptualize a learning process in which learners are active. Learning process extends beyond classroom to continue in each phase of personal development irrespective of challenging or changing circumstances (Little, 2009; Little, 2007; Little, 2005). As for the remaining two principles, they are also linked to each other. A coordinated language teaching, coherence and transparency in the process entails a unity in learning goals, teaching content, assessment and a collaboration among the stakeholders from the beginning to organize the process. These principles shape the education policy of Council of Europe (Goullier, 2007). Efforts to follow these education principles led to the formation of CEFR that will create a common basis for language education to promote communication and mobility in European countries ultimately (CEFR, 2001; Schneider & Lenz, 2001).

The process that leads to the formation of CEFR dates back to the language projects conducted in 1970s. Language projects committed to enable

students to communicate effectively in target language mainly because of a need to improve cross-cultural communication. Therefore, teaching methods are oriented toward communicative activities to meet the needs of students to interact effectively in target language (Richards, 2005; Galloway, 1993). Therefore, learners assume a more active role and learner-centered teaching came into attention.

Language Projects by Council of Europe also concentrate on the communicative aspects of language competence and detailed accounts of language objectives to be achieved at specified language levels, emerged. In 1970s, researchers specified the language skills of a threshold level “which is the B1 level as to identify necessary communicative skills that immigrants need to be equipped with (North, 2005). Following Threshold, Pursuit of elaborating on specification of language skills continued with three other levels of language objectives at Vantage, Breakthrough and Waystage (North, 2005).

In 1991, A Symposium titled “Transparency and Coherence in Language Learning in Europe” held by Switzerland in cooperation with Eurocentres at Rüşhlikson concluded with a call from Council of Cultural Cooperation for the design of a reference document that define language competences and proficiency levels to provide a common basis for evaluation and presentation of language skills and formation of a document that students will record their progress (North, 2005). Thus, problems arising from the lack of a standardized evaluation system that all of the European countries recognized would diminish

A common framework would render it possible to relate language courses and assessment to each other. Hence, coherence in recognition of language qualifications and transparency in grading system would enhance the mobility across Europe. Earlier drafts of Common European Framework was created by the project of Language Learning for European Citizenship which was run by European Council for Cultural Cooperation (Little,2006). This project recommended piloting of CEFR and units of Council Europe located in Graz (The Language Policy Program) and Strasburg (Enlarged Partial Agreement of the Council of Europe), (ECML), collaborate to run pilot projects to implement CEFR. These two units collaborate to pilot the use of CEFR between 1998-2000 and after piloting phase CEFR was published in 2001 which was announced as the European Year of Languages.

CEFR has become a reference document to shape the education policies of countries and its impact extended beyond the European countries (Figueras, 2012; Martyniuk, 2007). Common European Framework stick with the idea of creating “European Citizenship” (Byram,2010;Sheils, 2005). Very essence of CEFR requires a standardization of the recognition of language competences. It serves for promoting democratic citizenship through facilitating mobility and exchange of goods and services (Fulcher, 2004;Heyworth, 2006; Little, 2006; Sheils, 2005). Furthermore, it offers comprehensive guidelines regarding strategies, activities and approaches to achieve determined proficiency levels as presented in descriptive scheme of CEFR (Little 2009; Little, 2005; North, 2005).

However, it is important to note that CEFR is not a prescriptive document that impose certain teaching methods (CEFR, 2001). It attempts to create a common platform for language educators to reflect on their experience to increase the standards in language education and ensure coherence and transparency of each element of language education (North, 2005). It is non-dogmatic in the sense that it is far from being a teaching methodology (CEFR, 2001). On the contrary, it is a flexible document that includes teaching strategies and methods that can be deployed in different settings. It is easy to adapt CEFR guidelines in accordance with the characteristics of learners, context and learning goals. Language domains that refer to the situation and context to use language in CEFR makes it possible to tailor the parts of CEFR according to individual needs.

CEFR document is composed of 9 parts that are comprehensive and descriptive rather than prescriptive and normative (CEFR, 2001). The first and second chapters of CEFR gives a general idea about its political aims, purposes, functions and evolution in years. These chapters refers to the contribution of CEFR to language education in terms of its function as offering a basis for planning of learning programs (Little, 2007) the planning of language certification and the planning of self-directed learning (CEFR, 2001). Users of CEFR is required to provide a detailed account of the teaching goals, content specifications, prior learning experience of students, assessment criteria.

In its following chapters CEFR describes in a coherent, transparent and comprehensive manner, the proficiency levels, learning domains, situations, constraints, learning activities, tasks and assessment criteria (Fulcher, 2004;

Martyniuk, 2005). These detailed accounts guide stakeholders in planning, organizing and evaluating the learning process and outcomes. Garrido & Beaven (2002) articulate that CEFR provides the basis for curriculum planning, teaching content, and assessment. That is, as Heyworth (2006, p. 182) puts it, “the CEFR attempts to bring together, under a single umbrella, a comprehensive tool for enabling syllabus designers, materials writers, examination bodies, teachers, learners, and others to locate their various types of involvement in modern language teaching in relation an overall, unified, descriptive frame of reference”.

CEFR is not concerned to propose a method, instead, it gives the freedom to adapt the document based on a needs analysis (Heyworth, 2006). Furthermore, CEFR is dynamic and open to innovation. It can adapt to any teaching context. Chapter three constitutes the core of the document as it includes common reference levels and illustrative descriptive. The idea behind CEFR is to create transparency and coherence in testing and language education (Little, 2005; Martyniuk, 2005; North, 2005). These are reflected in 3th, 4th and 5th chapters of CEFR. In chapter three, there are common reference levels that define language competences in six proficiency levels of A1, A2, B1, B2, B3, C1, C2 both as a global scale and as separate skills of Spoken Interaction, Spoken Production, Listening, Writing and Reading with the use of “can do descriptors”. When it comes to transparency and coherency, Reference Levels enable practitioners in language education to align the language examinations and certificates and qualifications in different languages and different educational contexts to each other (Heyworth,2006).

Furthermore, pedagogical base of CEFR that intends to promote learner autonomy, self-directed learning through self-reflection and self-assessment finds its origin in “can do” descriptors (Little,2009). “Can do” descriptors related to language skills are also presented in European Language Portfolio (ELP) for learners to monitor their progress and do self-assessment. Global Scale in CEFR and self-assessment grid in ELP is derived from a huge amount of illustrative descriptors that are created in Swiss project. Language users are defined as ‘basic users’, ‘independent users’ and ‘proficient users’ in global scale. Each user type is defined by two proficiency levels. In order to complete progress from one user to another user language learners should complete the two proficiency levels and there

are six proficiency levels representing this system (CEFR, 2001). These are A1, A2, B1, B, C1 and C2.

4th chapter continues to elaborate on the language competences through defining context of language use, domains that language is spoken, a rich array of social situations. This chapter also reflects the action-oriented approach of CEFR as it approaches language learners as language users from the very beginning. It puts the emphasis on interplay between the context and necessary competences to survive in related settings. Chapter five explains the competences that are required to be equipped with to function in a rich array of social domains and situations and to carry out communicative tasks stated in chapter four. Descriptive Scheme is what defines the Chapter four and five. Descriptive Scheme is composed of communicative language activities and set of communicative language competences (North, 2005). Carrying out communicative activities requires the proficiency in skills of reception, production and interaction. Competences to carry out each activity in skills of reception, production and interaction is defined separately.

Coming chapters of 6 and 7 reflects the flexibility principle of CEFR. That is, instead of imposing a set of teaching methodologies, CEFR emphasizes learner needs and contexts in creating language activities and devising language teaching methodologies. Chapter 8 is related to plurilingualism principle to reflect the common values of Council of Europe that are Multiculturalism and Plurilingualism (Piccardo, 2013; Little, 2006; Beacco & Byram, 2002, Schnedier & Lenz, 2001). Last chapter is about assessment of language skills. It is concerned with how to base language assessment on language competences and activities given in Framework to align language test with CEFR.

CEFR have become a resource for their curriculum development, teaching content, teaching materials and development of language policies and innovations in language teaching in world (Byram & Parmenter, 2012). Most salient impact of CEFR emerges on the curriculum guidelines, language examinations and definition of language competences, though not at the same time (Broek & Van Den Ende, 2013; European Commission, 2012; Rönneper, 2012; Martyniuk & Noijon, 2007). Martyniuk & Noijon (2007) in their survey study reports that language curriculum

drew on CEFR in 30 European countries. Moreover, language tests and textbooks are aligned with CEFR.

Results of 'SurveyLang', a survey conducted in 16 European Countries also reveals that language practitioners depends on CEFR in curriculum development, language testing and material design (European Commission, 2012). Impact of CEFR is not limited to European countries though. It is overarching impact on language policies and language testing reaches out to Japan and Canada and Latin American countries (Byram & Parmenter, 2012; Mison & Jang, 2011; Nagai & O'Dwyer, 2011). In Turkish educational system also some reforms to adapt to European educational principles leded ministry of education to embrace educational ideals of CEFR at policy level (Demirel, 2005). In order to follow educational principles of Council Europe especially to life-long learning, ELP is started to be used in early 2000s (Demirel,2005). European Language Portfolio is a portfolio type that is designed in line with the political agenda of Council of Europe to support plurilingualism, unity in recognition of language competences, respect for linguistic and cultural diversity (Little,2002). Close link between CEFR and ELP and role of ELP in realizing the political and educational purposes of Council of Europe will be explained in detail in next section.

ELP and Its Components

A portfolio is a showcase to present qualifications. It is a tool for authentic assessment (Grace, 1992; Kohonen & Westoff, 2003). Authentic Assessment is concerned with "multiple forms of assessment that reflect student learning, achievement, motivation, and attitudes on instructionally-relevant classroom activities" (O'Malley and Valdez Pierce 1996, 4). It supports independent learning and puts the learner at the center of the learning processes. Self-assessment is an integral part of authentic assessment; for students have an active role in evaluation through self-assessment. Further, it provides insights on affective dimensions of learning as well as cognitive capabilities of learner (O'Malley & Valdez Pierce 1996; Kohonen, 2000).

Learners collect their works in a Portfolio to do self-assessment and monitor the learning process. As a tool of authentic assessment, portfolio assessment serves two major goals; "learning communication and developing a critical

awareness of language learning” (Nunan, 1989 as cited in Kohonen & Westhoff, 2003, p. 3). In order to support these goals, a Portfolio can be composed of anecdotal records, checklist or inventory, rating scales, questions and requests, and screening tests (Kohonen & Westhoff, 2003). European Language Portfolio (ELP) is a portfolio type that is composed of three parts: Language Biography, Language Passport and a Dossier.

Council of Europe recommended the creation of ELP in 1991 in a Symposium in Rüsclikson to create cooperation among educational institutions (Little, 2002). This cooperation will enable the stakeholders in the field of language education to find a common basis to ground their assessment system, define language qualifications, and create curriculums (Little, 2002). Cooperation in educational institutions is one of the main principles of CEFR. Therefore, ELP functions a tool to practice CEFR’s “ethos” (Little, 2011). This ethos corresponds mostly to major educational objectives of coherence and transparency, plurilingualism and independent learning by Council of Europe in field of Modern Languages (Van Europe, 2004).

Language Policy Division of Council of Europe designed ELP in 2001 in line with political, educational and cultural goals of the organization (Little, 2002). ELP was developed as an outcome of projects conducted piloted from 1998 to 2000, and launched in 2001, in the European Year of Languages (González, 2008; Little, 2002, Council of Europe, 2001; Council of Europe, 2000).

Recommendations by Council of Europe specified the three sections of ELP. Language passport was designed to include a part in which language competences is displayed according to the qualifications defined in Common European Scales. Language Biography part of ELP was designed to elicit the reflections of students regarding the learning process. Language Dossier was created to compile the works of students that reflect the progress in learning process (Little, 2002; Council of Europe, 2001).

Close link between CEFR and ELP is apparent in self-assessment part of the ELP as it relies on the Common Reference Levels present in CEFR (Council of Europe, 2000). Furthermore, as recommendations offered, self-reflection part entails recording learning experience and goal-setting (Schneider & Lenz, 2001). CEFR

can be a valuable source for figuring out learning goals in goal-setting part of Language Biography, as it contains and elaborates on the elements of communicative competence, necessary skills, and knowledge to attain these competences and describes different contexts for communication (Council of Europe,2001). It is necessary to explain the parts of ELP to recognize further how ELP and CEFR are intertwined. Principles and Guidelines created by Council of Europe (2000) to assist future ELP developers, highlights the mission of ELP to promote and spread European Educational ideals.

According to the Principles and Guidelines section, ELP;

- is a tool to promote plurilingualism and pluriculturalism;
- is the property of the learner;
- values the full range of the learner`s language and intercultural competence and experience regardless of whether acquired within or outside formal education;
- is a tool to promote learner autonomy;
- has both a pedagogic function to guide and support the learner in the process of language learning and a reporting function to record proficiency in languages;
- is based on the Common European Framework of Reference with explicit reference to the common levels of competence;
- encourages learner self-assessment (which is usually combined with teacher assessment) and assessment by educational authorities and examination bodies;
- incorporates a minimum of common feature which make it recognizable and comprehensible across Europe;
- may be one of a series of ELP models that the individual learner will possess in the course of life-long learning. ELP models can cater for the needs of learners according to age, learning purpose and context and background. (Council of Europe, 2000; p.2)

Based on the features of ELP enumerated by Principles and Guidelines , ELP can be defined as a self-assessment and self-reflection tool that fosters multilingualism, multiculturalism and life-long learning (Little et al, Van Europa, 2004; Council of Europe, 2000; Council of Europe, 2003). Each of the three parts, which are Language Biography, Language Passport and Dossier serve for a different purpose listed before. A more detailed explanation on the functions of each part shall be given in the next section. Here are descriptions of the parts.

Language Passport is the section which holds the official accounts of language competences, information on previous language learning experience, self-assessment of language qualifications based on Common Reference Levels (Little & Perclova, 2003; Council of Europe, 2000). As Guide for Developers stated learners are invited to introduce their language profile in Language Passport and detail it in Language Biography (Schneider & Lenz, 2001). Learners present their linguistic profile through filling the parts on called “languages learnt”, “domains of language use”, through assessing their level based on Common Reference. Furthermore, learners also list their language certificates in this part.

Language Biography is the section in which learner operate on their autonomous learning skills through setting learning goals, evaluating learning process and keeping notes on intercultural experience (Little, 2005). Thus, learners engage in learning process actively. Parts of Language Biography involve learners to do “learning to learn activities”. These learning to learn activities involves making learners think about their learning styles, strategies. Moreover, self-assessment checklists in the form of “can do “statements in Language Biography encourage learners do self-reflection (Little, 2002). This reflection will provide a concrete ground for detecting problematic parts and setting learning goals. Thus, in Aarts & Broaders’ (2004) terms “the pupil can report what he would like to learn and how he would like to learn it” (Schneider-Lenz, 2001, p. 7). This will help learners to set realistic learning goals. Evidently, in the study of Román & Soriano (2015) learners will gain independent learning skills. Council of Europe (2001) specified how ELP will assist in fostering independent learning activities in more concrete terms. Learners assume the prime responsibility of learning instead of teachers. This implies that teachers are the sole authorities in planning and organizing learning activities. Learners are expected to actively engage in setting learning goals,

creating learning activities and reflecting on learning process. Thus, they would discover their insufficient knowledge, capabilities, and learning styles and strategies (Council of Europe, 2001)

Moreover, Language Biography targets to increase intercultural awareness of students. In a seminar on assessing Intercultural Competence in Sevres (2003) attention was drawn to the function of language biography to promote understanding and respect for cultural diversity. Parts of Language Biography is designed to answer some questions to foster cultural awareness (Martyniuk,2005). These questions explores the context of learning, learning and intercultural experience, intercultural encounters and reflections on these encounters, the level of cultural awareness.

Briefly, Language Biography entails learners to think about learning process, and as Schneider & Lenz (2001) suggest language biography is “process-oriented with a strong contrast to product-oriented approach to learning” (2001; p.20). Learners involve in self-assessment through filling in goal-setting and self-assessment checklist on a regular basis. This assessment is oriented to be formative. However, Language Passport is a tool to do summative assessment. Therefore, it is considered as a bridge between language passport and dossier. It enables learners to update linguistic profile in language passport through engaging learning activities with the use of language biography and evaluating process in the light of works kept in dossier.

Dossier is the part that learners keep their work that is representative of their optimum performance (Little,2005). The dossier demonstrates learners' achievements or experiences in the Language Passport or Biography (Little & Perclova, 2003; Schneider & Lenz, 2001). In this sense, it is like a portfolio of an artist (Little & Perclova, 2003). According to the 'Principles and Guidelines' learners can include letters, project works, memoranda, brief reports, and audio or video cassettes which show their proficiency in the language in ELP (Council of Europe, 2003). Kohonen (2006) argues that Dossier serve for both functions of ELP: pedagogical and reporting. Through keeping their works in different forms, learners take responsibility by evaluating their progress and doing self-reflection based on these evaluations. The study by Kohonen (2006) illuminates the dossier's dual function. In his study, students wrote online feedbacks and included these

feedbacks in their dossier. Thus, learners gained a deeper insight into their learning process using Dossier. In a way, It is a document that links learning experience, teaching activities and assessment of language skills (Kohonen, 2006).

Language dossier is a valuable tool to exhibit language skills of learners as it holds documents in many different formats. It can include reports, sample letters or audios as to present all the language skills at the same time (Schneider & Lenz, 2001). Content of the dossier depends on the age of the learners. For young learners dossier functions as a tool to raise awareness about independent learning habits to pursue an autonomous learning process in future. Young learners collect the materials that are chosen by their assignments in class. Learners in high school can include the works to present the skills that will be tested in nation-wide central exams. Adult learners on the other hand, can have a rich range of objectives to learn languages and most probably, needs to engage in real-life tasks. They can include authentic materials such as reports and audio files as they primarily learn the language to function effectively at workplace or in target society as an immigrant (Little & Perclova, 2003).

Aarts & Broader (2004, p. 39) claims that main mission of dossier is “to achieve visibility”. Namely, works of students in Dossier provides a chance for them to prove the recent proficiency levels with concrete evidence. Furthermore, use of the dossier is assumed to foster the motivation of the learners as they willingly keep the best works in their dossier. It is important to note that there are different kinds of ELPs validated by different countries varying in accordance with age, purpose and teaching context. European Validation Committee has the authority to validate the ELPs based on certain criteria (Little & Perclova, 2003). All the ELPs include three parts cited above albeit structure of the templates differ with regard to the learners needs.

In sum, ELP is a complementary tool to CEFR in promoting an autonomous and life-long learning. Moreover, ELP contributes to the aim of creating unity in evaluation system that dates back to 1970s to scrutinize the assessment system across Europe and results in Common Reference Levels. Learners present their language skills based on the Common Reference Levels that are recognized across Europe. Finally, ELP encourages learners to engage in intercultural experience and grow respect for linguistic and cultural diversity.

ELP And Learner Autonomy

CEFR applies educational concepts to educational settings through ELP. Main mission of ELP is to assist learners to be autonomous in their journey to be life-long learners as stated before (Little, 2002; Schnedier & Lenz, 2001). Action-oriented Approach of CEFR led the evolution of teaching methodologies to be more-learner-centered (Little,2009a; Little, 2009b). Descriptive scheme of CEFR reflects its action-oriented and learner-centered approach (Little, 2009a; Little, 2009b). To illustrate, communicative activities, various contexts for language use and necessary competences to carry out these activities are defined in detail to emphasize the role of the learners as users of language in learning process. Learners take a proactive role in learning process and go through an individualized learning process.

ELP will be a guide to lead learners through success in realizing their learning goals, organizing learning activities and evaluation of learning process with its scaled checklists. With the introduction of scaled checklists, CEFR envisage an individual learning process in which learners have freedom to operationalize each phase of learning according to their individual needs, motivation, purpose and aptitude (Council of Europe,2001). In order to understand the impact of learner autonomy to classroom instruction and language learning process, it is necessary to elaborate on the origins and different descriptions of the Learner Autonomy and related concepts.

Definition of learner autonomy. Modern Languages Projects by Council of Europe introduced the concept of learner autonomy to language education in Europe as it is emphasized in Holec's Report in 1981. Learner autonomy is studied in different frameworks. Its definitions vary with the fields of study. In relation to language education, Learner autonomy is defined as the "taking charge of one's learning" in Holec's Seminal Report in 1981. Dickinson (1995) identifies learner autonomy as being "both an attitude towards learning and a capacity for independent learning" (Dickinson, 1995, p. 166). Littlewood (1997) addresses to autonomy on three levels. To him, autonomy is exercised in personal life, in foreign language context as a learner, as a communicator. He articulates that a learner practice autonomy through" engaging in independent work (e.g. self-directed

learning); and using appropriate learning strategies, both inside and outside the classroom” (Littlewood, 1997, p. 431).

Wenden (1991) proposes a comprehensive definition of autonomy through characterizing an autonomous learner. Autonomous learners are “in effect, 'successful' or 'expert' or 'intelligent' learners who have learned how to learn. They have acquired the learning strategies, the knowledge about learning, and the attitudes that enable them to use these skills and knowledge confidently, flexibly, appropriately and independently of a teacher. Therefore, they are autonomous” (Wenden, 1991, p. 15). Cotterall (1995) states that learner autonomy is the capacity for taking the responsibility of learning and each learner exhibit it in different degrees and in various ways. Learners differ in exercising autonomy in terms of the degree to which they apply learning strategies of setting learning goals, gathering information, planning learning tasks and creating learning strategies (Cotterall, 1995). In the same line, Zou (2011) articulates that each learner practice the autonomy in different levels and learners are in a quest to be more autonomous.

First applications of autonomy into education was associated primarily with adult education. Researchers conceptualized the term in order to cater to the educational needs of adults lacking opportunities to have formal education (Gremmo & Riley, 1993). As Voller & Benson (1997) emphasize when language learning gained a prominence, a rich variety of learners with different characteristics led researchers to adopt a more “flexible approach” to language education to address learner needs. Advancements in technology gave way to common practice of self-access centers and rendered it possible for students to learn independently and autonomously. Therefore, early research on autonomy attempted to formulate a novel teaching approach that all the responsibility lies in learner that out- of- class learning became the main trend.

Allwright (1988, p. 35) claims as cited in Benson (2001, p. 22) that learner autonomy was ‘associated with a radical restructuring of language pedagogy’. It requires ‘the rejection of the traditional classroom and the introduction of wholly new ways of working’. This formulation means that earlier attempts to integrate learner autonomy into education eliminate classroom instruction as a common mode of teaching. Learner is the sole authority to execute all the processes related learning process.

Practice of learner autonomy in classroom environment entails a reformulation of the pedagogical basis of the term to integrate it to formal education. Little (1991) adds a different dimension to the concept of learner autonomy to incorporate it to classroom context. Little (ibid.) proposes learner interdependence and interaction as the building blocks of learner autonomy. He stated that learner autonomy and interaction is interrelated. He contends that humans are wired to learn through self-instruction with “our capacity for self-instruction probably develops out of our experience of learning in interaction with others: in order to teach ourselves, we must create an internal substitute for the interaction of home or classroom” (Little, 1991, p. 5). Moreover, Little (1991) proposes that learner characteristics such as motivation, attitude, and learner needs are crucial aspects of learner autonomy. He emphasizes psychological characteristics of learners in exercising autonomy with the following definition (as cited in Benson, 2001, p. 23) that he builds on the earlier definition by Holec (1981):

“Autonomy in language learning depends on the development and exercise of a capacity for detachment, critical reflection, decision making and independent action (Little 1991, p. 4). Autonomous learners assume the responsibility for determining the purpose, content, rhythm and method of their learning, monitoring its progress and evaluating its outcomes” (Holec 1981, p. 3).

This definition reflects a psychological approach to learner autonomy and each learner practices autonomy in a different degree depending on psychological factors. In other words, learner autonomy is comprised of various skills and learners might display varying performances in realizing learner autonomy. Discussions on the components of learner autonomy open new paths and researchers dedicated a large body of research to identify the most significant dimension of learner autonomy (Breen & Mann 1997; Finch, 2001; Littlewood 1996; Oxford, 2003; Pemberton, 1996). Moreover, research reveals that differing performances in exercising autonomy emerge due to the impacts of factors such as age, previous learning experience, and learner needs (Little 1991). It is necessary to clarify various dimensions of the concept to discuss how ELP assist learners in practicing autonomy. Furthermore, elaboration on the characteristics of an autonomous learners will be insightful for recognizing its contribution to language education.

Autonomous language learners. Autonomous learner is considered the one who “tends to integrate whatever he or she learns in the formal context of the classroom with what he or she has already become as a result of developmental and experiential learning” (Little, 1995, p. 175). Since its conception, learner autonomy have held an important part in defining the features of a good learner. This finds its expression in the attempts of researchers to explain the positive characteristics of autonomous learners. Researchers concentrated on various affective and cognitive capacities of learners in identifying autonomous learners. Ponton & Carr (1999) note that autonomous learners display a strong commitment to their learning goals and concentrate on the pleasure of accomplishing their long terms goals. Furthermore, they have an orientation to overcome difficulties in learning situation.

A distinguishing feature of autonomous learners are considered to having an awareness of learning capabilities, learning styles and learning goals that have the potential to be realized (Porto, 2007). These awareness types encompass positive dimensions of autonomous learners in terms of the use of metacognitive strategies of use of the best strategies and setting goals. Moreover, self-awareness refers to controlling affective variables to maximize motivation. Cotterall (1995) also points out that effective learners are not easily demoralized at the face of difficulties caused by their educational and social background. To put these characteristics into practice and observe its reflections in classroom environment, Little’s (1991) description of an autonomous learning process would be worthwhile. According to Little (ibid.) following features marks the important dimensions of an autonomous learning environment

because the learner sets the agenda, learning should be more focused and more purposeful, and thus more effective both immediately and in the longer term; - because responsibility for the learning process lies with the learner, the barriers between learning and living that are often found in traditional teacher-led educational structures should not arise;

if there are no barriers between learning and living, learners should have little difficulty in transferring their capacity for autonomous behavior to all other areas of their lives, and this should make them

more useful members of society and more effective participants in the democratic process (Little, 1991, p. 8).

This description signifies learner initiative as a key element of learner autonomy and in turn cites it as a striking feature of effective learning environment. In line with this argument, Roger (1957, cited in Kirschenbaum & Henderson, 1990, p.302) asserts that learning takes place with the efforts of learners rather than a simple act of passing through knowledge to a second party. Learners construct new knowledge through self-discovery by building new knowledge on their previous learning experience. Regarding the second point made by Little (1991), observations of Roger (1957) is still valid. Learners as self-imitators have the ability to solve problems that they will encounter in educational institutions. In relation to the last point made by Little (1991), Sinclair & Coulthard (1975) also argues that autonomous learners gained an awareness about their learning capacity and manage their learning by choosing best strategies.

Furthermore, they are able to apply their learning strategies they acquired in one subject to another. Boud (1988) also speculates on the features of an autonomy-oriented classroom environment and he states that autonomous learners do not confine themselves to classroom input and take the initiative to continue learning efforts outside the classroom. He continues, learners use their potential to be autonomous in different degrees. Cotterall (1995) furthers this discussion and asserts that learner autonomy manifest itself in learning process in the activities of “setting goals, choosing materials and tasks, planning practice opportunities and monitoring and evaluating progress” (Cotteral, 1995, p. 195).

It is also necessary to refer to an important point made by Little (1991) to understand why learner autonomy centers on a successful learning process. Autonomous learners maintain their motivation to the end and hold positive attributions about their learning process (O'Donnell & Chan & Miller, 2013). In the same vein, Dickinson (1995) underlines the close link between learning motivation and learner autonomy. He states that “several areas of research into motivation in general education suggest that motivation to learn and learning effectiveness can be increased in learners who take responsibility for their own learning, who understand and accept that their learning success is a result of effort, and that failure

can be overtaken with greater effort and better use of strategies” (Dickinson, 1995, p. 168).

To continue on the characteristics of autonomous learners that make them high achievers, researchers cite self-reflection and self-assessment as defining features of autonomous learners (Little, 1991; Little, 2004). Good language learners are identifiable with their effective self-monitoring skills (O'Malley & Chamot, 1990). Cotteral (1995) elaborates on this discussion and notes that self-monitoring manifests itself in various ways. Student evaluation accompanies the teacher evaluation. Students do not consider teacher as the only source of feedback. Blanche (1988) also drew attention to the significance of self-assessment and claims that it is essential for learners to discover their abilities, monitor improvement of language skills and be aware of their potential to realize learning goal. In other words, effectiveness of a learning process depends to a great extent on a fair evaluation and acknowledgement of the learning potentials, and realistic expectations on how to turn these potentials into success.

Ridley (2000) argues that being aware of learning potentials and needs, autonomous learners create learning strategies to plan and organize learning process. In the same line, Ksijk & Nordlund (2000) articulate that self-awareness and being reflective about learning process rendered it possible to devise learning strategies and self-reflection contributes to learning process. Little (1991) defined learner autonomy as a chain of actions that learners take in a step by step manner to improve language skills through setting goals, organizing and planning to learn process and assessing the progress. The steps of autonomous learning process by Little (1991) is named as use of learning strategies by other researchers (Ridley, 2000; Williams & Burden, 1997)

Williams & Burden (1997) propose that use of strategies by autonomous learners is associated with success and achievement of learning goals. Learners assume active roles in learning process rather than just adopting the role of passive recipients of knowledge. Autonomous learners actively use language learning strategies that Little (2007) categorized as Affective strategies, Cognitive strategies, Metacognitive strategies and social-interactive strategies. Metacognitive strategies are concerned with setting learning goals, planning and organizing learning tasks and monitoring learning process through self-reflection and self-evaluation. Use of

Metacognitive strategies to create an autonomous learning process is at the heart of current research.

Effective use of learning strategies is perceived as an important asset of autonomous learners (Wang & Pevery, 1986, cited in Dickinson, 1995; Wenden, 1991, cited in Pemberton 1996). Allwright (1988) associates learner autonomy with the use of learning strategies. As stated before he considers autonomous learners as high achievers who use know how to learn, have an awareness of learning potentials and create learning strategies in accordance with learning needs and learning capabilities (Allwright, 1988).

In order to illustrate the positive impact of learner autonomy listed above on classroom environment and further the argument on a concrete basis, taking a closer look to research by Dam (1990) will be worthwhile. Dam (1990) integrates the concept of learner autonomy into his teaching approach. He raises the awareness of learners about their learning process, individual needs and learning styles. He expects from learners to think about their learning activities and set their learning goals. Learners monitored their progress through self-assessment. At the end of the learning process performance of learners is reported to be better at building vocabulary, mastering grammatical structures compared to another class that cover the subjects with the common modes of teaching.

Integrating ELP to classroom instruction will also create an autonomy supportive classroom environment and render it possible to observe how to turn theoretical underpinnings of learner autonomy into practice. ELP will be an aide for students to operate on their autonomous learning skills to have more purposeful, meaningful and effective learning process.

Use Of ELP As An Autonomous Learning Tool

Practicing learner autonomy entails implementing some principles. Lamb (2011) states that teacher guidance in practicing autonomy is crucial. European Pedagogy for Autonomous Learning (EuroPAL) Project by Council of Europe underlines the expectations by teachers in encouraging learners to be more self-directed and independent learners. CEFR proposed that raising autonomy involves “raising the learners’ awareness of his or her present state of knowledge; self-setting of feasible and worthwhile objectives; selection of materials; self-assessment” (cited in Lamb, 2011, p. 169). These principles for learner autonomy are also reflected in curriculums of countries that participated in the project. With ELP, teachers will facilitate the job of guiding learners in gaining independent learning skills.

Nunan (2003) highlights the role of the teachers in creating autonomous learners and proposed a nine-step recommendation list for teachers. These steps coincide with the target learning skills that ELP aims to help learners gain. These steps are as following:

1. Make instruction goals clear to learners
2. Allow learners to create their own goals
3. Encourage learners to use their second language outside the classroom
4. Raise awareness of learning processes
5. Help learners identify their own preferred styles and strategies
6. Encourage learner choice
7. Allow learners to generate their own tasks
8. Encourage learners to become teachers
9. Encourage learners to become researchers

Little also recommended three guiding principles for creating autonomous learners. He argues that “Learner involvement, learner reflection, and target language use” are the three important pillars of learner autonomy (Little, 2009a, p. 231). It is the role of the teachers to direct learners to do self-reflection and encourage the use of target language. Teachers also create autonomous language users who rely on communication skills to maximize independent learning skills.

As stated before ELP provided assistance to teachers to enhance autonomous learning skills of learners. Little (2009a) concisely highlighted how ELP is used as a tool to foster learner autonomy. He articulates that ELP enhances learner autonomy through enabling learners to do self-assessment, self-reflection and shedding light on the concept of autonomy and exemplifying its practice classroom context (Little, 2009a).

In line with the argument by Little (2009a) in using ELP to raise learner autonomy, Checklists in Language Passport provides teachers a rich sources to identify teaching goals and these teaching goals can be a guide for students to assess their progress and create learning activities to achieve the learning goals specified in checklists (Little, 2002). Moreover, Language Biography enables learners to raise awareness about their learning process through reflection on learning goals, learning styles and intercultural learning experience (Román & Soriano, 2015). ELP equips learners with a metalanguage to describe the learning process. Moreover, ELP encourages communicative use of the language as self-assessment checklists include detailed descriptions of communicative competences in each proficiency level (Council of Europe, 2001). These descriptions on Spoken Interaction for instance, make learners think about their proficiency in real-life interactions. It is necessary to discuss how self-reflection and self-assessment work in ELP to situate the use of ELP on any argument related to learner autonomy.

Self-assessment in ELP

Doing self-assessment is one of the steps to be taken in achieving learner autonomy with the use of ELP (Little, 2004; Little, 2005). As Oscarson (1989) puts it, engaging learners with self-assessment opens new directions in roles of learners in learning process as the responsibility of evaluation lies in students as well as teachers. Additionally, skills of self-reflection , goal-setting and planning of learning process builds on self-assessment. With the use of ELP, learners do self-assessment and Little & Perclova (2003) considers self-assessment as an integral part of an autonomous learning process. Kohonen & Westhoff (2003) highlights how self-assessment shapes the learning process and states that parts of ELP are interrelated and this situation entail learners to do self-assessment as a first step and move on to set learning goals in accordance with the learning needs and

capabilities. With effective self-assessment skills, learners will detect low performance in language skills through evaluating the learning outcomes in dossier (Kohonen & Westhoff, 2003). Thus, they set their learning goals according to personal needs and requirements of the context and do self-reflection to record their progress for later evaluation. In the same line, Little (2005) also claims that in order to be able set realistic learning goals and organize learning activities accordingly, learners depend on their skills of self-assessment using ELP (Little, 2005).

Portfolio assessment as a broader concept was considered to be strengthen the relationship between learning and assessment (Kohonen, 2000). Self-assessment in the form of portfolio assessment are favored over frequent testing by teachers as traditional evaluation methods fell short of raising achievement (Little, 2009b). Little (2009b) drew on Black & William (1998) to capture the attention to the contribution of self-assessment to learning process by touching upon “assessment for learning” discussion. Proponents of “assessment for learning” (James & Pedder, 2006; Black & William, 1998) note that an effective teaching process entails an active participation of the students to the assessment process.

To enable learners to involve in an autonomous learning process, teachers should inform the learners about the course objectives and give instant feedback (Black & William, 1998). Black & William (1998) states that it is essential for learners to learning objectives, learning outcomes, assessment criteria and reflect on the learning process. Thus, learners involve more actively in learning process to maximize the effectiveness of learning strategies and choose more suitable methods available in a specific learning context (Little, 2009b). With the use of ELP, learners have the chance to do self-assessment based on the common reference levels as a summative assessment. Learners have the opportunity to look at the illustrative descriptors regarding each language skills and assess the progress to keep up with day to day course objectives. However, effectiveness of self-assessment depends on the effective fine-tuning of course objectives and Common Reference Level descriptors.

Use of ELP entails doing both summative assessment and formative assessment (Little, 2005). With language passport learners do summative assessment using self-assessment grid. Language biography on the other hand enables learners to do formative assessment stating their learning goals, learning

activities done to reach learning goals and filling in self-assessment checklists to evidence their progress (Little, 2005). Dossier will function as a data to display their skills and update their learning goals and reorganize their learning activities.

Self-reflection in ELP

Learners engage in self-reflection to contemplate on the resources of impetus to learn subjects and best ways to realize learning goals (Holec, 1979, Boud, 1988, Little, 1991). Furthermore, self-reflection boost the motivation of the learners as learners find a platform to convey their ideas about their learning process (Schnedier & Lenz, 2001). Independent learning skills of learners builds on their capacity to reflect and improves in time. Self-reflection with the use of ELP occurs through the activities of planning, monitoring and evaluating (Little & Perclova, 2001). Therefore, practicing self-reflection with the use of ELP is a process-oriented activity and is a quest to make sense of the learning process. As it is suggested in Principles and Guidelines (van Europa, 2004), ELP builds on the idea that raising awareness about the learning to learn and operating on the independent learning skills enables learners to cater to their individual needs. Given that self-reflection cultivates learning to learn habits, it is not wrong to state that self-reflection is indispensable for gaining learner autonomy.

It is necessary to explain how the parts of ELP serve for the purpose reflective learning and teaching to have better idea of its impact on learner autonomy. Filling in the parts on learning goals, learning styles and illustrative descriptors in Language Biography equip learners with skills of planning and evaluating learning in following ways (Little & Perclova, 2001). Filling in the parts of language biography enable learners to analyze learning needs, create realistic learning goals, and speculate on learning strategies that is congruent with learning styles and assessing the effectiveness of the learning activities (Little & Perclova, 2003). As well as language biography, dossier will be a valuable guide to do self-reflection. Collecting works in dossier is essential for updating learning goals and deploying most suitable learning method. Ziegler (2014) illuminates how use of the ELP leads to self-reflection in a learning process. He presented the learning mechanisms in a self-regulated learning framework. To him, learners engage in self-regulated learning during the use of the ELP and self-reflection is the last step to be taken. He states that “During

the self-reflection phase, students evaluate both learning products and processes” (Ziegler,2014, p. 923). This evaluation process is of vital importance for achieving targets as constructing suitable learning strategies depends on the validity and reliability of the evaluation.

In addition to filling parts of ELP, Little & Perclova (2003) recommended use of some activities to foster self-reflection to shed light on the relation between learning to learn, self-reflection and motivation. Self-reflection activities that requires writing on foreign language learning experience leaded learners to take the major responsibility of the learning process. Learners obtained the means to discover their strengths and weaknesses (Little & Perclova, 2001). An awareness of learning potential assist learners to realize the optimal ways to achieve learning goals. Additionally, assuming more responsibility and experiencing a meaningful learning process have a profound contribution to the motivation of the learners (Schnedier & Lenz, 2001). In brief, the role of self-reflection in raising awareness about learning process is what it makes an inherent part of effective learning process. Kohonen (2000) summarized the learning goals in any learning context under three headings that learners achieve concomitantly with learner autonomy. Kohonen (2000, p. 2) reported Task awareness, personality awareness and process and context awareness as the interface between learning goals, and means to achieve these goals. With self-reflection, learners will be able to gain awareness types cited by Kohonen (2000) to mobilize sources to raise their language achievement.

Functions of ELP

As principles and guidelines offered (Schnedier & Lenz, 2001), ELP has both a pedagogical function and reporting function. Pedagogical function is concerned with enhancing learner autonomy. Reporting function is related to the recording of language qualifications on regular basis to observe the progress (Schnedier & Lenz, 2001).These two functions interrelated and fulfillment of pedagogic function depends on fulfilling of reporting function (Little & Perclova, 2003).

Reporting function of elp. Reporting function of ELP enables learners to use it as an instrument to record language qualifications and learning experience languages learned. Little (2002) stated the reporting function of ELP clearly with the following description of its function. To him, Little (2002, p. 182) ELP “ supplements

the certificates and diplomas” and “allows the owner to document language learning that has taken place outside as well as inside formal education”. What can be inferred from this explanation is that ELP assist learners to evidence their learning experience, language proficiency and plurilingual competence in educational institutions as well as the outside the class (Schneider & Lenz, 2001). This personal documentation of the language skills has a European wide-recognition that will act as an official account of language proficiency in educational institutions. Reporting function of ELP is concerned with summative assessment and ensure the comparability and transparency of evaluation (Little, 2002).

Students encounter many instances that they should report their current proficiency in languages learners with reliable means. In some circumstances that students change their high school or university or apply for a new job, it might be necessary for them to give reliable and valid information about their language skills (Schneider & Lenz, 2001). ELP provides learners with a rich range of opportunities to display their language skills that only exam scores will fall short of evidence the success in a language (Kohonen, 2000). Schneider & Lenz (2001) illustrates this situation and with the use of ELP learners will record their intercultural experience and they will inform institutions about their intercultural competence that otherwise not possible to prove it. Moreover, ELP includes reliable information as the assessment of language skills in ELP is based on a common reference system that is transferable and comparable in educational institutions across Europe.

Pedagogical function of elp. Little & Perclova (2001) note that primary aim of ELP is to encourage life-long education and it necessitates the activation of the autonomous learning skills of the language learners. In this regard, achieving learner autonomy refers to taking responsibility in each stage of learning process from determining learning goals to assessment of the progress. Learners take charge of their learning through goal-setting, self-reflection and self-assessment. Pedagogical function of ELP refers to enabling learners to gain learner autonomy to pursue their goals to gain plurilingual competence, cultural awareness, gain more language qualifications and have life-long learning process (Kohonen & Westhoff, 2003; Little & Perclova, 2003; Little, 2002). Schneider & Lenz (2003) and Little & Simpson (2003) also draw attention to the pedagogical function ELP and elaborates on how ELP contributes to the learning process with its pedagogical function. Major

contribution of ELP is expected to enhance the motivation of learners to gain cultural awareness through generating an interest in new cultures and languages (Little & Simpson, 2003). Moreover, pedagogic function of ELP stimulates students to organize and plan learning activities and reflect on the learning goals, learning strategies and achievements.

Studies Related to the use of ELP in the World

Language policy division of Council of Europe engaged in a groundbreaking innovation in language education with the creation of Common European Framework and European Language Portfolio. It is easy to find many ELPs available in website of Council of Europe. These ELP models are designed at national level to adapt to the innovations in education by various countries and validated by the educational committee of the Council of Europe (Schneider & Lenz,2001). To guide developers of ELP, educational committee released a document called Principles and Guidelines that highlight the aims and fundamentals of the parts of the ELP.

Learner needs, situational requirements, age of the learners are all factors that shape the decisions about the content of Portfolio (Little & Perclova, 2003). Portfolios that are to be used by primary school students will be different from the portfolio used by university students or adults with special needs. Scharer (2007) reports that 98 of the portfolio models designed by 28 members are validated. These portfolio models differ in their aims, organization of the parts with regard to the level and needs of the learners. Whereas for secondary school students, learner autonomy is targeted to be developed, for adult learners reporting of learning experience is perceived as more important (Scharer, 2007).

Use of ELP and designation of a curriculum based on the recommendations of CEFR led to a modification of student-teacher relations. It would be demanding for all of the actors in language learning process adopt these novel principles at a short notice; thus, a need arose to pilot this novel document (Scharer 2007). Fifteen member countries of EU piloted the ELP between the years of 1997-2000. Some universities in connection with the attempt of CERCLES (Confédération Européenne des Centres de Langues de l'Education Supérieure) joined the Piloting project through developing and using ELP. Moreover, CERCLES also actively

participated in the research and piloted the ELP in various private language institutions.

These projects evaluated feedback from all of the participants in the form of quantitative and qualitative data. Students, teachers, administrators and project leaders answered structured interviews, open ended questions, questionnaires, and researchers involved in structured and unstructured classroom observation to reach a large amount of data (Scharer, 2000). As Scharer (2000, p.7) puts it, these projects were fundamental for highlighting the practical issues in development. These project reported the reactions of all of the stakeholders and tested the effectiveness of ELP in reaching the learning targets to present insights on the

- a) designation and evaluation of European Language Portfolio models;
- b) exploring favorable methods and procedures for implementation and clarifying resources and conditions needed;
- c) the impact on the quality of the learning and teaching process as well as on the learners and teachers;
- d) the compatibility between common European objectives and national and institutional goals, traditions and requirements;

Overall results of the projects are positive both on the part of learners and teachers. 68 % of the students think that students considers the time they allocated to fill in ELP is spent productively. 70 % of teachers evaluate ELP as a beneficial instrument for students. Furthermore, 78 % of teachers consider ELP as a tool that contributes to the teaching practice. Comprehensive evaluation of the projects is also available in Report by Scharer (2000) and results related to the reporting and pedagogical function of the ELP is intriguing.

Regarding the Pedagogical functions of the ELP, Results revealed that ELP is a feasible tool to fulfill the pedagogical functions it declared. Results indicated that learners engage in self-directed learning and adopt learner autonomy as a learning philosophy to gain a life-long learning perspective. Moreover, ELP is reported to foster self-assessment which is crucial for fulfilling learner autonomy and in turn, pedagogical function of the ELP. 70 % of learners consider a facilitator in self-assessment process. Furthermore, 70 % of the students think that ELP provides a

chance to compare the assessment made by teachers with their self-assessment of language skills.

On the part of the teachers and in relation to self-assessment, 63% of teachers think that students have self-assessment skills. 82% of them think that student evaluation is congruent with their own evaluation. ELP project conducted in Czech Republic reflects the overall positive results related to the pedagogical functions of the ELP. 39 private and state primary and secondary schools participated in the project. 85 % of the students reported that self-reflection done with the use of ELP increase their motivation. Self-reflection and motivation lies at the heart of learner autonomy. 81 % of teachers also reported that learner autonomy enhances with the use of ELP. Comments of teachers cited in Little & Perclova (2003) deserves attention in relation to the use of ELP to foster learner autonomy.

the reported outcomes of working with the ELP: The Portfolio encourages learners to be independent, to think about themselves and to assess themselves. It is something totally different from everything they have met so far” (Czech teacher of English to primary children of 8 and 9).

To continue with individual ELP projects in order to elaborate on the pedagogical value of the ELP, analysis by the Kohonen (2006) on Finnish language project will be useful. Kohonen (2006) stated that learners gain an awareness about the language learning process. Checklists provided a basis for learners to understand the essence of learning process and necessary skills to be acquired. Furthermore, they will be equipped with a metalanguage to learn the language effectively. Kohonen (2000) noted that ELP is significant from a pedagogical point of view as it stimulates autonomous learning skills in learners.

ELP is also reported to have positive impacts on the professional growth of the teachers (Kohonen,2006). As it is obvious from the comments of teachers participated in Finnish project. As use of ELP entails teacher reflection as well as student reflection, teachers also reflected on their teaching experience with their colleagues in the project. Sharing of experience shed light on how to integrate ELP effectively to classroom instruction. Moreover, it provided insights on how to use

ELP in its full potential to teach the subjects effectively. ELP offers immense opportunities for teachers to guide teaching practice as it defines the competences in each skill comprehensively in the form of checklists

In relation to the reporting function of the ELP Scharer (2000) states that learners were suspicious about the value and recognition of their self-assessment. They expected from official bodies to define and situate the self-assessment in ELP in national examination system. Little (2002) also states that it is necessary to give a status to self-assessment in assessment system to explore the reporting function of the ELP.

Pilot Projects formed the base for the design of future ELPs. After piloting phase, In 2001 and 2004, ELP has been implemented to explore the progress and changes in language education brought by ELP (Little,2002). In 2004, in Madrid a seminar was held to share experience in use of ELP and sponsored by Spain's Ministry of Education. Most significant result of studies in this seminar concerns the optimum conditions for implementing ELP. It is revealed that so as to observe a large scale change in language education with the use of ELP, schools need to have a whole-school approach. It means that ELP should be visible in curriculum, assessment, teaching objectives and ELP should be at the center of curricular decisions.

Interim report by Scharer (2007), is a summary of the implementation phase of portfolios and encompasses projects conducted between 2001-2007. In 2001-2007 93 new ELPs are introduced by 28 member countries. Scharer (2007) concluded that ELP achieved the purpose of spreading European goals, principles and values. Moreover, it brought about a change in conventionalized assessment system and educational practices. It opened new a venue for applying the educational principles of Europe in local and national level (Scharer, 2007).

Scharer (2007) means that integration of ELP to assessment system and daily teaching practice draw attention to novel concepts such as plurilingualism, inter-culturalism and learner autonomy. ELP acted as a triggering mechanism to change the educational systems to embrace a more learner-centered approach and raise multilingual citizens. Furthermore, it led to exchange of ideas on the use

of different learning styles and teaching methods. Thus, it brought all the stakeholders who are active in the project into a closer contact.

Researchers continued their effort to study the effects of the use of ELP in different countries. Ziegler (2014) conducts a research in Saxony, a city in Germany, with students at four different schools who study at four to nine grades. The study aims to find out the contribution of ELP to self-regulatory learning skills of learners. Students are divided into experimental and control groups. Whereas students in experimental group use ELP, students in control group do not use ELP. Results show that students in experimental group displayed more of the self-regulated learner characteristics compared to control group. High academic self-efficacy, mastery goal orientation, effective use of learning strategies emerged as the characteristics of learners in experimental group. Therefore, Ziegler (ibid.) concluded that ELP fulfills its pedagogical function.

Pilot projects were not limited to secondary and primary school level. It is important to explore the outcomes of pilot studies conducted at universities. In Moscow Linguistic University, ELP was used at university level alongside the secondary and primary school level. University students and lecturers considered ELP as a useful tool that contributes to the learning process. Their comments imply that ELP fulfilled its pedagogical and reporting function through stimulating students to do self-assessment, and defining learning objectives (Scharer, 2000). Italian ELP model is used at Calabria University from 1998-2001. Students at Economics and Political Science department participated in the study and used ELP in learning process of several languages. Results indicate that learners devised learning strategies, set learning targets, and did self-assessment (Evangelisti, 2002).

Another study by Roman & Soriano (2015) aims to integrate newly introduced concepts of learner autonomy and self-assessment into language education in Spain through the use of ELP. Subjects of the study were 25 primary school students who are in fifth grade. Roman & Soriano (2015) report that although students were willing to take responsibility and attempted to be autonomous learners, they lacked self-evaluation skills. It is revealed that students did not have self-awareness about their learning styles and capabilities. Therefore, researchers concluded that adoption of new educational practices of learner autonomy requires teacher guidance and takes time to exercise it in its full potential.

Pilot projects was not without its deficiencies and limitations though. As Sharer (2002) puts it, ELP is an innovation in education field and adoption to this new system at national level will take time. Abuja (2002) state that integrating ELP to assessment system is difficult to achieve in a short time. Students and teachers were unsure about the educational value of this new tool. Therefore, appropriate use of ELP entails time, effort and efficient training.

In conclusion, ELP is perceived as an instrument that enhance the awareness of the students about their learning process through use of learning strategies of self-assessment, self-reflection and goal setting. In turn, it contributes to gaining language skills effectively. Besides, ELP fosters plurilingualism and interculturalism. In this respect, ELP encourages students to continue their efforts to learn new languages outside the formal education.

Studies related to the use of ELP in Turkey

Attempts of Turkey to join European Union has also impacted its education policies (Demirel, 2005). Turkish Ministry of Education intended to experiment the educational innovations of Council of Europe. Therefore, ELP was piloted in 20 private high schools and 4 state high schools in Ankara and Antalya in 2001 as a tool to foster life-long education, self-assessment and plurilingualism (Demirel, 2005). In 2003, European Validation Committee validated the Turkish ELP model. In 2005, piloting projects extended to other parts of the Turkey and it continued to prevail.

TOMER Language Teaching Centre at Ankara University also took an interest in ELP studies and become the first educational institution to use ELP in adult education. European Validation Committee validated the ELP that is formed by TOMER in 2004. Foreigners learning Turkish gained the opportunity to prove their language competences with their validated ELPs (Ceylan, 2006).

At university level a pilot project is conducted by Glover & Mirici & Aksu (2005) at Muğla University. Subjects of the study are fifty students of preparation classes and six lecturers of these students. Results confirm previous research that students were eager to use ELP and it enhanced their motivation. Furthermore, majority of the students report that they gained autonomous learning skills.

After the trial phase, ELP arose an interest among some researchers to study its effects on learning process at different contexts and in relation to different language skills. Study by Ceylan (2006) seeks to explore the use of ELP to enhance the self-directed skills of the learners. It is conducted in preparatory classes of Eskişehir University. Interviews and questionnaires done with the students revealed that students have positive attitudes towards ELP and they gained self-directed learning skills.

With regard to the impact of use of ELP on improving language skills, several studies are dedicated to examine effects of ELP on communicative skills, speaking skills and reading skills. Glover (2011), aims to increase the awareness of the students studying at foreign language department at university about their speaking capabilities and ways of learning through the use of Common Reference Level Descriptors. Students are expected wrote reports about their speaking skills and these reports reveal that learners acquired the metalanguage to express and assess their speaking skills. Furthermore, they consider ELP as a valuable tool to improve their speaking skills.

Ataç (2008) studied the ELP in relation to authentic assessment to examine whether the use of ELP has an impact on the attitude towards reading class and persistence of reading skills. Study was conducted at Atılım University with two groups of control and two groups of experimental groups studying at foreign language preparation class of a university. Students grew positive attitudes towards the reading class and they perform better at persistency test compared to the students in control group. Another study by Göksu (2011) also confirm the results. It examines the effects of using ELP on reading skills and pre-test and post-tests showed that students performed better at reading test at the end of treatment phase.

A study by İşısağ (2008) explore the use ELP in relation to development of communication skills at English Language Teaching Department of Gazi University. Whereas two classes carry out tasks prepared in the light of Common Reference Level Descriptors for speaking skills, other two classes continue to use traditional methods. Additionally, two classes in experimental group use ELP and teaching targets are based on the Common Reference Level descriptors. At the end of the study, a speaking activity was carried out to evaluate and compare the

performances of the experimental and control group classes. Results indicate that classes that cover the subjects in the light of ELP outperformed other classes.

In conclusion, recognition of ELP as an instrument to foster life-long education, learner autonomy and plurilingual education did not occur at once. Pilot projects were the first step to test the educational principles of ELP that it acclaims to achieve. Positive results of the pilot study led to widespread use of ELP and even gave way to curriculum reforms in some European Countries (Schneider & Lenz,2001; Kohonen & Westhoff,2003). In Turkey, researchers integrate ELP to curriculum and assessment system to improve learning to learn habits of students and in turn, help them to master language skills.

Chapter 3

Methodology

Theoretical Framework

The current study adopted a mixed method research design to benefit from both qualitative and quantitative research technics. A mixed method study is a study design that includes both qualitative and quantitative data collected for a single study (Creswell & Clark 2017). Cameron (2009) posits that mixed method study design has received increasing attention from diverse disciplines since 1980s due to opportunities it offers for combining various data collection methods in a single study. There are several types of mixed method study designs. Researchers categorize them in terms of the dominance of one data collection method over others and the sequence of the testing procedures (Caracelli & Greene 1997; Creswell & Clark, 2017; Mertens, 2005). Present research fits into the explanatory design type that Creswell & Clark (2017) categorize under mixed method study designs.

Creswell & Clark (2017) classify mixed methodologies according to the design types, which are triangulation, embedded, explanatory and exploratory. These designs might require using concurrent timing of collecting quantitative or qualitative data as well as collecting data sequentially through collecting either quantitative or qualitative data first. For the present study, quantitative data were collected first through open-ended Written Discourse Completion Tests (OWDCT) and Oral Discourse Completion Tests (ODCT) at the beginning and after the treatment phase. Later, qualitative data was collected at the end of the study using Focus Group Interviews. Focus group interviews were conducted to obtain further insights on the test results and delve into intricacies of the learning process. As the quantitative data is of primary importance, this study is a sequential explanatory design that qualitative data served as a tool to interpret and analyze findings in depth (Creswell; Gutman; Hanson; Plano Clark, 2003).

Current study targeted to explore the effects of learner autonomy on the pragmatic skills of 'making requests' and 'apologizing' speech acts. The researcher specifically aimed to improve the performance of learners in producing appropriate 'requesting' and 'apologizing' strategies to lessen the face-threatening effect of

speech acts. Past studies (Taguchi, 2015; Shively, 2011; Cohen, 2005) reveal that training learners to be autonomous and strategic learners yield positive results in terms of improving the pragmatic skills of learners. Current study aspires to explore the effects of strategy-based instruction on pragmatic proficiency of the learners.

The present study adopted experimental study design as a research strategy to investigate the impact of strategy-based instruction on pragmatic proficiency. An experimental research involves testing a hypothesis to compare two phenomena to discover the variables that created the end results (Cohen, Manion, Morrison, 2007). In order to investigate the effect of certain variables on other other variables, researcher manipulate a some variables. These variables are called independent variables. Variables that are the subject of the study and measured at the end of the is called dependent variables (Cohen et al, 2007). Independent variables can involve creating a treatment condition to test the effect of treatment or intervention on dependent variable. In current study, dependent variable was the pragmatic competence of the learners and independent variable is the treatment condition which is strategy-based instruction.

Among experimental study designs, the current study utilized a true-experimental research design that involves the use of pretest-posttest control group design formulation (Cambell & Stanley,1963). In true experimental research, participants are randomy assigned to an either control group or experimental group. Random assignment is what it distinguishes it from other types of experimental research. Randomization entails ensuring that participants have same characteristics on relevant dependent variables (Creswell,2014; Dörnyei,2007; Phakiti,2014).It enables the researcher to estimate the effects of treatment condition as it is the treatment condition that generate the results rather some extraneous varibels.In current research, researcher strived to control extraneous variables and ensure that participants have the same characteristics in terms of pragmatic competence, language learning experience and exposure to target language.

60 students of B level class studying at English Preparation class were divided into two groups of control and experimental group. The experimental group received 7 weeks of treatment. As it is required for subjects to have a base of knowledge in grammar, vocabulary and speaking, B level students were chosen through purposeful sampling. In order to rule out any variable that will intervene the

outcomes of treatment condition, subjects were given a demographic questionnaire prior to the study. After the pretest, an intervention that lasted 7 weeks took place. After the intervention phase, both the control and experimental group students were given posttests. Upon finishing the collection of quantitative data, the researcher administered three focus group interviews with voluntary subjects.

The major objective of the intervention process was to enhance the pragmatic competence of the learners. Fostering learner autonomy was considered to contribute to the learning of pragmatic elements. Equipped with autonomous learner skills, participants were expected to direct their attention to speech acts and discover the sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic variations in the use of speech acts through the use of language learning strategies. These strategies involve setting learning goals, creating learning strategies and doing self-assessment. In helping learners to be autonomous and create learning strategies to continue their learning process outside the school, the current study targeted to guide learners in setting learning goals and creating learning strategies. Therefore, in this study Biography part of European Language Portfolio and activities based on Cohen's taxonomy of Language Learning Strategies for Pragmatics as well as activities recommended by Little & Perclova (2003) are conducted.

Following are the research questions that guided the current research.

1. Is there any effect of using strategy-based instruction on improving pragmatic competence of the students?

1.a. Is there any effect of using strategy-based instruction on the use of the speech acts appropriately?

1.b. Is there any effect of using strategy-based instruction on raising the awareness about request modification strategies?

1.c. Is there any effect of using strategy-based instruction on the use of apologizing strategies appropriately?

1.d. What are the perceptions of students about strategy-based instruction?

Setting and Participants

This study was conducted at the English Preparatory School of İstanbul Sabahattin Zaim University. As the medium of language is English for some of the

departments at İstanbul Sabahattin University, students should have B level English proficiency to start to major in their departments. Therefore, at the beginning of the semester, a placement test is administered to place the students either to preparation classes or transfer them to faculty. Students are placed at classes in terms of proficiency levels from A1 to B2 based on the results of the Cambridge Placement Test. The test includes writing, listening, speaking, and grammar part and in the light of the exam scores, students were placed into classes. In order to pass a level, students have to complete 7 weeks of quarters and have the minimum necessary score for moving to a higher level.

According to the results of Cambridge Placement Exam, four B classes based on Common European Framework of References for Languages (CEFR) global scales were created and all of these students have similar levels in terms of listening, speaking, reading and writing skills. Past studies by Timpe (2012) and Sasaki (1998) set an example for current in terms of selecting subjects. The study by Timpe (2012) relied on the scores determined by the Cambridge Placement Test to ensure the homogeneity of subjects in terms of language proficiency. As well as prioritizing test scores in placing subjects, the researchers have also taken other variables into account in testing pragmatics.

Sasaki (1998) and Timpe (2012) strived to create a sample that has similar backgrounds in terms of the previous language learning experience, contact with native speakers and exposure to the target language. Cohen, Weaver & Liu (1996) also put importance on having subjects with a similar language learning experience and speaking proficiency and created a background questionnaire. The current study utilized a background questionnaire created based on questionnaires by Cohen, Weaver & Liu (1996) and Timpe (2012). This questionnaire is concerned with the previous learning experience of learners to uncover any learners started to learn the languages at a very early age or study at an English-medium school. This demographic questionnaire was expected to detect any participant that has a different background in terms of the language learning experience. Thus, any external variable having the potential to distort the results were eliminated.

In this study judgmental sampling, in other words, purposeful sampling is used. Purposeful sampling enables researchers to create a subject group that suits the study purposes and allow eliminating any confounding variables (Marshall,

1996). B level classes were specifically chosen. Carrying out activities and doing pragmatic tests required at least B1 level of language abilities. There is no specific detail in CEFR related to pragmatic skills. However, B level was thought to be appropriate for students to build further pragmatic skills on their existing language skills. It is important to note that participants were assumed to have similar pragmatic competence as none of the students lived in an English-speaking country or studied in an English-speaking country before. Moreover, none of the students had studied in an English-medium school. Students had not received any training on the pragmatic elements before they came to the university. Results of the background questionnaire are given below.

Participants L1 Backgrounds and Gender Profile

Table 2

Gender and Language

	Gender	N	L1	N
Experimental Group (Written DCT)	Female	19	Turkish	16
	Male	11	Arab	10
			Tajik	2
			Taiwanese	1
			Georgian	1
Experimental Group (Oral DCT)	Female	17	Turkish	15
	Male	12	Arab	10
			Tajik	2
			Taiwanese	1
			Georgian	1
Control Group (Written DCT)	Female	14	Turkish	16
	Male	16	Arab	10
			Malaysian	2
			Taiwanese	2
			Georgian	1
Control Group (Oral DCT)	Female	13	Turkish	16
	Male	16	Arab	10
			Malaysian	2
			Taiwanese	2
			Georgian	1

Contact with Target Culture

Table 3

Previous Language Learning Experience

	Start Time	N	Medium of Instruction	N
Experimental Group	Pre-School	1	English	0
	Primary School and Later	30	Native Language	31
Control Group	Pre-School	1	English	0
	Primary School and Later	30	Native Language	31

Table 4

Exposure to Target Language Experimental Group

	Duration of visits	N	Frequency of visits	N	Frequency of contact with Native Speakers	N	Duration of watching TV series or movies in English	N
Experimental Group	Less than a Year	1	Once	3	Once or Twice a Week	1	More than One Hour a Day	30
	Less than Three Months	2	Never	28	Once a Week	2	Less than an Hour	1
	Never	28			Never	28		
Control Group	Less than a Year	0	Once	3	Once or Twice a Week	0	More than One Hour a Day	31
	Less than Three Months	3	Never	28	Once a Week	3	Less than an Hour	0
	Never	28			Never	28		

As it is seen from the table 1, table 2, table 3, and table 4 not all the students completed the Written Discourse Completion Test (WDCT) and Oral Interview. Namely, Oral Discourse Completion Test (ODCT). Speaking of Experimental Group,

two students did not participate in ODCT whereas they completed the WDCT. However, one, who did not fill in WDCT, participated in ODCT. Moreover, two students in the control group did not participate in ODCT although they filled in WDCT. Yet, one student who did not do WDCT participated in ODCT. 60 students that composed of experimental and control groups filled in WDCT. However, 58 students that belong to experimental and control groups did the ODCT. Therefore, 54 students, 27 from the experimental group students and 27 from the control group students participated in all phases of pretest and posttest. 24 students in the experimental group voluntarily participated in Focus Group Interviews. Focus Group Interviews were conducted in three sections and 8 students participated in each section.

English Preparatory School of İstanbul Sabahattin Zaim University uses “Interchange” as the course book. “Interchange” includes the target structures of making requests and apologizing, yet the focus is mostly on grammar knowledge. Therefore, the treatment activities of the research were in line with the subjects covered in class. Students had 6 hours of main course and 2 hours of consolidation course. In the main course, they learn grammar subjects. Although their book handles the subjects as grammar, listening, speaking and reading, class time was devoted to the teaching of grammar part.

The study was conducted between the November 24th of September and 12th of October in 2018. Learners were required to complete the B level successfully to start their studies at faculty. 7 weeks of Quarters constituted a level and after seven weeks all of the students were allocated to different classes at a higher level. Therefore, treatment lasted only one quarter which lasted 7 seven weeks. It is also important to note that students’ majors are not a factor as learners from different majors such as engineering, economics, psychology and English language teaching study at the same class at English Preparatory School of İstanbul Sabahattin Zaim University.

Data Collection

The present study is composed of three phases. Prior to data collection, a background questionnaire was given to ensure the homogeneity of the subjects in terms of pragmatic proficiency. Upon analyzing the results, students were divided

as a control and experimental group and students did the first pretest. After the pretests, a treatment phase started and lasted 7 seven weeks. In the last phase, posttests were conducted and Focus Group Interviews took place. Students in the experimental group participated in Focus Group Interviews on a voluntary basis.

Data were collected with the use of three instruments. In order to measure the differences between treatment and control group, both a pretest and a posttest were conducted. An open-ended Written Discourse Completion Test (WDCT), and an Oral Discourse Completion Test (ODCT) were given at the beginning and at the end of the seven weeks of treatment. OWDCT (given in appendix A) and ODCT (given in appendix C) are composed of 8 different requests and apologies. Pre-tests for both the control group and experimental group were conducted during the class time on the first week of the classes. Role-play data were collected by the researcher and answers of the students were recorded via cell-phone voice recording application.

For WDCT students were given 30 minutes and it was conducted during consolidation hours. Collecting role-play data took more time. Role-play data were collected during 10 minutes long break times and one hour lunch break time as class time was insufficient. In relation to the intervention process, students in the experimental group conducted activities based on strategy taxonomy of Cohen (2005) and suggestions in Guide Book by Little & Perclova (2003) in consolidation hours. In order to do self-reflection during this process, students in the experimental group also filled in Biography Part of European Language Portfolio. Students in the control group did not receive any treatment. Target structures were covered in their textbook so both students in the experimental group and control group were exposed to target structures, namely, speech acts of requests and apologies. After the treatment phase, a focus group interview was conducted with students in the experimental group to explore their perceptions on the use of European Language Portfolio and activities conducted in class.

Cohen (2005) created a taxonomy of language learning strategies for learning speech acts. Taguchi (2018) argued that learners can profit from an autonomous learning process in gaining pragmatic skills as classroom instruction provides limited exposure to pragmatic elements. She discovered that one of the students participated in a study in 2011 used learning strategies and his pragmatic

awareness raised notably. Based on this finding, and in the light of the results of the study by Cohen & Ishihara (2005), Taguchi (2018) claimed that an autonomous learning process that learners create and use learning strategies might have positive effects on producing speech acts. In 2005, Cohen & Ishihara created a web-based strategy training instrument and prepared teaching materials that adopt a self-regulated and autonomous learning approach. Teaching materials and activities aimed to direct learners' attention to pragmatic elements and help them set learning goals, use learning strategies, do self-reflection and self-evaluation. Learners have improved their pragmatic skills. Cohen (2005) analyzed the strategies used by participants in the study by Cohen & Ishihara (2005). She devised her taxonomy of language learning strategies for learning speech acts based on the strategies gleaned from the study by Cohen & Ishihara (2005). Her taxonomy composed of steps of setting learning goals, creating learning strategies, doing self-assessment and self-reflection.

The current study aims to create an autonomous learning process using a strategy-based instruction. In order to help and guide learners in identifying learning goals, setting goals, creating learning strategies, doing self-reflection and self-assessment, activities adopted by the Cohen's Taxonomy (2005) and guidebook by (Little & Perclova, 2003) were conducted. In order or to help learners record their learning process and do self-reflection and self-evaluation, Language Biography part of European Language Portfolio created by American Culture Schools were used. Activities adapted by Cohen (2005) aimed to direct learners' attention to target forms and use learning strategies to improve their pragmatic competence. Use of learning strategies, primarily aimed to raise the pragmatic awareness of the students. Conducting activities adapted by Little & Perclova (2003) served for the purpose of helping learners do self-assessment and update their learning goals accordingly.

Aims of using strategy training activities and parts of Language Biography and their contribution to the learning process are explained below. Language learning strategies required collecting data on target forms, seeking practice opportunities, practicing the target forms and discovering weaknesses and strengths in the learning process. Language Biography included parts on setting learning goals, and descriptors to guide learners in goal setting, methods of

language learning. Moreover, Language Biography help learners do self-reflection as learners recorded their proficiencies in relation to learning cultural behaviors. The following section shall present a more detailed explanation of the parts and their benefits to the learning process.

Parts of Language Biography

a. Goal setting and Learning How to Learn

Aim: Helping learners to set learning goals and make them think about learning methods.

Explanation: In this part, learners wrote down their learning goals and specified their learning targets and wrote down which skills they expect to improve. Moreover, learners filled out the questionnaire part which concentrates on methods of learning the language.

b. My Language and Intercultural Experience

Aim: Encouraging learners to seek out practice opportunities and creating learning sources.

Explanation: In this part, learners wrote down the sources they used for learning English. These sources include movies, books, and exchanges in English with native speakers or non-native speakers. This part was considered to encourage students to find sources and record this sources. Moreover, this part would boost the motivation to practice target forms and gain more intercultural experience. As students did not have the chance to visit an English speaking country, they recorded their experience in role-plays conducted in class under the scope of this research.

c. My Cultural Awareness

Aim: Encouraging learners to do self-reflection and self-assessment.

Explanation: In this part, learners not only recorded the cultural attitudes they learned in the target culture; they also wrote down the cultural attitudes they did not understand. Through recording their intercultural experience, they would discover their weaknesses and strengths. In filling in this part, they took into consideration the activities they had done in class and outside the university.

Activities that aimed to create autonomous learners, namely, ethnographers, were created based on tasks taken from Little & Perclova's (2003) Guidebook for teachers to fulfill the pedagogical purpose of the ELP. Moreover, activities also drew on the Taxonomy of Learning Strategies for Speech Acts by Cohen (2005). Although two of the sources might sound irrelevant together, their aims converge. Use of language learning strategies also addressed to the autonomous learning skills of the learners and have the objective to encourage learners to set learning goals, create learning strategies, do self-assessment and self-reflection. These activities were conducted to teach students how to become an autonomous learner and continue this process on a life-long basis. Specific aims of the activities and flows of the activities are given below.

ELP-Based Activities

First Week

First Session:(25 minutes)

Aim: Introducing the parts of ELP (Little & Perclova, 2003) and the benefits of using ELP.

Activity: Researcher wrote down the assumed benefits of keeping a Portfolio after a discussion on the possible benefits of it. A sample Language Biography was distributed to the students. Researcher introduced the ELP and talked about its functions. Main functions of ELP that are compiling the works and monitoring the progress were highlighted.

Second Session: (25 minutes)

Aim: Helping learners to set learning goals and encourage them to devise learning methods.

Activity: Researcher introduced Language Biography by showing a fully filled Language Biography. After a discussion on the learning methods, learners started to fill in parts of Language Biography on Learning to Learn and Goal Setting (They were recommended to continue filling in these two parts on coming weeks).

Second Week

First Session: (30 minutes)

Aim:

- 1) "Identifying the speech acts to focus on and gathering information through interview" (Cohen, 2005, p. 289).
- 2) "Introducing learners to work with ELP" (Little & Perclova, 2003, p. 23), especially the parts of "Cultural Awareness and Intercultural Experience".

Activity: Learners conducted an interview on making requests when there is a social distance between the interlocutors. The researcher asked learners to use this strategy of learning outside the class and record their experience in their Language Biography on the parts of Cultural Awareness and Intercultural Experience (Activity sheet given in Appendix E. Assignment sheet is given in Appendix G).

Second Session: (30 minutes)**Aim:**

- 1) Raising awareness about sociocultural variables in the use of speech acts.
- 2) Making students do self-reflection, self-evaluation with the guidance of native speakers.

Activity: Researcher conducted a discussion on making requests in different situations. After the discussion, students did a role play in a situation that Social Distance, Social Power and Ranking of the Imposition of the situation were low. During role-play, native speakers observed the students. Native speakers gave students feedback on the criteria determined by the researcher. Criteria were appropriacy of the answers in terms of directness and politeness of the expressions (Activity sheet is given in Appendix F). Students were asked to continue filling in the part of Cultural Awareness at home.

Third Week:**First Session:** (30 minutes)

Aim: Introducing the learning strategy of "conducting lay cross-cultural analysis" by identifying semantic formulas that tend to be used with the given speech act in that situation" (Cohen, 2005: 289). This activity raised awareness about the relationship between sociocultural variables and request modification strategies.

Moreover, it guided learners in collecting data on the pragmatic uses of the language.

Activity: Students watched two role-plays that illustrated both an appropriate use of request modification and incompetent use of request modification. Students analyzed the situations based on three guiding questions. Students were asked to evaluate the modification strategies outside the class based on the directness and politeness of request forms (Activity sheet is given in Appendix H).

Second Session:(30 minutes)

Aim:

- 1) Encouraging learners to use the learning strategy of “conducting lay cross-cultural analysis” by identifying semantic formulas that tend to be used with the given speech act in that situation” (Cohen, 2005: 289),
- 2) Guiding students in collecting data on the pragmatic uses of the language.
- 3) Helping learners to gain cultural awareness and Intercultural experience and record their learning experience on the related parts of Language Biography.

Activity: Students did a role-play in pairs and wrote it down. In this role-play, they made a request in a situation that Social Distance is low, Social Power is equal, and Ranking of Imposition is high. They analyzed the dialogue in terms of the Socio-pragmatic features and request modification strategies they used. An evaluation sheet was distributed to them to give guidance (Activity sheet is given in Appendix I).

Fourth Week:

First Session:(30 minutes)

Aim:

- 1) Guiding learners to create practice opportunities
- 2) Helping learners do a peer-evaluation activity (Recommended by Little & Perclova (2003) to encourage self-assessment),
- 3) Helping learners to do self-assessment.

Activity: Students did a role-play and wrote down it as a dialogue. This situation required students to apologize in a situation that Ranking of Imposition is

high whereas other variables equal. Students evaluated other group's dialogues based on the evaluation sheet distributed to them. Students were asked to practice strategies for making requests and apologizing strategies with their friends outside the class. Students were asked to create practice opportunities and fill in the Cultural Awareness part of Language Biography based on their intercultural encounters (Activity sheet is given in Appendix J).

Second Session: (30 minutes)

Aim of the Activity:

- 1) Guiding learners to create practice opportunities
- 2) Helping learners do a peer-evaluation activity (Recommended by Little & Perclova (2003) to encourage self-assessment),
- 3) Helping learners to do self-assessment.

Activity: Students did a role-play and wrote it down as a dialogue. This situation required students to apologize in a situation that there is a social distance between the participants and the Ranking of Imposition is high whereas Social Power is equal. Students evaluated other group's dialogues based on the evaluation sheet distributed to them. This activity and previous activity set an example to practice pragmatic elements outside the class. Students were asked to do role-play or talk to more competent speakers to practice apologizing strategies. Role-plays would help them discover their weaknesses in performing speech acts. Students were asked to create practice opportunities and fill in the Cultural Awareness part of Language Biography based on their intercultural encounters (Activity sheet is given in Appendix K).

Fifth Week: (30 minutes)

Aim:

- 1) Encouraging learners to use the learning strategy of "conducting lay cross-cultural analysis" by identifying semantic formulas that tend to be used with the given speech act in that situation" (Cohen, 2005: 289),
- 2) Guiding students in collecting data on the pragmatic uses of the language

- 3) Helping learners to gain cultural awareness and Intercultural experience and record their learning experience on the related parts of Language Biography.

Activity: Learners were distributed to two dialogues. The researcher and a native speaker will role-play the dialogues. Both Dialogues was related to the same apology situation in which Social Power is High. Whereas one of the dialogues illustrated the appropriate use of apologizing strategies, other dialogue includes inappropriate use of apologizing strategy. Students identified apologizing strategies in each of the dialogues and asked to collect data on apologizing strategies (Activity sheet is given in Appendix L).

Sixth Week: (30 minutes)

Aim:

- 1) Encouraging use of Learning Strategy of “gathering information on how speech acts are performed by the given speech community” (Cohen, 2005: p. 289)
- 2) Encouraging learners to gain Intercultural Experience outside the class and record their Experience on the related parts of the Language Biography.

Activity: Students watched a video. They analyzed the request modification strategies in the video based on the evaluation sheet distributed to them. Students were asked to continue finding examples of request modification examples from series or movies (Activity sheet is given in Appendix M).

Seventh Week: (40 minutes)

Aim: Students did a peer-evaluation activity (Recommended by Little & Perclova (2003) to encourage self-assessment) to discover the weaknesses in the learning process and update their learning goals. As it was the case with the other activities, an evaluation sheet was given to guide students in the evaluation process.

Activity: Students were given two situations that require them to do role-play and wrote it down as a dialogue. In the first apology situation, social distance, social power, and Ranking of Imposition were high. In the second one, only Ranking of Imposition was high. Students evaluated other group’s dialogues based on the

evaluation rubric after they wrote down the dialogues. After the evaluation the teacher make two of the students role-play their dialogue and evaluated the dialogue in terms of the evaluation criteria given in activity sheet (Activity sheet is given in Appendix N).

Activities were conducted during the 7 weeks and post-test was given at the end of seven weeks. In 7th week Language Biographies of the students were collected. In control groups, DCT as a post-test was conducted in class time. Role-Plays were recorded in break times. In experimental groups, DCT was given as homework and role-plays were recorded in break times. In week 8, they had a Cambridge Exam to complete the B1 level and continue in B1+ classes. In the first week of the classes in the 9th week, focus group interview was done with 21 students. Interviews were done in three sections and in each section, there were 7 students. Interviews were conducted in Turkish with one of the groups as they felt more comfortable in speaking Turkish.

First, a quantitative analysis was done and pre and posttest results of the students in terms of appropriacy of the answers were evaluated. Then, Group differences were examined. Means of the post-tests were compared. Then, the improvement of the groups was compared. As the second step of quantitative analysis, an increase in the request modifications and apologizing strategies were compared.

In order to interpret the quantitative results more effectively, and examine whether students experienced an autonomous learning period, focus group interviews were conducted. Interview questions have three main focuses. Perceptions of learners about the use of Language Biography its parts were elicited. Moreover, whether learners applied the learning strategies or not were aimed to be explored. Lastly, perceptions of learners on the activities and their benefits on the learning process were elicited. Interviews were conducted in three sections in lunch breaks in week 9th. 21 students participated in the focus group interview. Transcripts of the interviews were taken, and they were analyzed according to the themes appeared as a result of the first analysis.

The table given below summarized the aims of activities and the activity types.

Table 5
Activity Log

Session	Time	Purpose	Activity
1 st Week 1 st Session	25 mins	Introducing ELP	Writing down benefits of ELP
1 st Week 2 nd Session	15 mins	Doing Self-Reflection	Setting Learning Goals and Reflection on learning Methods
2 nd Week 1 st Session	25 mins	Gathering of Information on speech acts	Doing Interview
2 nd Week 2 nd Session	25 mins	Doing Self-Reflection and Self-evaluation	Doing a Role-play
3 rd week 1 st session	25 mins	Conducting cross-cultural analysis	Analyzing two dialogues
3 rd week 2 nd session	25 mins	Conducting cross-cultural analysis	Analyzing two dialogues
4 th week 1 st session	25 mins	Creating Practice Opportunities and doing self-evaluation	Doing Role-Play and Peer-evaluation
4 th week 2 nd session	25 mins	Creating Practice Opportunities and doing self-evaluation	Doing Role-Play and Peer-evaluation
5 th week	25 mins	Identifying downgraders for data collection	Analyzing two Dialogues

6 th week	25 mins	Gathering information on speech acts	Watching a video and analyzing downgraders
7 th week	25 mins	Creating practice opportunities and Doing Self-evaluation	Doing Role-Play and Peer-evaluation

Instruments

Open-ended written discourse completion test. Blum-Kulka & Olshtain (1984, p. 198) reports that Discourse Completion Test “consists of incomplete discourse sequences that represent socially differentiated situations. Each discourse sequence presents a short description of the situation, specifying the setting, the social distance between the interlocutors and their status relative to each other, followed by an incomplete dialogue. Informants are asked to complete the dialogue, thereby providing the speech act aimed at in the given context”. As this definition implies, Discourse Completion Tests (DCTs) test pragmatic knowledge of the participants. However, first practices of eliciting pragmatic elements through DCT aimed to discover differences in realizations of speech acts. Blum-Kulka (1982, cited in Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984) employed DCT to compare speech act realizations of native speakers and language learners.

Later, (Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984) launched a project called Cross-Cultural Speech Acts Realization Patterns (CCSARP) that aimed to reveal the cross-cultural differences between the realizations of speech acts of Apology and Request across various cultures. Not until the early 1990s that DCTs have become a commonly used instrument for testing pragmatic knowledge. Hudson & Detmer & Brown (1995) adapted the DCT used in CCSARP project to use it as a language testing tool and developed an English DCT with the speech acts of Apologies, Requests, and Refusals. The DCT by Hudson et al (1995) test the ability to use the speech acts in an appropriate level of directness, and politeness in a given context. Social parameters of Social Distance, Social Power, and Social Context are the factors that determine the level of directness and politeness involved in a speech act.

As Detemer (2007) underlines it, drawing on past research (Beebe & Cummings, 1995; Cohen & Olshtain, 1994) authenticity of data bears significant

importance for testing pragmatic knowledge. Feasibility and practicality of collecting naturally occurring data might pose problems for the researcher. These problems can stem from observer effect, hardships in controlling variables and reaching out mass data (Yuan, 2001). To illustrate, a study indicates that a naturally occurring conversation is limited in featuring social variables as it focused on interactions between professors and students, namely, status unequal (Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford, 1993). Moreover, as Yuan (2001) underlines, in gathering authentic data, elicitation of a rich range of speech act strategies might be hard to achieve due to the lack of informal contexts.

It is possible to manipulate social and contextual variables in a DCT. Therefore, DCTs seemed to be a practical data collection tool. Additionally, DCTs allow the researcher to control the variables more effectively and enable the conducting the test in a smaller amount of time with a larger amount of population. However, DCTs might pose challenges in terms of ensuring the authenticity of the answers (Detemer, 2007, Cohen, 1996). As learners are alone with the test instrument and take their time to write down the answer, it might be hard to elicit authentic data. Therefore, researchers recommend the use of multiple research instruments to test pragmatic knowledge (Cohen & Olsthain, 1994; Kasper & Dahl, 1991)

Discourse Completion tests have several versions and each version serves for a different purpose. Open Ended Discourse Completion involves a situation prompt and students write down what they would say in this situation. There is also a Close Discourse Completion Test that includes a situation prompt and response of the interlocutor. Students are expected to write down their answers based on the situational prompt and response of the interlocutor. Drawing on Bardovi-Harlig (1993), it can be said that Close-ended DCTs might manipulate answers of the students and answers can change according to the answer written down in the third turn. Therefore, in this study, an Open-ended DCT was used. The purpose was to elicit the request modification strategies and apologizing strategies that are appropriate to the situational and social variables. An example of an Open-Ended DCT is given below.

“In the English lesson you are reading a passage and the teacher wants you to find the meanings of the new vocabulary. But you realize that you forgot your dictionary

at home. Your friend is sitting next to you. You want to borrow his/her dictionary.
What would you say?

.....
.....”

(Balci,2009)

In the current study, an Open-ended WDCT created by (Balci,2009) was used (given in appendix A). This DCT was composed of 8 apology and 8 request situations. Balci (2009) developed this test to compare the native speakers and non-native speakers in terms of appropriacy of their answers and patterns of indirectness strategies in producing requests and apologies. As this test elicits both request modification strategies and apologizing strategies according to different social variables in each situation, it is suitable for the research purposes. In this research, the construct to be explored is appropriacy of the speech act production with the use of necessary modification strategies. Therefore, the DCT devised by Balci (2009) was used as one of the data collection instruments. It is important to note that, in each situation, a different social variable is controlled.

Balci (2009) grounded the socio-pragmatic variables of her test on the Politeness Theory by Brown & Levinson (1987). Brown & Levinson (1987) argued that interlocutors use some strategies to soften the effects of face-threatening acts. These strategies are determined by the sociolinguistic variables of Social Power, Social Distance and Absolute Ranking of Imposition.

1. Social Power; refers to the relative social power of the participants that might involve one of the participants to be more polite and indirect. In other words, Relative Social Power of the participants is concerned with the degree to which an interlocutor “can impose his or her will on the hearer due to a higher rank within an organization, professional status, or hearer’s need to have a particular duty or job performed” (Hudson et al, 1995, p. 4)

+P: Speaker has a higher social position in terms of rank or title or seems to be in control.

-P: Speaker has a lower social position.

2. Social Distance: is concerned with the level of familiarity between the participants that determine the indirectness and politeness of the utterances.

+D= Interlocutors are strangers to each other.

-D: Speakers know each other and have connections that they “share solidarity”.

3. Absolute Ranking of Imposition: refers to the level of seriousness of the situation that speech act is performed. In more clear terms, it means “the right of the Speaker to perform the act; and the degree to which the Hearer welcomes the imposition” (Brown & Levinson;1987, p. 74)

+ R: If ranking of imposition of a situation is high, it can be implied that this request can be carried out devoting a “great expenditure of goods, services, energy” (Hudson et al, 1995, p. 5) With regard to apologizing, it refers to the “great severity of the offense”(Hudson et al,1995, p. 5).

-R: If ranking of imposition of a situation is low, it can be implied that this request can be carried out devoting a “small expenditure of goods, services, energy”(Hudson et al,1995, p. 5) With regard to apologizing, it refers to the small severity of the offense (Hudson et al,1995, p. 5).

Sociolinguistic variables of Social Power, Social Imposition and Ranking of Imposition involving in each situation is given below.

Table 6

Item Variables for OWDCT

	Power	Distance	Ranking of Imposition	Referring Item
R	S=H	D+	Large	8
E	S=H	D-	Large	4
U	S=H	D+	Small	6
S	S=H	D-	Small	1

T S	S<H	D+	Large	2
	S<H	D-	Large	7
	S<H	D+	Small	5
	S<H	D-	Small	3
	S=H	D+	Large	6
A P O L O G I E S	S=H	D-	Large	4
	S=H	D+	Small	3
	S=H	D-	Small	7
	S<H	D+	Large	5
	S<H	D-	Large	2
	S<H	D+	Small	1
	S<H	D-	Small	8

S: Speaker, H: Hearer, D: Distance (Balci,2009)

In this study, Oral Discourse Completion Test, in other words, Oral Interview is used to collect data to support and validate the results of the Open-ended Written Discourse Completion Test (OWDCT). Oral Discourse Completion Test, namely, Role-play tasks entail test taker to adopt a role and perform the target speech act (Sasaki,1998). Role-plays are used as a data collection tool in interlanguage pragmatics research (House & Detmer & Brown,1995) and language testing research (Cohen & Olshtain,1981).

House, Detmer & Brown, 1992, 1995 developed an Oral Interview (1992) and other pragmatics tests such as OWDCT and Multiple-choice DCT based on the sociolinguistic variables of Power, Social Distance, and Ranking of Imposition. These variables were adapted by Blum-Kulka & Olshtain 's (1984) CCSARP project. Their Oral Interview guide specified the role of the interviewer in conversation as being a mechanism to elicit the data that is most similar to the natural use of

language. In the current study, interviewer guide by House, Detmer & Brown (1992) were adopted to elicit the target speech act in ODCT. Based on this guide, students assumed social roles that would elicit the most possible authentic use of speech acts in all the situations in DCT tasks. It is important to note that all the role-plays were conducted by the researcher.

Cohen & Olshtain (1994) argue that WDCTs and ODCTs are the most common data collection instruments for eliciting pragmatic knowledge and they are complementary to each other. Cohen & Olshtain (1994) articulate that use of WDCTs might not elicit real-life uses of the language as participants do not encounter the challenging nature of producing the speech acts in a real conversation. Performances of learners in Role- Plays (ODCT) might portray their real reactions as learners engage in a real conversation without any thinking time in ODCTs. Kasper & Dahl (1991) recommended the use of role-plays in collecting data interlanguage pragmatics since Role-Plays reveals the proficiency of learner controlling conversational turns and discourse competence. Therefore, it was argued to display all aspects of pragmatic competence effectively.

In this research, in order to explore the appropriacy of speech act production of the learners, ODCT and OWDCT were used as data collection tools. Use of ODCT was considered to help researcher overcome the shortcomings of the use of OWDCT as a sole data collection tool (Cohen & Olshtain, 1994; Kasper & Dahl, 1991). ODCT used in this study was composed of 8 request situations and 8 apology situations (given in appendix C). In each situation, a sociolinguistic variable of Social Power, Social Distance, and Ranking of Imposition was controlled. Structure of the variables and their combinations were the same as the OWDCT. Request situations used in this study were adapted by Safont- Jordà (2003) and Apology situations were adapted by Jianda (2007). Research by Safont- Jordà (2003) sought to investigate the effects of bilingualism on the pragmatic productions of the third language speakers. Role-play situations in that study were adapted according to the research purposes.

In order to create different combinations of sociolinguistic variables, Request situations by Safont- Jordà (2003) underwent some changes. These adaptations have the sole purpose of helping learners to relate to the situations. These adaptations include the change of names of places (Turkish names were used),

slight changes of role relationships (making situations more culture-appropriate). Moreover, items that test-taker has a higher social position and power were omitted on the grounds that learners could not related to these type of situations. Apology situations used in this study were adapted by (Jianda, 2007). Jianda (2007) created a Multiple Choice Discourse Completion Test (MCDCT) for Chinese ESL speakers. In his test, there were 24 situations and 8 of the situations were taken and slight changes were made in some of the items to control sociolinguistic variables and create a different variable combination in each situation.

Sociolinguistic variables of Social Power, Social Imposition and Ranking of Imposition involving in each situation is given below.

Table 7

Item Variables for ODCT

	Power	Distance	Ranking of Imposition	Referring Item
	S=H	D+	Large	8
	S=H	D-	Large	3
R	S=H	D+	Small	6
E	S=H	D-	Small	5
Q	S<H	D+	Large	1
U	S<H	D-	Large	4
E	S<H	D+	Small	2
S	S<H	D-	Small	7
T	S=H	D+	Large	3
S	S=H	D-	Large	4
	S=H	D+	Small	7
A	S=H	D-	Small	1
P				
O				
L				
O				
G				

I	S<H	D+	Large	2
E				
S	S<H	D-	Large	6
	S<H	D+	Small	8
	S<H	D-	Small	5

S: Speaker, H: Hearer, D: Distance

Focus group interview. A focus group interview is a data elicitation technique that is collected from a purposefully chosen sample to generate a deep and insightful data on selected topic (Thomas, MacMillan, McColl, Hale & Bond, 1995). Conducting Focus Group Interview entails recording the responses of small groups of participants from 6-12 participants. Dörnyei (2007, p. 144) suggests that “it is an economical way to gather a relatively large amount of qualitative data”. Moreover, it enables participants to scrutinize their own learning experience in depth as a focus group interview encourages participants to do brainstorming and share their individual ideas (Dörnyei, 2007).

In focus group interviews, it is the group dynamic that creates more detailed and deeper insights on the topic compared to individual interviews. As participants have similar backgrounds and went through the same processes, group discussions will elicit the viewpoints of the students from multiple perspectives (Rabiee, 2004). Thus, it will be possible to touch upon every aspect of the topic and reveal the unique experience and perceptions of individuals in depth (Doody, Slevin & Taggart, 2013).

In order to get a deeper insight into the perceptions of learners about the autonomous learning process and collect qualitative data in a practical way, focus group Interview was conducted. Interview Questions were created based on the literature review on learner autonomy, language learning strategy research, and European Language Portfolio. There were 17 questions and these questions focused on the eliciting reactions of learners about having an autonomous learning process, learners’ perceptions on the effectiveness of the strategy training activities and use of Language Biography in learning Speech Acts (given in appendix D). Focus Group Interview was conducted in the first week of the second quarter (a time span of seven weeks for completing a level).

The sequence of data collection was as follows:

1. Pre-test Open Ended Discourse Completion Test
2. Pre-test Oral Interview
3. Instructional treatment
4. Post-test Open Ended Discourse Completion Test
5. Post-test Oral Interview
6. Focus Group Interview

Table 8

Data Collection Instruments

Research Questions	Data Collection Instrument
Question 1	ODCT and WDCT
Question 2	ODCT and WDCT
Question 3	ODCT and WDCT
Question 4	Focus Group Interview

Data Analysis

Speech act appropriateness scale. In order to analyze OWDCT and ODCT, the same appropriateness scale is used (given in appendix B). Speech Act Appropriateness Scale developed by Balcı (2009) is used to analyze DCT and Oral Interview. Balcı (2009) drew on Taguchi (2006) in developing her Speech Act Appropriateness Scale. Taguchi (2006) articulates that a good command of speech act requires effective control of linguistic and pragmatic knowledge as well as the use of communication strategies in relation to the requirements of different situations. Based on this formulation, Taguchi (2006) rated the pragmatic proficiency of learners on the aspects of correct wording, an appropriate level of directness, indirectness and politeness, use of appropriate linguistic strategies and discourse control. He codified the data based on a rating scale of 1 to 6. 1 refers to no-performance whereas 6 refers to excellent performance. His evaluation scale is given below.

Balcı (2009) considered this evaluation scale as being insufficient for reflecting the pragmatic performance of the learners. Therefore, she created an

evaluation scheme that assessment scale ranges from 1 to 10. The evaluation grid by Balcı (2009) was thought to be appropriate for analyzing the data. In her rating scale, Balcı (2009) formulated her rating scale taking account of the answers with poor pragmatic control but no grammatical errors. However, in rating scale by Taguchi (2006) linguistic competence and pragmatic competence seemed to go hand in hand. Data collected through ODCT and WDCT include answers with poor pragmatic control but little or no grammatical or discourse errors. Therefore, the rating scale by Balcı (2009) was considered to be a more comprehensive rating scale and was employed to analyze the data.

Appropriateness for requests involves appropriate use of directness, indirectness or politeness, use of address terms, giving the necessary amount of information or explanation, use of softeners, mitigators or other modification strategies to avoid using too direct expressions, and effective discourse control. In relation to apologies, appropriateness concerns with the appropriate use address terms, effective use of apologizing strategies in relation to the severity of the situation, and effective discourse control. The rating scale is given in the Appendix. Using the rating scale by Balcı (2009), pretest and posttest results of the participants were analyzed by the researcher and by a student who has a native-like competency via SPSS.

Pre-test and Post-test results in terms of the appropriacy of the requests and apologies were compared within the groups and then group means of Experimental and Control groups were compared to see if there is a significant difference between the groups. In quantitative analysis, the researcher and a student with native-like competency analyzed the situations. The student was majoring in English Language Teaching. She was born and raised in the United States of America until the age of seven. She went to nursery school in the USA and learned the target language at a very early age. Therefore, her intuitions in judging the appropriacy of the answer were deemed to be significant. The raters were informed about the rating criteria beforehand. They rated the data based on the rating scale given in the appendix B. Both OEDCT and Oral Interview were analyzed based on the Speech Act. In order to ensure interrater reliability, results by the two raters were compared with the use of descriptive statistics. To estimate interrater reliability, intraclass coefficients were calculated for each of the DCTs. Intraclass coefficient for pretest of OWDCT was

0,957, for posttest it was 0,988. Intraclass coefficient for pretest of ODCT was 0,948 and for posttest it was 0,988. Interreliability estimates were fairly high as the researcher and the rater revised the results together after scoring the DCTs.

Analysis of modification strategies. As well as quantitative analysis, a qualitative analysis was conducted to explore the internal and external modifications used in making requests and apologizing strategies used by the students. Students were expected to collect real-life examples of request and apology modification strategies as a requirement of strategy-based instruction. Thus, they would learn and produce pragmatically appropriate requests and apologies. In order to see the effects of strategy instruction in request modification and use of apologizing strategies, a qualitative analysis was conducted. This analysis has two main aims. It was considered to reveal whether there is an increase in the number of modification strategies and apologizing strategies in post-tests. Additionally, it was employed to discover whether learners used a wider range of modification strategies.

Brown & Levinson (1987) considered requests as being inherently face-threatening acts since they might violate the hearer's right to avoid imposition and having freedom of action. Therefore, in making a request, communicators are inclined to mitigate or soften expressions to minimize the face-threatening effects of the requests. Interlocutors might prefer to use more indirect ways of communicating the message. In order to lessen the degree of imposition, the use of external or internal modifications of the requests is possible (Faerch & Kasper, 1989).

The internal modification involves the manipulation of syntactic structures of Head Act or adding lexical elements to mitigate the degree of imposition. The external modification involves the use of grounders and many different strategies give an explanation and minimize the imposition of the situation and achieve indirectness. Blum-Kulka & Olshtain (1984) created a coding scheme to categorize strategies used to achieve directness and indirectness in producing speech acts of requests and apologies across different languages in their project called CCSARP. Coding scheme by Blum-Kulka & Olshtain (1984) was the base of the classification of speech act modification strategies in the current study. Moreover, the classification system of modification strategies to achieve (in)directness by Faerch & Kasper (1989) was used to analyze the syntactic modification of requests.

Blum-kulka-Olshtain (1984) classify request strategies as direct, conventionally indirect and non-conventionally indirect. In order to analyze the request modification strategies that were used to sound more indirect, a coding scheme created through adapting the categories of modification strategies by Blum-Kulka & Olshtain (1984) and Faerch & Kasper (1989) was used. As a result, a coding scheme that includes internal modification strategies composed of lexical, clausal and syntactic downgraders and external modification strategies composed of checking of availability, getting a pre-commitment, grounders, sweeteners, cost minimizers and understaters emerged. Qualitative analysis of the requests was conducted based on these categories. This analysis involved calculating the numbers and frequencies of modification strategies used in each test. Additionally, qualitative analysis was considered to reveal an increase in the diversity of modification strategies.

In order to analyze apologizing strategies, a coding scheme by Cohen & Olshtain (1981) used. Blum-Kulka & Olshtain (1989) asserted that in contrast to requests, apologies are post-event acts and might cause the loss of face for the speaker. The severity of the situation, the social roles of the participants and the relative social distance of the interlocutors are significant factors in determining the use of appropriacy of apologizing strategies. To test the pragmatic competence of learners in assessing the sociocultural variables above, apologizing strategy scheme devised by Cohen & Olshtain (1984) was employed. This scheme composed of the categories of intensifiers, the promise of forbearance, acknowledgment of responsibility, an offer of repair and explanation or account cause. This analysis involved calculating the numbers and frequencies of modifications strategies.

Analysis of modal types. In order to explore the modification strategies used by learners, modal types used in Head acts were analyzed qualitatively. Although politeness can be achieved through the use of indirect expressions, use of appropriate modals to maintain the appropriate level of politeness and formality have importance. Therefore, it is essential to analyze the number and frequencies of the modals used in pretest and posttest. The main aim is to observe if learners use direct requests in the form of imperatives and modal “can” less often.

In all situations except one, there is an asymmetrical relationship between the participants and the ranking of the imposition of the situation is high. Hence, participants were expected to use modification strategies in all the situations except one. The situation without any asymmetrical relationship was omitted as this situation does not require the subjects to use an indirect and polite expression.

In order to analyze the modal types, the number and frequencies of the modals used by the experimental and control group in pretest and posttest were compared. The first comparison involved to discover intragroup variation between the pretest and posttest results. After identifying the improvements or deteriorations in performances, posttest results of the control group and experimental group were compared. This analysis was complementary to the analysis of request modifications as it is necessary to identify the modal types used in answers to measure the indirectness of the expressions.

Analysis of deviation from target forms. Analysis of the divergence from pragmatic norms of the target language aims to understand if learners perform the speech acts more appropriately after the treatment phase. The numbers and frequencies of errors were calculated. This analysis aimed to examine if there was a decrease in the number of divergences from target language norms. If pragmatic violations are analyzed, it will be possible to discover the effect of the treatment phase on the speech act performances of the students in detail. This analysis will enable the researcher to explore for which aspects of pragmatic competence strategy-based instruction worked well. Moreover, it aimed to unearth the areas of difficulties in the improvement of speech act. In other words, error analysis will indicate the pragmatic elements that strategic instruction was unable to prove to be useful.

In order to categorize the types of pragmatic inappropriateness of speech acts, Analysis Scheme by Ishihara & Cohen (2010) was adopted. His categorization of divergence from native speaker norms composed of the following types of deviations that are “negative transfer of L2 pragmatic norms, limited L2 grammatical ability, overgeneralization of perceived L2 pragmatic norms, effect of instruction or instructional materials, resistance to using perceived L2 pragmatic norms” (Ishihara & Cohen, 2010, p. 91). In the current study, based on the answers of the students, this categorization was altered to cover all the reasons for pragmatic deviations. The

current study used a categorization scheme that name the errors as following; negative transfer of L2 pragmatic norms, limited L2 grammatical ability, overgeneralization of perceived L2 pragmatic norms, resistance to use L2 forms, limited socio-pragmatic awareness, and lack of the knowledge of typical expressions.

Analysis of the focus group interview. Focus Group Interview was conducted in three sections with students in the experimental group. In each section, 7 students participated in a focus group interview and in total, 21 students in the experimental group participated in the interviews. Each section took 30 minutes. Interviews were recorded via voice-recording application of self-phone. A thematic analysis was conducted on focus group interviews. Guidelines by Braun & Clarke (2012) were followed in carrying out thematic analysis. Braun & Clarke (2012) defines thematic analysis as a method of data analysis that involve generating common themes and making meaning out of data. It focuses on the consensus emerged out of discussions with respect to the topic being studied.

A combination of both deductive and inductive thematic analysis was employed. First, an inductive approach was adopted to code the data based on transcripts of the interview in order not to let any preconception of the researcher to manipulate the answers. After coding the three sections of the interviews, themes were created under the frameworks of learners' autonomy and the use of language learning strategies. Therefore, in the second phase, a deductive thematic analysis was utilized. It is important to note that the steps of the analysis were congruent with the recommendations by Braun & Clarke (2012) on thematic analysis.

As the first step, after a detailed reading of transcripts of interview, codes are created in the light of the research question. To ensure the inclusivity of codes and capture all the potentially relevant ideas, researcher coded the data in small units. In coding the relevant parts of transcripts, Microsoft word was used. Relevant parts of transcripts were highlighted in relation to the codes. The second step of the analysis involved forming clusters of codes through identifying common issues emerged out of the codes to identify themes and subthemes of the analysis. This part of the analysis aims to explore similar patterns in codes to situate them under a coherent and concrete theme. In categorizing the codes into main themes and sub-themes, the study by Ceylan (2006), and Cohen (2005) were insightful.

The third step of the analysis is concerned with going through the themes to provide the reliability of the analysis. Themes could overlap and need to be merged into a central theme. Additionally, some themes are required to be checked to ensure that codes of the theme are coherent and meaningful enough to form an individual theme. In the current study, a second coder other than the researcher revised the data to explore whether clusters of codes create unique codes that embrace all the issues in data on the related theme. As the last step, the names of the themes were created to minimize central issues to a short sentence or to a few words. Each name was conceptualized to capture a different issue and targets to answer the relevant research question. Central themes in the current study are filling in the language biography and perceptions about strategy-based instruction. Subthemes and discussions of the viewpoints of the students will be given in the findings section.

Chapter 4

Findings

This section will display the results of pretests and posttests based on quantitative data collected through Open Ended Written Discourse Completion Test (OWDCT) and Oral Discourse Completion Test (ODCT). As well as displaying quantitative findings, in an attempt to facilitate the analysis of quantitative findings, qualitative analysis of OWDCT and ODCT will also be given. Pre-test and Post-test scores by students in the Control Group and Experimental Group will be compared to understand if there is any significant difference between test results after the treatment phase. Quantitative data will basically reflect the appropriateness of the requests and apologies performed by students in the Control and Experimental Group.

Appropriateness of the speech acts depends on the use of modification strategies, effective control of pragmalinguistic aspects such as model types and a good command of grammar and discourse (Laughlin et al, 2015). Assessment of pragmatic skills requires a detailed analysis of all of the aspects of pragmatic appropriacy. Therefore, the presentation of quantitative findings might not give detailed information about the performances of the students.

In order to interpret the quantitative data comprehensively, a qualitative analysis was conducted. Qualitative analysis was considered to display all aspects of the performance of speech acts. To this end, numbers and frequencies of the request modification strategies, apologizing strategies, model types, and errors were calculated.

In addition to analyzing pretest and posttest scores of the participants to discover the effects of the treatment phase, this section will also display qualitative findings through exhibiting the results of the content analysis done on Focus Group Interviews. In order to interpret results effectively, presenting the opinions of student and their learning experience will be worthwhile. This study attempts to answer the following research questions.

1. Is there any effect of strategy-based instruction on improving pragmatic competence of the students?

1.a. Is there any effect of strategy-based instruction on the use of the speech acts appropriately?

1.b. Is there any effect strategy-based instruction on raising the awareness about request modification strategies?

1.c. Is there any effect of using strategy-based instruction to raise awareness about apologizing strategies?

1.d. What are the perceptions of students about the strategy-based instruction?

Quantitative Findings

In order to answer the first research question which is “Is there any effect of strategy-based instruction on the use of speech acts appropriately, quantitative analysis was conducted on ODCT and WDCT. Pretest and posttest results of WDCT and ODCT were analyzed based on a holistic rating on a scale of 1 to 10. 1 represents no performance and 10 refers to the appropriate use of politeness conventions, controlling of linguistic elements and successful discourse management (Given in appendix-B). In an attempt to explore if items create a normal distribution and detect if there are ceiling or floor effects, Skewness and Kurtosis values were calculated. Skewness and Kurtosis values for a normal distribution is estimated to be between +1 and -1 (Huck, 2008). Skewness and Kurtosis values are near to the acceptable range. Summary of the normality distributions for ODCT and WDCT by the control group and experimental group is given below.

Table 9

Normality Distribution

		oral_app_pre	oral_app_post	written_app_pre	written_app_post
N	Valid	58	58	60	60
	Missing	5	5	3	3
Skewness		-0,169	0,661	-0,154	0,309
Std. Error of Skewness		0,314	0,314	0,309	0,309
Kurtosis		-1,033	0,632	-0,851	0,420
Std. Error of Kurtosis		0,618	0,618	0,608	0,608

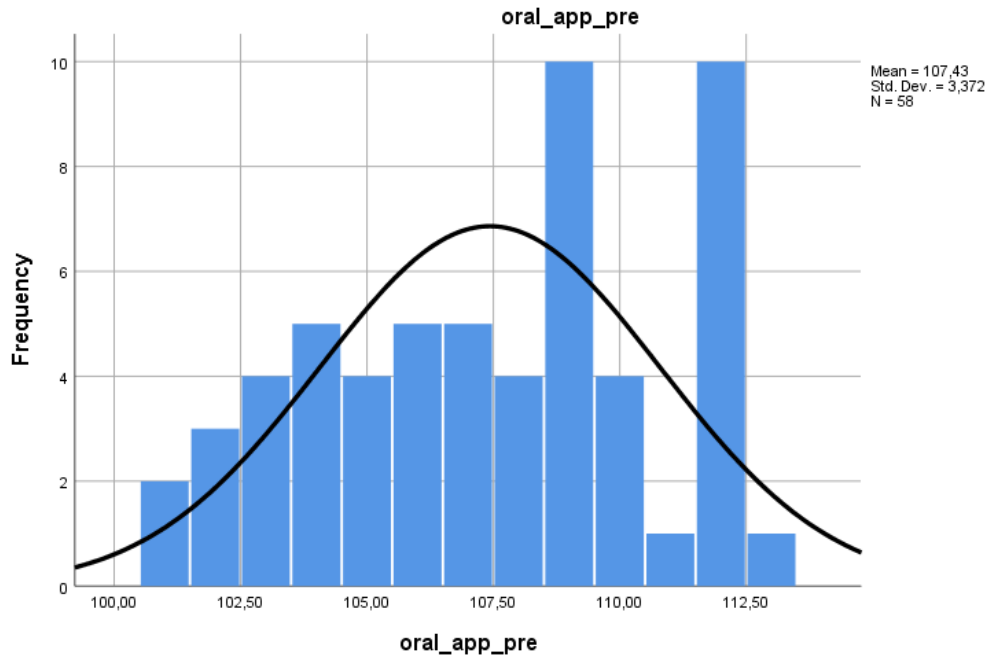


Figure 1. Normality Distribution for ODCT Pre-test

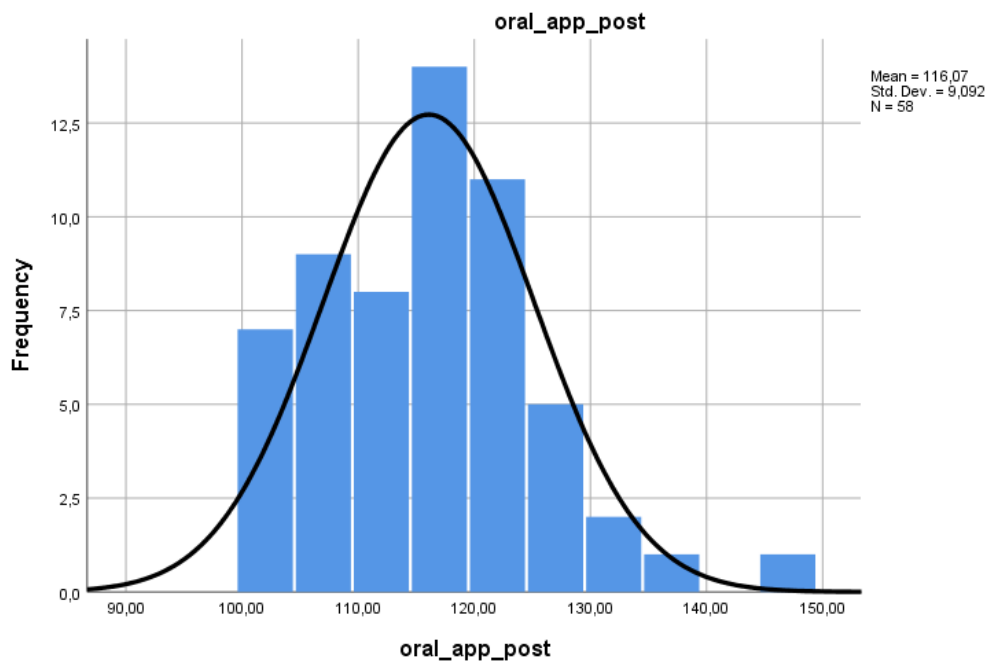


Figure 2. Normality Distribution for ODCT Post-test

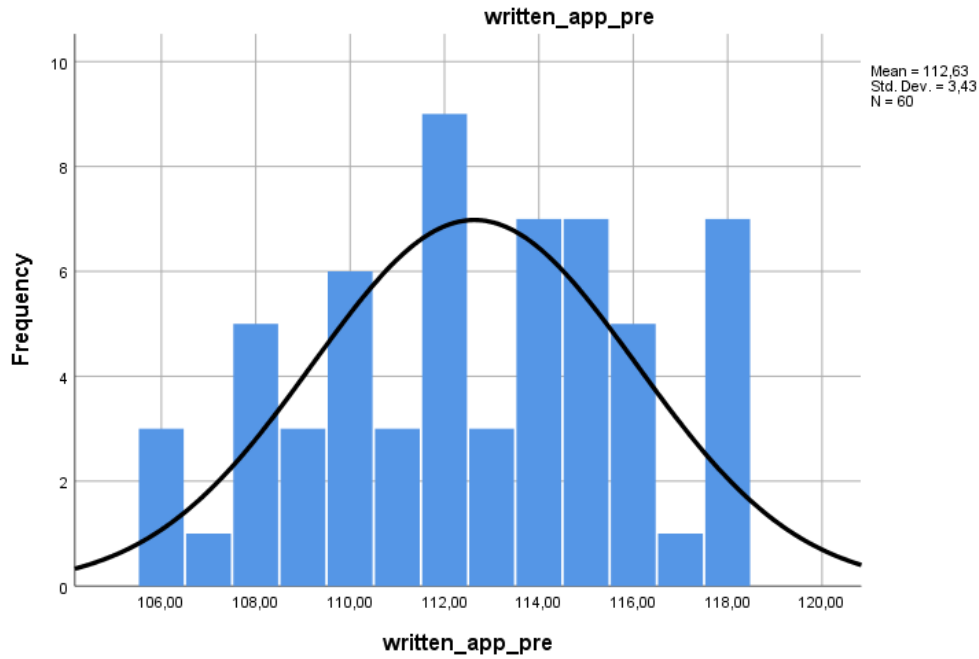


Figure 3. Normality Distribution for OWDCT Pre-test

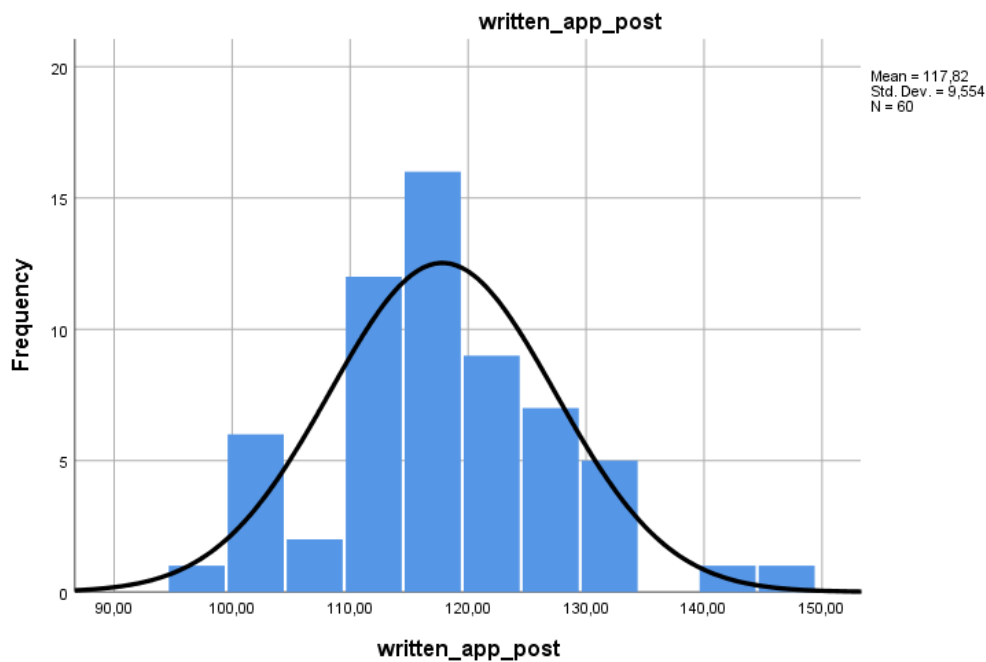


Figure 4. Normality Distribution for OWDCT Post-test

As given in tables, tests met the criteria of normality (Huck, 2008). When skewness and kurtosis values were observed, it will be seen that all of the values, other than ODCT pretest by the control group and experimental group, were between the range of +1 and -1. Kurtosis value of ODCT pretest by control group is

1,033. This value is slightly above the widely accepted range which is +1 and -1. It is not significantly above the acceptable range. Therefore, it is possible to talk about normal distribution in data by WDCT and ODCT in pretest and posttest.

In order to show that there is no pairwise difference in WDCT and ODCT in pretest and reinforce the premise that only between subject variable is the treatment condition, Independent Sample t-test on Pretests were conducted on data by WDCT and ODCT. Results of Independent Sample test in all DCTs turned out to be bigger than 0.05, showing that variances are equal (for ODCT Pretest $t=0,039$, $df=56$, $Sig=0,969$; for WDCT Pretest $t=1,365$, $df=58$, $Sig=0,178$) That is, there is no significant difference between the mean value of both the control group and experimental group in pretests of WDCT and ODCT. Thus, it became possible to apply Split Plot Anova (Mixed Design Anova) on data to compare the effect size between pretest and posttest results by the control and experimental group. Split Plot Anova (Mixed Design Anova) enabled the researcher to pin down the effect of the independent variable of treatment by comparing the level of progress between the groups. Before any discussion of Split Plot Anova (Mixed Design Anova), it is necessary to present the Independent Sample test conducted on pretests. The summary of the results given in the table below.

Table 10

Independent Sample T-Test for Pre-tests

		F	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
oral_app_pre	Equal variances assumed	2,641	-0,039	56	0,969
oral_app_req_pre	Equal variances assumed	0,102	0,270	56	0,788
oral_app_apo_pre	Equal variances assumed	0,716	-0,290	56	0,773
written_app_pre	Equal variances assumed	0,002	-1,365	58	0,178
written_app_req_pre	Equal variances assumed	0,010	-0,067	58	0,947
written_app_apo_pre	Equal variances assumed	3,755	-1,813	58	0,075

As it is seen in the table, sig. value is bigger than 0,05 in all of both pretests and posttests OWDCT and ODCT. Results of the analysis on request and apology parts of OWDCT and ODCT have displayed as well as the overall results. It showed that students did not differ significantly in the use of speech act before the treatment phase. Before moving on to the discussion of Mixed Design Anova, it is necessary to indicate differences between pretest and posttest by the control group and experimental group. Paired Sample T-Test was conducted to estimate if there is a significant difference between the mean values of pretest and posttest of ODCT and WDCT. First, Paired Sample T-Test conducted on pretest and posttest by control group will be given. Then, the second table will display the results of the same test conducted on pretest and posttest results by experimental group. Summary of the results is given in the table below.

Table 11

Paired Sample T-Test for Control Group

		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pair 1	oral_app_pre - oral_app_post	-3,75862	4,28998	0,79663	-4,718	28	0
Pair 2	oral_app_req_pre - oral_app_req_post	-1,44828	2,74625	0,50997	-2,84	28	0,008
Pair 3	oral_app_apo_pre - oral_app_apo_post	-2,37931	3,42693	0,63636	-3,739	28	0,001
Pair 4	written_app_pre - written_app_post	-1,8	6,52	1,19038	-1,512	29	0,141
Pair 5	written_app_req_pre - written_app_req_post	-2,33333	3,70771	0,67693	-3,447	29	0,002
Pair 6	written_app_apo_pre - written_app_apo_post	0,53333	3,9977	0,72988	0,731	29	0,471

Table 12

Paired Sample T-Test for Experimental Group

		Paired Differences			t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean			
Pair 1	oral_app_pre - oral_app_post	-13,5172	7,67007	1,4243	-9,49	28	0
Pair 2	oral_app_req_pre - oral_app_req_post	-6,68966	4,6912	0,87113	-7,679	28	0
Pair 3	oral_app_apo_pre - oral_app_apo_post	-6,82759	4,40834	0,81861	-8,34	28	0
Pair 4	written_app_pre - written_app_post	-8,56667	7,69542	1,40499	-6,097	29	0
Pair 5	written_app_req_pre - written_app_req_post	-5,9	4,79475	0,8754	-6,74	29	0
Pair 6	written_app_apo_pre - written_app_apo_post	-2,86667	3,58862	0,65519	-4,375	29	0

After 7 weeks, learners in the control group displayed a statistically significant improvement in their posttest in terms of overall results in ODCT, WDCT, requests in ODCT and WDCT, and apologies in WDCT. (Significance value is lower than p-value which is 0.05). However, in relation to apologies in ODCT data, the control group did not score significantly higher in the posttest. Overall results indicate that the control group showed a significant improvement in the use of speech acts. As to the performances of the experimental group in OWDCT and ODCT, the experimental group scored significantly better in posttest in OWDCT and ODCT in terms of overall results.

Given the results, it seems is obvious that the experimental group and control group showed a statistically significant improvement in the use of speech acts appropriately. However, these results do not serve for comparing the level of significance in the improvement of using speech acts appropriately. In order to discover which group displayed a more significant improvement during the seven weeks of a module, a Mixed Design Anova was conducted. As the first step of Mixed Design Anova, The Levene's test was conducted. Results of The Levene's test was higher than 0,05 approving that variances equal. This finding renders it possible to employ Mixed Design Anova on data. Results of Mixed Design Anova was given below. First results of Levene's Test will be given.

Table 13

The Levene's Test for OWDCCT

		Levene Statistic	df1	df2	Sig.
written_app_pre	Based on Mean	0,002	1	58	0,964
written_app_post	Based on Mean	0,197	1	58	0,659

As it is seen in the table, the variance is equal for WDCT and thus, it is possible to conduct T-test. Mean values of the pretest and posttest by experimental group and control group is also given in the table below.

Table 14

Mean Values for WDCT

Group		Mean	Std. Error
control	1	112,033	0,622
	2	113,833	1,596
experimental	1	113,233	0,622
	2	121,8	1,596

As it is seen in the table there is an increase in the mean value of WDCT by the control group and experimental group. Mean value in pretest was 112,0333 and in the posttest, it is 113,83333. In relation to the experimental group mean value was 113,8333 in the pretest and it increased to 121,8000 in the posttest. Paired sample T-test showed that increase in posttest by both groups involved a significant

difference. It is necessary to explore the difference in effect size between the control group and the experimental group to compare WDCT results. The result of Tests of within Subjects Contrasts will display the level of progress made by the experimental group and control group. Table of Tests of within Subjects contrast is given below.

Table 15

Tests of within Subjects Contrasts for OWDCT

Source	df	F	Sig.
pre_post * group	1	13,503	0,001

Results indicate that there is a significant difference between the groups in terms of the progress they showed during the seven weeks of a module in Preparation Class ($F = 13,503$, $df = 1$, $p < .05$). Although both of the groups scored significantly better in the posttest, table indicated that learners in the experimental group exhibit a greater improvement in the use of speech acts appropriately. Profile plots given below reflects the levels of improvement from pretest to posttest by both of the groups. Based on the results, it can be argued that learners exposed to strategy-based instruction improved their pragmatic competence more effectively than the control group did.

In order to apply the Mixed Design Anova on Oral DCT results by the control group and experimental group, the same steps were followed in the analysis of data. Firstly, Levene's Test was conducted on pretests to ensure that there is no significant difference between the pretest results of the control group and the experimental group. After the estimation of significance values, Tests of Within Variances Contrasts were conducted. As the last step, in order to clearly reflect the levels of progress by the groups, Profile Plots were given. As a first step, in order to check if variances equal, Levene's Test was conducted. If p-value appeared to be bigger than 0.05 as mentioned before, it becomes possible to employ T-test on data. The Levene's test showed to be bigger than 0.05 meeting the criteria of equal variances. Therefore, Tests of Within-Subjects Contrasts were employed. Levene's test was displayed in the table below.

Table 16

The Levene's Test for ODCT

		df1	df2	Sig.
oral_app_pre	Based on Mean	1	56	0,11
oral_app_post	Based on Mean	1	56	0,112

Mean values for ODCT pretest and posttest by experimental group and control group to reflect the progress made by the both of the groups. The Table below reflects the difference between the scores in pretest and posttest.

Table 17

Mean Values for ODCT

		Measure:			
group		Mean	Std. Error	95% Confidence Interval Lower Bound	Upper Bound
control	1	107,414	0,632	106,148	108,679
	2	111,172	1,430	108,308	114,037
experimental	1	107,448	0,632	106,183	108,714
	2	120,966	1,430	118,101	123,830

Control group scored higher in posttest and mean value was 107,4138 in the pretest and it increased to 111,1724 in the posttest. The experimental group also displayed a better performance it posttest and mean was 107,4483 in the pretest and it increased to 120,9655 in the posttest. As it is shown above, the increase in mean values for both the experimental group and control group corresponds to a significant increase in statistical terms. However, it is important to compare the effect size to understand which group displayed a greater improvement. Therefore, Tests of Within-Subjects Contrasts were conducted as part of the Mixed Design Anova. Tables below summarize the results.

Table 18

Tests of within Contrasts for ODCT

		Measure:				
Source		Type III Sum of Squares	df	F	Sig.	Partial Eta Squared
pre_post	Linear	480,138	1	64,995	0,000	0,537
pre_post * group	Linear	199,172	1	26,961	0,000	0,325
Error(pre_post)	Linear	413,690	56			

It showed that the size of the difference between groups is significant. Members of the experimental group displayed greater improvement in terms of performing speech acts appropriately. The table clearly shows that there is a significant difference between the groups in terms of the progress in the use of speech acts appropriately. The effect size for the experimental group is bigger than the effect size that the control group displayed in ODCT. In order to reflect the effect size more precisely, Profile Plots for WDCT and ODCT will be given below.

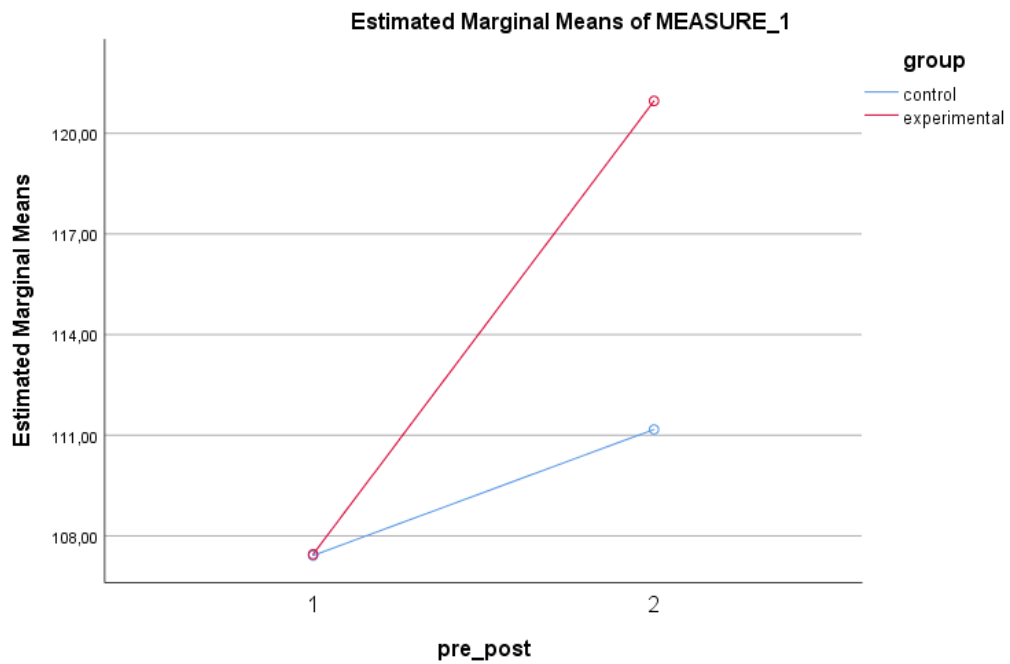


Figure 5. Profile Plots for ODCT

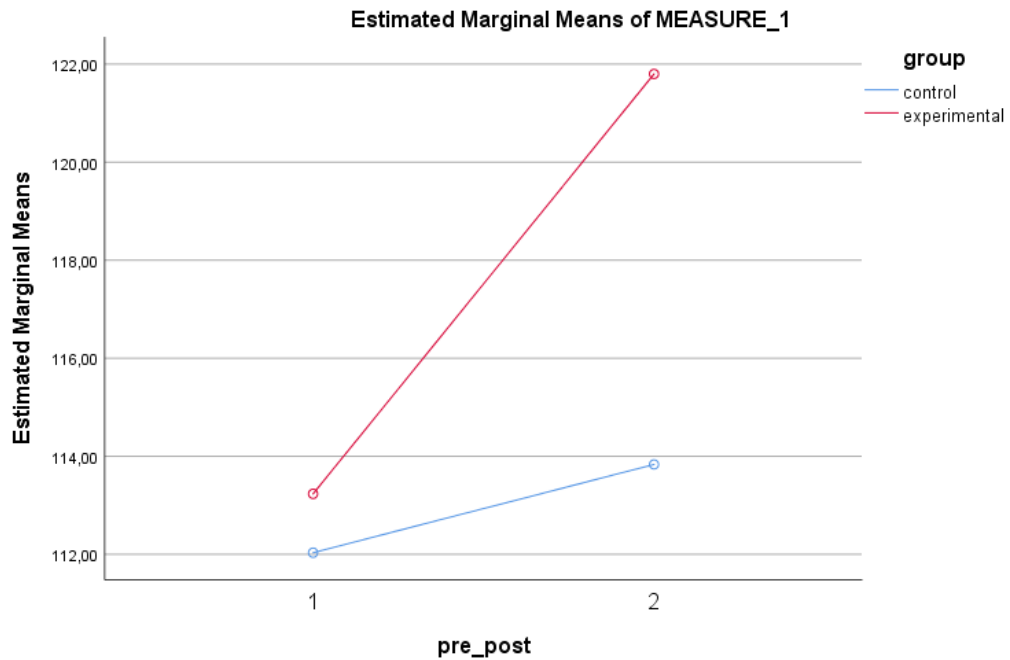


Figure 6. Profile Plots for OWDCT

As it is seen from the analysis of pretest and posttest performances of experimental group and control group, both of the group had similar scores in the pretest. When Profile Plots for ODCT and WDCT were examined, it will be seen that both of the group scored better in the posttest. However, the experimental group displayed a higher score in posttest of WDCT and ODCT and showed better progress in producing speech acts appropriately. Therefore, concerning the research question one, strategy-based instruction resulted in a better performance in performing speech acts of apology and request in terms of the quantitative results. In order to answer the first research question, an error analysis on the ODCT and WDCT results were also conducted. This analysis was a qualitative analysis as error types, numbers of errors and frequencies were calculated. The main aim was to examine if there is a decrease in the number of errors made in the posttest. Moreover, this analysis was considered to indicate the pragmatic elements that learners improved more effectively. Results of error analysis are given below. It is included in the section on qualitative analysis.

Qualitative Findings

Modification of requests. This dissertation aims to find out the effects of strategy-based instruction and learner autonomy on the pragmatic competence of

the learners. Quantitative findings given above demonstrated that learners in the experimental group performed better in the posttests. Nevertheless, the quantitative analysis might not explain all the aspects of the pragmatic performance. In order to sound pragmatically appropriate, learners should have a mastery of both pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic elements of speech acts.

Pragmalinguistic aspects are concerned with effective control of grammar in producing speech acts. Politeness is an important pillar of effective control over both pragmalinguistic aspects and sociopragmatic of speech acts. Politeness conventions given in literature review refers to the use of direct and indirect speech acts appropriately based on the social and cultural norms of the target culture and the context (Brown & Levinson,1987). Brown and Levinson (1987) stated that in order to minimize the imposition in the speech acts and mitigate the expressions. It is necessary to employ politeness conventions based on the relative Social Power and Social Imposition of learners and Ranking of Imposition of the situation. When there is an asymmetrical relationship between the interlocutors in terms of these three variables, the use of politeness conventions enables the speakers to minimize the imposition involving in speech acts.

Politeness conventions include the use of more indirect expressions to modify the speech acts and the use of formal expressions. Modification of a speech act can be internal, external or the speakers might utilize both of the modification techniques at the same time. The current study analyzed the speech act modification strategies. Request modification strategies are analyzed based on the classification by Blum-Kulka & Olshtain (1984) and Faerch & Kasper (1989). Modifications used by learners are divided into two broad categories of internal and external modifications. Internal modifications are concerned with lexical, clausal, and syntactic modifications whereas external modifications are utterances to support the request. Blum-Kulka & Olshtain (1984) used the terms downgraders instead of modifiers to refer to imposition minimizers that are more indirect expressions.

Classification of downgraders by Blum-Kulka & Olshtain (1984) was composed of internal downgraders, which are syntactic downgraders and other downgraders and external modification or adjuncts to head acts. The categorization by Faerch & Kasper (1989), on the other hand, basically have the same categories. However, Faerch & Kasper (1989) named the downgraders as request modification

strategies. Faerch & Kasper (1989) classified request modifications as Internal modifications and External modifications. Internal modifications composed of clausal, syntactic and lexical downgraders. External modifications refer to supportive moves that are used along with head acts.

Blum-Kulka & Olshtain (1984) subsumed the lexical and clausal downgraders under “the other downgraders category”. Category of syntactic downgraders existed in the request modification scheme by Blum-Kulka & Olshtain (1984). Supportive moves by Faerch & Kasper (1989), on the other hand, were named as adjuncts to head act by Blum-Kulka & Olshtain (1984). Current study used the broad categories by Faerch & Kasper (1989) to classify the request modification as clausal, syntactic and lexical modifiers as internal modifiers and external modifiers since this categorization seemed clearer. However, subcategorizations under the four main request modification strategies of clausal, lexical, syntactic modifications and supportive moves drew on the categorization system of downgraders by Blum-Kulka & Olshtain (1984). Scheme of the Analysis for modification strategies is given below.

Internal Modification Strategies

Syntactic Downgraders:

Interrogative: Example; Could you help me do my homework?

Past tense: I wanted to ask you to come with me.

Continuous aspect: I was going to ask for a postponement.

Negation: I wonder if you would not mind opening the air conditioner

Clausal Downgraders:

a. Embedded if clause: I was wondering if you would be available tomorrow?

b. Consultative: Do you think you can give your notes from yesterday?

Lexical Downgraders:

Hedges: I would appreciate if you borrow some money.

Understaters: Could you be a bit quiet, please?

Downtoners: Will you maybe help out doing my homework?

External Modifications (Adjuncts to Head Act)

Checking on availability: If you are going to the party, can you drop me off, too?

Getting a pre-commitment: I would like to ask you something. Could you help carry these heavy bags?

Grounder: I was sick yesterday and could not attend the class. Could you borrow your notes?

Sweetener: Hello! My favorite brother could you help me solve my math problems

Disarmer: I know that you really love this hat but could I borrow it just for tomorrow

Costminimizer: Could I come with you if you are going in the direction of my home?

Given the rationale and the evaluation scheme for qualitative analysis, first research question to be discussed is the second research question which is “Is there any effect of strategy-based instruction on the use of request modification strategies appropriately? In order to answer this research question, the number of internal and external modifications were calculated. The primary purpose was to understand whether there is an increase in the use of modification strategies and whether learners employed a wider range of request modification strategies.

Table 19

Oral DCT Pretest Experimental Group Internal Modification

Clausal Downgraders	Tokens	Percentage
Embedded 'if clause'	4	1.41%
Consultative	0	0.00%
Syntactic Downgraders		
Continuous Aspect	0	0.00%
Past Tense	4	1.41%
Negation	0	0.00%
Interrogative	185	65.14%
Lexical Downgraders		
Hedges	1	0.35%

Understaters	11	3.87%
Downtoners	1	0.35%

Table 20

Oral DCT Pretest Experimental Group External Modification

External Modifications	Tokens	Percentage
Checking on availability	0	0.00%
Getting a precommitment	13	4.58%
Grounder	53	18.66%
Sweetener	0	0.00%
Disarmer	12	4.23%
Costminimizer	0	0.00%

Table 21

Oral DCT Pre-test Control Group Internal Modification

Clausal Downgraders	Tokens	Percentage
Embedded 'if clause'	6	2.21%
Consultative	0	0.00%
Syntactic Downgraders		
Continuous Aspect	12	4.43%
Past Tense	0	0.00%
Negation	0	0.00%
Interrogative	204	74.91%
Lexical Downgraders		
Hedges	0	0.00%
Understaters	5	1.85%
Downtoners	0	0.00%

Table 22

Oral DCT Pretest Control Group External Modification

External Modifications	Tokens	Percentage
Checking on availability	0	0.00%
Getting a precommitment	3	1.111%
Grounder	40	14.76%
Sweetener	0	0.00%

Disarmer	2	0.74%
Costminimizer	0	0.00%

Table 23

Written DCT Pre-test Experimental Group Internal Modification

Clausal Downgraders	Tokens	Percentage
Embedded 'if clause'	7	7.36%
Consultative	0	0.00%
Syntactic Downgraders		
Continuous Aspect	0	0.00%
Past Tense	0	0.00%
Negation	0	0.00%
Interrogative	167	45.50%
Lexical Downgraders		
Hedges	3	0.82%
Understaters	16	4.36%
Downtoners	0	0.00%

Table 24

Written DCT Pretest Experimental Group External Modification

External Modifications	Tokens	Percentage
Checking on availability	6	1.63%
Getting a precommitment	9	2.45%
Grounder	115	31.34%
Sweetener	16	4.36%
Disarmer	2	0.54%
Costminimizer	6	1.63%

Table 25

Written DCT Pre-test Control Group Internal Modification

Clausal Downgraders	Tokens	Percentage
Embedded 'if clause'	31	10.03%
Consultative	0	0.00%
Syntactic Downgraders		
Continuous Aspect	0	0.00%

Past Tense	13	4.21%
Negation	0	0.00%
Interrogative	155	50.16%
Lexical Downgraders		
Hedges	1	0.32%
Understaters	5	1.62%
Downtoners	1	0.32%

Table 26

Written DCT Pretest Control Group External Modification

External Modifications	Tokens	Percentage
Checking on availability	11	3.56%
Getting a precommitment	4	1.29%
Grounder	72	23.30%
Sweetener	12	3.88%
Disarmer	0	0.00%
Costminimizer	4	1.29%

1.ODCT

Internal Modification Strategies used by Experimental Group in Pretest

When a closer look is given to the frequency analysis of request modification strategies used by the experimental group students in ODCT, Internal Modification Strategies were used more frequently than External Modification strategies by experimental group. Use of clausal downgraders by students in the experimental group was relatively low compared to other Internal Modification Strategies. The number of embedded if the clause was 4 and percentage was 1.41% and consultative was not used by students in the experimental group in ODCT.

When it comes to syntactic downgraders interrogatives are the most common strategy used by learners in ODCT by learners in the experimental group. The number of interrogative strategies used by learners is 165 and the percentage is %5.14, whereas the number of the strategy of using past tense is 4 and percentage is %1.41. Other syntactic downgraders of continuous aspect and negation were not used by the learners in the experimental group.

Another internal modification strategy which is lexical downgraders were used relatively less compared to syntactic downgraders. As being subtypes of

lexical downgraders, understaters were used for 11 times and the percentage is 3.87 and hedges and downtoners were both used for once and the percentage is %0.35.

External Modification Strategies used by Experimental Group in Pretest

In relation to the external modification strategies, grounders are the most commonly used strategy by the experimental group in ODCT. The number of grounders used by the experimental group in ODCT is 53 and percentage is %18.66. Other External Modification Strategies used are getting a pre-commitment, and disarmer which are used for 13 times and 12 times consecutively and percentages are %4.58 and %4.23. Other external strategies of checking on availability and cost minimizers were not used by the experimental group.

Internal Modification Strategies used by Control Group in Pretest

Concerning the pretest results of Control Group students in ODCT, there is a similar tendency to use Internal Modification strategy of Interrogatives more frequently compared to other modification strategies. Moreover, similar to the experimental group, the use of grounders is relatively more common compared to other External Modification Strategies. Concerning the internal Modification strategies, the number of embedded if clause as a subtype of clausal downgraders is 6 and percentage is %2.21. Consultative was not used by the control group.

When it comes to syntactic downgraders, Interrogative is used for 204 times, and past tense is used for 12 times and percentages are %74.91 and %4.43. Continuous aspect and negation were not used by the control group in ODCT.

External Modification Strategies used by Control Group in Pretest

In relation to the external modification strategies, the number of grounders is 40, getting a pre-commitment is 3 and disarmer is 2 and the percentages are %14.76, %1.11 and %0.74. Other external downgraders of checking on availability and sweetener were not used by the control group in ODCT.

Pretest results by the control group and experimental group in ODCT are given in detail. It is also necessary to look at the modification strategies used in WDCT by the control group and experimental group in the pretest. It is interesting to observe that learners in the experimental group used more modification strategies

in WDCT than they did in ODC. In pretest sum of the modification strategies in ODC is 284 whereas in WDCT the number of modification strategies used in WDCT is 367.

2.WDCT

Internal Modification Strategies used by Experimental Group in Pretest

In relation to Internal Modification Strategies, clausal downgraders were used for 7 times and the percentage is %7.36, whereas consultative was not used.

As of syntactic downgraders, the number of interrogative used by the experimental group is 167, other syntactic downgraders of negation, past tense, and continuous aspect was not used by the experimental group in WDCT. Percentage of the interrogative is %45.50.

Lexical downgraders are another type of Internal Modification strategy. It is composed of hedges, understaters, and downtoners. The number of hedges used is 3, understaters are 16. Percentages were %4.36 and %0.82 consecutively. Downtoners were not used.

External Modification Strategies used by Experimental Group in Pretest

In respect to External Modification Strategies, the number of grounders is 115, checking on availability is 6, getting a pre-commitment 9, sweetener 16, disarmer 2, cost minimizer is 6. Percentages are %31.34, %1.63, %2.45, %4.36,%0.54, %1.63.

Internal Modification Strategies used by Control Group in Pretest

In relation to the modification strategies used by learners in the control group in WDCT, a similar predisposition to use more modification strategies in WDCT compared to ODC was apparent. When a closer look is paid to the modification strategies used by the control group, embedded if clause, as a subtype of Internal modification strategies, will be seen to use for 31 times and frequency of it is %10.03. Consultative which is another subtype of Internal Modification was not used.

In relation to syntactic downgraders, the number of interrogatives is 155, past tense is 13 and other strategies were not used. Percentages for interrogative and past tense are %50.16 and %4.21 consecutively.

Concerning the lexical downgraders, the number of understaters is 5, hedges are 1 and downgraders is 1. Percentages are %1.62, %0.32, and %0.32.

External Modification Strategies used by Control group in Pretest

In relation to external modification strategies, the number of grounders is 72, sweetener 12, checking on availability 11, and getting a precommitment is 4, cost minimizer is 4 and disarmer is 0. The percentages were %23.30, %3.88,%3.56, and %1.29, %1.29 and %0.00.

Table 27

Oral DCT Posttest Experimental Group Internal Modification

Clausal Downgraders	Tokens	Percentage
Embedded 'if clause'	27	8.13%
Consultative	0	0.00%
Syntactic Downgraders		
Continuous Aspect	0	0.00%
Past Tense	7	2.11%
Negation	0	0.00%
Interrogative	186	56.02%
Lexical Downgraders		
Hedges	4	1.20%
Understaters	5	1.51%
Downtoners	0	0.00%

Table 28

Oral DCT Posttest Experimental Group External Modification

External Modifications	Tokens	Percentage
Checking on availability	0	0.00%
Getting a precommitment	22	6.63%
Grounder	72	21.69%
Sweetener	0	0.00%
Disarmer	9	2.71%
Costminimizer	0	0.00%

Table 29

Written DCT Posttest Experimental Group Internal Modification

Clausal Downgraders	Tokens	Percentage
Embedded 'if clause'	43	12.29%
Consultative	0	0.00%
Syntactic Downgraders		
Continuous Aspect	2	0.57%
Past Tense	5	1.43%
Negation	0	0.00%
Interrogative	142	40.57%
Lexical Downgraders		
Hedges	1	0.29%
Understaters	17	4.86%
Downtoners	2	0.57%

Table 30

Written DCT Posttest Experimental Group External Modification

External Modifications	Tokens	Percentage
Checking on availability	3	0.86%
Getting a precommitment	10	2.86%
Grounder	115	32.86%
Sweetener	9	2.57%
Disarmer	0	0.00%
Costminimizer	1	0.29%

Table 31

Oral DCT Posttest Control Group Internal Modification

Clausal Downgraders	Tokens	Percentage
Embedded 'if clause'	11	4.14%
Consultative	0	0.00%
Syntactic Downgraders		
Continuous Aspect	0	0.00%
Past Tense	16	6.02%
Negation	0	0.00%
Interrogative	197	74.06%
Lexical Downgraders		
Hedges	1	0.38%
Understaters	4	1.50%
Downtoners	0	0.00%

Table 32

Oral DCT Posttest Control Group External Modification

External Modifications	Tokens	Percentage
Checking on availability	0	0.00%
Getting a precommitment	9	3.38%
Grounder	26	9.77%
Sweetener	0	0.00%
Disarmer	2	0.75%
Costminimizer	0	0.00%

Table 33

Written DCT Posttest Control Group Internal Modification

Clausal Downgraders	Tokens	Percentage
Embedded 'if clause'	27	8.39%
Consultative	0	0.00%
Syntactic Downgraders		
Continuous Aspect	0	0.00%
Past Tense	18	5.59%
Negation	1	0.31%
Interrogative	179	55.59%
Lexical Downgraders		
Hedges	0	0.00%
Understaters	11	3.42%
Downtoners	0	0.00%

Table 34

Written DCT Posttest Control Group Internal Modification

External Modifications	Tokens	Percentage
Checking on availability	6	1.86%
Getting a precommitment	7	2.17%
Grounder	64	19.88%
Sweetener	5	1.55%
Disarmer	0	0.00%
Costminimizer	4	1.24%

In order to understand the effects of the treatment process, posttest results of the experimental group and control group will be examined. Posttest results by both of the groups will be compared with the pretest results to explore whether there is an increase in the number and of modification strategies. Moreover, examining posttest results will enable the researcher to understand if learners used a wider range of modification strategies

EXPERIMENTAL GROUP

Comparison of Internal Modification Strategies used in Pretest and Posttest

When the number of modification strategies used by the experimental group in ODCT of posttest are compared with pretest, an increase in the total number of the modification strategies will be observed. In terms of the diversity of the modification strategies, some modification strategies were not used even after the treatment phase. When overall results were evaluated, an increase in the total number of the clausal downgraders and syntactic downgraders will be seen by the experimental group in ODCT. However, when strategies are examined one by one, a decrease in the use of disarmer and understaters will be observed. Moreover, there is decrease in the number of lexical downgraders in posttest.

Concerning clausal downgraders used in posttest by the experimental group in ODCT embedded if clause is 27 and percentage is %8.13 whereas consultative was not used by the experimental group. In the pretest, the number of if clause was 4 and the percentage was %1.41. Therefore, use of clausal downgraders enhanced in posttest by experimental group.

In relation to syntactic downgraders past tense was used for 7 times and interrogative was used for 186 times and percentages were %2.11 and %56.02 while other downgraders of negation and continuous aspect were not used in posttest. In the pretest, past tense was used for 4 times and interrogative was used for 185 times, whereas continuous aspect and negation were not used. This results indicated that there is an increase in the use of syntactic downgaders by experimental group in posttest

Regarding the use of lexical downgraders, the number of hedges is 4, understaters are 5 and downtoners is 0 and percentages is %1.20, %1.51, %0.00. In the pretest, the number of hedges is 1, understaters are 11 and downtoners is 1.

It is possible to talk about an increase in the number of hedges. Experimental group used fewer understaters in posttest than they did in the pretest. Overall results show that there is an decrease in the use of lexical downgraders in posttest.

Comparison of External Modification Strategies used in Pretest and Posttest

Overall results indicate that there is an increase in the number of external modification strategies used by experimental group in posttest of ODCT compared to pretest of ODCT. However, experimental group did not used a wider range of external modification strategies in posttest compared to pretest. Pretest results show that checking on availability, sweetener and cost-minimizers were not used by experimental group in pretest. Getting a pre-commitment was used for 22 times, grounders was used for 72 times, disarmer was used for 9 times. Percentages are %6.63, %21.69, and %2.71. When results of pretest are compared with results of posttest, similar to the pretest, checking on availability, sweetener and cost minimizer were not used. Getting a pre-commitment were used for 13 times, grounders were used for 53 times and disarmers were used for 12 times and percentages were %4.58, %18,66 and %4.23. As stated above, there is an increase in the number internal modification strategies used by experimental group in posttest compared to pretest.

CONTROL GROUP

Comparison of Internal Modification Strategies used in Pretest and Posttest

After a comparison of the pretest and posttest results of the experimental group in terms of the number and range of modification strategies used in ODCT, it is necessary to compare pretest and posttest results of the control group. When the overall results of the modification results are compared, there is a slight increase in the total number of the internal modification strategies used by the control group in ODCT. In pretest, the number of modification strategies is 226 whereas in the posttest it is 229.

When clausal downgraders are examined, the number of embedded if clause used in the posttest is 11 and consultative is 0, the percentages are %4.14 and %0.00. In the pretest, the number of the embedded if clause was 6 and the number of the consultative device used was. There is an increase in the use of clausal downgraders in ODCT.

In relation to syntactic downgraders, the number of the past tense is 16 and interrogative is 197 and frequency of past tense is %6.02 and frequency of interrogative is 197. Continuous aspect and negation were not used in ODCT posttest. The number of past tense in pretest was 12 and interrogative was 204. However, continuous aspect and negation were not used in ODCT. There is a slight increase in the use of past tense whereas there is a decrease in the use of interrogative. Results showed that there is decrease in the use of syntactic downgraders used by control group in posttest.

Concerning the lexical downgraders, hedges were used once, and understaters were used for 4 times. Learners did not use downtoners in the posttest. In the pretest, understaters were used for 5 times. However, hedges and downtoners were not used in the pretest. The total number of lexical downgraders used in pretest was the same as the number of lexical downgraders used in the posttest.

CONTROL GROUP

Comparison of External Modification Strategies used in Pretest and Posttest

Concerning the external modification strategies, the number of grounders used is 26, getting a pre-commitment is 9 and disarmer is 2 in posttest. Checking on availability, sweetener, and cost minimizer was not used. There is a decrease in the use of external modification strategies used in posttest compared to pretest. In pretest the number of getting a pre-commitment is 3, grounder is 40 and disarmer is 2.

Overall results showed that there is slight increase in the use of internal modification strategies used by control group and there is a decrease in the use of external modification strategies in posttest. When total number of the request modification strategies are taken into account it will be seen that control group used modification strategies less frequently in posttest compared to pretest in ODCT.

1.ODCT

Comparison of Internal Modification Strategies used by Control Group and Experimental Group

After displaying intragroup variation in terms of the use of request modification strategies in ODCT, it is necessary to display intergroup variation. Concerning clausal downgraders, the number of embedded if clause used in posttest is 11 and consultative 0 and percentages are %4.14 and %0.00 by the control group and the number of embedded if clause is 22 and consultative is 0 by experimental group. Experimental group used embedded if clause more frequently than the control group did. Experimental group used clausal downgraders more frequently than control group did in posttest.

In relation to syntactic downgraders, the number of the past tense is 16 and interrogative is 197 and frequency of past tense is %6.02 and frequency of interrogative is 197 used by the control group and the number of the past tense is 7 and interrogatives is 186 by experimental group in posttest. Learners in the control group used more syntactic downgraders than the experimental group did. Continuous aspect and negation were not used in ODCT posttest by experimental group and control group.

Concerning the lexical downgraders, hedges were used once, and understaters were used for 4 times by control group. Hedges were used 4 times and understaters for 5 times by experimental group. Learners in both the experimental group and the control group did not use downtoners in the posttest. Learners in the experimental group used more lexical downgraders than the control group did. However, hedges and downtoners were not used in pretest. The total number of internal modification strategies used by control group and experimental group was same in posttest. Moreover, experimental group did not use a wider range of modification strategies in posttest compared to control group.

Comparison of External Modification Strategies used by Control Group and Experimental Group

Concerning the external modification strategies, the number of grounders used is 72, getting a pre-commitment is 22 and disarmer is 9 by the experimental group and the number of grounders used by control group is 26, getting a pre-commitment is 9 and disarmer is 2. Checking on availability, sweetener, and cost minimizer was not used by the experimental group and control group. Overall results

show that experimental group used external modifiers more frequently than control group did posttest.

ODCT results by the control group and experimental group were given above. Analysis of modification strategies used in ODCT by control group and experimental group showed that experimental group used request modification strategies more frequently than control group in posttest. Additionally, experimental group did not use a wider range of strategies compared to control group in posttest.

2. WDCT

Comparison of Internal Modification Strategies used in Experimental Group and Control Group

Along with the evaluation of ODCT results, it is essential to compare OWDCT results to explore which group displayed a better performance. As of WDCT, in the pretest the number of embedded if clause used by the control group is 31 and the frequency of it is %10.03. Consultative that is another subtype of Internal Modification was not used. In posttest, there is a slight decrease in the use of clausal downgraders and number of embedded if clause in posttest is 27. Consultative device was not used in the posttest either. The number of embedded if clause used by the experimental group is 43 and consultative device is 0. Experimental group used more clausal downgraders than the control group did.

In relation to syntactic downgraders, the number of interrogatives is 155, past tense is 13 and other strategies were zero in pretest by control group. Percentages for interrogative and past tense are %50.16 and %4.21 in pretest consecutively. In posttest, the number of past tense used by experimental group is 18, negation is 1 and interrogative is 179 and frequency for interrogative is %55.59, for negation it is %0.31, for past tense it is %5.59. Learners in experimental group used continuous aspect for 2 times, past tense for 5 time and interrogative for 142 times. When compared with the experimental group, it can be seen that learners in the control group used more syntactic downgraders than the experimental group did.

Concerning the lexical downgraders used by the control group in the pretest, the number of understaters is 5, hedges are 1 and downtoners is 1. Percentages are %1.62, %0.32, and %0.32. In posttest, understaters were not used. However, there is an increase overall and the number of hedges is 11, and downtoner is 6

used by the control group in the posttest. When compared with the experimental group, it will be seen that there is only a slight difference between the modification strategies in terms of the amount of the strategies. The experimental group used 1 hedge, 17 understaters, and 2 downtoners. Experimental group used lexical downgraders more frequently than control group did in posttest of WDCT. Analysis of modification strategies showed that control group used internal modification strategies more frequently in posttest compared to pretest. However, experimental group did not used internal modification strategies more frequently in posttest compared to pretest. Overall results suggest that control group used internal modification strategies more frequently than control group did in posttest of OWDCT.

Comparison of External Modification Strategies used by Experimental Group and Control Group

In relation to external modification strategies, the control group used the 72 grounders, 12 sweeteners, 11 checking on availability, and 4 getting a precommitment, 4 cost minimizer and 0 disarmers in the pretest. Percentages were %23.30, %3.88,%3.56, and %1.29, %1.29 and %0.00.In posttest, the number of checking on availability is 6, getting a pre-commitment is 7, grounder is 64, grounder is 5 and cost minimizer is 4. Disarmer was not used in posttest either. Control group used external modification strategies less frequently in posttest than they did in the pretest. However, experimental group used external modification strategies more frequently in posttest than they did in pretest. When compared with the experimental group, it will be seen that the control group used a lesser amount of modification strategies than the experimental group did. Experimental group used checking on availability for 3 times, getting a pre-commitment for 10 times, grounder for 115, sweetener for 9 times and disarmer for once. Costminimizer were not used by the experimental group either.

In sum, experimental group used external modification strategies more frequently than control group did in posttest. However, it is important to note that learners in experimental used the same type of external modification strategies in both pretest and posttest. Learners did not use checking on availability, sweetener, and cost minimizer in neither pretest nor posttest.Overall analysis of WDCT indicates that experimental group used request modification strategies more

frequently than control group did in posttest. In order to display the results more clearly, a sum of the results will be given below.

Internal Modification strategies used in ODCT

1. When ODCT in posttests by experimental group and control group is compared, it is easy to see that learners in the experimental group used clausal downgraders more frequently than learners in the control group did. It is important to note that learners in both the experimental group and control did not use a wider range of clausal downgraders in the posttest.
2. Experimental group used more lexical strategies than control group students did. However, learners in the experimental group did not use a wider range of lexical strategies in ODCT.
3. When posttest results by the control group and experimental group compared, it will be seen that learners in the control group used syntactic downgraders more frequently than learners in the experimental group did in the posttest. However, the control group did not use a wider range of syntactic downgraders compared to the experimental group in the posttest.

External Modification Strategies used in ODCT

1. With respect to external modifications, the experimental group used supportive moves more frequently in posttest compared to the control group in ODCT. However, the control group used a wider range of supportive moves. Both of the groups did not use the strategies of checking on availability and sweetener.

Internal Modification Strategies used in WDCT

1. Overall results showed that the experimental group used internal modification strategies less frequently in than the control group did in posttest of WDCT. The experimental group used a higher number of lexical downgraders than the control group did in the posttest. Additionally, the experimental group used a wider range of lexical downgraders compared to control group in the posttest.

2. Concerning syntactic downgraders, control group used a greater number of syntactic modification strategies than the experimental group did in the posttest. Yet, experimental group used a wider range of syntactic downgraders compared to pretest.

3. Regarding clausal downgraders, experimental group used clausal downgraders more frequently than the control group did in the posttest. However, the experimental group did not a wider range of clausal downgraders compared to control group.

External Modification Strategies used in WDCT

1. Overall results indicate a higher use of external modification strategies by the experimental group compared to the control group in the posttest. However, the experimental group did not use a wider range of external modification strategies compared to the control group. It is important to note that neither the experimental group nor control group used disarmers in posttest

2. The most notable difference in the number of external modifications was seen in the number of grounders. The experimental group used a higher number of grounders in posttest compared to the control group.

In conclusion, overall results showed that there is not an increase in the number of modification strategies used by the experimental group in WDCT after the treatment phase. However, there is an increase in the use of request modification strategies in the posttest of ODCT compared to the pretest. Compared to the control group, experimental group used a higher number of modification strategies in the posttest in both ODCT and WDCT. It is important to look at modal types used in requests to examine the politeness level of the requests and compare the modification strategies used by control group and experimental group.

Modal types. Lexicogrammatical features of the requests are important to place them on the continuum of politeness as well as request modification strategies. Use of the politeness conventions includes the use of appropriate modal type to sound more indirect or direct in compliance with the social and cultural features of the speech context. Therefore, the current study analyzed the modal types used by students in the control group and experimental group to answer

research question two. This analysis involved comparing the experimental group and control group in terms of the indirectness of the modal types. Moreover, the analysis of modal types has the purpose of comparing the intragroup variation between the pretests and posttests.

Table 35
Modal Type Pretest Experimental Group

Modal Type	Oral DCT		Written DCT	
	Tokens	Percentage	Tokens	Percentage
Can	120	63.16%	127	62.87%
Shall	0	0.00%	0	0.00%
Could	9	4.74%	28	13.86%
May	5	2.63%	16	7.92%
Do You Mind	0	0.00%	1	0.50%
Would You Like To	0	0.00%	1	0.50%
Would You Mind	4	2.11%	2	0.99%
Would	0	0.00%	5	2.48%
Would It Be Possible	1	0.53%	1	0.50%
Is It Possible	8	4.21%	0	0.00%
Is There Any Chance	0	0.00%	0	0.00%
Other	43	23%	21	10.40%

Table 36
Modal Type Pretest Control Group

Modal Type	Oral DCT		Written DCT	
	Tokens	Percentage	Tokens	Percentage
Can	102	53.40%	105	55.56%
Shall	0	0.00%	0	0.00%
Could	19	9.95%	37	19.58%
May	5	2.62%	9	4.76%
Do You Mind	1	0.52%	4	2.12%
Would You Like To	0	0.00%	2	1.06%
Would You Mind	10	5.24%	14	7.14%
Would	1	0.52%	1	0.53%
Would It Be Possible	1	0.52%	1	0.53%

Is It Possible	4	2.09%	0	0.00%
Is There Any Chance	1	0.52%	4	2.12%
Other	47	24.61%	12	6.35%

Table 37

Modal Type Posttest Experimental Group

Modal Type	Oral DCT		Written DCT	
	Tokens	Percentage	Tokens	Percentage
Can	75	47.17%	83	9.70%
Shall	5	3.14%	0	0.00%
Could	26	16.35%	37	22.16%
May	4	2.52%	14	8.38%
Do You Mind	1	0.63%	1	0.60%
Would You Like To	0	0.00%	0	0.00%
Would You Mind	10	6.29%	16	9.58%
Would	0	0.00%	8	4.79%
Would It Be Possible	0	0.00%	2	1.20%
Is It Possible	7	4.40%	0	0.00%
Is There Any Chance	0	0.00%	0	0.00%
Other	31	19.50%	6	3.59%

Table 38

Modal Type Posttest Control Group

Modal Type	Oral DCT		Written DCT	
	Tokens	Percentage	Tokens	Percentage
Can	117	65.73%	103	57.87%
Shall	1	0.56%	0	0.00%
Could	20	11.24%	36	20.22%
May	1	0.56%	8	4.49%
Do You Mind	0	0.00%	1	0.56%
Would You Like To	0	0.00%	0	0.00%
Would You Mind	7	3.93%	17	9.55%
Would	1	0.56%	4	2.25%
Would It Be Possible	0	0.00%	1	0.56%
Is It Possible	2	1%	0	0.00%

Is There Any Chance	1	0.56%	1	0.56%
Other	28	15.73%	7	3.93%

In order to understand the effect of the treatment phase on the use of politeness conventions by learners in the experimental group, pretest and posttest results ODCT and WDCT will be compared consecutively. Later, findings obtained by the experimental group will be compared with the results of WDCT and ODCT by the control group.

In an attempt to ascertain whether learners start to use more polite requests, the number and frequency of can and other modal types were calculated. The researcher aimed to discover if students used the modal “can” and imperative forms less. Modals used in head acts are grouped into categories. Although all of the categories are clear, the last category “other” can be confusing. It concerns with expressions of imperatives and other direct expressions.

1.ODCT

Comparison of Modal Types used by Control Group and Experimental Group

In relation to ODCT, experimental group used “can” most frequently and its frequency is 63.16% and the number of “can” is 120 in the pretest. Numbers and frequency for the other modals of “could”, “may”, “Would you mind”, “is it possible”, “would” and other are 9, 5,4,8,1,43 and 4.74%,2.63%,2.11%,4.21%,0.53, 23%. In posttest, it will be seen that learners used more polite expressions as frequency and number of “can” and other direct expressions decreased in the posttest. Learners used other modals to sound more polite. The number of shall is 5, can is 75, could is 26, may is 4, do you mind is 1, would you mind is 10, is it possible 7, other direct expressions are 31 and frequencies are 3.14%, 47.17%, 16.35%, 2.52%, 0.63%, 6,29%, 4,40%, and 19.50%.

When results of posttest by the experimental group are compared with posttest results of the control group in ODCT, It will be seen that control group used “can” and other direct expressions more frequently than the experimental group did in the posttest. Moreover, it will be observed that control group used modals of politeness less frequently than control group did in posttest. The number of “can” used control group in ODCT in posttest is 117 and other expressions are 28 and

frequencies are 65.73% and 15.73% consecutively. Concerning modals used to sound polite by the control group, the number of shall is 1, could is 20, may is 1, would is 1, would you mind is 7, is it possible is 2, is there any chance is 1. In the pretest, the number of can used by the control group is 102, and the frequency is 53.40%. Control group used “can” less frequently in pretest than they did in the posttest. However, learners used 47 direct expressions in the pretest and 28 direct expressions in the posttest. Overall results showed that the control group used modal verbs of politeness less frequently in posttest than they did in the pretest. In pretest frequency of modals that were used to be sound polite is 21.99% and in the posttest, it decreased to 17.98%.

2.WDCT

Comparison of Modal Types used by Experimental Group and Control Group

In relation to modals used in WDCT, experimental group used “can” more frequently than other modals. The number of can used is 127, could is 28, may is 16, do you mind is 1, would you like to is 1, would is 5, would you mind is 3, would it be possible is 1, other direct expressions are 21 and percentages are 62.87%, 13.68%,7.92%, 0.50%, 2.48%, 0.99%, 0.50%, 10.40%. In posttest, there is a decrease in the number of “can” and direct request expressions. The number of “can” used in posttest by experimental group is 83, could is 37, may is 14, do you mind is 1, would is 8, would you mind is 16, is it possible is 2, other expressions is 6 and frequencies of the modals used are 49.70%, 22.16%, 8.38%,0.60%, 4.79%, 9.58%,1.20% and 3.59% consecutively. Looking at the posttest results, it is possible to say that the number of modals of politeness used by experimental group enhanced in posttest of WDCT.

When results of WDCT by the control group and experimental group is compared, it will be seen that the control group used “can” and direct expressions more frequently than the experimental group used in the posttest. The number of “can” used in posttest by control group is 103, could is 36, may is 8, do you mind is 1, would is 4, would you mind is 17, would it possible is 1, is there any chance is 1, and others are 7 and frequencies of the modals are 57.87%, 20.22%, 4.49%, 0.56%, 0.00%, 2.25%, 9.55%, 0.56%, 0.56%, 3.93%. However, it is important to note that the control group used “can” and other direct requests less frequently in posttest

than they did in the pretest. The number of can used in pretest by control group is 105, could is 37, may is 9, do you mind is 4, would you like to is 2, would is 1, would you mind is 14, would it be possible is 1, is there any chance is 4, and other direct requests are 12 and frequencies of modals are 55.56%, 19.58%,4.76%, 2.12%, 1.06%, 0.53%, 0.00%, 2.12%, 6.35%. As well as the experimental group, the control group also used polite requests more frequently in posttest. However, the number of polite expressions used by the experimental group in posttest outweighs the number of polite expressions used by the control group.

In order to answer research question two, overall results of analysis on request modification strategies and modal types should be taken into consideration. In relation to research question two, overall results of DCTs showed that strategy-based instruction raised awareness about some aspects of request modification strategies. Strategy-based instruction was effective for raising awareness about the use of external modification strategies and modals of politeness as experimental group used a higher number of external modification strategies and modals of politeness in posttest compared to pretest. Moreover, experimental group used a higher number of external modification strategies and modals of politeness in posttest compared to control group. To continue with the positive effects of strategy-based instruction, in posttest of OWDCCT, experimental group used a wider range of request modification strategies. However, strategy-based instruction did not yield effective results in raising awareness about the use of internal modification strategies as control group used a higher number of modification strategies in posttest of WDCT. Additionally, control group used same amount of modification strategies in posttest of ODCT.

Apologizing strategies. The current study seeks out to examine the effects of strategy based instruction on the use of speech acts of requests and apologies. The researcher aimed to enhance the sociopragmatic awareness of the learners through strategy-based instruction and enable learners to perform speech acts appropriately. In order to measure the overall competency of the learners in using speech acts, quantitative analysis was done. However, quantitative analysis falls short of explaining the different aspects of pragmatic elements in speech act performances of the students. Appropriacy of the speech acts depends on the use

of appropriate modification strategies, address terms and effective control of linguistic means of politeness and (in)directness.

To answer the third research question “1.c. Is there any effect of using strategy-based instruction on raising awareness about apologizing strategies?”, apologizing strategies will be examined in terms of the number and range of the apologizing strategies used in pretest and posttest by control group and experimental group. Apologizing strategies were classified based on the categorization by Blum-Kulka & Olshtain (1984). Apologizing strategies defined by Blum-Kulka & Olshtain (1984) is given below.

Intensifiers

Adverbials: I am terribly sorry

Concern for the Hearer: Are you Okay? I am sorry for your ice-cream

The promise of Forbearance: I am really sorry, I would not enter your room without your permission again.

Acknowledgment of Responsibility: It is my bad. I am so sorry.

An Offer of Repair: I will help you do your homework. I am so sorry.

Explanation or Account of Cause: I was really tired so I forgot to tell you about the exam. I am really sorry.

Based on categorization given above apologizing strategies in ODCT and WDCT were analyzed and results were given below.

Table 39

Apologizing Strategies Experimental Group Pretest

Apologizing Strategies		Oral DCT		Written DCT	
		Tokens	Percentage	Tokens	Percentage
Intensifiers	Adverbials	107	33.13	79	31.23%
	Concern for the Hearer	11	3.41	11	4.35%
	Promise of Forbearance	5	1.55	6	2.37%
	Acknowledgement of Responsibility	36	11.15	7	2.77%
	An offer of Repair	58	17.96	101	39.92%
	Explanation of Account of Cause	102	32.82	49	19.37%

Table 40

Apologizing Strategies Experimental Group Posttest

Apologizing Strategies		Oral DCT		Written DCT	
		Tokens	Percentage	Tokens	Percentage
Intensifiers	Adverbials	111	31.09%	92	33.70%
	Concern for the Hearer	10	2.80%	5	1.83%
	Promise of Forbearance	6	1.68%	8	2.93%
	Acknowledgement of Responsibility	32	8.96%	18	6.59%
	An offer of Repair	86	24.09%	110	40.29%
	Explanation of Account of Cause	112	31.37%	40	14.65%

Table 41

Apologizing Strategies Control Group Pretest

Apologizing Strategies		Oral DCT		Written DCT	
		Tokens	Percentage	Tokens	Percentage
Intensifiers	Adverbials	98	36.16%	97	30.42%
	Concern for the Hearer	5	1.85%	9	3.75%
	Promise of Forbearance	5	1.85%	9	3.75%
	Acknowledgement of Responsibility	17	6.27%	13	5.42%
	An offer of Repair	49	18.08%	103	42.92%
	Explanation of Account of Cause	97	35.79%	33	13.75%

Table 42

Apologizing Strategies Control Group Pretest

Apologizing Strategies		Oral DCT		Written DCT	
		Tokens	Percentage	Tokens	Percentage
Intensifiers	Adverbials	78	27.66%	65	25.59%
	Concern for the Hearer	9	31.19%	4	1.57%
	Promise of Forbearance	16	5.67%	3	1.18%
	Acknowledgement of Responsibility	25	8.87%	35	13.78%
	An offer of Repair	57	20.21%	119	46.85%
	Explanation of Account of Cause	97	34.40%	28	11.02%

In the present study, apologizing strategies are examined under 5 main categories. Main categories are the promise of forbearance, acknowledgment of responsibility, an offer of repair, explanation or account of cause. Intensifiers are also taken into account in analyzing the apologizing strategies not as an individual modification category but as an expression to strengthen other modification strategies. Intensifiers are divided into two groups that are adverbials and concern for the hearer.

1.ODCT

Comparison of Apologizing Strategies used by Experimental Group and Control Group

In relation to apologizing strategies used in ODCT by experimental group in the pretest, the number of adverbials is 107, concern for hearer is 11, promise of forbearance is 5, acknowledgment of responsibility is 36, an offer of repair is 58 and explanation of account of cause is 102 and frequencies are 33.14%, 3.41%, 1.55%, 11.15%, 17.96%, 32.82%. In posttest, experimental group used more apologizing strategies than they did in the pretest. Learners used 111 adverbials, 10 concern for the hearer, 6 promise of forbearance, 32 acknowledgment of responsibility, 86 offer of repair and 112 explanation or account of cause. When posttest results are compared with control group, it is obvious that experimental group used more apologizing strategies than control group did in ODCT posttest. Control group used 78 adverbials, 9 concern for the hearer, 16 promise of forbearance, 25 acknowledgment, 57 offer of repair, and 97 explanation or account of cause and frequencies of the apologizing strategies are 27.66%, 3.19%, 5.67%, 8.87%, 20.21%, 34.40% subsequently. It is important to note that control group used more apologizing strategies in posttest than they did in the pretest. In pretest control group used 98 adverbials, 5 concern for the hearer, 5 promise of forbearance, 17 acknowledgment of responsibility, 49 offer or repair, 97 explanation or account of cause and frequencies are 36.16%, 1.85%, 1.85%, 6.27%, 18.08%, 35.79%. However, as stated above experimental group used apologizing strategies more frequently in posttest than control group did.

2.WDCT

Comparison of Apologizing Strategies used by Experimental Group and Control Group

In relation to WDCT, experimental group used 79 adverbials, 11 concern for the hearer, 6 promise of forbearance, 7 acknowledgment of responsibility, 101 offer or repair, 49 explanation or account of cause and frequencies are 31.23%, 4.35, 2.37%, 2.77%, 39.92%, 19.37% in the pretest. In posttest, experimental group used 92 adverbials, 5 concern for the hearer, 8 promise of forbearance, 18 acknowledgment of responsibility, 110 offer of repair, 40 explanation or account of cause. When results are compared, an increase in the total number of modification strategies will be recognized. However, learners used the strategies of concern for hearer and explanation or account of cause more frequently in pretest than they did in the posttest. Concerning other apologizing strategies use of adverbials, the promise of forbearance, acknowledgment of responsibility, offer or repair, experimental group used these strategies more frequently in posttest than they did in the pretest.

The comparison of the posttest results by the control group and the experimental group will show that the total number of the modification strategies used by experimental group exceeds the number of strategies used by the control group in the posttest. Control group used 65 adverbials, 4 concern for the hearer, 3 promise of forbearance, 35 acknowledgment of responsibility, 119 offer of repair, 28 explanation or account of cause and frequencies of the strategies are 25.59%, 1.57%, 1.18%, 13.78%, 46.85%, 11.02%.

When closer attention is paid, it will be seen that the control group used acknowledgment of responsibility and an offer or repair more frequently than the experimental group did in the posttest. If posttest results by control group are compared with pretest results, it will be seen that the number of modification strategies increased in the posttest. In pretest total number of modification, strategies are 240, and in the posttest, it increased to 254. In pretest control group used 73 adverbials, 9 concern for the hearer, 9 promise of forbearance, 13 acknowledgment of responsibility, 103 offer of repair, 33 explanation or account of cause. A comparison of the individual modification strategies used by control group learners in pretest and posttest demonstrates that the number of acknowledgment of responsibility and an offer of repair increased, although there is a decrease in the

number of other modification strategies. Overall number of the apologizing strategies used by control group is 254, and overall number of apologizing strategies used by experimental group is 273. Experimental group used a higher number of apologizing strategies in posttest of WDCT than control group did. Therefore, concerning the research question three, it is possible say that strategy-based instruction raised the awareness about the use of apologizing strategies.

Analysis of deviation from target forms. Analysis of the divergence from pragmatic norms of the target language aims to answer the first research question that is “Is there any effect of using the use of strategy-based instruction on the use of the speech acts appropriately?”. In order to understand if learners perform the speech acts more appropriately after the treatment phase, numbers and frequencies of errors were calculated. The major objective was to examine if there a decrease in the number of divergences from target language norms. Analysis of Modification strategies and Modal Types gave a detailed insight into the appropriateness scores of the students. Additionally, these analyses account for the pragmatic elements that learners improved to sound pragmatically more appropriate.

This study also has the objective to analyze and interpret the reasons for the inappropriateness of the speech acts used by the learners. It aims to discover the areas of difficulties to demonstrate the pragmatic elements that strategic instruction falls short of improving. Previous studies showed that the type of instruction and pragmatic target is closely related. Therefore, some intervention conditions did not bring about any positive changes in speech act performances of the student. As a result, it is important to interpret the result in terms of the disadvantages of the treatment method to provide insights into the interaction between learning targets and instructional method.

In order to categorize the types of pragmatic inappropriateness of speech acts, Analysis Scheme by Ishihara & Cohen (2010) was adapted for the purposes of the study. He stated that “negative transfer of L2 pragmatic norms, limited L2 grammatical ability, overgeneralization of perceived L2 pragmatic norms, the effect of instruction or instructional materials, resistance to using perceived L2 pragmatic norms” (Ishihara & Cohen, 2010, p. 91), caused the learners to diverge from native pragmatic norms. In the current study, based on the answers of the students, this categorization was altered to cover all the reasons for pragmatic deviations.

The current study classified the reasons for low pragmatic performance as negative transfer of L2 pragmatic norms, limited L2 grammatical ability, overgeneralization of perceived L2 pragmatic norms, and resistance to using perceived L2 pragmatic norms, limited sociopragmatic awareness, and lack of the knowledge of typical expressions and semantic formulas. Last two categories are different from the ones created by Ishihara & Cohen (2010). Limited sociopragmatic awareness referred to using direct expressions even when there is an asymmetrical relationship between the interlocutors in terms of power, distance or when the ranking of imposition is high. Moreover, it is concerned with the inability to use the appropriate address terms and alerters. Lack of knowledge of typical expressions and semantic formulas refer to being unable to use conventional expressions in apologizing or making requests expressions such as “I did not mean it, or if you do not mind”. This category was created based on the appropriateness scale by Hudson et al (1995). Therefore, this category was added.

The categories of error analysis scheme to identify the divergence from target pragmatic norms will be explained one by one.

1. Negative transfer: of pragmatic norms is related to the use of pragmatic elements that is appropriate in one’s native language but is not appropriate in target language.

Example:

Please can you tell me how to go to bus station. Please I do not know.

Oh my God! Sorry Sorry my brother.

2. Limited L2 grammatical ability : refers to the lack of control on the linguistic elements of speech act modifications.

Example:

If you mind I can fix it for you,

I am really apologize

3. Resistance to use the target pragmatic norms: refers to refusing the performance of the speech act that the situation required.ex.

Oh you have to apologize, it is not my mistake.

What can I do, It is door's mistake my friend.

4. Overgeneralization of perceived L2 pragmatic norms: is concerned with generalizing one pragmatic element for all of the speech events for performing a speech act.

Example:

I was wondering if you could borrow your dictionary?(use of polite expressions for all of the requests irrespective of sociocultural variables).

5. Limited Sociopragmatic awareness: involved the use of inappropriate level of directness or indirectness in performing speech acts and being unable to identify (in)formality of the situation. Therefore, learners use inappropriate modification strategies and address terms.

Let's eat something (When there is an asymmetrical relationship)

Excuse me for bumping into lady and dropping your ice-cream (When social distance between the participants are high)

6. Lack of the knowledge of Typical Expressions and Semantic Formulas: not using the typical expressions that native speakers conventionally used.

Example:

May you please extend the deadline (instead of many typical expressions of requests such as "May I ask you to", "I was wondering", "Do you think it would be possible to").

I do not know how to say sorry (instead of "I did not mean it", "I was my bad", "It was by mistake")

In order to analyze the pragmatic errors stated above, first, the pretest and the posttest results by the experimental group will be compared. After this analysis is conducted, the posttest results by the control and experimental groups will be compared. The number and frequencies of the pragmatic deviations made in WDCT and ODCCT by the experimental group and the control group are given below.

Table 43
Error Analysis

	Experimental Group				Control Group				
	Oral DCT		Written DCT		Oral DCT		Written DCT		
	Tokens	Percentage	Tokens	Percentage	Tokens	Percentage	Tokens	Percentage	
Error Analysis Pretest	Negative Transfer	7	2.35%	28	11.57%	2	0.76%	13	6.16%
	Overgeneralization	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%
	Limited Grammatical Competence	86	28.86%	39	16.12%	62	23.57%	43	20.38%
	Resistance To Use L2 Forms	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%
	Limited Sociopragmatic Awareness	185	62.08%	157	64.88%	180	68.44%	131	62.09%
	Lack Of Knowledge Of Typical Expressions And Semantic Formulas	20	6.71%	0	0.00%	19	7.22%	24	11.37%
	Negative Transfer	1	0.71%	0	0.00%	4	1.97%	11	5.58%
Error Analysis Posttest	Overgeneralization	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%
	Limited Grammatical Competence	28	19.86%	25	18.80%	28	13.79%	29	14.72%
	Resistance To Use L2 Forms	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	0	0.00%	6	3.05%
	Limited Sociopragmatic Awareness	110	78.01%	81	60.90%	170	83.74%	121	61.42%

Lack Of Knowledge Of Typical Expressions And Semantic Formulas	2	1.42%	0	0.00%	1	0.49%	30	15.23%
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1.ODCT

Comparison of Pragmatic Deviations committed by Experimental Group and Control Group

When closer look is given to the pragmatic deviations done by an experimental group in ODCT in the pretest, it will be seen that 62.08 of deviations stem from limited sociopragmatic awareness. As of all of the pragmatic violations, while most of the inappropriate answers are concerned with limited sociopragmatic errors, inappropriate answers also caused by other reasons. Pragmatic violations done by an experimental group in the pretest of ODCT include 7 negative transfer, 86 limited grammatical competence, 20 lack of knowledge of typical expressions. Frequencies of the errors are 2.35%, 28.86%, 62.08%, 6.71%. In posttest, on the other hand, the total number of errors decreased. When each category is examined, it will be seen that the number of pragmatic deviations in each type of pragmatic violations diminished. In posttest pragmatic violations done by the experimental group in performing speech acts of apologies and requests are composed of 1 negative transfer, 28 limited grammatical competence, 110 limited sociopragmatic awareness, 2 lack of knowledge of typical expressions and frequencies of the errors are 0.71%, 19.86%, 78.01%, 1.42%. Findings demonstrate that although the number of errors decreased, a big portion of the errors stemmed from limited sociopragmatic awareness in both posttest and pretest.

It is essential to compare the posttest results of ODCT by the experimental group with the control group to explore the differences in speech act performances of learners. Control group deviated from pragmatic norms more frequently than the experimental group did in the posttest. Pragmatic deviations in the speech act performance of control group include 4 negative transfer, 28 limited grammatical competence, 6 resistance to use L2 forms, 170 limited sociopragmatic awareness,

1 lack of knowledge of typical expressions and frequencies of the errors are 1.97%, 13.79%, 83.74%, 0.49%. When pretest results of ODCT by control group is compared with post-test results by control group it will be seen that the total number of pragmatic violations in posttest diminished. The number of pragmatic deviations seen in pretest was 2 negative transfer, 62 limited grammatical competence, 180 limited sociopragmatic awareness, 19 lack of knowledge of typical expressions by the control group.

The decrease in the number of pragmatic deviation due to limited grammatical competence was the most notable one. The number of deviations diminished in the categories of limited sociopragmatic awareness and lack of knowledge of typical expressions as well. However, when close attention was paid to overall results it is obvious that the experimental group committed to pragmatic failures less frequently than the control group in terms of limited sociopragmatic awareness and 11 transfer. Amount of pragmatic failure due to limited grammatical were the same across groups in the posttest. In relation to pragmatic deviations due to lack of knowledge of typical expressions, control group deviated from pragmatic norms slightly less frequently compared to the experimental group did. Overall results indicate that experimental group display a lesser amount of pragmatic deviation compared to control group in posttest of ODCT.

2.WDCT

Comparison of Pragmatic Deviations committed by Experimental Group and Control Group

In relation to pragmatic violations observed in WDCT by the experimental group, the major source of errors is limited sociopragmatic awareness. Pragmatic violations committed by the experimental group in pretest was composed of 28 negative transfer, 39 limited grammatical competence, 157 limited sociopragmatic awareness, and frequencies of the errors are 11.37%, 16.12%, 64.88% consecutively. Posttest results showed that the number of pragmatic violations decreased in the posttest. In posttest, pragmatic violations are composed of 25 limited grammatical competence, 81 limited sociopragmatic awareness, 13 negative transfer, and 14 lack of knowledge of typical expressions. In each category, there is a decrease in the number of pragmatic deviations by the experimental group. When

pragmatic violations by the experimental group are compared with pragmatically inappropriate expressions by control group produced in the posttest, it will be seen that control group deviated from pragmatic norms more frequently than the experimental group in each category in the posttest.

In posttest, the number of pragmatic violations and types of violations is as follows: 11 negative transfer, 29 limited grammatical competence, 6 resistance to use L2 forms, 121 limited sociopragmatic awareness, 30 lack of knowledge of typical expressions. Frequencies of pragmatic violations committed by the control group in pretest are 5.58%, 14.72%, 61.42%, 15.23%. When the number of errors made in pretest and posttest by the control group is compared, a decrease in the total number of pragmatic violations will be recognized. However, different from other categories, the number of pragmatic deviations in categories of resistance to use L2 forms and lack of knowledge of typical expressions increased in the posttest. Pragmatic deviations of the control group in pretest include 13 negative transfer, 43 limited grammatical competence, 131 limited sociopragmatic awareness, 24 lack of knowledge of typical expressions and frequencies of the deviations are 6.16%, 20.38%, 20.38%, 62.09%, 11.37%.

Analysis of pragmatic violations showed that the experimental group violated pragmatic norms less frequently in both ODCCT and WCT. Main sources of the errors made by the experimental group are limited sociopragmatic awareness and limited grammatical competence. Likewise, the control group also deviated from target pragmatic norms mostly due to the limited sociopragmatic awareness and limited grammatical competence in the posttest. Error analysis was conducted in order to answer the research question one. This analysis was deemed to necessary to be conducted along with the quantitative analysis of appropriacy of speech acts. When error analysis and quantitative analysis of DCTs were taken into account, it will be seen that strategy-based instruction is effective in improving speech act performances of the learners.

Perceptions about strategy-based instruction. In order to explore the perceptions of learners on the use of strategies for pragmatic elements, focus group interviews were conducted. These interviews were conducted and analyzed to answer the research question that is “What are the perceptions of students about the strategy-based instruction?” 7 students participated in each interview. In an

attempt to help learners brainstorm, researcher elicited ideas of the students through a focus group interview. In focus group interviews, students jointly construct the ideas. Therefore, a lively discussion can be created. Focus group interviews rendered it possible to elicit creative ideas and touch upon each aspect of the treatment phase. In the current study, students carried out activities that will guide them to be strategic learners. In order to help them to self-reflect and assess their performance, the researcher made students use Language Biography part of ELP. Hence, interview questions were created in the light of steps of strategy-based instruction and possible effects of the use of Language Biography.

Focus group interview aimed to explore the opinions of learners on the effectiveness of activities conducted in class. Transcripts of the interviews were categorized into main themes and subthemes. Categorization was based on the taxonomy of strategies of learning pragmatics and steps of ELP-based activities created by Little & Perclova (2003). Moreover, the study by Ceylan (2006) also shed light on the categorization of the sub-themes.

These three sources shared the same aim of creating independent and autonomous learners, therefore, they became the source for analyzing the interviews. Main themes of discussions in focus group interviews were categorized also based on the interview questions and answers of the students. Main categories of analysis were the use of strategy-based instruction and filling in ELP. Perceptions of the students on the effectiveness of strategy-based instruction will be analyzed under the heading of strategy-based instruction. Opinions of the students on the use of Language Biography will be analyzed under the heading of filling in ELP.

Perceptions of students on the effectiveness of strategy-based instruction will be discussed in following sub-headings of gathering information on the use of speech acts, creating practice opportunities, and conducting cross-cultural analysis. These subheadings are in parallel with the aims of activities conducted in class and taxonomy of the strategies for learning speech acts.

The other main theme of the discussion which is filling in ELP will be examined under the subheadings of cultural awareness, self-assessment, and liking of ELP. Cohen & Ishihara (2005) used learning journals to make students do self-

reflection and self-assessment. In this study, the use of the ELP was considered to provide learners with a tool to do self-assessment and self-reflection during the learning process. First heading to be discussed will be the effect of strategy-based instruction. Student opinions will be presented under the categories aforementioned and these categories are gathering information on the use of speech acts, creating practice opportunities, conducting cross-cultural analysis.

Table 44

Themes of Focus Group Interview

Central Themes	Sub-Themes
	Cultural Awareness
Filling in ELP	Liking of ELP
	Self-assessment
	Gathering Info
Strategy-based Instruction	Creating Practice Opportunities
	Conducting Cross-cultural Analysis

Gathering Information on the use of speech acts. Cohen (2005) presents a list of strategies to help language learners learn how to use speech acts appropriately. The first step of these strategies is to determine the speech act to focus and then collecting information through interviews, observation of native speakers or finding online sources or watching TV. Gathering information on the use of speech acts will illustrate how these speech acts work in different situations and what are the factors determining the politeness and directness of the expressions. Before introducing the activities that will guide in the collection of data on pragmatic elements, researcher take the attention to the modification strategies through raising awareness on the relation between politeness (in)directness and modification of speech acts.

Shively (2011) also followed the same steps in her study to encourage learners to be autonomous learners. Before introducing the data collection method, she presented the different aspects of pragmatic elements to guide students in the

data collection process. Classroom activities that aim to teach gathering information on pragmatic elements ranged from interviewing native speakers about request strategies to introducing online sources. During this activity, in order to help students focus on different uses of request in different situations, the researcher distributed guiding questions. In an attempt to understand if learners used this learning strategy in learning speech acts, students were asked about the sources they used outside the class and asked if they encountered any real-life situation similar to what they have learned in class. It is important to note that so as to obtain student opinions on activities conducted to introduce learning strategies, interview questions asked about outside activities of the students instead of asking too broad questions such as “what do you think of this activity?”. Checking on students to learn if they use the strategies they learn in class is a better way to examine the perceptions of the students in the learning process. An inquiry about the learning practices of the students will inform the researcher in a detailed way and answers of the students would have a concrete basis.

In relation to the students' opinions on gathering information on the use of speech acts, interviews demonstrated that students had positive ideas about the activities conducted in class. All of the students thought that these activities helped them to realize the different levels of politeness and directness involved in performing speech acts. Moreover, these activities such as interviewing native speakers and watching online videos helped them to discover their own weaknesses. It is important to note that before conducting these activities students were given guiding questions to know what to focus on in collecting data on pragmatic aspects of speech acts.

When it comes to gathering information outside the class, most of the students did not systematically collect data and record the findings outside the class. They relied on their textbook and activities carried out in class to learn speech acts. However, they stated that when they watch tv series, youtube videos or documentaries, they encounter the structures they learned in class. Although they did not put an effort to collect information, they came across target structures and they focus on the directness and politeness of the expressions. Student comment is given below present their stance on gathering data outside the class.

Interviewer: What kind of sources have you found outside the class? Can you please give me examples that you have used?

Furkan: when I was at high school our teacher showed us some videos about apologies and requests because as class policy, we use requests and apologies. Therefore, I used to watch some youtube channels but other than that I did not try to learn in by myself. I did not put any effort to learn requests and apologies. Moreover, we already covered requests such “would you mind?” and “is it okay” in class.

Interviewer: Do you think that you do not need to find sources outside to learn them better?

Fatih: Yes, I order to improve my vocabulary and listening skills listening to podcasts can be a good idea but not to learn grammar subjects.

Interviewer: You all rely on textbook and classroom activities to learn speech acts then?

The extract given above shows that students focus on enriching their vocabulary instead of improving their pragmatic competence. They considered improving vocabulary as the best way to learn a language. Therefore, their motivation to learn language lied in their desire to learn more words and express their thoughts effectively. Their exams include a writing part and they are expected to write an argumentative essay. Students were highly exam-oriented and would like to acquire more academic words to write better essays. However, students expressed their positive feelings about the benefits of the activities conducted in class. However, they rely on particularly activities conducted in the treatment phase and textbook to learn speech acts. The following extract from the second interview illustrates this situation.

Interviewer: What kind of sources have you found outside the class? Can you please give me examples that you have used?

Ava: I think activities with native speakers were very useful for us because we observed how they speak and we compare their ways of speaking and our expressions to realize the difference.

This extract shows that students found the activities beneficial. However, their main aim was to improve their vocabulary. Following extract demonstrated how dedicated they are to improve their vocabulary rather than their pragmatic skills.

Interviewer: Do you think that classroom activities encourage you to find sources outside the class?

Ayşe: errr I follow some websites. I read the news on TRT World website especially about the Middle East or America. Other than that I read news articles on current news. I read the Guardian and Wallstreet Journal.

In all of the interview sections, students stated that their aim is to learn academic words to write excellent essays. Additionally, students expressed their positive feelings about the activities conducted in class. They thought that these activities direct them to assess their speaking skills. They realized that there is a rich range of strategies to perform speech acts of requests and apologies. Following extract presented the ideas of students on the effectiveness of activities introducing data gathering methods.

Do you think these activities encouraged you to find sources outside the class?

Said: I think they help us find that even more ways of requesting and apologizing. Because for example when I noticed that I use the same kind of tools I thought like I need more ways of requesting and apologizing. Another point is it helped us I think to find ways of like communicating with others

Hasan: After the activities, I thought about my weaknesses and strengths and the things that I cannot express. When I read something I started to read more carefully to learn how they use this structure or when watching a tv series or a documentary I started to focus on the ways they used the structures. Errr, as I stated before, these activities led me to think about their different ways of using phrases but I did not put a special effort to learn them outside the class.

Interviewer: Did you encounter requests and apologies in tv series? Which tv shows do you watch?

Sherlock Holmes,

*Whenever he used it in Sherlock Holmes or someone uses it I remember
What I had like I remember the things that I learned so I just like oh I should do the
just same*

Answers of students given above shows that students started to focus on target structures when they encounter them outside the class. Although they have opportunities to find online or other sources to be exposed to requests and apologies, they do not specifically seek out to learn target structures. They incidentally encounter the target structures. Data collection methods introduced in class included watching online videos, asking more competent speakers and finding all kinds of sources to observe in which situations native speakers perform the target speech acts. Students were recommended to record their findings. Interviews showed that they did not try to find out the different ways of requesting and apologizing through finding sources and taking notes. The main reason behind their lack of desire to seek out pragmatic knowledge is that learners were mainly motivated to improve their vocabulary skills. They were not motivated to raise their pragmatic awareness. Following themes of the discussion that is conducting cross-cultural analysis will also show their lack of motivation to learn pragmatic targets.

Conducting Cross-cultural Analysis. During the treatment phase, some of the aimed to raise activities pragmatic awareness of the students. These activities inform students about the directness and politeness issues in using speech acts. Social and cultural factors that determine the directness and politeness of the speech acts were implicitly taught through analyzing dialogues and peer assessment. During these activities, students were given dialogues that include target structures. They discussed directness level of the speech acts in dialogues and discussed how to sound pragmatically appropriate. Moreover, they compared the target structures with the structures in their L1. They were equipped with means to discover new strategies to use speech acts through collecting information and analyzing the directness and politeness levels of speech acts. They were expected to explore the cultural norms governing the appropriacy of the speech acts. During the interviews, students were asked if they tried to collect information on the use of speech acts through listening to native speakers or inquiring from native speakers. Moreover, in order to learn if they learned a new request modification strategy or

apologizing strategy, they were asked about what they have discovered after collecting information on the use of speech acts.

These questions primarily aimed to explore if activities conducted to teach cross-cultural analysis worked or not and whether students had positive views about these activities. The major objective of the activities was to teach students how to analyze and interpret the pragmatic meanings involved in the use of speech acts. They were expected to apply the strategy of conducting cross-cultural analysis outside the class by comparing politeness, directness, and formality of the speech acts in different situations. Students had the chance to reach sources on various uses of speech acts through online sources and tv series, movies and more competent native speakers. As Mitsu did in the study by Taguchi (2012), students were expected to record their findings on the relationship between context, social norms, and modification of speech acts of requests and apologies. Interviews demonstrated that students did not seek pragmatic knowledge to explore the intricacies of sociocultural norms of the target language. Students relied on textbook and activities conducted by the researcher to learn speech acts. Students had positive ideas about the effectiveness of the activities that introduce making a cross-cultural analysis. However, other than three students, none of the students attempted to explore the sociopragmatic or pragmalinguistic aspects of the speech act by asking more competent speakers or searching online sources. They thought that activities conducted in class helped them use polite requests more effectively. Moreover, they think that their textbook informed them about the linguistic means to sound more polite. Following extract presents opinions of students on the effectiveness of classroom activities and the textbook.

Interviewer: Did you try to collect information on the use of speech acts through listening to native speakers or inquiring from native speakers?

Ahmet: I did not do that but I would like to compare my performance in the interview that we conducted during the first week and my performance in the posttest. At the beginning of the quarter errrr I always say sorry to apologize. However, we learned different ways of saying sorry and making a request and I realized that I can perform speech acts in many different ways. Requests can involve different levels of formality and differ in terms of the formality and informality of the requests based on to whom you are making a request. For example; I cannot

use “can” when asking a question to a person who is more important than me. I started to “would you mind” structure.

Following a comment by another student also showed that pragmatic awareness of the students about politeness conventions enhanced during the activities conducted by the researcher. However, they did not involve in exploring politeness in requests or apologies.

Interviewer: Did you try to collect information on the use of speech acts through listening to native speakers or inquiring from native speakers?

Elyas: About requesting, errrr activities were actually very helpful in my opinion because for example when I am asking for something to teacher especially for delaying homework it really helped a lot. For example; I asked the teacher for extending the time and I actually used “would you mind if you extend the time” and she actually accepted it. While I remember in past I errr just say like “can you make it longer” something like that. It actually feels so basically requesting I think activities helped us a lot especially outside the class because when I am outside for requesting I just say “would you mind” and make it hard to say no. It is more acceptable.

The following comment by the students are in line with the comments above and indicated that only source of pragmatic knowledge was classroom activities. They stated that they realized that there are modification strategies to sound pragmatically more appropriate. Moreover, they also realized their lack of knowledge in modification strategies. The following extract by the students showed that students realized their weaknesses in performing speech acts during the activities. Yet, they did not direct their efforts to examine the modification strategies outside the class. Instead, during role-play activities, they attempted to listen to their friend more carefully to create mental notes on the correct uses of the speech acts. The extract given below presents student opinions on this issue.

What did you discover through collecting information on the uses of speech acts? or Did you really try to learn more about requests and apologies outside the class?

Şeyma: I realized something. When I was talking to native speakers or doing an activity, I did not think that errr I am not that bad at making requests but when I was apologizing I realized that I should give more reasons. I thought that I should work on apologizing strategies. You cannot just apologize with a single word. I was having trouble with grammar and could not remember the patterns and typical expressions to apologize. I realized that I should learn how to apologize through listening to other people more carefully during the activities. I tried to remember what they told when they are apologizing. After some time, I was more fluent in apologizing.

In sum, in relation to exploring the modification strategies to sound more polite, most of the students did not put any effort to discover social and cultural factors shaping politeness and directness of the speech acts. They did not compare target sociocultural norms with native language either. This situation may mainly stem from their lack of motivation to gain pragmatic skills. All of the students were exam-oriented. They tried to improve their writing skills to pass the proficiency exam. Following comments illustrate this situation.

Zehra: I already studied in the department of Foreign Language when I was in high school. I already know grammar subjects and I am good at speaking. The skill that I would like to improve myself is writing and I would like to learn more vocabulary. Outside the class, I write an essay because it is what I need to learn. Daily speaking is so easy for me.

Hashim: I think to apologize and request those things are easy but the upper levels or writing essay organization topic sentence statements those are kind of complicated and may require more work.

Although most of the students prioritize writing skills over speaking skills as the comment above clearly showed, two of the students attempted to improve their pragmatic skills. One of them watched youtube videos to learn apologizing strategies. In these videos, a man who always got in trouble apologized for different reasons and the student watched them learn different apologizing strategies. However, he did not record apologizing strategies he learners or tried to discover the variables of age, sex or context, social power or other cultural and social norms that involve using a degree of politeness. Another student also searched for online

sources to learn more about speech acts. Moreover, she asked more competent speakers to sound how to polite. Student comment given below is concerned with the efforts of students to learn more about speech acts.

Interviewer: Others errr Have not you ever tried to learn more about the use of speech acts outside the class?

Ava: Actually, I try to find online sources. First I searched in my native language and then I asked other people

Interviewer: What what did you learn through collecting information on the use of speech acts?

Hasan:Especially for apologizing there is guy like he kind of messed up a lot and made lots of problem and social media like problems and kind of errr people and lots of people criticize him and he became so good at apologizing that he makes even some errr some made website about him and make jokes about him . He made lots of mistakes. I learned errr to apologize for like weird situations.

Answers of students to interview questions showed that students did not direct their attentions pragmatic aspects of speech acts. They benefited from classroom activities and learned some modification strategies. They stated that classroom activities helped them recognized that they lacked the linguistic and sociolinguistic means to realize speech acts. However, they only attempted to improve their pragmatic skills by participating in classroom activities. Following the theme of the analysis will be creating practice opportunities.

Creating Practice Opportunities. In order to encourage students to practice pragmatic knowledge they gained in class, the researcher conducted role-play activities. Students had the chance to practice through online communication and more competent students studying at the university. However, interviews showed that students did not have the motivation to create practice opportunities. If they practiced speech acts outside the class, they would identify the social variables affecting the appropriacy of the speech act production. Moreover, they would discover their insufficient knowledge of realizing speech acts. Classroom activities assist students in realizing that they cannot use request and apologizing strategies effectively. In order to elicit the opinions of students in creating practice opportunities outside the class to learn more about speech acts, they were asked if they had a

chance to practice requests and apologies outside the class. Moreover, they were asked about their perceptions about improvement in making requests and apologizing and they were expected to support their ideas through examples. The inquiry about student perceptions on pragmatic competence helped the researcher to understand if students perform the speech acts outside the class. The researcher assumed that practicing speech acts outside the class makes students realize their weaknesses or strengths in pragmatic production. Interviews showed that most of the students did not seek out practice opportunities outside the class. Only three of the students stated that they practice all of the grammar subjects with their foreign friends. However, they focused on the linguistic aspect of the requests and apologies and stated that they attempted to use grammar structures with their native speaker friends.

Interviewer: Did you have a chance to practice requests and apologies outside the class?

İrem: err honestly, I try to practice grammar subjects I learned in class especially with my foreign friends and when I watch TV series I became happy catching phrases I learned in class. I thought that I learned them and that makes me happy.

Melis: I think the main reason behind the importance of these activities is that we have foreign friends and we have a chance to practice the things we learned in class. Otherwise, I would not study these things outside the class but now I have many foreign friends and I speak in English with them all the time.

Another student comment also showed that students did not specifically aim to practice requests and apologies but they encountered many situations that they have to use the structures they learned in class when they communicate with foreigners.

Interviewer: Did you have a chance to practice requests and apologies outside the class?

İrem: For example, we go to a touristic place and we talked to tourists to help them and there are many foreign students. It is not a matter of having foreign friends or not we usually happen to speak in English outside the class.

Interviewer: Do you think that you can adjust your language according to the social status and social distance of the other person and severity of the

Zehra: Actually I constantly think about it and do self-assessment. I have many foreign friends. Speaking in English helped us a lot to improve our speaking. They also helped us learn English.

Ayşe: I do not specifically work on them. After we learned them in class we automatically start to use them in activities or when we encounter them in TV series our awareness about them increases and we catch these things right away.

As extracts above demonstrated students did not put importance in creating practice opportunities to learn modification strategies. This may stem from the reason that students prioritize improving vocabulary and grammar skills. Following extracts showed that students tended to work on vocabulary and grammar outside the class instead of devoting time to discover pragmatic aspects of speech acts.

Interviewer: Did you have a chance to practice requests and apologies outside the class?

Esma: I have many foreign friends in class and on online platforms and communicate with them all the time. They utter a word that I do not know and I asked them the meaning of the word. Then, I looked at the dictionary to learn the meaning. I memorize these words. We should be enthusiastic about learning new words.

Interviewer: What about you Elif?

Elif: Actually I did not ask anything about requests to my foreign friend but in order to learn more words I started to watch series with subtitles and tried to pick up words while watching. When I speak in class I try to practice these phrases to remember them later.

Students thought that classroom activities enable them to practice speech acts, therefore, they felt that it is not necessary to practice speech acts outside the class. They confined themselves to classroom activities and practices to improve communicative skills. They thought that there is no need for paying special attention to discover regularities in the use of some modification strategies. Moreover, they did not try to analyze the various close link between context, social power and other social variables of age and sex and pragmalinguistic aspects of speech acts.

Following comments showed that students have positive ideas about classroom activities yet these activities did not achieve encouraging them to be more autonomous.

Interviewer: Did you practice guys? What do you think about your improvement in making requests and apologies?

Emir: I did practice with you it is fair enough I think. I am really better at it now.

Interviewer: What about you Huzna?

Huzna: I think we practice in class. When we meet other people or in class when we make a mistake, we have to say sorry and we have apologized. We already apologize.

Abdurrahman: I used to use apologies and requests in an informal way but there are levels of formality and I started to learn them. I started to understand people better and activities were really helpful. We practice these things in real-life.

Haşim: I tried to practice with our teacher you know sometimes I forgot doing my homework and sometimes with my friends with whom I am not very close with.

The extract given above shows that students think that classroom activities already help them to learn pragmatic elements of politeness strategies. Therefore they believed that they do not need to put an extra effort to learn pragmatic elements outside the class. Summary of the reactions of the students towards the strategy training based activities given below.

Students have positive perceptions about activities that introduce gathering pragmatic information. These activities centered on illustrating the methods for collecting information on modification strategies. Students found these activities useful for recognizing the different level of formality and politeness involving in the use of speech acts. They stated that their pragmatic awareness had raised and they paid attention to pragmatic elements they learned when they watch TV series. However, they did not seek out ways to collect information on the use of speech acts outside the class. Students were interested in enriching their vocabulary, particularly, academic vocabulary. Interviews showed that students were not willing to find sources on pragmatic elements outside the class.

In relation to the activities on conducting cross-cultural analysis, students thought that activities in class presented a range of apologizing strategies. Their comments also demonstrated that they were equipped with pragmalinguistic means to realize politeness strategies through classroom activities. Activities had the objective to make students think about the contextual and cultural factors that determine pragmatic norms. They were expected to compare the native speaker norms with their L1 to discover differences. This analysis of pragmatic norms might enable them to master the politeness and (in)directness strategies in the use of requests and apologies. Thus their sociopragmatic awareness would raise and they would extend their knowledge to other pragmatic elements. However, Students did not analyze the politeness and directness issues in the use of speech acts outside the class. They perceived their communicative skills as being superior to their writing skills as extracts by the interview highlighted.

Concerning the discussion on creating practice opportunities outside the class, student considered classroom activities as being useful for them to practice target pragmatic forms. Classroom activities designed to encourage students to seek out opportunities to use the pragmatic knowledge outside the class. Their pragmatic output was assumed to lead them to think about their weaknesses. On the other hand, their pragmatic knowledge would be persistent through practicing. However, students thought that they practiced speech acts in class so they did not engage in creating practice opportunities. They had opportunities to communicate with foreigners, as they had many foreign friends. Students stated that they are in an international environment and are not in need of native speakers to communicate in English. Next section will present the ideas of students on the use of Language Biography and its effects on the learning process. Discussion of the interviews on the use of Language Biography would center on the functions of Language Biography.

Cultural Awareness. In order to help students to reflect on their intercultural experience during learning pragmatic elements, the researcher makes students use Language Biography. In previous studies, students kept learning journals to keep track of their learning and reflect on their learning experience. Cultural Awareness part and My Language and Intercultural Experience parts of language biography involve reflecting on the sources to learn target culture, detailing intercultural

encounters, cultural attitudes learned. Moreover, students were expected to write down the cultural attitudes they have difficulty in understanding in Cultural Awareness part of ELP. Language Biographies were distributed to contribute to the autonomous learning process of the students.

Students were expected to use strategies outside the class and reflect on their learning experience through the use of ELP. The researcher considered Language Biography as a tool to encourage and guide students in discovering pragmatic norms about politeness and directness. In order to understand the effects of the use of ELP in learning pragmatic targets, researcher elicited the opinions of the students about the Cultural Awareness part of Language Biography. Moreover, they were asked to tell which parts they filled in and if these parts help them to record their progress. The main aim was to understand if students did self-reflection and continue exploring pragmatic aspects of the language outside the class. However, students were reluctant to fill in the ELP due to their tight schedule at university preparation class.

Extracts from the interview showed that students had positive ideas about cultural awareness and intercultural experience part of the Language Biography. Yet, they did not fill in all parts of the cultural awareness and intercultural experience part regularly. They stated that their cultural awareness raised through their interaction with their foreign friends. Questions on cultural awareness parts such cultural attitudes they learners and type of cultural encounters led them to think about cultural differences. Following extracts illustrated their view on cultural awareness and intercultural experience part of Language Biography.

Interviewer: What Do you think about Cultural Awareness part?

Follow up: Do you think that it helped you to record your progress so that you can self-reflect?

Furkan: We wrote down how we learn English. We were exposed to English through books, social media, and Tv and we wrote down all of those things.

Interviewer: You filled in the Cultural Awareness part right? Can you tell us about your entries?

Furkan: We talked about and discussed what we learned in preparation class and wrote down them. We have too many foreign friends in class and they all come

from different cultures errr differences between their culture and our culture for example sometimes they misunderstand us. Although something that is fairly normal in our culture can be inappropriate in their culture. Err, therefore we keep this in mind when we communicate with them. we always think before we say something or we decided not to say.

Esma: Actually I did not fill in Cultural Awareness part due to heavy work load of assignments and exams but I learned about other cultures in preparation class. For example, our friend from Tayland says “ayyy” and I did not understand the meaning of the word. I learned that it means yes. It was an interesting thing to learn.

Extracts showed that students did not focus on cultural differences between the target language and their native language. Students did not fill in the parts of cultural awareness regularly. They gained awareness of cultural differences. Nevertheless, they did not think about the cultural attitudes that are common to English and did not reflect on the intercultural experience they gained during activities or outside the class.

Language Biography was assumed to foster pragmatic awareness of the students by encouraging them to gain intercultural experience. That is to say, When reflecting on cultural attitudes governing pragmatic norms, students could contemplate on the social and cultural differences that shape the politeness and (in)directness in the use of speech acts. Only four of the students filled in all parts of the Language Biography. Their insights on the filling in Cultural Awareness part indicated that it assist them in analyzing and interpreting intercultural knowledge. Moreover, one of the students stated that he is willing to continue updating cultural awareness part in next quarters. Extracts given below illustrates the positive opinions of students on the filling Cultural awareness and intercultural experience part of the Language Biography.

Interviewer: What do you think about the cultural awareness part of Language Biography? I mean which parts you filled in?

Fatih: For example, we learned how to apologize and make a request because these things are important for us. We will use requests and apologies in daily life. errr these are very important because it can cause some problems. When we make a request we should be polite, otherwise, it would not be possible to get

someone to do something. We wrote down these things and I am planning to fill in this in next quarter.

Interviewer: Okay, others what do you think? Do you agree with him?

Haşim: I agree with him. For example, some people make too many pauses when speaking. They start for a second or like think about it or do not know what to say. We also sometimes do not what to say and think about these when we fill in Language Biography. When we write down them we focus them and we know what we are missing err what we need to upgrade or talk about like communication skills.

Self-assessment. In order to help learners to be autonomous during learning pragmatic elements, the researcher used ELP as a tool to make students set learning goals, do self-assessment and update learning goals. Goal setting and Learning How to Learn part of the students requires students to state their learning goals, and reflect on learning methods and styles. Moreover, it includes a part that learners are expected to write down the things they achieved in the target language. They are also expected to write down language skills that they have difficulty in improving. Although there are general statements, students were asked to think about speech acts when filling in these parts of the Language Biography. In order to elicit the opinions of students on Goal Setting and Learning How to Learn parts of your Language Biography, they were asked whether they did self-assessment through filling in Goal Setting and Learning how to Learn. The discussion on setting learning goals was also seen as part of the process of self-assessment as doing self-assessment enables the learner to update learning goals. Therefore, they were asked whether they set learning goals and filled in the related part in Language Biography.

Discussions during the interview showed that students did not fill in Goal Setting and Learning How to Learn parts of the ELP each week and did not update their learning goals. They stated that their focus was on learning vocabulary and improving their writing skills. Moreover, they had to keep up with the schedule of the preparation class and write essays every week. Therefore, they did not devote much of their time to think about their experience and do self-assessment. Interview results show that they have a high motivation to learn academic words and improve writing skills rather than improving their pragmatic skills. Additionally, Students

believed that they do not need a study plan that includes setting learning goals, doing self-assessment and discovering weaknesses and strengths in the production of speech acts. Following extracts illustrated this situation.

Interviewer: Did you have a study plan?

Follow up: did you try to find out what you were lacking? did you set learning goals?

Zehra: I did not fill in all of the parts because I have never used a study plan especially during the times exam I have never used a study plan.

Melisa: I think we do not need to study for apologies or requests we already know these because we have too many friends.

İrem: We do not have time because we too many assignments. We do not need to have study plan as we practice these things we are at school

Interviewer: Did you fill in the parts of Language Biography that asks about your weaknesses in language skills?

Melisa: Actually, I did not fill in that part because I am good at grammar because we studied in language department at high school and we are good at grammar. I am not good at speaking and writing especially writing.

Zehra : I agree with Melisa we did reading and listening activities but our language education centers on grammar and reading. However, in preparation class we started to write essays and I want to write better academic essays. I want to learn more words to write essays. If do not have a rich vocabulary we cannot express ourselves effectively. We can not make request or apologize. I realized that I have to improve my vocabulary.

Although most of the students thought that they do not have time to fill in all parts of Language Biography and use a study plan to learn pragmatic skills, some of the students used ELP as a tool to do self-assessment. They stated that they discovered their learning styles and learning strategies by filling in Goal Setting and Learning How to Learn. Moreover, they believed that ELP led them to think about the pragmatic element that they have insufficient knowledge. Following extracts indicates that learners did self-assessment and did self-reflection on their learning process through the use of Language Biography

Interviewer: What was your last entry into Goal Setting and Learning How to Learn parts of your Language Biography?

Follow up: did you try to find out what you were lacking? did you set learning goals?

Ayşe: I filled in these parts and err I when I fill in these parts I discovered I studied, for example, taking notes or through reading. I compared all of the methods and realized that I learn through classroom activities, reading and taking notes. Discovering the methods I learn best helped me lot. It was really beneficial for me.

Interviewer: Did you have a study plan? Did you fill in Learning How to Learn and Goal setting parts?

Necva: After classroom activities, I discovered my weaknesses and realized that I can not reflect my knowledge in my performance. It leaded me to think about these and helped me too. I started to explore how they used the structures we learned in class when I read something or when I watch something. Therefore it was very helpful.

Liking of ELP. In an attempt to explore the general opinions of the students about Language Biography, the researcher asked students if they plan to fill in the Language Biography in the next quarter. It was thought that if students were willing to fill in the Language Biography, they perceived it as a useful tool to plan and guide their language learning process. Students' replies to interview questions demonstrated that they did not fill in all parts of the Language Biography regularly each week. The researcher attempted to find out the reason for not filling in Language Biography. Therefore, they were asked to state their reasons for not filling in Language Biography. Students stated that Language Biography helps them do self-assessment. They perceived ELP as a valuable tool to discover their weaknesses and strengths. However, they were not willing to fill in ELP in the following quarters as they have did not have enough time to fill in all parts of the ELP. They focused on passing the proficiency exam and start to major in their departments. Their motivation to improve language skills, for the most part, is concerned with achieving good scores in language exams. In order to pass the proficiency exam, students have to write an academic essay. They thought that

writing essays are the most problematic part. Therefore, they focused on improving their linguistic skills and vocabulary to write an academic essay.

General concerns of the students on the use of Language Biography is given above. It is necessary to look at extracts by students to touch upon their opinions on specific issues. In relation to using of ELP as a self-assessment tool, students think that Language Biography helps them evaluate their language skills. Thus, they stated that they became aware of their strengths in gaining language skills. Additionally, they discover what are the language skills that they lacked and work on more to improve. However, they are unwilling to fill in Language Biography. Some of them think that although they utilized it for self-assessment, they did not need to use ELP to do self-assessment. Students were asked if they thought that the use of the Language Biography was useful for them. Additionally, they were asked if they plan to update their Language Biography in the next quarter. Following extract shows the perceptions of students on the use of ELP.

Interviewer: Do you think that filling in the parts in your language biography helped you learn better? Do you think that you will continue to update your language biography in the coming B2 module?

Furkan: I do not plan to use it for next quarters. Questions in this document is useful for us to criticize ourselves but if we know these questions we can evaluate our skills. We do not need to fill in these parts to do self-assessment.

Other students: We do not want to fill in Language Biography

Melisa: we are too lazy to fill in all the parts.

Interviewer: If you continue filling in Language Biography do you think that it will be useful for your learning process.

Esma: Of course, we became aware of the language skills that we are good at, we asked questions about learning process to ourselves. We realized what we missed in terms of language skills. Therefore it is a very useful implementation.

Extracts given above displayed the positive perceptions of students on ELP in terms of assisting in self-reflection and self-assessment. Apart from being a tool to do self-reflection and self-assessment, some of the students stated that ELP introduced various methods and sources that students can benefit from during

learning English. Students argued that questions on preferred methods of language learning and sources for learning languages encouraged students to create new learning strategies. Following extract presents the opinions of the students on the function of ELP in language learning Process

Interviewer: Do you think that filling in the parts in your language biography helped you learn better? Do you think that you will continue to update your language biography in the coming B2 module?

Ahmed: We can know what we are good at and what we need to practice more so it can help us because it encouraged us. There are many different ways of learning English and it shows us. Now I know that I have to make more presentations because I had only once.

Haşim: I also think that it is kind of good idea to see the difference between old and now. What is the difference and what has changed and what are the skills that we should focus and what are the skills that are required more work or less work

Although students thought that ELP can be an instrument to make students think about learning strategies and learning sources, they did not fill in all parts of the Language Biography. They did not think that they have time to fill in it regularly. They concentrated on improving their writing skills. They argued that they had too much writing assignments that it is not possible for them to devote a substantial amount time to fill in Language Biography. Following extract reflects students' lack of enthusiasm to fill in ELP. Students attributed their lack of interest and willingness to fill in ELP to their tight schedule.

Interviewer: Do you think that filling in the parts in your language biography helped you learn better? Do you think that you will continue to update your language biography in the coming B2 module?

Aleynanur: If I believe that I will fill in and update it regularly, I am sure that it will be very useful. However, I do not believe in myself. It seemed to be a useful tool. If I can write down the things I learned each week and look at what I have learned on weekend, I would gain a lot I am sure of that. Yet, I am not an organized person. I do not have a schedule that I strictly follow because I have to write essay all the time.

Follow up : I think you think that you need to work on your vocabulary rather than focusing on pragmatic elements.

Elifnur: We need to work on our vocabulary we have an insufficient knowledge of vocabulary. We kept vocabulary notebooks and we study vocabulary all the time. We frequently have vocabulary quizzes.

Rumeysa: We already use daily phrases in class but we do not use academic words. We cannot keep in mind the antonym and synonyms of the word. Therefore, we keep vocabulary notebooks.

Necva: I still feel that I have insufficient knowledge of vocabulary

The extract given above showed that students concentrated on improving writing skills. They stated that they do not have a study plan. Their motivation to improve language skills were driven by their desire to pass the proficiency exam. Therefore, they committed to learning more vocabulary outside the class. They put more importance on writing essays rich in academic vocabulary rather than creating a study plan to learn pragmatic skills. As a result, they skipped most parts of the Language Biography. Most of the students did not deal with setting learning goals, using learning strategies and engaging in self-assessment and self-reflection. However, they have positive perceptions about the use of ELP. Summary of the opinions given below will be instrumental in reflecting the perception of students about the functions and effectiveness of ELP.

Students think that Language Biography assists them in doing self-assessment and discover the language skills they need to improve further. However, they did not devote much time to do self-assessment.

Students think that Language Biography raises the awareness of the students about their own learning styles and make them think about learning how to learn.

Students think that ELP makes them realized that there is a rich range of sources and learning strategies for learning a language.

Students think that ELP helps them to keep track of their progress in learning language skills.

Students think that they do not have enough time to use Language Biography on a regular basis. Moreover, they argued that in order to do self-assessment, they do not need to use Language Biography in future as they already learned the questions they have to ask themselves through filling part of the Language Biography on Learning how to Learn and Goal Setting part.

Students think that Cultural awareness and Intercultural experience part of Language Biography introduced them the concept of cultural differences through the questions on cultural attitudes. Therefore, they grew an awareness about cross-cultural differences in the use of politeness and directness involving in pragmatic elements. In relation to the research question four, analysis of focused-group interviews show that learners have positive perceptions about strategy-based instruction. Learners stated that classroom activities were effective in raising pragmatic awareness. Moreover, they considered the use of Language Biography as being useful for their learning process in terms of monitoring their progress and making them recognize the availability of a rich range of learning sources and activities. However, learners did not use strategy-based instruction and ELP regularly outside the class. Therefore, learners did not go through an autonomous learning process.

Chapter 5

Discussion

In this chapter findings obtained through the quantitative and qualitative analysis of pretest, posttest and focus group interview will be discussed. Discussion will involve touching upon each research question in separate titles and presenting relevant results. Results of the current study will be analyzed and interpreted in the light of previous research on the field. Thus, it would be possible to provide more insightful recommendations for future research. Research questions will be presented in the same order with the introduction part. Research questions given below will be discussed in the order presented below.

1. Is there any effect of using strategy-based instruction on improving pragmatic competence of the students?

1.a. Is there any effect of strategy-based instruction on the use of speech acts appropriately?

1.b. Is there any effect of using strategy-based instruction on raising the awareness about request modification strategies?

1.c. Is there any effect of using strategy-based instruction on raising the awareness about apologizing strategies?

1.d. What are the perceptions of students about strategy-based instruction?

Discussion of Research Question One

First research question aimed to explore if strategy-based instruction worked better than incidental learning in improving pragmatic performances of the students. In current research, incidental learning refers to being exposed to target forms through textbook and classroom lectures as a part of grammar subjects. In order to examine the effectiveness of strategy-based instruction effectively, a control group were also created and performances were compared. Descriptive statistics were employed to test the pragmatic performances of control group and experimental group through comparing mean values and effect size in pretest and posttest. In order to ensure that learners have the same base of pragmatic knowledge, Independent sample T-test were conducted to compare the mean values in pretest of WDCT and ODCT. Results showed that there is not a significant difference in

overall performance and in individual categories of apologies and requests. In order to estimate if there is a significant difference between pretest and posttest results by experimental group and control group, Paired sample T-test was conducted. Regarding ODCT, results of Paired sample T-test showed that both experimental group and control group displayed a significantly better score in posttest. However, when the level of progress were compared by means of Mixed design anova, a more significant progress on the part of the experimental group was recognized in posttest of ODCT.

With regard to WDCT results, Paired sample T-test showed that both control group and experimental group scored significantly higher in posttest. Similar to ODCT results, mixed design anova indicated that experimental group exhibited a superior progress. That is, effect size for experimental group was higher. These results confirmed the past research that instruction generated better results than no-intervention in terms of enabling learners to improve pragmatic elements (Fukuya & Zhang, 2002; Halenko & Jones,2001; Johnson & DeHaan,2013; Safont, 2004; Narita 2012; Tan & Farasian,2012). Moreover, past research emphasized the importance of awareness-raising activities that help learners to notice the target features in input and help them understand the target structures.

In current research, awareness-raising activities was designed to guide learners in conducting cross-cultural analysis outside the class. The activities conducted especially in second section of third week, fourth week and fifth week aimed to direct the attention of learners to speech act modification strategies through asking them to find out the strategies used in dialogues. The target forms were given in bold form and no direct explanation of the relationship between target forms and sociolinguistic variables were included. During these activities students tried to match the strategies given in list and the ones used in dialogues. Therefore, these activities were in the form of input enhancement. Other activities also aimed to raise awareness about importance of appropriacy in the use of speech act. However, activities conducted during other weeks, required more learner effort to discover the elements of pragmatic appropriacy through evaluating directness and politeness of speech acts. Results of current research aligns with the findings of previous research in terms of the benefit of awareness-raising activities (Eslami-Rasekh et al 2004; Fukuya & Clark,2001; Takashi,2001). This dissertation confirms

the noticing hypothesis by Schmidt (1993) as awareness-raising activities directed attention of learners to pragmatic elements in input. That is, learners noticed the sociolinguistic variables and their pragmalinguistic manifestations in the form of modification strategies in input. Thus, their pragmatic awareness raised and they produced pragmatically more appropriate speech acts.

As well as awareness-raising activities, authentic activities were carried out. One of the authentic activities involved interacting with native speakers to illustrate the methods for pragmatic data collection and it is conducted in second week. The other activity used in second week was an authentic activity as the learners received feedback from speakers who have native like-competency. During the sixth week and fifth week also students engage in authentic materials and analyzed real-life dialogues. These activities were pragmatics-focused and highlighted sociopragmatic elements. Outcomes of this research align with the arguments of researchers (Kasper & Roever, 2005; Martinez-Flor, 2008) in relation to the necessity of exposing learners to pragmatically rich input through authentic activities of role-plays or of analysis of authentic materials. Control group were exposed to pragmatic elements by means of textbook and lectures of teacher. However, treatment of pragmatic elements were grammar-focused and lacked any authentic communication. As past researchers highlighted, limitations of ESL classrooms in terms of insufficiency of textbook and authentic tasks in addressing pragmatic targets caused learners to fail in improving pragmatic competence at expected levels (Brock & Nagasaka, 2005; Karatepe, 2001; Enise & Mede 2015; Thomas 1983; Taguchi, 2011). Current research supports these views as control group did not display the same amount of progress that experimental group showed. To conclude, authentic activities and awareness-raising tasks helped learners to perform better in posttest. Therefore, this finding is in congruency with the past research and reinforces the claims of researchers in relation to the potential of awareness raising activities and authentic tasks (Eslami-Rasekh 2005; Eslami-Rasekh et al 2004; Martinez-Flor, 2008).

After a touch upon the effects of individual activities on learning process, it is necessary to interpret the results in the light of primary instructional method used in treatment phase. Current research employed strategy-based instruction and utilized the above mentioned activities to sensitize learners to the existence of pragmatic differences. Furthermore, they guided them in the use of learning strategies.

Researchers especially emphasized the role of self-discovery of pragmatic elements through data collection (Bardovi-Harlig,1996; Cohen,2005). This research supported the claim by Bardovi-Harlig (1996) that learner initiation is the key to acquiring pragmatic elements. He stated that “let learners to examine the pragmatic features and “be their own ethnographers” (Bardovi-Harlig,1996:32) through the use of strategy-based instruction. Current research has consistent findings in terms of the effectiveness of use of learning strategies in achieving learning goals as learners in experimental group outperformed control group in posttests. (Cohen, 2005; Shively, 2011; DeHaan, 2013; Cohen & Weaver, 1996). Past research also highlighted that a learning process involving active participation of learners in learning process through collecting data, practicing, and analyzing output resulted in pragmatic gains (Cohen, 2005; Shively, 2011; DeHaan, 2013). Current research echoed the results of these studies as learners took an active role during learning process and exhibited a better performance compared to control group in posttests. However, based on the analysis of the interviews, it is obvious that participants did not practice the each step of learning strategies outside the class.

As well as the use of descriptive statistics to answer the first research question, use of qualitative methods were deemed necessary to analyze the pragmatic proficiency of learners. In order to explore further if learners performed better in producing speech acts, researcher analyzed the types of errors, numbers and frequencies of errors. Identification of errors enabled the researcher to examine the problematic areas in pretest and posttest. Decrease in the number and frequency of errors was considered to be a sign of improvement in the performance of the speech acts. Moreover, discovering problematic parts will help to draw inferences on the pragmatic elements that current pragmatic instruction have the potential to improve.

Before elaborating on the effects of treatment phase on pragmatic failure, it would be worthwhile to touch upon pragmatic performances of learners prior to treatment phase. Analysis of pragmatic violations in ODCT and WDCT in pretest echoed the findings in terms of the imbalance in the pragmatic proficiency and linguistic competence (Bardovi-Harlig,1999; Bardovi-Harlig & Dörnyei,1998; Alagözlü & Büyükoztürk, 2009; Ishihara & Cohen,2010). Although learners in experimental group and control group had a certain level of language competence,

they fail to approximate to native-like proficiency. Analysis of speech acts generated similar results with past research with regard to the L1 transfer done by ESL learners due to the handicap of learning environment (Takashi, 2001; Wannaruk, 2008). Learners in both experimental group and control group did negative transfer. To illustrate; both control group and experimental group used role-type alerters too much. Use of inappropriate alerters display a similar pattern with the past research in terms of the tendency of Arap and Turkish learners to transfer alerters from their native language (Otcu-Zeyrek,2008, Al-Momani,2009). In relation to other pragmatic deviations, both Arap learners and Turkish learners used requests in their more direct forms before the treatment phase. Zeyrek (2001) presented an insight on the pragmalinguistic choices of learners from eastern cultures. Zeyrek (2001) argues that Turkish culture is high power culture and relations operate on the basis of solidarity, supportiveness and kinship ties. Therefore, it might be said that learners tend to be more direct in situations involving an asymmetrical relationship in terms of power relations (Zeyrek, 2001).

It is important to note that, after a module of seven weeks , both experimental group and control group involved in pragmatic deviations less frequently in posttest compared to pretest. Types of pragmatic failures were identified as lack of sociopragmatic awareness, limited grammatical competence, L1 transfer, lack of knowledge of typical expressions, resistance to use target pragmatic elements. With regard to ODCCT results, both experimental group and control group committed to pragmatic violations less frequently in posttest. However, a closer look will indicate that learners in experimental group deviated from pragmatic norms less frequently in posttest than control group did. Major reasons for pragmatic failure by control group and experimental group was limited grammatical competence and lack of sociopragmatic awareness in both posttest and pretest. Although learners displayed a lesser amount of pragmatic deviation in terms of limited grammatical competence and lack of sociopragmatic awareness in posttest, these categories still held the biggest proportion of errors among other pragmatic failures. In relation to WDCT results, likewise the ODCCT results, both experimental group and control group did less mistakes in posttest compared to pretest. However, experimental group committed to pragmatic violations less frequently than control group in each category. In WDCT, primary reason for pragmatic deviation was limited grammatical

competence and sociopragmatic awareness as well. Their numbers decreased in posttest though. It is possible to say that strategy-based instruction helped learners improve pragmatic performances more effectively than incidental learning.

However, learner performances in the use of modification strategies showed that learners were confused about the use of some structures in their correct linguistic forms. To illustrate, they failed to realize linguistic structures involving indirectness such as “would you mind”, “if clause” , and “I was wondering”. This finding can raise a concern about the effectiveness of strategy-based instruction in improving learner performance in all aspects. Linguistic aspects of pragmatic elements require repeated practice to turn explicit knowledge into procedural knowledge. Although pragmatic awareness of the students raised thanks to strategy-based instruction, independent learning attempts to capture pragmalinguistic aspects in their fullest form can be difficult for students. Mastery of pragmalinguistic aspects can require output based activities in classroom to ensure the confident and automatic use of them.

As well as the abundance of pragmalinguistic failures, sociopragmatic failures were also apparent in both pretest and posttest. Most common sociopragmatic failure was the use of requests and apologies in their more direct forms when there is an asymmetrical relationship in terms of power. Based on this finding, it can be inferred that a longer time of treatment process might be more useful for learners. To conclude, although strategy-based instruction worked better than incidental learning of speech acts, learners still display pragmatic violations. Yet, not all aspects of the speech acts are amenable to strategy-based instruction. Intricate relation between linguistic elements and pragmatics can be hard for learners to learn to the fullest extent with their independent learning activities. As a result, classroom activities full of practice opportunities would prove to be more useful than independent learning activities.

Discussion of Research Question Two

Modification strategies. Second research question of the study is “Is there any effect of using strategy-based instruction on raising about the use of request modification strategies?”. This research question is complementary to first research question. First research question explored the appropriacy of speech act

productions. Pragmatic appropriacy depends on many factors. Effective use of politeness conventions is a significant part of using speech acts appropriately. Politeness conventions are concerned with mitigating the expressions to lessen the face-threatening effects of the speech acts. That is to say, it involved minimizing imposition of the speech acts through the modification of speech acts. Modification of speech acts is concerned with the use of indirectness strategies and use of modals in the appropriate level of politeness. In order to explore various aspects of pragmatic competence, researcher analyzed the modification strategies and modal types used by learners in experimental group and control group in pretest and posttest. Researcher ran frequency analysis on modification strategies and modal types to discover whether their awareness about the use of request modification strategies raised.

Both control group and experimental group were exposed to target structures during the seven weeks that the study was conducted. The only source of information for control group was the teacher and textbook. In textbook, requests were categorized in terms of their politeness. Focus was on the correct use of modals and use of syntactic downgraders such as if clause. However, the textbook lacks an explanation on the social and cultural norms governing politeness conventions. In reading passages, it is possible to see request modification strategies but they were not at the centre of classroom discussion. Concerning the apologies, control group learned to apologize in the context of refusing people and finding excuses. In reading passages, there were examples of apologizing strategies. However, there was not an explanation of the social and cultural variables affecting the use of apologizing strategies. Focus was on the linguistic structures. Although control group were also exposed to the speech acts of requests and apologies through textbook and lectures of the teacher, an analysis of socio-cultural factors were not conducted. Experimental group, on the other hand, conducted activities to learn how to use speech act learning strategies. Treatment phase for the experimental group lasted seven weeks. Each week, they learned learning strategies and practiced them. These activities aimed to encourage them to continue their efforts to learn speech acts outside the class and discover the sociopragmatic norms in the use of speech acts. In order to help them to do self-reflection and self-evaluation during this process, researcher make students use

Language Biography part of European Language Portfolio. Students were expected fill in the parts of Language Biography at home as class time was allocated to carry out the activities related to speech act learning strategies. In order to examine the effect of treatment phase on experimental group, pretest and posttest results of the students in experimental group was compared. Post-test results by experimental and control group was also compared. In an attempt to understand which group showed more progress, differences in pretest and posttest performance by control group and experimental group was compared. Discussion of the results will be given in the order of presenting performances of students in both control group and experimental group before the treatment and after the treatment. In order to compare the results with previous research and see the similarities and differences, discussion will draw on past research on pragmatics.

Concerning the pretest results of ODCT by control and experimental group, most common strategy used by the students is interrogatives which is a syntactic downgrader. Second most used downgraders is grounders and it is an external modification strategy. Past studies also showed that Turkish learners and Arab learners used “grounders” commonly as an external modification strategy (Otçu-Zeyrek,2008;Balcı,2009;Al-Momani,2009). Some researchers stated that giving reasons is commonly used as supportive moves across different languages(Hassal,2001; Trosborg,1994). Therefore, common use of grounders can stem from L1 transfer.

In relation to other external modification strategies, cost minimizer and checking on availability were not used by experimental group and control group in pretest. In past studies also ESL learners have difficulty in using cost-minimizers and approximating to native-speakers norms in the use external modifications(Otçu-Zeyrek,2008;Al-Momani,2009).Concerning the syntactic downgraders, learners did not use a wide range of modification strategies and they lacked the continuous aspect and negation in pretest. Moreover learners did not use tense and aspect as syntactic downgraders which was used commonly by native speakers in mitigating requests (Otçu-Zeyrek, 2008; Balcı,2009; Al-Momani, 2009). Drawing on the past studies relatively low use of some external and internal modifiers can be sign of low pragmatic awareness in terms of the use of modification strategies. This finding is in congruency with past studies in that Arabic and Turkish learners even at upper-

intermediate level are not able to use syntactic modification strategies and adjuncts to head acts effectively (Otçu-Zeyrek, 2008; Al-Momani, 2009) .

In relation to OWDCT, when compared to ODCCT both experimental group and control group used modification strategies more frequently in OWDCT. This finding is in parallel with the argument of the Sasaki (1998) that performances of learners differ across various measurement technics. Learners exhibited a better performance in tests that require less processing capacity. OWDCT involves less processing capacity and learners perform better in OWDCT. A closer look to modification strategies shows that most commonly used strategies by control group and experimental group in WDCT was interrogatives and it was followed by grounders. Both control group and experimental group used a wider range of external modification strategies in WDCT compared to ODCCT in both pretest and posttest. A general look at pretests will indicate that data by both control group and experimental group lack some internal and external modification strategies. In order to investigate if students started to use modification strategies they lacked in pretest and compare their performances, post-tests were conducted.

Posttests in ODCCT showed that learners in experimental group did not used a wider range of syntactic and clausal modification downgraders in posttest. Nevertheless, learners in both experimental group and control group performed better in OWDCT and ODCCT. It is important to note that there is only slight increase in the number of clausal and syntactic downgraders used by experimental group while there is a slight decrease in the number of lexical downgraders in posttest of ODCCT. In relation to external downgraders, experimental group used external modification strategies more frequently in posttest of ODCCT. When posttest results by control group and experimental group is compared, only striking difference was on the use of external modification strategies. Experimental group used external modification strategies more frequently than control group did. In relation to syntactic, clausal and lexical downgraders, there is not a significant difference in the number of modification strategies in posttest between two groups. Experimental group used clausal and lexical downgraders more frequently than control group did. Yet, there is only a slight difference between the groups. In relation to syntactic downgraders, control group used more syntactic downgraders than control group did. Looking at the modification strategies used in ODCCT by both of the groups, it is

not possible to say that learners in experimental group used internal modification strategies more effectively than control group. Most notable difference was between the groups was on the use of external modification strategies. Experimental group used a greater number of external modification strategies than control group used in posttest. Nevertheless, experimental group did not use a wider range of strategies in each category of the internal and external modifiers.

So as to investigate pragmatic gains, it is also necessary to look at the OWDCT results by control group and experimental group. Experimental group used clausal downgraders more frequently in posttest than they did in pretest. In relation syntactic downgraders, although there is a decrease in the total number of the downgraders, learners used a wider range of strategies in posttest. In relation to lexical downgraders there is only a slight increase in the number of modification strategies used in posttest. An interesting finding in relation external modifications is that learners used supportive moves more frequently in pretest compared to posttest. When posttest results by control group and experimental group is compared it will be seen that control group used clausal downgraders more frequently than experimental group did. Concerning syntactic downgraders and lexical downgraders, downgraders used by experimental group in posttest outnumbered the ones used by experimental group. Most striking difference between the groups is in the use of external modifiers. External modifications used by experimental group outnumbered the modifications used by control group. However, both of the groups did not use disarmer.

When the results by ODCT and WDCT is taken into consideration, strategic instruction helped learners to raise their awareness about modification strategies and learners used request modification strategies more frequently. It is worth noting that experimental group used a wider range of modification strategies compared to pretest in WDCT in posttest. Control group did not display a richer array of modification strategies in WDCT in posttest. However, a detailed examination of internal and external modifications indicates that experimental group did not displayed a better performance in the use of internal modification strategies in ODCT and WDCT. Moreover, experimental group did not used a wider range of external and internal modification strategies in ODCT. Therefore, strategic instruction did not bring about a huge difference in terms of the effective use of

internal modification strategies. In relation to external modification strategies, experimental group used supportive moves more commonly compared to control group in both ODCT and WDCT. This result proposes that strategic instruction raised the awareness of learners in the use of external modification strategies to sound more indirect.

Results suggests that adopting the learner as researcher approach in teaching process did not produce expected results. During the activities, learners were encouraged to collect data and practice the modification strategies. In order to guide them in data collection process, target forms were addressed through the use of input enhancement. However, classroom practice fell short of achieving the goal of using internal modification strategies effectively. Learners did not use a wider range modification strategies in all categories of the tests.

It is necessary to touch upon past studies on speech act modification strategies to interpret the results of current study more effectively. Past studies (Alcón, 2005; Fukuya & Clark, 2001; Salazar, 2003; Safont, 2003; Takashi, 2001, 2005) used conscious-raising activities to teach speech acts. These activities were conducted as part of either implicit or explicit instruction. Current study also employed consciousness-raising, namely awareness raising activities. In order to help learners discover target forms, Consciousness-raising (CR) tasks leaning towards more implicit end of explicit-implicit continuum were employed in current study. Similar to the past studies by (Alcón, 2005; Fukuya & Clark, 2001; Fukuya & Martinez-Flor, 2008), learners were stimulated to search the target forms in input as part of CR tasks. Moreover, input enhancement, a type of implicit CR tasks, were utilized. Implicit CR tasks were used to teach students how to analyze pragmatic cues in a speech act and continue exploring the pragmatic elements outside the class. To illustrate, in third week and fifth week, form search activities involving analyzing the pragmatic features of speech acts and exploring the modification strategies in dialogues were conducted.

Results of the analysis on modification strategies imply that explicit rule explanation and metapragmatic discussion might have been more fruitful. To illustrate, learners in experimental group did not exhibit a better performance in any of the categories of internal modification strategies other than “embedded if clause”. Students learned “embedded if clause” as part of a unit on grammar. Therefore,

strategy-based activities served for reinforcing the newly-gained knowledge. Based on this fact, it can be said that explicit instruction accompanied by role-play activities as practiced in the study by Safont (2004) could have been more effective. Raising awareness helped learners to mobilize the linguistic sources that are at their disposal. Yet, a new set of pragmatic knowledge to be acquired might involve an attention to rules governing these pragmatic features. In this vein, past studies by (Alcón, 2005; Fukuya & Clark, 2001; Fukuya & Martinez-Flor, 2008; Lyster, 1994) showed that explicit rule explanation and metapragmatic discussion of pragmalinguistic elements had a greater effect in improving pragmatic performances of the learners compared to the use of implicit CR tasks. In conclusion, strategy-based instruction in the form of independent learning activities and implicit CR tasks did not lead learners to pick up new request modification strategies. Analysis of interviews will highlight the results as it gives the synopsis of the learning process of learners.

It is worth noting that indirectness does not ensure appropriateness (Al-Momani, 2009). It is necessary to look at the modal types used in Head Acts in pretest and posttest to draw more conclusions on effect of strategic instruction on the use of modification strategies and indirectness that are central to the appropriateness of speech acts.

Modal types. In order to investigate the effect of strategy-based instruction and answer research question that is “is there any effect of strategy-based instruction on the use of modification strategies?”, researcher examined the increase in the number of indirect modals between posttest and pretest. Moreover, performances of learners in control group and experimental in posttest were compared. In exploring the modal types, one of the situations were excluded in both OWDCT and ODCT. This situation involved no asymmetrical relationship. Therefore, there was no need to use politeness conventions.

Use of “can” was considered to be use of a less polite expression in the presence of a high-power and low-power encounter. The category of “other” also refers to the use of direct speech acts in the form of imperatives. Other categories of modals are modals that are used to sound more polite. The modals of politeness were expected to be used more frequently in posttest by experimental group after the treatment phase. In relation to the modal types used in ODCT, both experimental

group and control group used “can” and imperative forms more frequently than any other modals in pretest. Learners preferred to use more direct expressions. This finding is in line with the study by Otçu-Zeyrek (2008) conducted in past on the use of modal types. Moreover, when head acts were closely examined, learners used conventionally indirect strategies according to the categorization by Blum-Kulka et al, (1989) more commonly compared to conventionally direct and unconventionally indirect strategies. This finding is in line with studies conducted with Arap learners and Turkish learners (Al-Momani, 2009; Karatepe, 1998; Kılıçkaya, 2010; Otçu-Zeyrek, 2008).

In relation to modal types, Turkish learners and Arap learners used “can” more frequently as they did not grow a sociopragmatic awareness adequately and assess the sociocultural requirements of the situations. Past studies conducted with ESL learners of Arap learners and Turkish learners also showed that learners failed to detect the sociolinguistic cues in communication context and sound more polite (Al-Momani; Karatepe, 1998; Otçu-Zeyrek, 2008). However, in the study by Kılıçkaya (2010) learners used “could” more frequently than other modals. Yet, overall results bear resemblance to current study in terms of the dominance of the use of more direct request strategies. After the treatment phase, use of direct expressions decreased by experimental group. Experimental group started to use modals that are more polite. However, control group preferred to use more direct speech acts in ODCT and frequency of the use of “can” and “other” are higher than the frequency of modals of politeness.

In relation to WDCT results, experimental group used modals of politeness more frequently in pretest than they used it in posttest. Additionally, use of more direct speech acts is higher by control group in posttest compared to experimental group. After the treatment phase, experimental group started to use speech acts of requests in WDCT and ODCT in a more polite way. Yet, use of modals of politeness did not show a decrease in posttest by control group in WDCT and ODCT. Strategy-based instruction helped learners in experimental group to raise pragmalinguistic awareness and learners used speech acts in a more polite way. Experimental group and control group already knew the politeness levels of the modals through classroom discussions. During the treatment phase, activities directed their attention to social and contextual variables affecting the appropriacy of speech acts.

Experimental group mobilized the existing pragmatic knowledge to sound more polite through the use of certain modals. In this vein, learners grew an awareness on the sociopragmatic issues thanks to classroom activities. However, they did not put much effort to use external and internal modification strategies effectively to ensure the appropriacy of their speech act productions. Learners were not aware of the availability of a rich range of the external and internal modifications strategies to sound more polite and indirect. Activities targeted to raise the awareness about modification strategies. Students were responsible for collecting information and drawing conclusions on the use of pragmatic elements. Findings showed that students did not improve their pragmatic competence at all aspects of speech acts modification strategies. Concerning the research question two, use of strategy-based instruction partially achieved the aim of improving pragmatic competence of the learners. Learners recognized the importance of the levels of politeness and its implications in the use of speech acts. However, they did not show a significant progress in the use internal and external supportive moves. The reason behind the relatively low success of learners in performing external and internal modification strategies will be highlighted through the discussion of focus group interviews. Focus group interviews will be insightful in terms of reporting practices of learners during learner process. It accounts for the low and high performances of learners in posttests.

Discussion of Research Question Three

In order to answer the third research question, supportive moves that are used to sound more apologetic were analyzed in accordance with the social and cultural variables affecting the performance of speech acts. Severity of the situation and relative social power and distance of the participants are the variables that are effective factors in strengthening of apologies (Taguchi,2006). When ODCT results by control group and experimental group were observed in pretests, use of the adverbials as intensifiers and explanation or cause of offence were the most common apologizing. Least common strategies used in pretest were concern for the hearer and promise of forbearance. When the frequency of apologizing strategies were analyzed used in posttest, it will be seen that use of concern for the hearer and promise of forbearance did not show a significant improvement. Total number

of modification strategies used by experimental group increased in posttest. Other than promise of forbearance, there is an increase in all of the categories of supportive moves. The most significant increase was on the use of offer of repair. When posttest results in ODCT by control group and experimental group is compared, it is obvious that experimental group used apologizing strategies more frequently than control group did.

Concerning the OWDCT results by control and experimental group in pretest, both control group and experimental group used intensifiers and an offer of repair most commonly. Similar to ODCT, both of the groups used concern for hearer and promise of forbearance less frequently compared to the other strategies. In relation to pretest and posttest results by experimental group, although there is slight decrease in the use of explanation or cause of offense and concern for hearer, there is an increase in the number of other strategies. Overall results showed that experimental group used more apologizing strategies in posttest. Concerning pretest and posttest results of OWDCT by control group, there is a decrease in the number of all of the modification strategies other than an offer of repair and acknowledgement of responsibility. Total number of the strategies by control group increased in WDCT in posttest. However, compared to experimental group, control group did not show the same progress experimental group did in posttest. Number of modification strategies used by experimental group outnumbered the strategies used by experimental group.

When the progress between posttest and pretest by control group and experimental group is compared it will be seen that, experimental group showed a greater progress in posttest. In relation research question three, with the use strategy-based instruction learners performed better in the use of apologizing strategies. This finding supports the past research that instruction is more effective than mere exposure target structures (Fukuya & Zhang, 2002; Halenko & Jones, 2001; Johnson & DeHaan, 2013; Safont, 2004; Narita 2012; Tan & Farasian, 2012). With regard to the instructional method, current research confirmed the findings by past research on the use of strategy-based instruction in terms of its effectiveness in raising pragmatic awareness (Cohen, 2005; Shively, 2011; Taguchi, 2015). In current research, learners produced apologizing strategies that are congruent with

the situational and cultural variables of power, social distance and severity of the situation as their pragmatic awareness raised.

Discussion of Research Question Four

Research question four is concerned with exploring perceptions of students about strategy-based instruction. During the seven weeks of treatment, experimental group were exposed to a strategy-based instruction that involved an autonomous learning process. Control group covered the subjects through the use of textbook without any intervention. Strategy-based instruction involved guiding students in goal setting, using learning strategies and monitoring the learning process. In order to help learners monitor their performance through self-assessment and self-reflection, students used Language Biography part of European Language Portfolio . Past research showed that an autonomous learning process that the learner took the main responsibility and discover the pragmatic element with their own efforts proved to be useful (Cohen,2005;Taguchi,2015; Shively,2011). In an attempt to elicit opinions of the students on the effectiveness of activities introducing learning strategies and use of Language Biography, researcher conducted focus group interviews. Focus group interviews informed the researcher about the efforts of learners on learning pragmatic elements outside the class. Thus, interviews rendered it possible to give detailed accounts on the reasons for not exhibiting expected performances in speech act production.

Interviews were analyzed based on main topics in interview questions and emerging themes of the interviews. Two main themes were the opinions on strategy-based instruction and opinions on Language Biography. Opinion of students on strategy-based instruction were examined under three categories of gathering information on pragmatic elements, conducting cross-cultural analysis and creating practice opportunities. Opinions of students on the use of Language Biography was analyzed based on three main themes which are liking of ELP, cultural awareness and self-assessment.

In relation to opinions of student about strategy-based instruction, students in experimental group had positive ideas on the effectiveness of classroom activities. During the treatment process, they conducted activities on gathering information about pragmatic elements. Students stated that these activities enabled

them to discover different degrees of politeness and formality that involve in the use of speech acts. These activities acted as awareness-raising activities for students. Students claimed that during the activities, they recognized that native speakers used speech acts in a more polite way depending on the social variables. They stated that they paid more attention to the pragmatic elements upon carrying out the activities. However, these activities did not encourage all of the students to gather information on the use of pragmatic elements.

Only two of the students expressed their willingness to collect information on the pragmatic elements. Most of the students directed their efforts to improving their writing skills. They concentrated on having a rich academic vocabulary to write essays. They prioritized improving their vocabulary over improving other language skills and perceived their writing skills as being inferior compared to their communicative skills. Therefore, they continued their efforts to improve their vocabulary outside the class instead of collecting data on the pragmatic norms of target language.

With respect to activities conducted to introduce the ways to conduct cross-cultural analysis, students have positive perceptions about the activities. Additionally, students think that these activities presented different apologizing strategies. Students considered these activities as being useful for emphasizing politeness strategies. Students were expected to devote their times to discover semantic formulas and linguistic structures that are used in congruent with the pragmatic norms of the target culture through conducting cross-cultural analysis. It involves weighing the severity of the situations, social norms of the target culture and contextual factors that determine appropriacy of the speech acts(Cohen,2005). Additionally, classroom activities had the objective to encourage students to compare L1 pragmatic norms and target language pragmatic norms. Students were encouraged to have an inquiry on the use of speech acts to recognize the variation in realizing speech acts according to the social status of the speakers. Cohen(2005) recommended to record the findings of cross-cultural analysis. Although steps of this analysis were introduced, students did not involve in exploring the pragmatic elements further outside the class.

Concerning the activities on creating practice opportunities, students were encouraged to practice the speech acts outside the class. Students had positive

reactions towards these activities. However, these activities intended to lead students to seek out opportunities for practicing their pragmatic knowledge through online communication or with more competent speakers around them. However, students did not put a special effort to practice target structures. They stated that they have foreign friends in class and outside the class already. Therefore, they considered that they have a chance to practice their communication skills. Students did not have a tendency to explore the speech acts or other pragmatic elements outside the class. Interviews showed that they were largely exam-oriented. Therefore, students focused on working on their language skills that the proficiency exam tested. Going back to research question four, students had positive ideas on the strategy-based instruction. Yet, these activities fell short of leading the learners to be autonomous and independent learners. Contrary to the assumptions of researcher in the light of aims of treatment process, learners did not experience an autonomous learning process. This finding is not in line with the past research that prioritize learner autonomy in teaching process. Past research indicated that prompts to guide students in independent learning activities leded students to continue learning efforts outside the classroom (Cohen,2005; Shivel,2011; Taguchi,2018). Irrespective of the efforts to encourage independent learning activities, students solely relied on classroom discussion in learning speech acts of request and apologies.

It is worth noting that students lacked the motivation to improve their pragmatic skills.They did not recognize the importance of social and cultural norms that determine the appropriacy of pragmatic elements. Inappropriate use of pragmatic elements can create communication breakdowns (Ishihara & Cohen, 2010; Thomas, 1983). However, students were not fully aware of the grave importance that pragmatic elements carry for the success of the communication. They were confident in their pragmatic skills and concentrated primarily on improving their writing skills. Moreover students perceived pragmatic elements as part of grammar subjects as their curriculum is grammar-focused. These findings confirm the results of the study by (Mede & Dikilitaş, 2015) in terms of the dynamics of classroom environment and view of students. As Mede & Dikilitaş (2015) highlighted, an exam-oriented language education is dominant. Moreover, cultural elements were not addressed adequately to help learners function in an English-

speaking country. Sociocultural elements were absent in curriculum and in exams (Mede & Dikilitaş, 2015). Therefore, students as it is case in current research, focus on language skills that exams attempt to assess.

This research intend to help learners go through an autonomous learning process that involve the use of strategies for learning speech acts. Self-assessment and self-reflection is an integral part of an autonomous learning process. Cohen & Ishihara (2005) made students use Learning Journals to help them do self-assessment and foster learner autonomy. In current research, Language Biography was considered to be an appropriate tool to do self-assessment. Language Biography entailed students to reflect on sources, learning styles and strategies in learning the target language. Moreover, it required to give a full account of the cultural attitudes learned, details of intercultural encounters and difficulties in understanding the elements of target culture. Students were expected to fill in these parts to reflect on their learning process, discover their learning styles and monitor their progress. Student interviews showed that students had positive ideas about the use of Language Biography. They stated that Language Biography help them recognize that there is a rich range of sources to use in improving communicative skills. Moreover, students believed that Language Biography helped them discover their learning styles and the methods that worked best for them. Additionally , some of the students were of the opinion that Language Biography made them realize their insufficient knowledge about some pragmatic elements. They think that it facilitated to keep track of their progress in improving their pragmatic skills. These findings are in line with the past research on the use ELP in Turkey. Study by Ceylan (2006) and Göksu (2011) also indicated that learners involve in self-reflection and self-evaluation through the use of ELP. However, in current study, students did not fill in all parts of the Language Biography. Moreover, they did not update their Language Biography each week regularly. The reason for unwillingness to fill in Language Biography was their heavy load of homework. Students argued that they do not have time for filling in all parts of it. They devoted most of their time for writing academic essays. Moreover, students stated that they focused solely on improving their vocabulary to write excellent essays. Therefore, they did not arrange their time efficiently to create a study plan to learn speech acts outside the class. As a result, they did not attempt to reflect on their learning process on a regular basis through

the use of Language Biography. Students did not organize work schedule effectively to have time to fill in parts of a Portfolio. In current study, students complained about lack of time to fill in Language Biography. Research by Yang (2003) has similar findings with current research in terms of unwillingness to use a self-assessment tool. Interviews with students in his study showed that learners perceive use of self-assessment tools as a burden. In present research, students were of the same opinions. Students stated that filling in Language Biography would be an extra work. They prefer to direct their efforts to do the assignments that would be scored as part of the final assessment. In order for students to keep track of their learning through a self-assessment tool, it would be advisable to include self-assessment in overall assessment system.

In relation to research question four, students have positive opinions about the each stage of strategy-based instruction. However, they did not practice the activities they learned in class. They did not continue their efforts to learn pragmatic elements outside the class. However, through the awareness-raising activities conducted in class in the stage of conducting cross cultural analysis, pragmatic awareness of the students raised. Therefore, their use of models of politeness increased in posttest. Yet, students did not exhibit a significantly better performance in the use of modification strategies. Students in experimental group used the linguistic structures at their disposal to sound more polite.

Mastery of the modification strategies entails collecting information and discovering the variables in the realization of these strategies. However, they did not discover pragmatic norms of target culture to use speech act modification strategies through the use of learning speech act strategies. Therefore, experimental group were unable to outperform control group in the use of internal modification strategies. However, overall results indicated that control group did not use modification strategies as effectively as experimental group did. Relatively low performance of control group was due to the fact that students in control group were not aware of the availability of modification strategies, although being exposed to modification strategies through passages in textbook. In order to reflect on these findings, it is necessary to offer the summary of conclusion. Next section will continue with presenting the final remarks on the study. Moreover, in an attempt to

provide insights to apply strategy-based instruction more effectively for future studies, next section will present some recommendations for future research.

Summary of the Study

Current study sought out to explore the effects of strategy-based instruction on improving pragmatic awareness of the students. Strategy-based instruction was conducted to help learners be more autonomous learners and discover target pragmatic elements through the treatment phase. Pragmatic targets aimed to be taught was requests and apologies. As this study has the objective to portray the effects of strategy-based instruction and autonomous learning process, researcher also sought after perceptions of the students about the strategy-based instruction. During strategy-based instruction, learners used Language Biography part of the ELP as tool for self-assessment and self-reflection. This study was considered to provide important insights on implementing an autonomous learning process and instruction of pragmatic elements. Moreover, pragmatic competence of learners were examined from different aspects. Speech act productions of learners were analyzed in terms of both pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatic aspects of the speech acts. Thus, it became more plausible to discern the pragmatic elements that strategy-based instruction proved to be fruitful. Moreover, data analysis included identifying common pragmatic deviations from target pragmatic norms. Identification of pragmatic violations rendered it possible to ascertain the problematic parts that current treatment condition fell short of improving. Therefore, this study offered interesting recommendations for practitioners, material developers, curriculum planners and all stakeholders in language education in terms of designing a learner-centered curriculum and teaching materials. Detailed analysis of learner performances in pretests and posttests display the interaction between pragmatic targets and teaching methods. Whereas students performed better in pragmalinguistics aspects of speech acts, they had difficulty in weighing the social and cultural variables in context. Hence, practitioners will be informed about the effectiveness of the steps of strategy-based instruction in learning speech acts.

Current study adopted a quasi-experimental study type that have a pretest-posttest study design. In order to test pragmatic improvement of the learners, a control and experimental group was created for the purposes of the study. B

students studying at four intact classes at İstanbul Sabahattin Zaim University was chosen as the participants of the study. In order to ensure homogeneity of the participants in terms of pragmatic competence, a demographic questionnaire was conducted. 2 classes of experimental group and 2 classes of control group were created through purposive sampling. Researcher conducted activities and made students use Language Biography in congruence with the principles of strategy-based instruction offered by Cohen (2005). This treatment phase lasted 7 weeks which is the time span for a module. In order to examine and compare the progress experimental group and control group displayed, OWDCT consisting of 8 requests and 8 apologies created by Balcı (2009) and ODCT consisting of 8 requests created by Safont- Jordà (2003) and 8 apologies created by Jianda(2007) was used as data collection instruments. Some of the items in ODCT were adapted for study purposes. Moreover, three focus group interview was conducted to get insights on the perceptions of the learners about strategy-based instruction.

Data collected through OWDCT and ODCT were analyzed both qualitatively and quantitatively. Quantitative analysis was done based on 1-10 point evaluation scheme created by Balcı (2009) based on evaluation chart by Taguchi (2006). Main pillars of this analysis was appropriate use of speech acts in relation to social and contextual variables and realization of politeness, (in)directness and formality in speech acts. Qualitative analysis includes identifying error types, examining number and frequency of modal types, and request modification strategies used in performing speech acts of apologies and requests. Focus group interviews were analyzed through Qualitative Analysis. Thematic analysis was employed, and themes were created in accordance with common themes of the discussions and interview question. Thematic analysis conducted in current study was based on the guidelines by Braun & Clarke (2012). As data analysis methods pointed out, current study adopted a mixed study design. This research employed qualitative data to interpret and extend the quantitative data more effectively, therefore, among mixed study designs, it employed explanatory design (Creswell et al, 2003). Namely, main research questions was answered through quantitative analysis and sub-research questions were answered through qualitative analysis. Main research question were concerned with the examining the progress in pragmatic awareness of the students. In order to elaborate on this question, sub-research questions on modification

strategies in the use of requests, apologizing strategies and perceptions of the students strategy-based instruction were created. Main findings of study in the light of these research question were given below.

First research question aimed find out if strategy-based instruction improved the level of the appropriacy of speech act performance of the learners. This research question mainly involved exploring whether instruction worked better than incidental learning. Therefore, speech acts performances in ODCT and WDCT were compared through quantitative analysis. In quantitative analysis, SPSS were employed to compare the means of pretest and posttest. Paired sample T-test results showed that mean values in OWDCT and ODCT by experimental group was higher in posttest. Moreover, Mixed design Anova was conducted to compare the progress made by experimental group and control group. Results showed that Experimental group displayed a greater progress than control group did. In order to explore the pragmatic appropriacy of speech act productions further, an analysis of pragmatic deviations by both of the groups were conducted. Results showed that failures by experimental group in realizing speech acts of apologies and requests decreased in posttest. When compared with control group, experimental group deviated from target pragmatic norms in terms of sociopragmatic considerations, linguistic aspects and transfer of L1 norms and use of the typical expressions less frequently. Along with quantitative analysis, in order to explore the pragmatic proficiency of the learner further, researcher analyzed pragmatic appropriacy from different aspects through answering second, and third research questions.

Second research question is concerned with investigating whether strategy-based instruction worked better than incidental learning of modification strategies in using speech act of request. In order to analyze the improvement in the use of modification strategies, internal modification strategies, external modification strategies and modal types in head acts used in pretests and posttests were examined. Analysis of modification strategies were done through analyzing the number and frequency of modification strategies based on directness scale by Blum-Kulka & Olshtain (1984) and Faerch & Kasper (1989). Results showed that experimental group performed better in using external modification strategies in both OWDCT and ODCT. However, there is not a significant difference in the number and frequency of internal modification strategies in both WDCT and ODCT. In

relation to the use of modal types, experimental group used modals of politeness and sounded more indirect in posttests in ODCT and WDCT. Control group on the other hand preferred to use imperative forms and the modal “can” and sounded less polite in posttest in OWDCT and ODCT. It is not possible to say that strategy-based instruction worked for teaching every aspect of request modification strategies. Learners in experimental group did not perform significantly better in using clausal, lexical and syntactic modifiers.

Research Question three aimed to investigate if instruction produced more effective results than incidental learning in the use of apologizing strategies. ODCT results showed that learners in experimental group used more apologizing strategies in posttest than control group did in posttest. Moreover, when the difference between pretest and posttest results by control and experimental group is compared, experimental group showed a greater progress in the use of apologizing strategies. With regard to WDCT results, experimental group used more apologizing strategies than control group did in posttest. Analysis of the difference between pretest and posttest showed that experimental group displayed a more notable progress compared to control group.

Fourth research question were created to explore the perceptions of the learners about strategy-based instruction. Main motivation behind examining perceptions of learners about the strategy based instruction was to discover learning practices of learners outside the class. Thus, it would be possible to explore the learning strategies used and provide detailed insights on posttests. Three focus group interviews were carried out with experimental group. Interview questions concentrated on eliciting student opinions on the steps of strategy based instruction, use of Language Biography and their practice of the steps of learning strategies of speech acts. During seven weeks of treatment, researcher conducted activities in accordance with the taxonomy of strategies for learning speech acts (Cohen,2005) and recommended the use of Language Biography to reflect on learning process. Main aim was to create autonomous learners and the treatment phase adopted the learners as researchers approach. Bardovi-Harlig (1996) argued that it is more effective to create independent learners who took responsibility of learning pragmatic elements and pursue learning aims outside the class. Thus, it would be possible to exceed the confines of classroom lectures and textbooks in learning

pragmatic elements. Researchers (Bardovi-Harlig, 1991 et al; Karatepe, 2001) stated that classroom discourse and textbooks were poor in opportunities to reflect the pragmatic elements from various aspects. Activities created in the light of these notions, aimed to introduce strategies for determining learning targets, gathering information on pragmatic elements, conducting cross-cultural analysis in the use of speech acts, and creating practice opportunities. Interviews showed that students hold positive perceptions on the effectiveness of classroom activities and use Language Biography. However, most of the students did not apply the strategy of collecting information on the use of speech acts. Moreover, none of the students put a special effort to conduct cross-cultural analysis or record the findings. In relation to creating practice opportunities, students stated that they already had immense opportunities to practice pragmatic elements as they have many foreign friends. In relation to the use of Language Biography, students did not regularly update their Language Biography. However, they thought that Language Biography helped them discover their learning styles. Moreover, it helped them to track their progress. Additionally, it made them realize the availability of a rich range of opportunities for improving pragmatic elements. Interview questions also sought out the reasons for not using Language Biography and learning strategies. Analysis of the interviews showed that students focused on improving their writing skills to pass the proficiency exam. They put all of their efforts to learn academic words outside the class. Their primary motivation in improving their language skills came from having a good score in proficiency exams. Therefore, they did not concentrate on improving their pragmatic skills.

Conclusion

Current study carries significance for offering important insights on teaching pragmatics in Turkish context as studies in instructional pragmatics is still in its infancy in Turkey. This study adopted the learner autonomy as the base of the pragmatic instruction. Learner autonomy was implemented through the use of strategy-based instruction in teaching pragmatic elements. Literature is not rich in studies that adopt a strategy-based instruction in teaching of speech acts. Past studies largely concentrated on implicit or explicit teaching methods. However, current method adopted a different approach through giving the responsibility of

learning to learners. Therefore, this study will be influential in portraying the positive and negative sides of strategy-based instruction. Moreover, current study offered a novel approach to teaching pragmatics that extends beyond classroom. As treatment of pragmatic subjects in class is limited in scope, giving learners opportunities to improve pragmatic skills outside the class holds significance.

Results of the study showed that learners benefited from strategy-based instruction. Quantitative Analysis of OWDCT and ODCT showed that experimental group performed better in posttests and showed a greater progress. Additionally, overall results showed that awareness of the students about modifications of speech acts raised and learners used them more effectively. However, a detailed analysis of speech act performances showed that students did not display the same improvement in all aspect of the modification strategies. Modification of requests were examined at two levels. These were speech act modification strategies and types of modals. In relation to modification strategies, students in experimental group started to use external modification strategies more effectively. However, students in experimental group did not improve their performance in the use of internal modification strategies. Concerning the modal types, students in experimental group started to use modals more effectively to sound more polite and indirect. As well as request modification strategies, apologizing strategies were also examined through pretest and posttest. Results showed that students in experimental group performed better in posttest. Moreover, their progress in the use apologizing strategies was better than control group.

Analysis of focus group interviews was beneficial for interpreting relatively low performance of the internal modification strategies. In focus group interviews, researcher particularly aimed to get insights into opinions of students about strategy-based instruction. Focus group interviews showed that students did not practice the activities outside the class. They did not create a study plan and used the learning strategies to continue their learning process outside the class. Therefore, they attempted to sound pragmatically more appropriate through the use of modals. Students already knew modals that sound politer. However, use of internal modification strategies entailed putting effort to master lexical, clausal and syntactic strategies. Although they were exposed to internal modification strategies through passages in their textbook, they were not aware of the availability of the internal

modification strategies. Activities conducted in class raised their pragmatic awareness. Yet, students in experimental group relied on their existing knowledge to sound pragmatically more appropriate instead of building on their existing knowledge. Students stated that they were not willing to build on their pragmatic knowledge mainly because of time constrictions. They devoted most of their time to write academic essays. Therefore, they focused their attention on learning new words to polish their academic essays.

Students lacked the motivation to learn new pragmatic features. Main source of motivation to improve language skills stemmed from the strong commitment to pass proficiency exam. It can be inferred that, motivation and willingness to improve language skills is the most important pillar of practicing an autonomous learning process. Curiosity and commitment to learn pragmatic elements can serve for practicing learning strategies outside the class. It can be said that motivation plays a key role in practicing strategy-based activities and being an independent learner. This conclusion reminds the close relationship between learner autonomy and motivation (Dickinson,1995; Littlewood,1996). In order to address to pragmatic skills of students more effectively, it is necessary to trigger the motivation and curiosity of the learners. In this vein, a shift of focus from vocabulary-oriented learning goals to pragmatics-focused learning goals is needed. With a focus on pragmatic targets students would allocate more time and energy to acquire speech acts. However, it is important to note that strategy-based instruction raised the pragmatic awareness despite the lack of motivation to practice learning strategies. Therefore, main conclusion drawn from the study would be to realize the potential of strategy-based instruction in raising the pragmatic awareness of the students. Based on this conclusion it can be implied that strategy-based instruction could implemented more effectively through employing activities or teaching tools that boost the motivation of the learners. Next section will elaborate on the results of the present study in the light of the past research to shed light on the ways to foster the curiosity and motivation of learners to grab pragmatic elements.

Pedagogical Implications

Current study offered significant implications for all the stakeholders in language education in terms of teaching pragmatics in an ESL context.As stated in

various instances, addressing pragmatic skills is a problematic area in Turkish educational context due to the grammar-focused language education (Büyüköztürk & Alagözlü, 2009; Karatepe, 2001; Saraç-Süzer, 2007). Results of this study will highlight the stakeholders in terms of the effectiveness of integrating pragmatic elements to classroom discussions. Additionally, Practitioners, researchers and curriculum planner can get insights into the application of strategy-based instruction in teaching pragmatic elements in Turkish context. Current study illustrated how teaching of strategies for learning speech acts work in classroom environment. Strategy-based instruction included gathering information, conducting cross-cultural analysis, creating practice opportunities, doing self-assessment and self-reflection. It is worth noting that current study adapted a novel approach in teaching pragmatics which is learners as researcher principle. In this vein, present study will pioneer the efforts to create autonomous and independent learners to teach pragmatic elements more effectively. Therefore, based on the findings of current study, practitioners, curriculum planners and materials developers can further the efforts to design materials and create activities based on strategy-based instructional methods.

Pedagogical implications in relation to the results of current study will be given in accordance with the steps of the strategy-based instruction. To begin with, current study show showed that learners were not willing to gather data on pragmatic elements. Students concentrated on improving writing skills. This finding signifies the importance of motivation in learning pragmatic elements. In order to trigger the curiosity of learners and enhance their motivation to learn pragmatic elements, speech acts can be treated as separate subjects rather than treating them as subjects under grammar subjects. Covering speech acts in classroom will help learners to realize the importance of producing speech acts appropriately. Moreover, as Bardovi-Harlig (1996) proposes that a needs-analysis to identify learner needs in learning speech acts can prove to be useful. Introducing the speech acts based on the needs of the learners can trigger the curiosity of the learners, later leading them learn other pragmatic elements.

Concerning the second step of activities, conducting cross-cultural analysis were illustrated in class. However, students did not actively engage in conducting cross-cultural analysis due to their lack of motivation to improve their pragmatic skills. However, students stated that classroom activities raised their pragmatic

awareness. This finding shows that students relied on classroom instruction too much on improving communicative skills. In order to increase independent learning skills of students, it is necessary to adopt a learner-center approach at earlier stages of language education. As learners were adult learners, it is hard for them to adopt a new learning approach. Past research integrated technology to grab the attention of students and encourage them to learn pragmatic outside the class (Cohen, 2005; DeHaan, 2013). Cohen & Ishihara (2005) created an online curriculum to teach pragmatic subjects. A rich array of activities were presented to learners in this online curriculum. Students carried out the activities they chose and got immediate feedback after completing online self-evaluation activities. Thus, learners learned at their own pace and with their preferred style of learning. In order to create strategy-based instruction, future studies can also develop online curriculums with different pragmatic targets. It could be more interesting for learners to engaging in online materials. Thus, students could have a higher motivation to practice learning strategies.

With respect to the activities introducing strategies to create practice opportunities, students did not put special effort in seeking after practice opportunities. However, students had many international friends. In order to foster the motivation to practice the pragmatic elements, practitioners can benefit from online communication. Teachers could integrate online communication into classroom discussion through creating online discussion boards. Thus, students will have a chance to communicate in target language on a regular basis. With respect to reflecting on learning experience and doing self-assessment, students had difficulty in monitoring their learning process. However, they had positive ideas on the use of Language Biography. They stated that this document helped them to discover most suitable learning style for them and get insights on their own learning mechanisms. However, they did not fill in the language biography each week to reflect on their learning experience. In order to encourage learners to do self-assessment during learning of speech acts, practitioners can include self-assessment as part of the grading system. Students' evaluations on pragmatic targets could be included in the evaluation scheme of speaking skill. Moreover, in order to encourage students to think about their weaknesses and strengths in learning pragmatic elements, pragmatic skills could be included in speaking tests.

In conclusion, pragmatic targets are not the focus of attention in curriculums of English courses at all levels from primary school to higher education (Karatepe, 2001; Enise & Mede; 2015). Therefore, students focused on grammar subjects and other language skills. Students mainly concentrated on language skills that exams test. In the task of directing the attention of learners to pragmatic elements, current study can set an example for practitioners, curriculum planners, and material developers. In order to implement the strategy-based instruction more effectively, leaving more room to self-assessment is necessary starting from the early ages. Evaluation system can be changed to integrate self-assessment into existing assessment scheme at each educational stage. This self-assessment can be done through the use of portfolio or learner journals. Use of an evaluation guide will encourage students to continue their efforts to learn pragmatic elements outside the class. Moreover, integration of technology can prove to be useful for providing authentic materials and engaging learners with authentic communication. A close attention can be paid to past studies (Cohen & Ishiara, 2005; Johnson & Dehaan, 2013) to use technology effectively to design online activities and create self-assessment tools. Thus, it can be possible to help learners to be more autonomous and increase their motivation to learn pragmatic targets.

Suggestions for Future Studies

Based on the findings and limitations of the current study, some suggestions for the future studies that test the effectiveness of strategy-based instruction improving pragmatic skills will be presented below

Replication of current study would create more reliable and valid results if conducted with a larger group of learners in a longer period of time.

It would be better for future studies to concentrate on one pragmatic element and include a single variable in discourse completion test .Thus, it would be easier to analyze and interpret the results.

More studies were needed to test effectiveness of strategy-based instruction on different pragmatic targets. It is necessary to find out the pragmatic elements that strategy-based instruction worked best.

More future work should be conducted to create discourse completion tests. In order to test effectiveness of intervention during the learning process, discourse completion tests created through exemplar generation will test the pragmatic proficiency of the learners more effectively.

In order to encourage learners to do self-assessment, future studies can benefit from learners journals. It could encourage learners to adapt an autonomous learning process and learn speech acts outside the class.

In order to motivate students to practice the activities conducted in class, future studies could create online activities.

More studies should be conducted to examine the effectiveness of strategy-based instruction at adult level in Turkish context

Additionally, future research is needed to conduct strategy-based instruction in teaching pragmatic elements at primary school level. It is necessary to explore the effectiveness of strategy-based instruction at different levels to discover the learning period that it work best.

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Appendix A: Discourse Completion Test

Dear students,

I would like to ask you to help me by writing down what would you say in the following situations concerning 8 apology and 8 request situations. The purpose of this Discourse Completion Test is to evaluate pragmatic skills in making requests and apologizing. The situations in Discourse Completion Test have been taken from study of Balcı (2009) named "A Comparative Study On The Performance of Requests and Apologies By Turkish and American Teenagers: A Pragmatic Competence Point of View". It comprises of 2 parts, namely, 8 requests and 8 apologies.

Your responses will be kept confidential and will not be used for any other purposes other than this particular master's thesis. You are free to participate and you are also free to withdraw any time you may wish. If you wish so, your responses will be removed from the study. We are interested in your personal opinion. Please give your answers sincerely, as only this will guarantee the success of the investigation.

Thank you very much for your cooperation and for your contribution to the study.

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nur.demir.merve@gmail.com

Please, write your personal details.

Name : _____
Surname : _____
University : _____
Gender : _____
Age : _____
E-mail Address: _____

DISCOURSE COMPLETION TEST

REQUESTS

1. In the English lesson you are reading a passage and the teacher wants you to find the meanings of the new vocabulary. But you realize that you forgot your dictionary at home. Your friend is sitting next to you. You want to borrow his/her dictionary. What would you say?

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2. You have just arrived in Ankara. You came here to take a very important exam. You are at the bus station. Your parents wanted you to call them when you arrive at the bus station. However, the battery of your cell phone is low. You are sure that your parents are worried about you. You sit on a bench next to an old lady. After some hesitation, although you don't know the lady, you decide to ask for her cell phone to call your parents. What would you say to the lady?

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3. You have a lot of homework and you must finish it by tomorrow. There are some Maths problems that you can't solve by yourself. Your elder brother is studying Maths at university. You want him to help you with your Maths homework. What would you say to your elder brother?

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4. You want to go out this weekend. You want to borrow your close friend's bicycle. However, you know s/he usually rides his/her bicycle on the weekends and that it is really valuable to him/her. What would you say to your friend?

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5. Your lessons are over and you must go home early because you have a lot of homework . But your home is very far from the school. Your classmate Serdar lives on your street and his father came to school by car to take him home. You decide to ask Serdar’s father for a ride. What would you say?

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6. You are in a supermarket. You want to buy some shampoo. However, the shampoo you want to buy is on the highest shelf and you cannot reach it. There is a boy near you. You decide to ask him to give you one of those shampoos. What would you say?

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7. Tomorrow night there is your close friend’s birthday party. You promised him/her to bring a camera with you to the party to take photos. For this reason, in the evening when your father comes home from work you decide to ask for his camera. You know this camera is very valuable to your father, but you must borrow it for tomorrow night. So you ask your father. What would you say?

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8. You must write an essay in a topic and turn it in tomorrow. You have just found from the internet an interesting article on the topic which is one page long, but it is written in English. You can't read the article in English and you need to translate it into Turkish. You have just heard that there is a student in another class who understand English and can write in English very well. Although you have never spoken to the student before, you decide to ask the student to translate this article into Turkish. When you see the student what would you say?

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APOLOGIES

1. Last week your teacher gave you an assignment. You were supposed to prepare a project paper and bring it today. But you were ill all this week, so you couldn't prepare the project paper on time. You apologize to your teacher. What would you say?

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2. You are alone at home. Suddenly the doorbell rings and you run to open the door. While you are running you bump into the coffee table which is in the middle of the living room and break your mother's most precious vase which was standing on it. Two hours later your mother comes home. You know your mother likes that vase very much. You apologize to her. What would you say?

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3. You are on a bus. It is very crowded inside and you are standing in the aisle. You accidentally step on the foot of the boy who is standing next to you. You apologize. What would you say?

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4. While drinking tea you accidentally spilled it on the project paper that your younger brother prepared for his Math class. Your brother is supposed to submit this project paper tomorrow, so he is upset and angry. You apologize to him. What would you say?

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5. Yesterday you were playing football on the school playground. You kicked the ball and it directly hit the window of the principal's office and the glass was broken. Today the headmaster called you to his office. You apologize to him. What would you say?

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6. You are riding a bicycle. You are going fast and suddenly you bump into a girl and she drops her ice-cream on the ground. She looks very angry. You apologize. What would you say?

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7. Yesterday one of your classmates asked you to bring a novel for her. However, you forgot to bring it today. When your friend asks —Did you bring the novel? You apologize. What would you say?

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8. You borrowed a pen from your father. Yet today when you looked for it you realized that you lost it. You apologize to your father. What would you say?

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Appendix B: Appropriateness Rating Scale

Appropriateness Scale For requests:

Whether the expression is adequate for the level of imposition of the request and the relationship between the interlocutors: i.e regarding the choice of address terms, the (in)directness of the request., whether it has necessary accounts/explanations , preparatory actions , softeners etc.

Appropriateness Scale For apologies: Is the expression adequate for the level of severity of the situation which necessitates the apology and for the relationship between the interlocutors? .ie. regarding the choice of address terms, whether it has necessary accounts/explanations, softeners etc.

APPROPRIATENESS RATING SCALE

10 - Expressions are fully appropriate for the situation. - No or almost no grammatical and discourse errors.

9 - Expressions are fully appropriate for the situation. - Grammatical and discourse errors which do not interfere appropriateness.

8 - Expressions are mostly appropriate. - No or almost no grammatical and discourse errors. 7 - Expressions are mostly appropriate. - Grammatical and discourse errors are noticeable, but they do not interfere appropriateness.

6 - Expressions are only somewhat appropriate. - No or almost no grammatical and discourse errors.

5 - Expressions are only somewhat appropriate. - Grammatical and discourse errors are noticeable, but they do no interfere appropriateness.

4 - Due to the inference from grammatical and discourse errors, appropriateness is difficult to determine.

3 - Expressions are not appropriate - No or almost no grammatical and discourse errors.

2 - Expressions are not appropriate - Grammatical and discourse errors totally interfere appropriateness.

1 - There is no evidence that the intended speech acts are performed. 0 - No performance.

Appendix C: Oral Discourse Completion Test

REQUESTS

Example: At a restaurant, you call the waiter so that he brings the menu.

You say: Excuse me sir. Would you be so kind as to bring us the menu, please?

Situation 1: You have invited a very famous professor at an institutional dinner. You feel extremely hungry, but the professor starts speaking and nobody has started eating yet, because they are waiting for the guest to start. You want to start having dinner.

Situation 2: You have invited your mother/-in-law to your house for lunch for the first time. You would like to know what is your fiancée's favorite sandwich. What would you say to your mother-in-law?

Situation 3: You are studying for an exam in your friend's house. It is very hot and you cannot stand it but you are sure that she feels chilly. However you want cool air. What would you say?

Situation 4: You are a student. You have not handed in an essay that was compulsory for the final mark. You wanted to extend the deadline. Today, you go to your teacher's desk. What would you say?

Situation 5: You want your housemate to stop eating snacks but she really likes eating snacks. You don't want him/ her to get offended, but you just cannot stand the noise.

Situation 6: You have just arrived at Esenboğa airport and you do not know where to take a bus to Aşti Bus Terminal. You decide to ask a couple standing in front of you. What would you say?

Situation 7: The date for applying to an English exam has expired, but you know that someone last year applied for that same exam after the application term. You go to the place where applications are handed in. You are sure that they still receive the application. Yet, still you wanted to ask the head of the department who is operating the application process and who is a friend of your father. What would you say?

Situation 8: You have an appointment to see the doctor and you are sitting in the waiting room. It is getting late and you wonder whether you can enter before your turn. Suddenly, a nurse enters the room. What would you say?

Apologies

Situation 1: You have promised to play basketball with your classmates this afternoon. But because your music teacher prolonged her classes for about half an hour, you arrive late. You apologize to your classmates.

Situation 2: You are applying for a job in a company. You go into the office to turn in your application form to the manager. You talk to the manager for a few minutes. When you move to give the manager your form, you accidentally knock over a vase on the desk and spill water over a pile of papers. You apologize to the manager.

Situation 3: You want to study in the classroom. You push the door of the classroom very hard. A student whom you don't know is standing just behind the door reading a poster posted on the wall of the classroom. The door hits very hard on the student's forehead making it bleed. The student cries because it is very painful. You don't know the student. You apologize to him.

Situation 4: Yesterday morning, you received a call from a company. The call was for one of your classmates, but he was out. The caller asked you to deliver a message telling him to go for a job interview at 2:00 in the afternoon. But you forgot. Today, you suddenly remember it and realize that your classmate has lost a chance because of your mistake. Now, you tell your classmate the message, he feels very upset, because he has been looking for a job for a long time. You apologize.

Situation 5: You are a cashier in a bookstore. One customer, who is your teacher, comes to you to pay for a book. The price of the book is \$12.8. The customer gives you a \$20 note, but you give only \$6.20 change back to the customer. The customer says he should get \$7.2 back. You realize the mistake, and apologize to the customer.

Situation 6: You are a student at university. You forgot to do the assignment for your Human Resources course. When your teacher whom you have known for some years asks for your assignment, you feel bad and you apologize to your teacher.

Situation 7: You are a student. You are now rushing to the classroom as you are going to be late for the class. When you turn a corner, you accidentally bump into a student whom you do not know and the books he is carrying fall onto the ground. You stop, pick the books up, and apologize.

Situation 8: You are playing football on the playground with your classmate. You take a shot and the ball almost hits your class teacher, but, fortunately it missed the teacher. The teacher does not realize you or the ball behind him. However, you still go up to the teacher and apologize.

Appendix D: Focused Group Interview Questions

Odak Grup Mülakati Sorulari

- 1. What have you done for the Language Biography since the beginning of the study? Can you describe the activities you carried out?**

Çalışmanın başından bu yana Dil Özgeçmişi için ne yaptın? Yaptığın etkinlikleri anlatabilir misin?

- 2. Do you think that filling in the parts in your language biography helped you learn better?**

Follow up 1: Which parts have you filled in exactly?

Follow up 2: Do you think that you will continue to update your language biography in the coming B2 module?

Dil özgeçmişinin kısımlarını doldurmak öğrenme sürecini daha etkili hale getirdiğini düşünüyor musun?

Devamında gelen soru 1: Dil özgeçmişini kısmında hangi kısımları doldurdun?

Devamında gelen soru 2: Gelecek modül olan B2 modülünde de Dil özgeçmişini doldurup güncellemeyi düşünüyor musun?

- 3. Do you have a study plan? What was your original study plan? Follow up: Have you made changes to the original plan?**

Bir çalışma planının var mı? İlk planladığın çalışma programın nasıldı?

Devamında gelen soru: İlk hazırladığın çalışma planında değişiklikler yaptın mı?

- 4. What kind of sources have you found outside the class? Can you please give me examples that you have used?**

Follow up: Such as movies, tv shows, newspaper articles...

Ders saati dışında ne gibi dil öğrenme kaynakları kullandın? Kullandığın kaynaklardan örnekler verebilir misin?

Devamında gelen soru: Film, televizyon programı, gazete makaleleri gibi...

5. Have you encountered any real life situation similar to what you have learned in class?

Gerçek hayatta İngilizce kullanımında sınıfta öğrendiğin yapılarla benzer yapılarla karşılaştın mı?

6. Did you have a chance to practice requests and apologies outside the class?

Sınıf dışında istek ve özür dileme söylemlerini kullanma şansın oldu mu?

7. What do you think of your improvement in making requests in the last module? Do you think that you can adjust your language according to the social status and social distance of the other person and severity of the situation? How did you come to this conclusion?

Son modülde istekte bulunma konusundaki gelişimin hakkında ne düşünüyorsun? Sence kullandığın dili karşıdaki kişiyle olan tanışıklığına, karşıdaki kişinin sosyal pozisyonuna ve durumun ciddiliğine göre ayarlayabildiğini düşünüyor musun? Bu sonuca nereden vardın?

8. What do you think about your improvement in using speech act of apologizing? Do you think that you can express your feelings appropriately?

Özür dileme söylemini kullanımının gelişimi hakkında ne düşünüyorsun? Sence duygularını yeterince iyi ifade edebiliyor musun?

9. What was your last entry into Goal Setting and Learning How to Learn parts of your Language Biography? Follow up: did you try to find out what you were lacking? Did you set learning goals?

Öğrenme hedefi oluşturma ve Öğrenmeyi Öğrenme kısmına en son ne yazdın?

Devamında gelen soru: Eksik noktalarını bulmaya çalıştın mı? Öğrenme hedefleri koydun mu?

**10. What Do you think about Cultural Awareness part?
Follow up: Do you think that it helped you to record your progress so that you can self-reflect?**

Kültürel Farkındalık kısmı hakkında ne düşünüyorsunuz?
Devamında gelen soru: İlerlemenizi kaydedebilmeniz için kendinizi değerlendirmenize yardımcı olduğunu düşünüyor musunuz?

11. What is your learning strategy?

Öğrenme stratejin neydi?

**12. What do you think about self-evaluation activities we did in class?
Follow up: Do you think that self-evaluation activities help you discover your weaknesses?**

Sınıfta yaptığımız öz değerlendirme aktiviteleri hakkında ne düşünüyorsun?
Devamında gelen soru: Sence bu özdeğerlendirme aktiviteleri zayıf noktalarını keşfetmene yardımcı oldu mu?

13. In which way do you think the activities we did in class was helpful for your understanding of the subject?

Sınıfta yaptığımız aktivitelerin konuşma yetini ne şekilde geliştirdiğini düşünüyorsun?

14. Do you think role-play activities might help you to be prepared for real life situations?

Sınıfta yaptığımız rol-canlandırma aktivitelerinin sizi gerçek hayattaki iletişim kurma durumlarına hazırladığını düşünüyor musunuz?

15. Do you think that through peer-evaluation you can also assess your own competence?

Akran değerlendirme aktiviteleri sizin kendi kendinizi değerlendirmenize yardımcı oldu mu?

16. Did you try to collect information on the use of speech acts through listening to native speakers or inquiring from native speakers? Follow-up:

what did you learn through collecting information on the use of speech acts?

Anadili İngilizce olanları dinleyerek ve araştırarak sözeylemlerin kullanımı hakkında bilgi edindiniz mi?

Sözeylemler hakkında bilgi toplayarak hangi sonuçlara ulaştınız?

17.If you have not done any activities outside the class; what are your reasons?

Eğerki sınıf dışında herhangi bir aktivite yapmadıysanız sebepleri nelerdir?

18.If you have not fill up the ELP, why?

Avrupa Dil Gelişim Dosyasını doldurmama sebepleriniz nelerdir?

Appendix E: Second Week Activity Sheet

Please conduct an interview with the classroom guests about giving and asking for information. Context is given below. You can create your questions based on the examples given below.

Context: In An English speaking country in a car rental company, in a hotel or in streets asking for information about costs, brand of the car, accommodation expenses, asking for the location of tourist attractions. (Choose one of the situations)

1. How do you address strangers? (an example)
2. Do you use formal or informal expressions? (an example)
3. What are the strategies for sounding formal/informal? (an example)
4. Do you use polite expressions? (an example)
5. What are the strategies for sounding polite? (an example)

Appendix F: Second Week Second Section Activity Sheet

Please read the questions given below. Think about the answers.

1. Who is your best friend?
2. Is there any difference between the language you use in talking to your friends and your teacher?
3. Do you feel comfortable making a request from people who are older than you or who has a higher social position?

Please create a dialogue on the situation given below. Role-play the dialogue. Ask classroom guests to evaluate your answers.

Situation:

Your best friend studies in a language school in England. You would like to visit him or her. You will call her and ask for information about, places to visit, life expenses and accommodation.

Appendix G: Second Week Assignment Sheet

Please find and write down sentences that include requests in TV series.

Formal Requests:

1. Write down an example for a request situation that took place between two people who do not know each other.

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2. Write down an example for a request situation that took place at workplace.

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3. Write down an example for a request situation that took place at service encounters

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Informal Requests:

1. Write down an example for a request situation that took place between best friends.

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2. Write down an example for a request situation that took place between siblings.

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Appendix H: Third Week Activity Sheet

Please listen to the role-play, the transcript of which is given below. Look at the transcript and answer the questions.

Situation 1:

Steve (the employee): How are you, Bethany? How's the family?

Bethany (the boss): Well, I'm OK. Still fighting that cold from last week. What can I do for you, Steve?

Steve: I just wanted a few minutes of your time to go over some work-related issues. Uh, you know, uh, that . . . well, I have been doing the best I can to meet your deadlines and all. I know how important this is to you. And you've said to me more than once that, uh, you're pleased with how I've been doing it.

Bethany: That's true, Steve . . .

Steve: Well, I wonder if we could take a look at my work load and, uh, see whether it might be possible to make, uh, some adjustments here because there are just so many hours in a day.

Bethany: You know we launched a new Project and we need your experience and envision . However, given your performance during the last weeks and your good work, we can think about making some adjustments to find you an assistant.

Questions:

What part of the language used by Steve was formal?

What part of the language used by Steve was indirect?

What are the strategies he used for sounding formal and indirect?

Answers:

- 1.
- 2.
- 3.

Situation 2:

Steve (the employee): How are you, Bethany? How's the family?

Bethany (the boss): Well, I'm OK. Still fighting that cold from last week. What can I do for you, Steve?

Steve: I wanted your time to go over some work-related issues. I have been doing the best I can to meet your deadlines and all. You've said to me more than once that, uh, you're pleased with how I've been doing it.

Bethany: That's true, Steve . . .

Steve: I want you to take a look at my work load and make some adjustments here because there are just so many hours in a day.

Bethany: You know we launched a new Project and we need all staff to be fully concentrate on the project. I am sorry it is not possible to make any adjustment for now.

Questions:

Compare the language used by Steve with the previous dialogue in terms of directness.

Compare the language used by Steve with the previous dialogue in terms of politeness.

Answers:

1.

2.

Appendix I: Third Week Second Section Activity Sheet

Create a dialogue about the situation given below with your pair. Exchange the dialogues with the pair next to you and evaluate their answers based on the criteria given below.

Situation: Ayşe is your boss. She is your guest now. You are having coffee with her and having chit-chat. Suddenly, you remember that your mother-in-law invited you to a dinner. As your house is on Asian side and hers is on European side of İstanbul, you have to leave as soon as possible not to be late for the dinner. What would you say to your friend in this situation?

You:

Ayşe:

You:

Ayşe:

Evaluation sheet is given below.

1. The relative social status of the speakers: Is Ayşe of higher status? If so, you may need to show deference by adding extra markers of politeness (such as the use of “Sir” or “Ma’am” in English).

2. The level of social distance and psychological distance: How distant or close are you and Ayşe socially or feel to each other? Is it someone you know well or even intimately or is it someone you have only slight acquaintance with or none at all?

3. The intensity or severity of the act: How serious or important is the issue?

Which of the politeness strategies your friend have used?

1.offering a reason:

Example: **I have a serious headache and I could not attend to the class.**

May I ask you to

share you class notes with me?

2.getting a pre-commitment:

Example: **May I ask you a favour?** Would you mind if I borrow your bike for tomorrow.

3.checking availability:

Example:**Do you have any plans for tomorrow?** Would like to come to my home-party next week?

4.promising to compensate:

Example:Do you mind if I leave early today, **tomorrow I will extend my shift and do extra work.**

5.showing consideration for the listener:

Example: **I am aware that you would like to be leader of this project,** but this time I would like you to help others to make sure that they also learn the steps of signing an overseas trade agreement.

6.expressing apology/thank:

Example:**I am terribly sorry to ask you to empty the house** when you are having financial difficulties but may I ask you to find another flat till next month?

Appendix J: Fourth Week Activity Sheet

Write down a dialogue on the situation given below. Exchange your dialogues with a pair and evaluate their dialogue based on the questions given below.

Situation:

A close friend of yours was sick last week and were not able to attend to the math class regularly. She will take a math exam that you took last year and know the questions. She tried to reach you to take class notes and learn the questions. However, as you are busy with a term project, you did not turn to her calls. Now you will apologize from her.

You :

Your Friend:

Evaluation of apologizing strategies:

- Given the context, how appropriate was your friend's apologize in terms of overall directness, formality, politeness)?
- What part of your friend's language demonstrates appropriate levels of directness, politeness, and formality?
- What part of her language may need improvement, considering the appropriate level of directness, politeness, and formality called for by this situation?
- What should she have said?
- Write the actual expressions you think she could have used

Appendix K: Fourth Week Activity Second Section Activity Sheet

Write down a dialogue on the situation given below. Exchange your dialogues with a pair and evaluate their dialogue based on the questions given below.

Situation:

In a cafeteria, you accidentally bump into a person who is holding a cup of hot coffee. A little coffee spills on the person's clothes, and the person suffers a slight burn.

You :

Your Friend:

Evaluation of apologizing strategies:

- Given the context, how appropriate was your friend's apologize in terms of overall directness, formality, politeness)?
- What part of your friend's language demonstrates appropriate levels of directness, politeness, and formality?
- What part of her language may need improvement, considering the appropriate level of directness, politeness, and formality called for by this situation?
- What should she have said?
- Write the actual expressions you think she could have used

Appendix L: Fifth Week Activity Sheet

Listen to the dialogues on the situation given below. Transcription of the dialogues were given below. After listening to the short conversations, answer the questions below.

Situation: You have a part-time job at a cafe. One day, your boss and the store owner, who is about 20 years older than you, invited all the employees to a staff appreciation party. You know it would have been fun to go, especially since everyone else was there. The problem was that you have dinner planned and theater tickets that evening with an old friend just in town for the day. So while there was a sense of obligation to your boss, you skipped the party. You feel you need to apologize form your boss and tell your reasons.

First Dialogue:

You: Hello, Mr Ahmet, May I have a moment of you? I would like to discuss something. Is it a good time to talk for a minute?

Boss: Sure, come over, How are you doing ? You were not at the party last night. I hope everything is going well.

You: Actually, I was going to talk about it. I know that you wanted everybody to be there and intermingle to establish strong relationships at work. I could not attend to the party as I promised one of my old friends go to theatre that night. He worked overseas and we have not seen each other for ages so I could not cancel our plan with him. Please accept my apologies. I will attend to the next party.

Boss: I totally understand.Of course, It would be nice to see you at the party, you know, you are the one who cheers other people up at parties but you have a valid excuse.

You:Thank you, I will go back to work, please let me know if you need help with the arrangements of next party.

Boss: Sure,

You: Thank you for your time, have a nice day.

1.Is Social Power equal between two interlocutors ?

2. Is there any Social Distance between two interlocutors?

3. Is Ranking of the Imposition high for the situation?

Write down which of the apologizing strategies given below is used in dialogue

An expression of the speaker's responsibility for the offense:

An explanation or account of the situation or of the cause which gave rise to the violation:

An offer of repair:

A promise of forbearance:

Second Dialogue:

You: Hello Mr Ahmet, I want to talk to you. Can we talk for a minute.

Boss: Come in, I hope your are doing good, you sound like there is an emergency.

You. No, no everything is fine. I just wanted to apologize. I am sorry for not coming to your party. I went to theatre with one my friends at party night.

Boss: But you knew that we were going to throw a party. These parties are very important for you to get your friends know more. I put a special importance on group work and these parties gets you closer to help you collaborate at work.

You: I am so sorry.

Boss: Please, try to come next time if you do not have a valid excuse. I have to go back to work now.

You: Okey, have a nice day.

Boss: You too,

1. Is Social Power equal between two interlocutors ?

2. Is there any Social Distance between two interlocutors?

3. Is Ranking of the Imposition high for the situation?

Write down which of the apologizing strategies given below is used in dialogue

An expression of the speaker's responsibility for the offense:

An explanation or account of the situation or of the cause which gave rise to the violation:

An offer of repair:

A promise of forbearance:

Appendix M: Sixth Week Activity Sheet

Listen to the Dialogue. After listening to the dialogue answer the questions below.

Dialogue : Link : <https://www.youtube.com/watch?v=DcY4Y3ncbcM>

A: **Do you mind** If I can join you?

B: Of course not, come on sit down.

A:**Could I** have a large Latte please?

B:Of course

A:Can you pass the sugar

B: Sure

A: Speaking of friends, **I want to ask you a favor. Is it okey if** we change our plans this week?

B: Sure, what's up?

A:I've just had a call from an old from mine and I haven't seen him since we were at the university and he is travelling around the states

A: just one another thing **could you do me a big favor?** I have to work late this evening so **would you mind meeting him at the airport**

B:Not at all, I would like to meet him.

A: **Do you think you could** take him to my flat. I will give you the keys.

B:No problem Rob.

1.What is the relative social distance of the Interlocutors? Put an + to options below to show if the speaker or the hearer has a higher social position.

Speaker:

Hearer:

1. What is the relative social powers of the Interlocutors? Put an + next to options below to show whether one of inerlocutors has a higher social power

Speaker:

Hearer:

3. What is the ranking of the imposition involved in requests given below.

Find out and match the strategies below and strategies above.

1. Strategies to soften the expressions: (mitigators)

a. the use of past tense (e.g. '**I wondered if**') **I wondered if** you could lend me your notebook?

b. progressive aspect with past tense (e.g. '**I was wondering if**'), **I was wondering if** you can cover the shift tonight for me.

c. an interrogative with a modal verb (e.g. '**I was thinking you might**') **I was thinking you might** drive me home tonight after the party.

d. a negative interrogative with a modal verb (e.g. '**wouldn't it be a good idea if**', **Would it be possible to**) **wouldn't it be a good idea if** we do the math assignment together?

2. asking for a cooperative action by the addressee and involve him/her (e.g. '**would you mind ...**,' '**could you ...**') **Would you mind** opening the window please?

3. using consultative devices: (**Do you think?**, **Is it Okey?**) **Do you think** you could observe the class for me?

4. Hedges: ('**kind of**,' '**sort of**,' '**somehow**') The sound of music is **kind of** distracting . Could you use headphones?

5. Downtoners: ('**just**,' '**simply**,' '**possibly**) I have to rush to meeting. Could you **possibly** pick my daughter from airport?

6. Subjective opinion: **I would be grateful** (**I would appreciate**) if you lend me your notebook

7. Disarmer: I know..... but: (**I know** you do not like lending out your notes, **but** could you make an exception this time?

8. Getting a pre-commitment: **May I ask you a favor?** Could you lend me some money?

Appendix N: Seventh Week Activity Sheet

Write down a dialogue on the situation given below. Exchange your dialogues with a pair and evaluate their dialogue based on the questions given below.

Situation 1: Michelle completely forgets a crucial meeting at the office with the boss at her new job. An hour later she shows up at her boss's office to apologize. The problem is that this is the second time she's forgotten such a meeting in the short time she has been working at this job. Her boss is clearly annoyed, "What happened to you this time?"

Boss:

Michelle:

Evaluation:

4 – Very appropriate

3 – Somewhat appropriate

2 – Less appropriate;

1 – Inappropriate

1 Level of formality, directness, and politeness 4 3 2 1

2 Strategies of apologies 4 3 2 1

3 Cultural norms 4 3 2 1

A sample answer:

Michelle: Ms Peterson, I'm terribly sorry. It completely slipped out of my mind. I know this is my second time, but believe me, this never happened to me before. I'm really sorry, I'll be very careful and this won't happen again.

An evaluation example:

Michelle sounds very apologetic, and with good intonation can sound very sincere as well. She uses multiple apology strategies—expressing an apology, giving an explanation, and promising non-recurrence. She could also offer repair such as

“I can meet with you right now or work overtime, whatever you want me to do to make it up.”

Boss:

Michelle:

Situation 2: John and Kevin are good friends at college. They arranged to meet in order to study together for an exam. Kevin arrives half an hour late for the meeting. John is very annoyed right now.

John:

Kevin

Evaluation of the answer:

4 – Very appropriate;

3 – Somewhat appropriate

2 – Less appropriate;

1 – Inappropriate

1 Level of formality, directness, and politeness 4 3 2 1

2 Strategies of apologies 4 3 2 1

3 Cultural norms 4 3 2 1

Your Overall Evaluation:

Appendix-O Demographic Questionnaire

Name:

Surname:

Age:

Nationality:

Gender:

When did you start to learn English?

- a. Pre-school
- b. Primary school
- c. High school
- d. University

What is your mother tongue?

- a. Turkish
- b. English
- c. Arabic
- d. Other

Which Language is spoken in your house?

- a. Turkish
- b. English
- c. Arabic
- d. Other

Have you ever been to an English speaking Country? If yes, how long did you stay in total?

- a. Never
- b. Less than a month
- c. Less than a year
- d. More than a year

If yes, How often do you visit English Speaking countries?

- a. Only once
- b. One in a year
- c. Twice a year
- d. More than twice a year

Have you ever study at a English-medium school? If yes, for how long?

- a. Never
- b. Less than a year
- c. Less than four years
- d. More than four years

How often do you communicate with foreigners from an English speaking country?

- a. Always
- b. once or twice everyday
- c. once a week

d. rarely

How often do you watch tv series and/or movies in English?

- a. Never
- b. less than one hour every week
- c. less than one hour every day
- d. more than one hour every day

Appendix-P: Ethics Committee Approval



T.C.
HACETTEPE ÜNİVERSİTESİ
Rektörlük



Sayı : 35853172-300
Konu : Merve Nur ÖZET Hk.

EĞİTİM BİLİMLERİ ENSTİTÜSÜ MÜDÜRLÜĞÜNE

İlgi : 11.09.2018 tarihli ve 51944218-300/00000226355 sayılı yazınız.

Enstitümüz Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Bilim Dalı tezli yüksek lisans öğrencilerinden Merve Nur ÖZET'in Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Hatice ERGÜL danışmanlığında yürüttüğü "Developing Pragmatic Competence Of B2 Level Tertiary Students in English Preparatory Classes - Üniversite İngilizce Hazırlık Sınıfındaki B2 Düzeyindeki Öğrencilerin Edimbilimsel Yetilerinin Geliştirilmesi" başlıklı tez çalışması, Üniversitemiz Senatosu Etik Komisyonunun 4 Eylül 2018 tarihinde yapmış olduğu toplantıda incelenmiş olup, etik açıdan uygun bulunmuştur.

Bilgilerinizi ve gereğini saygılarımla rica ederim.

e-İmzalıdır
Prof. Dr. Rahime Meral NOHUTCU
Rektör Yardımcısı

Appendix R: Declaration of Ethical Conduct

APPENDIX R: Declaration of Ethical Conduct

I hereby declare that...

- I have prepared this thesis in accordance with the thesis writing guidelines of the Graduate School of Educational Sciences of Hacettepe University;
- all information and documents in the thesis/dissertation have been obtained in accordance with academic regulations;
- all audio visual and written information and results have been presented in compliance with scientific and ethical standards;
- in case of using other people's work, related studies have been cited in accordance with scientific and ethical standards;
- all cited studies have been fully and decently referenced and included in the list of References;
- I did not do any distortion and/or manipulation on the data set,
- and **NO** part of this work was presented as a part of any other thesis study at this or any other university.

(26) / (06) / (2019)


Merve Nur Özet

Appendix S: Thesis/Dissertation Originality Report

26/06/2019

HACETTEPE UNIVERSITY
Graduate School of Educational Sciences
To The Department of Foreign Languages Education

Thesis Title: Developing Pragmatic Competence of B Level Tertiary Students In English Preparatory Classes

The whole thesis that includes the *title page, introduction, main chapters, conclusions and bibliography section* is checked by using Turnitin plagiarism detection software take into the consideration requested filtering options. According to the originality report obtained data are as below.

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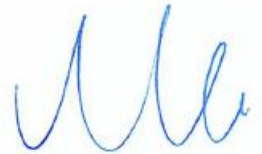
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I declare that I have carefully read Hacettepe University Graduate School of Educational Sciences Guidelines for Obtaining and Using Thesis Originality Reports; that according to the maximum similarity index values specified in the Guidelines, my thesis does not include any form of plagiarism; that in any future detection of possible infringement of the regulations I accept all legal responsibility; and that all the information I have provided is correct to the best of my knowledge.

I respectfully submit this for approval.

Name Lastname: Merve Nur Özet
Student No.: N14228100
Department: Foreign Languages Education
Program: English Language and Teaching
Status: Masters Ph.D. Integrated Ph.D.



ADVISOR APPROVAL

APPROVED
Assistant Professor Doctor Hatice Ergül



Appendix T: Yayımlama ve Fikri Mülkiyet Hakları Beyanı

APPENDIX-T: Yayımlama ve Fikri Mülkiyet Hakları Beyanı

Enstitü tarafından onaylanan lisansüstü tezimin/raporumun tamamını veya herhangi bir kısmını, basılı (kâğıt) ve elektronik formatta arşivleme ve aşağıda verilen koşullarla kullanıma açma iznini Hacettepe Üniversitesine verdiğimi bildiririm. Bu izinle Üniversiteye verilen kullanım hakları dışındaki tüm fikri mülkiyet haklarım bende kalacak, tezimin tamamının ya da bir bölümünün gelecekteki çalışmalarda (makale, kitap, lisans ve patent vb.) kullanım hakları bana ait olacaktır.

Tezimin kendi orijinal çalışmam olduğunu, başkalarının haklarını ihlal etmediğimi ve tezimin tek yetkili sahibi olduğumu beyan ve taahhüt ederim. Tezimde yer alan telif hakkı bulunan ve sahiplerinden yazılı izin alınarak kullanılması zorunlu metinlerin yazılı izin alınarak kullandığımı ve istenildiğinde suretlerini Üniversiteye teslim etmeyi taahhüt ederim.

Yükseköğretim Kurulu tarafından yayınlanan "Lisansüstü Tezlerin Elektronik Ortamda Toplanması, Düzenlenmesi ve Erişime Açılmasına İlişkin Yönerge" kapsamında tezimin aşağıda belirtilen koşullar haricince YÖK Ulusal Tez Merkezi / H.Ü. Kütüphaneleri Açık Erişim Sisteminde erişime açılır.

- o Enstitü/Fakülte yönetim kurulu kararı ile tezimin erişime açılması mezuniyet tarihinden itibaren 2 yıl ertelenmiştir. ⁽¹⁾
- o Enstitü/Fakülte yönetim kurulunun gerekçeli kararı ile tezimin erişime açılması mezuniyet tarihinden itibaren ... ay ertelenmiştir. ⁽²⁾
- o Teziminle ilgili gizlilik kararı verilmiştir. ⁽³⁾

26/06/2019


Merve Nur ÖZET

"Lisansüstü Tezlerin Elektronik Ortamda Toplanması, Düzenlenmesi ve Erişime Açılmasına İlişkin Yönerge"

(1) Madde 6.1. Lisansüstü teze ilişkin patent başvurusu yapılması veya patent alma sürecinin devam etmesi durumunda, tez danışmanının önerisi ve enstitü anabilim dalının uygun görüşü üzerine enstitü veya fakülte yönetim kurulu iki yıl süre ile tezimin erişime açılmasının ertelenmesine karar verebilir.

(2) Madde 6.2. Yeni teknik, materyal ve metodların kullanıldığı, henüz makiyeye dönüşmemiş veya patent gibi yöntemlerle korunmamış ve internetten paylaşılması durumunda 3. şahıslara veya kurumlara haksız kazanç imkânı oluşturabilecek bilgi ve bulguları içeren tezler hakkında tez danışmanının önerisi ve enstitü anabilim dalının uygun görüşü üzerine enstitü veya fakülte yönetim kurulunun gerekçeli kararı ile altı ayı aşmamak üzere tezimin erişime açılması engellenebilir.

(3) Madde 7.1. Ulusal çıkarları veya güvenliği ilgilendiren, emniyet, istihbarat, savunma ve güvenlik, sağlık vb. konuları ilişkin lisansüstü tezlerle ilgili gizlilik kararı, tezini yapıldığı kurum tarafından verilir*. Kurum ve kuruluşlarla yapılan işbirliği protokolleri çerçevesinde hazırlanan lisansüstü tezlerle ilişkin gizlilik kararı ise, ilgili kurum ve kuruluşun önerisi ile enstitü veya fakültenin uygun görüşü üzerine üniversite yönetim kurulu tarafından verilir. Gizlilik kararı verilen tezler Yükseköğretim Kuruluna bildirilir.
Madde 7.2. Gizlilik kararı verilen tezler gizlilik süresince enstitü veya fakülte tarafından gizlilik kuralları çerçevesinde muhafaza edilir, gizlilik kararının kaldırılması halinde Tez Otomasyon Sistemine yüklenir.

* Tez danışmanının önerisi ve enstitü anabilim dalının uygun görüşü üzerine enstitü veya fakülte yönetim kurulu tarafından karar verilir.

