



T.C.

BURSA ULUDAG UNIVERSITY

INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION SCIENCES

DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE EDUCATION

**AN EXPERIMENTAL STUDY ON ENHANCING EFL
LEARNERS' PRAGMATIC AWARENESS AND PERFORMANCE
THROUGH WEB 2.0 TOOLS ONLINE: IS TEACHER PRESENCE
NECESSARY?**

MASTER'S THESIS

MUSTAFA CİVELEK

0000-0002-4304-4252

BURSA-2023



T.C.

BURSA ULUDAG UNIVERSITY

INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION SCIENCES

DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE EDUCATION

**AN EXPERIMENTAL STUDY ON ENHANCING EFL
LEARNERS' PRAGMATIC AWARENESS AND PERFORMANCE
THROUGH WEB 2.0 TOOLS ONLINE: IS TEACHER PRESENCE
NECESSARY?**

MASTER'S THESIS

MUSTAFA CİVELEK

0000-0002-4304-4252

Thesis Advisor

Asst. Prof. Dr. Çiğdem KARATEPE

BURSA-2023

BİLİMSEL ETİĞE UYGUNLUK

Bu çalışmada tüm bilgilerin akademik ve etik kurallara uygun bir şekilde elde edildiğini beyan ederim.

Mustafa Civelek

12/01/2023

TEZ YAZIM KURALLARINA UYGUNLUK

“An Experimental Study on Enhancing EFL Learners’ Pragmatic Awareness and Performance through Web 2.0 Tools Online: Is Teacher Presence Necessary?” adlı yüksek lisans tezi, Bursa Uludağ Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü tez yazım kurallarına uygun olarak hazırlanmıştır.

Tezi Hazırlayan

Mustafa CİVELEK

Danışman

Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Çiğdem KARATEPE

Yabancı Diller Eğitimi ABD Başkanı

Prof. Dr. Ayşegül Amanda YEŞİLBURSA



EĞİTİM BİLİMLERİ ENSTİTÜSÜ
YÜKSEK LİSANS/DOKTORA BENZERLİK YAZILIM RAPORU

BURSA ULUDAĞ ÜNİVERSİTESİ
EĞİTİM BİLİMLERİ ENSTİTÜSÜ
YABANCI DİLLER EĞİTİMİ ANABİLİM DALI BAŞKANLIĞI'NA

Tarih:12/01/2023

Tez Başlığı / Konusu: An Experimental Study on Enhancing EFL Learners' Pragmatic Awareness and Performance through Web 2.0 Tools Online: Is Teacher Presence Necessary?

Yukarıda başlığı gösterilen tez çalışmamın a) Kapak sayfası, b) Giriş, c) Ana bölümler ve d) Sonuç kısımlarından oluşan toplam 127 sayfalık kısmına ilişkin, 11/01/2023 tarihinde şahsım tarafından *Turnitin* adlı intihal (benzerlik) tespit programından (Turnitin)* aşağıda belirtilen filtrelemeler uygulanarak alınmış olan özgünlük raporuna göre, tezimin benzerlik oranı % 14'tür.

Uygulanan filtrelemeler:

- 1- Kaynakça hariç
- 2- Alıntılar hariç/dahil
- 3- 5 kelimedenden daha az örtüşme içeren metin kısımları hariç

Uludağ Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü Tez Çalışması Özgünlük Raporu Alınması ve Kullanılması Uygulama Esasları'nı inceledim ve bu Uygulama Esasları'nda belirtilen azami benzerlik oranlarına göre tez çalışmamın herhangi bir intihal (benzerlik) içermediğini; aksinin tespit edileceği muhtemel durumda doğabilecek her türlü hukuki sorumluluğu kabul ettiğimi ve yukarıda vermiş olduğum bilgilerin doğru olduğunu beyan ederim.

Gereğini saygılarımla arz ederim.

Adı Soyadı: Mustafa Civelek
Öğrenci No: 801993018
Anabilim Dalı: Yabancı Diller Eğitimi
Programı: İngiliz Dili Eğitimi
Statüsü: Y.Lisans Doktora

Danışman

Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Çiğdem Karatepe

12.01.2023

T.C.

BURSA ULUDAĞ ÜNİVERSİTESİ

EĞİTİM BİLİMLERİ ENSTİTÜSÜ MÜDÜRLÜĞÜNE

Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı, İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Bilim Dalı'nda 801993018 numaralı Mustafa Civelek'in hazırladığı "An Experimental Study on Enhancing EFL Learners' Pragmatic Awareness and Performance through Web 2.0 Tools Online: Is Teacher Presence Necessary?" başlıklı Yüksek Lisans Tezi ile ilgili tez savunma sınavı, 31 Ocak Salı günü 10.30-12.00 saatlerini arasında yapılmış, sorulan sorulara alınan cevaplar sonunda adayın tezinin/çalışmasının başarılı olduğuna oybirliği ile karar verilmiştir.

Tez Danışmanı ve Sınav Komisyonu Başkanı

Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Çiğdem Karatepe

Bursa Uludağ Üniversitesi

Üye

Doç. Dr. Levent Uzun

Bursa Uludağ Üniversitesi

Üye

Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Mustafa Sarioğlu

Bursa Teknik Üniversitesi

ABSTRACT

Name and Surname	Mustafa Civelek
University	Bursa Uludağ University
Institution	Institute of Educational Sciences
Field	Foreign Language Education
Branch	English Language Education
Degree Awarded	Master
Page Number	XVII+146
Degree Date	
Supervisor	Asst. Prof. Dr. Çiğdem Karatepe

AN EXPERIMENTAL STUDY ON ENHANCING EFL LEARNERS' PRAGMATIC AWARENESS AND PERFORMANCE THROUGH WEB 2.0 TOOLS ONLINE: IS TEACHER PRESENCE NECESSARY?

Despite the extensive research on online instruction to teach different aspects of language, research on the use of online facilities to enhance pragmatic competence remains scarce. Thus, the present study fills the research gap by comparing the efficacy of two online instruction delivery procedures for the development of pragmatic performance and awareness: teacher-led online pragmatics learning and self-paced pragmatics learning. The participants were 40 college-level students who were going to participate in the Work and Travel program. The participants were divided into two groups: the teacher-led group and the self-paced group. While the teacher-led group received pragmatics instruction on requests through synchronous computer-mediated communication guided by the teacher, the self-paced group completed the same activities through digitally-mediated self-access materials. Discourse Completion Tasks (DCT) were utilized as the pre-test and the post-test to find out the impact of two types of fully online pragmatics instruction procedures on pragmatic performance. The requests in the DCTs were scored based on pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics separately. Furthermore, Think Aloud (TA) protocols were used before and after the treatment to shed light on the effect of different online instruction procedures on pragmatic awareness. Furthermore, semi-structured

interviews were conducted to reveal the learners' perceptions of learning pragmatics through self-access materials. The findings reported that both instruction procedures significantly helped learners improve the production of requests. While no statistically significant difference was found regarding the improvement of sociopragmatic test scores, the self-paced group outperformed the teacher-led group in terms of the development in pragmalinguistic test scores. Furthermore, the analysis of TA protocols demonstrated that both instruction procedures contributed to the learners' pragmatic awareness. Moreover, the analysis of semi-structured interviews revealed mostly positive perceptions about self-paced learning of pragmatics through digitally-mediated self-access materials. One major implication of the study is that teaching pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics is beneficial to the learners, regardless of the instruction procedures through which they are taught.

Keywords: computer-mediated communication, self-paced learning, pragmatic awareness, pragmatic performance, requests

ÖZET

Yazar Adı ve Soyadı	Mustafa Civelek
Üniversite	Bursa Uludağ Üniversitesi
Enstitü	Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü
Ana Bilim Dalı	Yabancı Diller Eğitimi
Bilim Dalı	İngiliz Dili Eğitimi
Tezin Niteliği	Yüksek Lisans
Sayfa Sayısı	XVII+146
Mezuniyet Tarihi	
Danışman	Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Çiğdem Karatepe

İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRENERLERİN ÇEVİRİM İÇİ OLARAK WEB 2.0 ARAÇLARI İLE EDİMBİLİMSEL FARKINDALIKLARINI VE PERFORMANSLARINI ARTTIRMA ÜZERİNE DENEYSEL BİR ÇALIŞMA: ÖĞRETMEN VARLIĞI GEREKLİ Mİ?

Dilin farklı yönlerini öğretmek için çevrimiçi eğitim üzerine yapılan kapsamlı araştırmalara rağmen, edimbilimsel yeterliliği geliştirmek için çevrimiçi olanakların kullanımına ilişkin araştırma sayısı azdır. Bu nedenle, mevcut çalışma, edimbilimsel performans ve farkındalığın geliştirilmesi için iki çevrimiçi öğretim prosedürünün etkinliğini karşılaştırarak araştırma boşluğunu doldurmaktadır: öğretmen liderliğindeki çevrimiçi edimbilim öğrenimi ve kendi hızında edimbilim öğrenimi. Katılımcılar, Work and Travel programına katılacak olan üniversite düzeyindeki 40 öğrenciydi. Katılımcılar iki gruba ayrıldı: öğretmen liderliğindeki grup ve kendi hızındaki grup. Öğretmen liderliğindeki grup, öğretmen tarafından yönlendirilen senkronize bilgisayar aracılı iletişim aracılığıyla ricalar üzerine edimbilim eğitimi alırken, kendi hızına sahip grup aynı etkinlikleri dijital olarak aracılı kendi kendine erişim materyalleri aracılığıyla tamamladı. Söylem Tamamlama Görevleri (DCT), iki tür tamamen çevrimiçi edimbilim öğretim prosedürünün edimbilimsel performans üzerindeki etkisini bulmak için ön test ve son test olarak kullanıldı. DCT'lerdeki üretilen ricalar, pragmatik ve sosyopragmatik olarak ayrı ayrı puanlanmıştır. Ayrıca, farklı çevrimiçi öğretim yöntemlerinin edimbilimsel farkındalık üzerindeki etkisine ışık tutmak için öğretimden

önce ve sonra Sesli Düşünme (TA) protokolleri kullanılmıştır. Ayrıca, öğrencilerin kendi kendine erişebilecekleri materyaller aracılığıyla kendi hızında edimibilim öğrenmeye ilişkin algılarını ortaya çıkarmak için yarı yapılandırılmış görüşmeler yapılmıştır. Bulgular, her iki öğretim prosedürünün de öğrenenlerin rica üretimini geliştirmesine önemli ölçüde yardımcı olduğunu bildirdi. Sosyopragmatik test puanlarındaki artışa ilişkin istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir fark bulunmazken, kendi hızında öğrenen grup, pragmatik test puanlarındaki gelişim açısından öğretmen liderliğindeki gruptan daha iyi performans gösterdi. Ayrıca, TA protokollerinin analizi, her iki öğretim prosedürünün de öğrencilerin edimibilimsel farkındalığına katkıda bulunduğunu göstermiştir. Ayrıca, yarı yapılandırılmış görüşmelerin analizi, edimibilimin kendi kendine erişim materyalleriyle öğrenimi hakkında çoğunlukla olumlu algıları ortaya çıkardı. Çalışmanın önemli çıkarımlarından biri, pragmatik ve sosyopragmatik öğretiminin, kendilerine öğretilen öğretim prosedürleri ne olursa olsun, öğrenciler için faydalı olduğudur.

Anahtar Sözcükler: bilgisayar aracılı iletişim, kendi hızında öğrenme, edimibilimsel farkındalık, edimibilimsel performans, ricalar

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

I would like to express my thanks to people without whose help, this thesis would not be complete.

First and foremost, I would like to express my deepest gratitude to my thesis supervisor Asst. Prof. Dr. Çiğdem Karatepe. She first introduced me to the field of Interlanguage Pragmatics during my undergraduate studies. Later, she encouraged me to study pragmatics during my Master's studies. Moreover, she became the one who helped me the most for the completion of this thesis with the feedback, recommendations, and support she provided. I experienced stressful times while writing this thesis. However, Dr. Karatepe was always there to tell me that I could succeed. Without her guidance and dedication, I would not have been able to construct this study. I feel so lucky and honored to be one of her students. I would also like to thank the committee, Assoc. Prof. Dr. Levent Uzun and Asst. Prof. Dr. Mustafa Sarioğlu for the invaluable feedback they provided.

Furthermore, I also give my endless thanks to all the professors in the English Language Education department at Bursa Uludağ University for their inspiring lectures which guided me to delve into the academic studies I conduct today.

I would also like to thank Sarah Elizabeth Frazier for proofreading this text on short notice, providing feedback on the data collection instruments, and scoring the DCTs as the native speaker rater. Additionally, I would like to express my gratitude to my friends working as English instructors at different universities for their valuable comments during the preparation of the data collection tools.

I am also thankful to the participants of the study for their time and support. I would like to offer my appreciation to my lifelong friend Mustafa Özdemir and United Towers Bursa Branch for helping me find the participants for the thesis.

Last but not least, my immense thanks go to my parents, Bahtışen Civelek and Aziz Civelek. During my Master's studies, I was mostly in my room reading and writing. I cut down on the time I was supposed to spend with them. I would like to thank them for their tolerance and support, and dedicate this thesis to them, to my beloved parents.

Mustafa Civelek

TABLE OF CONTENTS

BİLİMSEL ETİĞE UYGUNLUK	i
TEZ YAZIM KURALLARINA UYGUNLUK	ii
ABSTRACT	vi
ÖZET	viii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS	x
TABLE OF CONTENTS	xi
List of Tables	xiv
List of Figures	xvi
List of Abbreviations	xvii

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background of the Study	1
1.2. Statement of the Problem	3
1.3. Purpose of the Study	4
1.4. Research Questions	4
1.5. Significance of the Study	4
1.6. Limitations of the Study	6

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. ILP in Second Language Acquisition Research	7
2.2. Defining Pragmatic Competence	8
2.3. Teaching Pragmatics in EFL Contexts	10
2.3.1. Challenges of Teaching Pragmatics in EFL Contexts	13
2.4. Speech Acts	14
2.4.1. Background on the Speech Act of Request	18

2.4.1.1. Request Studies with Turkish EFL Learners.....	19
2.5. Technology Integration for Pragmatics Instruction	24
2.5.1. Review of the Studies on the Use of CMC for Teaching Pragmatics	27
2.5.2. Review of the Studies on the Use of Self-Access Materials for Teaching Pragmatics	30

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

3.1. Research Design.....	36
3.2. Participants	38
3.3. Data Collection Tools.....	40
3.3.1. DCT	41
3.3.2. TA Tasks	43
3.3.3. Semi-structured Interviews.....	44
3.4. Data Collection Procedure	44
3.5. Data Analysis	47
3.5.1. Analysis of the DCTs	47
3.5.2. Analysis of the TA Protocols	49
3.5.3. Analysis of the Interviews	50

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

4.1. Results Regarding the Development of Pragmatic Performance	52
4.1.1. Teacher-Led Group.....	52
4.1.2. Self-Paced Group.....	56
4.1.3. Comparison of the Development of Teacher-led and Self-paced Groups.....	60
4.2. Results Regarding the Development of Pragmatic Awareness	61
4.2.1. Teacher-Led Group.....	65
4.2.2. Self-Paced Group.....	73

4.3. Results Regarding the Learners' Perceptions of Learning Pragmatics through Self-Access Materials.....	80
--	----

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

5.1. The Impact of Teacher-Led Fully Online Instruction through CMC on Pragmatic Performance	88
5.2. The Impact of Self-Paced Learning on Pragmatic Performance.....	90
5.3. Comparison of the Pragmatic Development of the Two Groups	92
5.4. The Impact of Teacher-Led Fully Online Instruction through CMC on Pragmatic Awareness	93
5.5. The Impact of Self-Paced Learning on Pragmatic Awareness.....	95
5.6. The Learners' Perceptions about Learning Pragmatics through Digitally-Mediated Self-Access Materials	96

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSION

6.1. Summary	100
6.2. Implications.....	103
6.3. Recommendations for Further Research.....	106
REFERENCES.....	107
APPENDICES.....	126
Appendix 1: Demographic Questionnaire.....	126
Appendix 2: Discourse Completion Test	127
Appendix 3: Think Aloud Tasks	131
Appendix 4: Semi-structured Interview Questions	136
Appendix 5: Schauer's (2009) Coding Framework for Internal Modification Strategies.....	137
Appendix 6: Sample Tasks and Metapragmatic Explanations.....	138
ÖZ GEÇMİŞ	145

List of Tables

Table 1 Austin’s (1962) taxonomy of speech acts	15
Table 2 Searle’s (1976) taxonomy of speech acts	16
Table 3 Demographic information about the participants	39
Table 4 The content of Nearpod lessons used as digitally-mediated self-access materials	45
Table 5 Data collection procedure.....	46
Table 6 The normality test results of the variables in each group.....	47
Table 7 The normality test results for the development of pragmatic performance in both groups	48
Table 8 The normality test results of the PREs in TA1 and TA2 protocols.....	49
Table 9 Descriptive statistics of the pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic test scores of the teacher-led group.....	53
Table 10 Paired samples t-test results of the teacher-led group	53
Table 11 Comparison of the instances of the lexical downgraders in the pre-test and the post-test for teacher-led group.....	55
Table 12 Comparison of the instances of the syntactic downgraders in the pre-test and the post-test for teacher-led group.....	56
Table 13 Descriptive statistics of the self-paced group.....	57
Table 14 Paired samples t-test result of the self-paced group	57
Table 15 Comparison of the instances of the lexical downgraders in the pre-test and the post-test for self-paced group.....	59
Table 16 Comparison of the frequency of the syntactical downgraders in the pre-test and the post-test by the self-paced group.....	60
Table 17 The results of independent samples t-tests for pragmatic gains	61
Table 18 Coding categories and frequency counts for PREs in all TAs	62
Table 19 Descriptive statistics of PREs in TA protocols of teacher-led group.....	65
Table 20 Paired samples t-test results of the PREs related to the given situations in teacher-led group.....	67
Table 21 Paired samples t-test results of the PREs related to context variables in teacher-led group.....	68
Table 22 Paired samples t-test results of the PREs related to pragmalinguistics in the teacher-led group.....	71
Table 23 Descriptive statistics of PREs in TA protocols of self-paced group	73

Table 24 Wilcoxin signed rank test results of the PREs about the context variables in the self-paced group	75
Table 25 Paired samples t-test results of the PREs related to pragmalinguistics in the self-paced group	77
Table 26 The themes, categories and codes obtained from the semi-structured interviews ...	81

List of Figures

Figure 1 Bachman’s (1990) Language Competence	9
Figure 2 The themes, categories, and codes emerged from the semi-structured interviews ...	51
Figure 3 The use of lexical downgraders in the pre-test and the post-test by the teacher-led group.....	54
Figure 4 The use of syntactic downgraders in the pre-test and the post-test by the teacher-led group.....	56
Figure 5 The use of lexical downgraders in the pre-test and the post-test by the self-paced group.....	58
Figure 6 The use of syntactic downgraders in the pre-test and the post-test by the self-paced group.....	59
Figure 7 The changes in the instances of PREs from TA1 to TA2 in teacher-led group.....	66
Figure 8 The changes in the instances of PREs from TA1 to TA2 in the self-paced group ...	74

List of Abbreviations

CC:	Communicative Competence
CCSARP:	Cross-Cultural Speech Act Realization Project
CALL:	Computer-Assisted Language Learning
DCT:	Discourse Completion Task
EFL:	English as a Foreign Language
EIL:	English as an International Language
ELT:	English Language Teaching
IC:	Intercultural Communication
ILP:	Interlanguage Pragmatics
L1:	First Language
L2:	Foreign or Second Language
MALL:	Mobile-Assisted Language Learning
MCDCT:	Multiple-Choice Discourse Completion Task
PRE:	Pragmatic Related Episode
SDS:	Spoken Dialogue System
SLA:	Second Language Acquisition
TA:	Think Aloud
TA1:	First Think Aloud
TA2:	Second Think Aloud

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background of the Study

Today's globalized world has led to an increase in the amount of Intercultural Communication (IC). That is, individuals from a variety of cultural backgrounds come together online or face to face and engage in communication for various purposes such as business, education, and entertainment. English has by far been chosen as the mutual language among native speakers of English and speakers of other languages to this end. For successful IC to take place, not only do conversational participants need to have adequate linguistic knowledge, but they also need to be aware of how to utilize this knowledge appropriately in a variety of social contexts (Kıyançıçek, 2023).

Language users' ability to produce the appropriate language for various social contexts has been regarded as a key feature in different models of Communicative Competence (CC) (McConachy, 2009). This ability has been defined as pragmatic competence. Considering that the proposal of different CC models has resulted in changes the way language is taught, it would not be an exaggeration to claim that pragmatics instruction has become an inescapable component of language education.

Learning a Foreign or Second Language (L2) is a complex task to achieve. A number of methods and approaches have been put forward so far to facilitate the L2 learning process. The emergence of the communicative language teaching approach led to drastic changes in language education, which sets off the vital role of pragmatic competence for successful IC. Thus, there has been a growing body of research in the field of Interlanguage Pragmatics (ILP) probing the impact of implicit and explicit teaching techniques on EFL learners' pragmatic development for the last two decades (For a review, see Takahashi, 2010; Taguchi, 2011; 2015).

Since learners often have little to no opportunity to engage in interaction with the speakers of other languages in English as a Foreign Language (EFL) contexts, it would be overly optimistic to expect learners to develop their pragmatic competence without instructional support. However, inadequate class hours allocated to English at schools is a major challenge for teachers (Üstünbaş, 2021). Apart from pragmatics instruction, EFL teachers are expected to introduce phonological, morphological, semantic, and syntactic aspects of language and help

their learners improve themselves in the four main language skills. Korkmaz and Karatepe (2023) demonstrated that even though the EFL teachers appreciated the significance of pragmatics instruction, they mainly prioritized the inclusion of linguistic aspects of language in their courses due to the exam-oriented system in Turkey. The overloaded curricular content and the lack of time result in underrepresentation of pragmatics in EFL settings (Mirzaei & Rezaei, 2012). However, the advancements in internet technologies can provide both language learners and teachers with diverse opportunities to expand the learning process beyond official class hours.

The developments in internet technologies have offered numerous potentialities for educational purposes. Such developments have attracted great attention of scholars in the field of English Language Teaching (ELT) and ILP. As a result, the impact of Web 2.0 tools on EFL learners' performance in various language areas including pragmatics has been investigated (Civelek & Karatepe, 2021a). This has led computer and internet technologies to become unavoidable parts of language education. With the outburst of Covid-19 pandemic, online instruction has been more common than ever among both teachers and learners. Moreover, former Turkish National Minister of Education Prof. Dr. Ziya Selçuk, in his interview with the journalist Ceyda Karaaslan, stated that online instruction would be in our lives even when the pandemic has ended (Karaaslan, 2021). This clear message demonstrated that distance education was not just regarded as a temporary solution to help learners and teachers cope with the problems which arose from the pandemic. Rather, it will be a permanent component of education in Turkey in the near future.

In ILP research, internet technologies have begun to attract attention of scholars. The majority of the studies focused on the use of Computer-Mediated Communication (CMC) tools to deliver pragmatics instruction (Cunningham, 2019). CMC tools enable learners to interact with their teachers and native or expert speakers of the language even if they are remotely located. Thus, they can be useful to cover pragmatic aspects of the language when the class hours are not adequate, provide authentic pragmatic language input and practice, and maintain instruction at times like the Covid-19 pandemic. In addition to CMC tools, the utilization of digitally-mediated self-access materials to enhance pragmatic competence has also come to the attention of scholars (Taguchi, 2020). There are various mobile applications available helping learners develop different language skills (Alnufaie, 2022). Such applications provide learners with individualized self-access learning. However, there is no mobile application that particularly aims to enhance pragmatic ability, except for the ones which are at the prototype

stage (Timpe-Laughlin, Green & Oh, 2021). However, existing Web 2.0 tools can be used to provide L2 teachers to prepare digitally-mediated self-access materials from which their learners can benefit outside the conventional language classroom.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

In the majority of countries that belong to what is known as the expanding circle, including Turkey, learning English is regarded as one of the key steps for better career opportunities. Thus, EFL learners look for every opportunity to improve their English language skills. Participation in cultural exchange programs seems to be one of the most attractive opportunities for learners to this end. These programs offer learners opportunities to work or study in a different country for some time. Additionally, such programs provide learners with invaluable experiences and enhance their language skills and intercultural competence. For instance, Fidan and Karatepe (2021) reported that all the Erasmus mobility program participants in their study had adopted positive attitudes about their study abroad experience. What is more, the students expressed that the program had contributed to their language skills to a great extent, and they were more enthusiastic to engage in intercultural communication.

Similarly, Work and Travel (WAT), which is available for undergraduate and postgraduate students, is a popular cultural exchange program in Turkey. Every year, approximately 5,000 Turkish students participate in this program. By means of WAT, the students go to the USA and work there. After the completion of their working period, they are allowed to travel in the USA during a 30-day grace period. In Maeluskul's (2017) study, the WAT participants ranked developing their English language skills as one of the top motivating factors encouraging them to participate in the program. It is obvious that students consider WAT as an opportunity to advance their English language skills since they are exposed to the English language, and take part in interaction in English every day due to the nature of the program. Even though the participants are not expected to be advanced speakers of English, they are required to have an adequate level of English to maintain their lives in the USA to be able to participate in the program.

Although WAT seems to be a great opportunity for EFL learners, it does not provide participants with formal language instruction. WAT participants find themselves in a culturally different work environment when they arrive in the USA. They are required to engage in intercultural encounters with both American speakers of English and other WAT participants from various cultural backgrounds so as to maintain their jobs as expected.

Even though the vital role of pragmatic competence has been acknowledged, the presentation of pragmatic aspects of the language is still unsatisfactory in Turkey (Karatepe & Civelek, 2021; Korkmaz & Karatepe, 2023). Considering that the WAT participants are required to perform diverse pragmatic tasks, the deficiency in their pragmatic competence is likely to hinder their WAT experience. Therefore, WAT participants should be prepared for the pragmatic tasks they are likely to encounter when they are in the USA. However, conducting face-to-face L2 classes for WAT participants is impossible since they do not reside in one particular city. Students from a variety of cities in Turkey participate in the program. Yet, internet potentialities can be useful to this end. Therefore, to what extent fully online pragmatics instruction contributes to the learners' pragmatic competence should be investigated. Such an investigation can also present findings for L2 learners who are not WAT participants. Since pragmatics is underrepresented in EFL classes at different levels of education in Turkey due to a number of different variables, including time limitation, the impact of different types of online instruction on pragmatic competence should be investigated (Üstünbaş, 2021).

1.3. Purpose of the Study

The current study attempted to investigate the impact of two types of fully online pragmatics instruction procedures on prospective WAT participants' pragmatic performance and awareness. In this respect, the study presented a detailed analysis of the outcomes regarding pragmatic performance and awareness produced by the learners who either engaged with digitally-mediated self-access materials for self-paced learning or participated in synchronous teacher-led online sessions conducted through CMC. Furthermore, it compared the efficacy of the two different online instruction procedures on the learners' pragmatic performance. Additionally, the study also aimed to reveal the perceptions of the learners, who engaged with digitally-mediated self-access materials, about self-paced learning of pragmatics by means of such tools.

1.4. Research Questions

This particular study aimed to reveal answers to six research questions.

1. What is the impact of teacher-led fully online pragmatics instruction through CMC on EFL learners' pragmatic performance?
2. What is the impact of self-paced fully online pragmatics learning through digitally-mediated self-access materials on EFL learners' pragmatic performance?

3. Is there a significant difference regarding the development of pragmatic performance between the two groups being exposed to different types of fully online pragmatics instruction procedures?
4. What is the impact of teacher-led fully online pragmatics instruction through CMC on EFL learners' pragmatic awareness?
5. What is the impact of self-paced fully online pragmatics learning through digitally-mediated self-access materials on EFL learners' pragmatic awareness?
6. What are the perceptions of EFL learners who engaged with digitally-mediated self-access materials about self-paced pragmatics learning?

1.5. Significance of the Study

Pragmatics was positioned as optional in the realm of L2 education for a long time. Yet, it has become a major constituent of L2 education with the studies providing reassuring results in favor of pragmatic instruction (Alcon Soler, 2005). Unfortunately, the underrepresentation of pragmatics in ELT materials and EFL classes is not uncommon. Therefore, L2 teachers should look for ways to introduce pragmatics. Civelek and Karatepe (2021a) recommended taking advantage of internet potentialities to provide learners with pragmatic language input and practice beyond the walls of traditional classrooms.

The advancements in computer technologies has led to the emergence of diverse journals devoted to the investigation of technology integration for L2 education such as Computer Assisted Language Learning (CALL), Language Learning & Technology, and ReCALL, etc. Such journals present research articles probing the efficacy of the technology integration for the development of different language areas. However, the number of studies probing the impact of technology integration on pragmatic development remains scarce (González-Lloret, 2019). Even though earlier studies brought attention to the use of CMC, digitally-mediated self-access materials, social networking, blogging, and multiuser games for pragmatic development (Taguchi, 2015; 2020), there seems to be a gap in the literature in terms of comparing the impact of different types of online instruction procedures to this end. Thus, the present study compares the efficacy of two different types of fully online pragmatics instruction delivery procedures on pragmatic performance and awareness.

Furthermore, the Covid-19 experience made the significance of online tools for education more clear for L2 teachers and learners. Bearing in mind that the potentialities of

online pragmatics instruction remains to be discovered (González-Lloret, 2019), it seemed to be requisite to compare the effect of different types of fully online pragmatics instruction procedures. This particular study presented rich findings on the use of teacher-led synchronous online instruction through CMC, and digitally-mediated self-access materials for self-paced learning for pragmatic development by triangulating quantitative and qualitative data rather than only following a pre-test/post-test design.

1.6. Limitations of the Study

The present study was conducted with 40 prospective WAT participants studying in various departments at diversity of universities. The participants of the study were divided into two groups and received pragmatics instruction through either CMC guided by the teacher or digitally-mediated self-access materials without teacher involvement. However, the study did not involve a control group receiving face to face or no instruction. Having a control group would provide us with a more clear framework for the effect of the two instruction delivery procedures. In addition, the sample involved prospective WAT participants only. Therefore, the findings are not generalizable. A further study can be conducted with different age groups such as secondary, upper-secondary or adult L2 learners. Moreover, the current research aimed to teach requests only. Thus, more studies should be conducted to teach different aspects of pragmatics through fully online instruction such as implicatures, discourse markers and other speech acts etc. Additionally, the learners' perceptions about teacher-led online instruction through CMC were not questioned in the current research. Lastly, the current study did not shed light on the impact of various variables which were likely to affect the research outcomes such as individual differences and the autonomy level of learners.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. ILP in Second Language Acquisition Research

The field of second language acquisition (SLA) was defined as “the study of how learners create a new language system” (Gass, Behney & Plonsky, 2013, p.1). Vanpatten and Benati (2015) stated that SLA research brought attention on learners and language learning rather than teachers and language teaching. In early years of SLA research, language learning was regarded as acquiring a linguistic code which was quite a structuralist view (McConachy, 2019). Therefore, linguistic aspects of language such as morphology and syntax were the focus during the formative years of SLA. However, ILP later widened the scope of SLA research, and studies in SLA started examining sociocultural aspects of language use (Taguchi, 2019).

The term ‘interlanguage’ was coined in the seminal work of Selinker (1972). It was used to delineate the language system which L2 learners build and does not reflect their native language (L1) or L2, but rather an internal language system in between (Vanpatten & Benati, 2015). On the other hand, pragmatics on its own right is a branch of linguistics covering a wide array of topics, including: speech acts, (im)politeness, conversational implicatures, deixis, relevance, and discourse. Because of the breadth of topics that are categorized as aspects of pragmatics, there is no commonly accepted definition of the term. Rather, researchers tend to define pragmatics in the way which best suits their research objectives. However, Taguchi and Roever (2017) pointed out that there were some mutual elements in those definitions such as “language, meaning, context, and action” (p. 3). In short, pragmatics investigates how linguistic actions are performed to convey intended messages in a variety of social contexts in either written or spoken discourse.

ILP has emerged as a domain of investigation in SLA research studying L2 learners’ performance of pragmatic functions of the target language and how they develop their language use to this end. In this regard, Kasper and Dahl (1991, p. 216) portrayed the goal of ILP as investigating non-native English speakers’ “comprehension and production of speech acts, and how their L2-related speech act knowledge is acquired”. This earlier definition narrowed ILP scope to speech acts and failed to reflect different aspects of pragmatic competence (Taguchi & Roever, 2017). As a result, the definition of ILP has evolved. For instance, Kasper and Rose (2002) pictured the scope of ILP more comprehensively. They asserted that ILP looked into not

only the comprehension and production of linguistic actions of non-native speakers in the target language but also how L2 learners improve their capacity to comprehend and perform these actions in the target language. Bardovi-Harlig (2013) notes ILP encompasses all the studies regarding second/foreign language (L2) pragmatics.

Cross-linguistic and cross-sectional studies dominated in the early years of ILP research. While cross-linguistic studies focused on how speakers of different languages perform particular linguistic acts, cross-sectional studies investigated how non-native speakers' pragmatic performance developed across proficiency levels through longitudinal studies. For the last two decades, ILP research moved beyond the cross-linguistic and the cross-sectional studies. As a result, the question of whether pragmatic aspects of the target language are teachable arose. Subsequently, the last two decades has witnessed numerous empirical studies probing what aspects of pragmatics are teachable and what techniques work well for successful pragmatic instruction. The research area consisting of studies with an emphasis on instructional effects on L2 pragmatic development is named instructional pragmatics (Ishihara, 2010) or acquisitional pragmatics (Bardovi-Harlig, 2013).

2.2. Defining Pragmatic Competence

The term 'competence' has been used to refer to different constructs by linguists and applied linguists (Celce-Murcia, Dörnyei & Thurrell, 1995). Chomsky (1965) was apparently the first who pointed out the distinction between the terms competence (one's implicit knowledge of language) and performance (the use of language in communication). However, Chomsky made no attempt to address the distinction between competence/knowledge and the ability to use language to achieve communicative purposes (Erton, 2007). Campbell and Wales (1970) criticized Chomsky's definition of competence by advocating that language knowledge also encompasses the ability to use the language in a given context. Chomsky's definition of competence is

concerned with an ideal speaker-listener. In completely homogeneous speech community who knows its language perfectly and is unaffected by such grammatically irrelevant conditions as memory limitations, distractions, shifts of attention and interest, and errors (random or characteristic) in applying his knowledge of the language in actual performance. (Chomsky, 1965, p. 3)

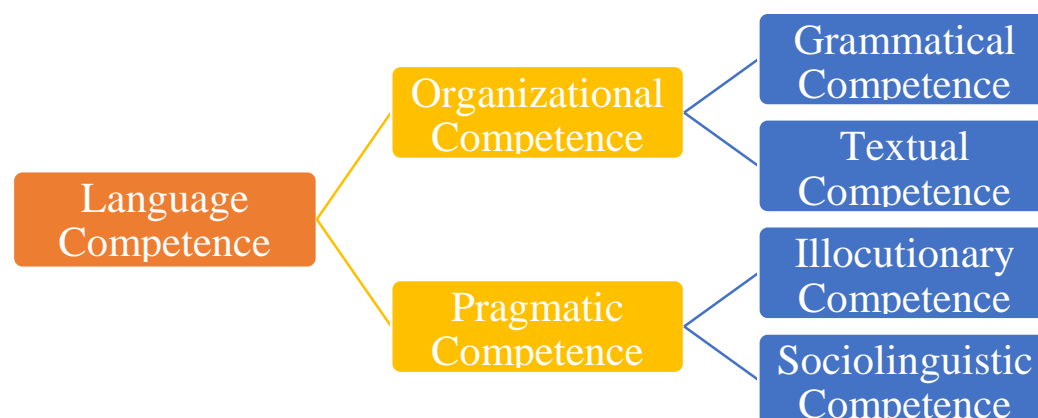
Hymes (1972, p. 271) asserted that "such a theory of competence posits ideal objects in abstraction from sociocultural features". Additionally, Hymes (ibid.) highlighted that having a

high level of grammatical competence would not be sufficient to become a successful L2 user since some contexts require speakers to use constructions that are technically ungrammatical. Therefore, he underscored the significance of both linguistic/grammatical competence and the knowledge of what type of language is appropriate in any given context.

As a response to Chomskyan model of competence, Hymes (1972) proposed a CC model and situated grammatical/linguistic competence as one of the core constituents within CC. Hymes' notion of CC has evolved over the years and different models of CC were introduced by different scholars (Canale & Swain, 1980; Canale, 1983; Bachman, 1990). McConachy (2009) noted that all these models of CC stood up for the view that being a competent language user entails more than having the knowledge of forming grammatically accurate utterances. Yet, Bachman (1990) is the first one who introduced pragmatic competence explicitly as a foundational constituent within his language competence model.

Figure 1

Bachman's (1990) Language Competence



As Figure 1 demonstrates, Bachman (1990) postulated organizational competence and pragmatic competence as two major sub-divisions of language competence. Whereas organizational competence is more about the rules of language, pragmatic competence is related to the appropriate use of the language forms in different social contexts. Bachman (1990) further classified pragmatic competence into illocutionary competence and sociolinguistic competence. Whilst illocutionary competence refers to the knowledge of the strategies to perform specific linguistic acts, sociolinguistic competence corresponds to using linguistic forms appropriately in a variety of social contexts.

Similarly, Leech (1983) and Thomas (1983) put forward pragmalinguistic competence and sociopragmatic competence as two major components of pragmatic competence. The

former refers to one's mastery to make use of linguistic strategies to perform a particular speech act. These strategies were listed as "pragmatic strategies such as directness and indirectness, routines and a large range of linguistic forms which can intensify or soften communicative acts" (Kasper, 1997, p.1). Sociopragmatic competence, on the other hand, is used to refer to one's ability to pay attention to social context and the rules that specific context pose while performing language. Similarly, Bachman and Palmer (1996) also highlighted the vital role of pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic competence in achieving CC through different terminology: functional knowledge and sociolinguistic knowledge.

The terms *knowledge*, *competence/ability*, and *performance* are frequently used interchangeably in ILP. Drawing inspiration from Purpura's (2004) definition of knowledge which is "a set of informational structures that are built up through experience and stored in long term memory" (p. 85), Timpe-Laughlin, Wain and Schmidgall (2015) delineated pragmatic knowledge as "mental representations of informational structures related to pragmatics" (p. 6). On the other hand, Taguchi (2011, p. 291) explains pragmatic competence as "the ability to manage a complex interplay of language, language users, and context of interaction". That is, pragmatic competence or ability refers to one's capacity to utilize their knowledge related to pragmatics so as to achieve communicative goals (Timpe-Laughlin et al., 2015). Lastly, pragmatic performance was defined as the use of such capacity in actual communication (Timpe-Laughlin, 2015). Another term "pragmatic awareness" is also frequently observed in ILP studies. However, Timpe-Laughlin et al. (2021) articulated that what pragmatic awareness entailed was still unclear. In cognitive psychology, awareness is regarded as the capability to verbalize a subjective experience (Alcon & Safont Jorda, 2008). Additionally, some scholars attempted to put forward a definition for pragmatic awareness in particular. For example, Alcon and Safont Jorda (2008) described pragmatic awareness as "the conscious, reflective, explicit knowledge about pragmatics" (p.193). By synthesizing existing definitions of the term, Timpe-Laughlin et al. (2021) described pragmatic awareness as "the conscious knowledge of pragmatics that manifests in a learner's ability to recognize and identify sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic phenomena involved in the process of form-function-context mapping" (p. 2).

2.3. Teaching Pragmatics in EFL Contexts

Crystal (1985, p. 240) puts forward the definition of pragmatics as:

the study of language from the point of view of the 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 the other participants in an act of communication.

This widespread definition draws attention on the variability of language choices depending on the social context of interaction. For example, a speaker can choose from a diversity of pragmalinguistic resources available in their repertoire to perform a specific speech act (e.g. *requests, disagreeing*, etc.). However, they are expected to make their linguistic preferences considering the contextual factors in each specific situation. That is to say, they need to have awareness of whether what they say is acceptable or not in a particular social interaction. Any effort to perform a speech act regardless of considering the context of situation can potentially bring about pragmatic failures. In IC, pragmatic failures are likely to cause misunderstandings between interlocutors (Savvidou & Economidou-Kogetsidis, 2019). They can further leave a negative impression of the speaker on the hearer and lead hearer to make unfair judgements about the speaker's personality (Vasquez & Sharpless, 2009). Similarly, McNamara and Roever (2006) stated that a pragmatically incompetent speaker was likely to be "unintentionally offensive, too outspoken or incomprehensible" (p. 55). Kasper (1997) underscored the vital role of pragmatic guidance in order for the development of pragmatic competence. Thus, the inclusion of pragmatic features of L2 in EFL curricula is quite important to equip learners with adequate knowledge and skills to communicate appropriately with the speakers from various cultural backgrounds.

The proposal of different CC models so far has brought about drastic changes to the way an L2 is taught. Language learning is no longer viewed as simply acquiring the rules of language. Bardovi-Harlig (1999, p.686) reported that "high levels of grammatical competence do not guarantee concomitant high levels of pragmatic competence". That is, highly proficient speakers of L2 are still likely to perform pragmatic failures when they do not develop pragmatic competence at some level. That is, pragmatic competence might take relatively longer than grammatical competence to develop. Additionally, it was acknowledged that exposure to the L2 on its own is not adequate to promote pragmatic competence (Bardovi-Harlig & Mahan-Taylor, 2003; Taguchi, 2008). In other words, pragmatic competence calls for intensive instruction to develop.

The purpose of pragmatics instruction has evolved over the years. In the early years of ILP research, scholars focused their attention on cross-linguistic studies through which they explored realization strategies used by native and non-native speakers while performing speech

acts. Back then, the instructional interventions aimed at enabling learners to produce native-like utterances in the target language. In other words, the learners whose utterances are more close to native speakers' appropriateness norms were regarded as more competent in terms of pragmatic language use. This view has fallen out of favor due to the recognition of English as an International Language (EIL). It has been reported that the number of English speakers whose first language is not English, outnumbered the native speakers long ago (Honna, 1995). Similarly, the instances of native speaker/non-native speaker interactions in real life contexts are quite less than non-native speaker/non-native speaker interactions (Seidlhofer, 2004). Therefore, it is not logical to adopt the above-mentioned purpose of pragmatics instruction today.

A more recent view, on the other hand, regards the aim of pragmatics teaching as providing learners with a wide repertoire of pragmatic strategies to deploy in contexts varying in terms of (in)formality, (in)directness, and (im)politeness. That is to say, EFL learners are no longer expected to merely rely on native speakers' appropriateness norms in EIL era (Tajeddin, Alemi & Pashmforoosh, 2018). Instead, they are expected to understand form-meaning-context mappings and perform utterances accordingly by creating mutual understanding while communicating with both native and non-native speakers.

The results obtained from empirical research depicted that pragmatics instruction is a must in order for learners to become fully competent L2 speakers since, as Schmidt (1992) puts forward, it may be quite challenging for L2 learners to notice some pragmatic features regardless of the amount of exposure to the target language (Sydorenko, 2015). Having demonstrated that instruction promoted L2 pragmatic development, the attention was turned to what teaching methods would contribute to L2 pragmatic competence. Researchers began to look for ways to teach L2 pragmatics. The studies comparing the impact of implicit and explicit teaching methods on L2 pragmatic development has dominated the field for the last two decades. The majority of these studies provided reassuring results in favor of explicit teaching over implicit methods (Takahashi, 2010). In other words, the findings demonstrated that L2 learners are likely to benefit from direct metapragmatic explanations followed with focused practice. Yet, Taguchi (2015) in her detailed review of the empirical studies regarding instructional effect on L2 pragmatic development, noted that implicit instruction can promote L2 pragmatic development as much as explicit instruction. Furthermore, implicit teaching may sometimes lead to better outcomes. Yet, it should be noted that exposing L2 learners to input only is not likely to bring about remarkable outcomes. For implicit instruction to be successful,

it should include tasks encouraging in-depth processing which results in understanding (Taguchi, 2015).

2.3.1. Challenges of Teaching Pragmatics in EFL Contexts: Even though the important role of pragmatic competence was articulated within different models of CC and researchers came to a common consensus that pragmatics should be incorporated into EFL curricula, pragmatics is still either underrepresented or fully ignored in L2 classrooms (Karatepe & Civelek, 2021). Since L2 learners, especially in EFL context, may not have opportunity to engage in interaction with native speakers or proficient speakers of L2 from different cultural backgrounds, learning pragmatics is quite a demanding task for them. In such educational contexts, L2 learners generally get exposed to limited amount of input in their classrooms. In addition, such input is mostly modified (Felix-Brasdefer & Cohen, 2012; Washburn, 2001), thus falls short in terms of introducing authentic language use in the L2. It is well documented that language learning environment has a crucial impact on the development of pragmatic competence (Bardovi-Harlig & Dörnyei, 1998; Tagashira, Yamato & Isoda, 2011). Learning L2 in an environment in which learners have the opportunity to practice L2 outside the language classroom helps them notice the pragmatic aspects of the language (Wyner, 2014).

Unfortunately, this is not the only constraint encountered in EFL contexts regarding the teaching and learning of pragmatics. For example, many studies demonstrated that textbooks fail to present pragmatic aspects of language and relevant metapragmatic information (Nu & Murray, 2020; Ren & Han, 2016; Vellenga, 2004). Additionally, the speech acts are mostly introduced in a decontextualized way (Karatepe & Civelek, 2021; McConachy & Hata, 2013). Furthermore, it was noted that textbooks remained insufficient to show authentic language use (Ishihara, 2011). Unfortunately, the textbooks in Turkey were found to be no different in this regard (Aksoyalp & Toprak, 2015). Bearing in mind that textbooks are of great importance due to their role of providing information and language practice in EFL contexts, their deficiency in terms of teaching pragmatics is a significant challenge for both language teachers and learners. Thus, Limberg (2016) highlighted that EFL teachers should be aware of the pros and the cons of textbooks they use in terms of pragmatics instruction and they need to make adaptations to both input and available activities accordingly.

It is crystal clear that insufficient coverage of pragmatics in textbooks put extra workload on EFL teachers' shoulders. Therefore, Karatepe and Civelek (2021) conducted research to shed light on the views of Turkish EFL teachers' views on adapting materials for

pragmatics instruction. They modified a textbook activity aiming to teach English requests from a textbook used in Turkey with 12th grades by reviewing the current literature on effective activities for pragmatics instruction. They gathered the data by using a questionnaire and semi-structured interview. Their quantitative findings demonstrated that all the teachers adopted positive views about the modifications made to the original activity. However, qualitative findings revealed that teachers didn't feel capable of making such adaptations since they do not have the necessary knowledge and skill to this end. Therefore, it can be inferred that EFL teacher training programs fall short in terms of equipping prospective teachers with substantial knowledge and skills on teaching pragmatics. Likewise, many researchers have called attention to the underrepresentation of pragmatics in teacher training programs so far (Atay, 2005; Ishihara, 2011; Karatepe, 1998; 2001; Yıldız Ekin & Atak-Damar, 2013).

Some of the challenges which EFL teachers and learners come across while teaching and learning pragmatics were mentioned above. Although it is possible to add more challenges to the list, inadequate and decontextualized presentation in EFL textbooks, limited opportunities for authentic L2 input and practice, and deficiency of teacher training programs remain the major issues surrounding teaching and learning pragmatics. However, some of these challenges can be overcome. Civelek and Karatepe (2021a) suggested that technology offers useful tools to provide L2 learners with authentic pragmatic language input and practice outside the L2 classroom which would contribute to L2 learners' pragmatic development.

2.4. Speech Acts

Speech acts are the most frequently researched domain in ILP. There are multiple definitions available for the term 'speech act' in the field. For instance, Leech (1983) put forward the definition of the term as "the utterance as a form of act or activity" (p. 14). Similarly, Yule (1996) delineated speech acts as "actions [which are] performed via utterances" (p. 47). Obviously, these two definitions mention that an utterance is more than a combination of sounds, lexicon and grammatical forms, it is also an act. In other words, "to say something is to do something; in which by saying or in saying something we are doing something" such as requesting, thanking, refusing, etc. (Austin, 1962, p. 12).

As one of the pioneer figures in speech acts research, Austin (1962) introduced a trichotomy to denote the levels of speech acts: locutionary act, illocutionary act, and perlocutionary act. Locutionary act refers to the literal meaning of an utterance. In order for literal meaning to be conveyed, a locutionary act needs to follow the linguistic rules governing

the language. For illustration, the utterance “I cannot hear the sound on the TV” can literally be regarded as a complaint. In other words, it simply means that the speaker has a problem hearing the sound on the TV. An illocutionary act, on the other hand, is about the intended message beyond the literal meaning of an utterance. For instance, in a situation where two friends are watching TV, the aforementioned utterance can serve as a request through which the speaker asks his/her friend to turn up the volume. Finally, a perlocutionary act centers upon the impact of an illocutionary act on the listener. Austin (1962) describes perlocutionary act as “what we bring about or achieve by saying something such as convincing, persuading, deterring, and even, say, surprising or misleading” (p. 109). In other words, it is a perlocutionary act when the hearer turns up the volume on TV as a response to the utterance “I cannot hear the sound on the TV”.

Through Speech Acts Theory, Austin (1962) placed emphasis on the illocutionary acts of which he proposed a taxonomy which later paved the path for a vast amount of research. Austin’s (1962) taxonomy is a classification system which divides speech acts into five categories depending on their illocutionary force: Verdictives, Exercitives, Commissive, Behabitives, and Expositives.

Table 1

Austin’s (1962) taxonomy of speech acts

Category	Functions	Sample Peformative Verbs
Verdictives	the act of delivering a judgement which is either official or unofficial	acquit, convict, rule, understand, etc.
Exercitives	the act of making a decision which can be either in favour of or against a behaviour pattern	appoint, degrade, demote, warn, order, etc.
Commissives	the act of declaring a commitment to a course of action	promise, contract, intend, declare, etc.

Behabitives	the act of reacting to someone's previous behaviour. These utterances consist of positive or negative attitudes regarding a particular earlier action.	thank, bless, apologize, curse, congratulate, etc.
Expositives	the act of expressing views, and conducting arguments	state, deny, inform, remark, express, etc.

Austin's classification of speech acts, their functions and sample performative verbs used with particular speech act types are well-documented in Table 1. A performative verb explicitly signals the illocutionary force of a particular utterance. Performative verbs were classified as Illocutionary Force Indicating Devices. Yet, it is not always the case for an utterance to involve a performative verb. In other words, interlocutors do not always express what they do with the language explicitly.

Table 2

Searle's (1976) taxonomy of speech acts

Category	Functions	Sample Peformative Verbs
Representatives	the act of stating beliefs or giving information (true or false)	state, suggest, claim, assert, conclude, etc.
Directives	the act of asking someone to do or not to do something	ask, request, permit, command, order, etc.
Commisives	the act of declaring a commitment to a course of action	promise, commit, contract, plan, etc.
Expressives	the act of expressing the psychological state	congratulate, apologize, thank, etc.
Declaratives	the act of changing existing conditions through utterances	declare, fire, announce, pronounce, etc.

One of the Austin's students, John R. Searle highlighted the weaknesses of Austin's taxonomy of speech acts. As a result, he proposed a revised classification for speech acts. There are similarities between the two taxonomies since Austin's work laid the foundation for Searle's (1976) taxonomy. Searle (1976) classified speech acts into five different categories: Assertives/Representatives, Directives, Commissive, Expressives, and Declaratives (See Table 2). Both taxonomies clearly documented that there were different actions which could be performed by means of language. Searle (2002, p. 6) summarizes what a person can do through speech acts as follows:

One can tell people how things are (assertives); one can try to get them to do things (directives); one can commit oneself to doing things (commissives); one can express one's feelings and attitudes (expressives); and one can bring about changes in the world through one's utterances (declarations).

Searle (1979) also elaborated on the likely match and mismatch occurrences between locutionary and illocutionary acts and explained this through (in)directness. He categorized speech acts as direct and indirect ones. Searle (1979) described direct speech acts as the ones of which literal meanings exactly match with their intended messages. On the other hand, indirect speech acts are defined as the ones through which the speaker means more than what she/he actually says. In other words, the bigger the mismatch between locutionary and illocutionary act is, the more indirect the speech act is. In order for speech acts to be conveyed successfully, the interlocutors need to have a shared background and they both need to be aware of the culture-specific rules of context of use.

Taguchi, Xiao and Li (2016, p. 777) argues that "there are certain linguistic expressions that realize speech acts and those expressions often align with the contextual parameters (i.e., interlocutor's power relationship and social distance, degree of imposition)". The focus of ILP has extensively been on the speech act realization strategies employed for performing speech acts (Felix-Brasdefer, 2017). Blum-Kulka, House and Kasper's (1989) highly influential project, Cross-cultural Study of Speech Act Realization Pattern (CCSARP) shed light on the similarities and differences among languages in terms of how speech acts are realized by both native and non-native speakers. The project revealed that not all aspects of pragmatics are universal. The variation among languages regarding speech act realization patterns is likely to impede successful communication in intercultural encounters when L2 speakers tend to generalize the pragmatic norms of their L1. Such generalizations can potentially lead to pragmalinguistic or sociopragmatic failures.

It is a demanding task for L2 users to produce appropriate speech acts to deliver their messages successfully when they are ill prepared for intercultural communicative contexts. What is perceived as appropriate in one's language community may not be regarded as appropriate in the target language community. Similarly, it may be challenging for L2 learners to interpret the underlying message of a speech act since successful interpretation requires the knowledge of both linguistic rules and lexicon when forming an utterance, as well as the sociocultural rules imposed by a particular language community. Therefore, L2 learners need to be aware of both sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic norms to establish mutual understanding when they engage in IC. The purpose of speech act instruction in EFL contexts should be to raise EFL learners' awareness about appropriate use of speech acts in diverse social contexts and the possible undesirable results which are likely to arise as a result of misuse.

2.4.1. Background on the Speech Act of Request: Requests are linguistic actions through which the speaker asks the listener to perform an act which is in favor of the requester. Thus, requests are directive speech acts according to Searle's (1976) classification of speech acts. Requests have been one of the most researched domains in ILP. They were regarded as one of the most difficult speech acts to be acquired for L2 learners (Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984). In addition, Fraser (1978) underscored that requests were more common than other speech acts such as promising and apologizing in communication. During IC, L2 users cannot maintain communication successfully by avoiding making requests. Therefore, it is not surprising that there has been extensive research on how to teach speech acts, particularly requests.

While requesting something, the speaker enters the listener's comfort zone. Hence, requests are face-threatening acts which makes the acquisition of them more complex for L2 learners. It would not be an exaggeration to claim that due to their face-threatening nature, satisfactory linguistic expertise is requisite for appropriate use of requests in different contexts. Similarly, Zhu (2012) explains that L2 learners need to have both adequate linguistic and cultural knowledge so as to achieve high appropriateness when making requests.

Interlocutors in a conversation deploy various politeness strategies to minimize the threat against each other's face. Face is described as one's "public self-image" (Yule, 1996, p. 60). Native and proficient L2 speakers tend to perform applicable strategies in order to either boost or mitigate the potential impact of the face-threatening act on the addressee. In Brown and Levinson's (1987) leading work on politeness, they clarified that interlocutors could evaluate the weightiness of a face-threatening act based on three variables which are namely the social distance between interlocutors, the relative power of the hearer, and the rank of

imposition. For instance, asking for some money from a friend has less weight than asking for some money from a teacher as a consequence of the difference regarding the hearers' relative power in the two contexts (Thuruvan & Yunus, 2017).

There have been numerous empirical research studies on requests so far. As a part of CCSARP, one of these was Blum-Kulka and Olstain's (1984) seminal work aiming to probe the realization patterns employed by both native and non-native speakers of eight languages or varieties while performing two different speech acts, namely apologies and requests. In this leading work, they have proposed a coding manual for realization patterns in request head acts which has widely been adopted in ILP research. They classified the realization patterns employed for requests within three categories in terms of (in)directness which are direct, conventionally indirect, and nonconventional indirect requests. Trosborg (1995) later proposed another framework to classify request strategies which was similar to CCSARP's manual to some extent. Both taxonomies have been employed extensively in ILP research.

CCSARP demonstrated that there were various ways to formulate requests. Besides the formulation of requests, what modifications are made to the illocutionary force of the utterance has also attracted considerable attention in the field. CCSARP found that language users deployed a diversity of modifiers so as to either soften or increase the illocutionary force. These modifiers were classified as internal and external modifiers. Whilst the internal modification devices refer to linguistic or syntactic modifiers integrated into request head act such as the politeness marker "please", the external modifiers are supplemental statements which are also known as supportive moves. The external modifiers are performed before or after the request head act. For instance, asking whether the hearer has a few minutes before the request is an external modifier preparing the interlocutor for the request itself.

2.4.1.1. Request Studies with Turkish EFL Learners: As in other parts of the world, request studies have also been carried out in the Turkish EFL context. Some master's and doctorate theses have focused on the production of speech acts by Turkish EFL learners (Balcı, 2009; Karatepe, 1998; Madak, 2004; Yıldız, 2001; Zıngır-Gülten, 2008). While some of these studies adopted a descriptive design through which the request realization patterns employed by Turkish EFL learners were reported and compared with native speakers, the others were either longitudinal or cross-sectional studies aiming to shed light on the Turkish EFL learners' pragmatic development in terms of performing requests over the time.

However, the number of experimental studies is scarce. Additionally, some book chapters and journal articles were also published in regard to requests of Turkish EFL learners.

Yet, even though these studies have made valuable contributions to the field, they were also mostly descriptive studies the majority of which utilized CCSARP's coding framework to demonstrate how requests are realized by Turkish learners of English in different social situations.

One of the earlier studies was conducted by Karatepe (2001). She carried out a study to reveal pragmalinguistic awareness of Turkish prospective EFL teachers in terms of request making strategies. 110 Turkish EFL teacher trainees and 76 native speakers took part in the study. They were asked to complete a Multiple Choice Discourse Completion Test (MCDCT) and a written Discourse Completion Tasks (DCT). The tests given to the groups were slightly different. The trainees' responses regarding appropriateness were analyzed considering their counterparts' request performance. The analysis of MCDCT data indicated that EFL teacher trainees had some degree of pragmalinguistic awareness. That is, they were somewhat able to recognize appropriate language use. On the other hand, DCT data demonstrated that the trainees' responses showed deviation from the native speaker data. It was noted that prospective teachers were not capable of evaluating the impact of contextual variables on the linguistic utterance they produce. Furthermore, they showed a tendency to make transfers from their L1.

Likewise, Kılıçkaya (2010) conducted research to indicate the request making strategies of Turkish EFL teacher trainees from a large public university. 40 pre-service teachers, who were highly advanced speakers of English, responded to a DCT. Their requests were categorized by using CCSARP's coding scheme. Additionally, two native ELT specialists were asked to evaluate the participants' requests. Descriptive statistics showed that conventionally indirect requests mostly occurred in the DCT data whilst there was scarcity in the amount of non-conventionally indirect requests. Additionally, the DCT outcomes revealed that the participants were able to perform different types of requests. However, they seem to have failed to employ some pragmalinguistic strategies regarding the request perspective. The native judges in the study articulated that some participants were incompetent in terms of assessing the sociocultural aspects which the situations had held.

In her cross-cultural study, Koç (2011) compared the requests of British native speakers of English and Turkish EFL learners at a private English language learning institution. The informants were asked to complete a MCDCT which involves scenarios varying in terms of the social distance and psychological distance of the interlocutors. Even though the majority of both native and non-native speakers appeared to perform conventionally indirect request forms, the EFL learners' requests were found to be relatively more direct. Whilst the EFL learners

preferred to use direct strategies while talking to someone who is both psychologically and socially close to them, the native speaker group tended to use conventionally indirect requests in such situations as well. Cultural factors were regarded to be the reason for such differences. The findings also demonstrated that the EFL learners mostly used query preparatory formulae which was considered as an indication of L1 influence. Additionally, the British native speakers seemed to perform lexical/phrasal and syntactic downgraders more often. That is, the Turkish EFL learners appeared to be less polite than the native speaker group. Although the Turkish informants used appropriate strategies to perform requests, they showed a narrow repertoire to achieve their goals. This was seen as a result of lack of exposure for pragmatic development in the EFL contexts.

Similarly, Şanal and Ortaçtepe (2019) adopted the cross-cultural research design to shed light on conceptual socialization of Turkish EFL learners. Employing DCTs and role-plays, they investigated the similarities and deviations in Turkish informants and native speakers of English in terms of performing requests, acceptance, and refusing. Their request production was assessed in term of formality, politeness, directness, and appropriateness. The results revealed that Turkish EFL learners did not perform fully appropriate requests. Additionally, the native speakers were found to be relatively more polite and formal than Turkish EFL learners. Moreover, as mentioned in the previous studies, Turkish EFL learners failed to produce a diversity of request forms which indicated the scarcity in the level of pragmalinguistic competence. Furthermore, it was highlighted that the influence of L1 socialization and the limitations of conventional classroom environment influenced the conceptual socialization of learners negatively. As a result, it was recommended to devote more time to the use of pragmalinguistic features in different contexts, make use of authentic materials, and implement role plays to provide learners with practice opportunities so as to contribute to conceptual socialization process.

Request realization patterns employed by young learners have also been a point of research in the Turkish EFL context. Zıngır-Gülten (2019) investigated the variability of English request strategies performed by 8th grade EFL learners in reference to gender and the status of the interlocutor. Additionally, the study questioned the impact of two different tests on young EFL learners' request strategy preferences. To this end, a MCDCT and a written DCT were used as data collection tools. Each test consisted of the same 12 scenarios varying in terms of the interlocutor's gender and status. 485 EFL learners from 10 different private secondary schools were asked to respond to these two tests. CCSARP's coding framework was utilized

for data analysis. The results indicated that conventionally indirect strategies were mostly performed in both tests. In other words, the participants tended to employ formulaic expressions such as "Can you...?" to which they were highly exposed throughout their English studies. Yet, it was found that the participants showed a higher percentage of direct request strategies in the MCDCT which was explained through their tendency to transfer their L1 pragmatic norms. Additionally, the findings indicated that non-conventionally indirect strategy was the rarest one in the both tests. Moreover, the analysis of the data depending on the interlocutor's power and gender revealed overuse of the conventionally direct strategy type which indicated lower level of sensitivity to context variables.

Speech acts are not always performed through saying but also writing. Therefore, requests in written discourse have also been investigated in the Turkish context. For example, Karatepe (2016) compared the request forms used in formal complaint letters written by Turkish EFL teacher candidates and native speakers of English. The participants were asked to compose a formal complaint letter through which they ask a higher authority figure, namely the student affairs office, to correct their grade that is incorrectly recorded in the electronic system. The analysis of requests by means of the CCSARP coding scheme indicated that EFL teacher candidates tended to use direct request forms in order to ask for the correction of their grade. Furthermore, the politeness marker *please* was the only lexical downgrader occurred in the non-native speaker data. Even though native speakers also used direct requests, their purpose was to ask for notification rather than correction. Furthermore, these requests were reported to be less blunt due to the native speakers' use of modal verbs. Additionally, native speakers of English were likely to perform conventionally indirect requests more. The findings also documented the influence of Turkish in non-native speakers' complaint letters. They tried to use the impersonal Turkish formula which is performed in traditional complaint letters in Turkish (Karatepe, 2021). All in all, the results suggested that the teacher candidates were not successful in determining the appropriate level of directness in formal complaint letter writing in English.

With e-mail becoming a widespread medium of communication, the scholars have turned to investigate the pragmatics of e-mail communication. E-mail communication also necessitates the appropriate use of language so as to avoid probable communication failures. Thus, Burgucu-Tazegül, Han and Engin (2016) looked into the requests performed in authentic e-mails written by Turkish EFL learners to two professors at a university. The requests in e-mails were analyzed in terms of directness. Furthermore, move analysis was carried out and

each move was scored based on a rubric. They found that whilst the informants underused the conventionally indirect requests, they performed direct requests by majority which shows their inability to consider the power variable. That is, they seemed to have failed to mitigate their requests which led their e-mails to sound impolite. The move analysis of e-mails showed that they mostly expressed reasons or excuses for their requests. However, some parts of the e-mails appeared to be inappropriate in terms of addressing the reader, greetings, and closing statements.

There are also some cross-sectional studies which were conducted with Turkish EFL learners to shed light on the development of request production across proficiency levels. For instance, Otçu and Zeyrek (2008) explored lower-intermediate and upper-intermediate learners' request formation. To this end, the learners were asked to take part in interactive role-plays with two American native speakers. Additionally, a group of native speakers of English responded to a DCT which provided the opportunity to compare request formation of learners and native speakers of English. Turkish native speakers were also requested to take the Turkish version of the DCT through which the impact of L1 transfer in the learner data was explored. The findings revealed that whilst both learner groups were able to use some external modification strategies such as *grounders*, *preparators*, and *getting a pre-commitment*, the use of *imposition minimizers* appeared to develop slowly. In terms of the use of internal modifiers, a clear development was observed across the levels. Yet, the development of syntactic downgraders appeared to be slower than lexical/phrasal downgraders. Additionally, it was found that conventionally indirect strategy type was the most frequent one in all groups. Furthermore, the impact of Turkish was observed in the learners' requests. All in all, the results indicated that proficiency was an important factor affecting the learners' pragmatic choices in L2. Another study, where internal modification developmental patterns were explored in the request formation of beginner and higher proficiency learners, was conducted by Göy, Zeyrek and Otçu (2012). They found similar results regarding the use of syntactic and lexical/phrasal downgraders. In addition, they noted that the use of internal modification devices developed slowly since it necessitates control over pragmatic knowledge.

Unlike the above-mentioned cross-sectional studies, longitudinal studies with Turkish EFL learners were also found to investigate the developmental patterns regarding request performance across different proficiency levels. For illustration, Sofu and Demirkol (2016) observed the requests of 16 preparatory class students at a state university in Turkey during an academic year through role-play tasks and DCTs conducted at different levels. The study

displayed that little amount of diversity occurred at different proficiency levels. At all levels, conventionally indirect strategies, query preparatory formulae being the most frequent one, was used extensively by the learners. That is, the learners did not display significant improvement regarding their pragmatic performance since they were not still aware of different ways of expressing requests in varying conditions. The results were interpreted as a consequence of the underrepresentation of pragmatics as a part of classroom instruction.

Unlike the research presented previously, Gazioğlu and Çiftçi (2017) utilized quasi-experimental research design to explore the effect of pragmatics instruction on Turkish EFL learners' request performance. 26 high school EFL learners participated in the study. A DCT was employed as pre-test and post-test so as to reveal the impact of instruction. Additionally, a survey, students' reflective journals, as well as teacher's field notes were used to report the learners' perceptions of the treatment process. Even though the learners did not demonstrate significant changes regarding the use of their request types after the instruction, some significant changes were observed in terms of the way they verbalize their requests. That is, the most frequent strategy type was query preparatory in the pre-test and post-test; however, they were more likely to perform internal and external modifiers to decrease directness. In addition, it is noteworthy that the majority of learners reflected positively on the treatment period. The research reviewed in this section clearly displays that even highly advanced Turkish speakers of English fell short in terms of performing appropriate request strategies indifferent social contexts. This is obviously the main indicator of the necessity of pragmatics instruction. Unfortunately, the number of research examining to what extent systematic pragmatics instruction contributes to request performance is quite a few.

2.5. Technology Integration for Pragmatics Instruction

ILP research has largely been informed by two SLA frameworks, namely Skill Acquisition Theory and Noticing Hypothesis. The Skill Acquisition Theory was first put forward by Anderson (1993). Afterwards, DeKeyser (2015) introduced the theory to SLA. The theory explains the changes in the mental representation of knowledge while developing a skill within three stages: cognitive, associative, and autonomous. The first stage, the cognitive stage, is about the learning of declarative knowledge explicitly. At this stage, putting the declarative knowledge in use is slow and difficult for the learner. Secondly, the cognitive stage constitutes repetitive practice of the declarative knowledge in order for the development of procedural knowledge which refers to the rules employed while performing the target skill. Finally, the autonomous stage is about the automatization of the targeted skill. Nevertheless, it is notable

that the theory emphasizes the role of practice in order for automatization. Informed by the Skill Acquisition Theory, Li's (2013) study indicated that more practice brought about better pragmatic development. However, Li (2019) notes the amount of practice needed to acquire procedural pragmatic knowledge is not clear.

Schmidt (1995) asserts that "what learners notice in input becomes intake" (p. 20). In other words, Noticing Hypothesis (1990, 1992), argues that it is inadequate for language learners to get exposed to input alone. They also need to notice the target language features in the input for the internalization to occur, which leads to intake and later successful outcomes in communication. Hence, the hypothesis posits noticing and input are crucial for achieving pragmatic development.

These two dominant SLA frameworks highlight the significance of exposure to L2 input and repetitive practice in order to achieve noticing and automatization respectively. However, the time allocated to English classes in Turkey is quite limited making it difficult to achieve either noticing of pragmatic features or automatization of procedural knowledge. As mentioned earlier, it is also quite difficult for EFL learners to be exposed to authentic pragmatic language input. Therefore, it is not surprising that even advanced Turkish speakers of English lack a satisfactory level of pragmatic competence (Karatepe, 1998; 2001). Fortunately, technology offers a variety of tools through which pragmatics instruction can surpass the walls of conventional classroom and the amount of quality input can be increased.

Arvanitis (2019) argues that information and communication technologies "have the potential to provide technological solutions, effective methods, and best practices, all integrated into the learning process by dynamically expanding the skills of both learner and teacher in the acquisition of knowledge" (p. 117). The developments in technology have offered numerous potentialities for educational purposes. As a result, computer and internet technologies have received considerable attention in L2 education which has led to the emergence of CALL and Mobile-assisted language learning (MALL) as a scholarly field. Furthermore, the evolution of such technologies has brought about rapid changes in the L2 learning and teaching practices. Golonka, Bowles, Frank, Richardson and Freynik (2014) found that the implementation of well-established technologies such as internet and personal computers facilitated the learning of different aspects of language including pragmatics in their comprehensive review article. As Sykes (2005) emphasizes, CALL technologies offer "presenting pragmatic-based materials in a contextualized, authentic, and personalized manner, while at the same time addressing the other language skills" (p. 399). Being not restricted to these, the use of these technologies

warrants digitally-mediated materials for pragmatic development, and digitally-mediated contexts in which learners can interact with remotely-located people (Sykes, 2018).

Golonka et al. (2014) lists the potential gains of technological innovations for L2 learners as enhancing learner motivation, facilitating the exposure to L2 input, increased interaction opportunities, and feedback. The potentialities which technology provides for educational purposes can be employed to enrich the content of face-to-face instruction and/or move beyond the traditional classroom context. There have been a number of studies conducted to investigate the impact of the incorporation of technology to face-to-face instruction on EFL learners' pragmatic competence. For instance, a number of studies delved into the efficacy of audio-visual materials to improve L2 pragmatic competence (Abrams, 2014; Alcon & Guzman-Pitarch, 2010; Baron & Celaya, 2022; Derakhshan & Eslami, 2020). These studies revealed that authentic audio-visual input were useful to enhance L2 pragmatic development. Such materials provide contextualized input which is similar to naturally-occurring language. Additionally, presenting the focal pragmatic features combined with visual clues is likely to help learners achieve noticing.

Another line of research has brought attention to the effect of flipped instruction on pragmatic competence. Flipped classroom instruction constitutes both face-to-face and online learning. Through flipped instruction, what is done in conventional classrooms is implemented at home by means of technology. For instance, the learners watch e-lectures, videos or read texts about the focal speech act at home and they complete tasks in class. The studies probing the impact of flipped learning on the development of different aspects of pragmatics reached a consensus that L2 learners benefited from flipped classroom instruction significantly more than conventional classrooms (AlSmari, 2020; Haghghi, Jafarigohar, Khoshsim, Vahdany, 2018; Katchamat, 2018; Wafa'A & Altakhaineh, 2019).

As the above-mentioned studies showed, utilizing digital tools such as authentic audio-visual materials facilitate EFL learners' development of pragmatic competence. Furthermore, the use of different digitally-mediated means, by adopting flipped classroom instruction model, is fruitful to provide L2 learners with more amount of input and practice to achieve automatization. More recently, ILP scholars brought attention to the fully online pragmatics instruction. To this end, they contended the efficacy of the utilization of CMC tools and self-access materials to develop pragmatic ability has been questioned.

2.5.1. Review of the Studies on the Use of CMC for Teaching Pragmatics: CMC is an umbrella term used to refer to a variety of tools enabling remotely-located users to communicate through internet mediation. The wide availability of CMC has resulted in considerable amount of research in the use of these technologies for L2 learning and teaching (Lin, 2015). CMC tools are grouped as synchronous and asynchronous CMC tools. Whilst the interlocutors are engaged in interaction at the same time and respond to each other's messages simultaneously in the synchronous mode, the asynchronous mode does not necessitate real-time interaction and includes such web 2.0 tools as blogs, wikis, and e-mails. The previous literature has acknowledged several benefits of these tools such as decreasing anxiety (Punar & Uzun, 2020), entailing a collaborative environment where everyone can reveal their ideas (Kim, 2000), and providing authentic input and output opportunities beyond the walls of traditional classrooms (Civelek & Karatepe, 2021a). Additionally, CMC provides L2 learners with tele-collaboration opportunities. Belz (2003) delineates tele-collaboration as "institutionalized, electronically mediated intercultural communication under the guidance of a languacultural expert (i.e., a teacher) for the purposes of offering language learning and the development of intercultural competence" (p. 2). Questions have been raised about the use of CMC for facilitating pragmatic development for the past two decades. As a result, ILP has witnessed a growing body of empirical research on this topic in different languages (For example; Sykes, 2005; Belz, 2007; Cunningham, 2016; Kakegawa, 2009). The literature constitutes studies conducted with EFL learners as well.

For instance, Eslami and Liu (2013) explored the impact of face-to-face and CMC-based pragmatics instruction on Taiwanese college students' pragmatic competence by utilizing quasi-experimental research design. To this end, they appointed 118 EFL college students to three intact classes including one control and two experimental groups. Whereas the control group received no instruction on pragmatics, the other two groups get exposed to explicit pragmatics instruction for ten weeks through CMC or face-to-face delivery on the speech act of request. Whilst the face-to-face group is taught by their course instructor, the participants in CMC group received instruction from their peers studying at an American university through WebCT and e-mails. The post-test results indicated that both experimental groups outperformed the control group. In other words, it was indicated that both groups benefited from explicit instruction regardless of the mode of delivery. In addition, no significant difference was found between the two experimental groups' results. That is, both CMC and face-to-face instruction is useful to enhance pragmatic competence.

Similarly, Eslami, Mirzaei and Dini (2015) focused on the effect of instruction through tele-collaboration on EFL learners' request speech act production. The participants were divided into three groups, a control and two experimental groups. The participants in the experimental groups were matched with tutors who were graduate students in L2 Education in the US. The learners in the experimental groups received either explicit or implicit instruction by means of asynchronous CMC. Even though e-mail was the main mode of instruction in the experimental groups, the tutors also benefited from other forms of CMC to some extent throughout the treatment process. A DCT and e-mails produced by the participants to interact with their tutors were used as data collection tools. The analysis of the data revealed that both CMC groups outperformed the control group in the post-test. Notably, it was reported that the explicit CMC group outperformed the implicit group visibly. Overall findings were in favor of tele-collaboration for pragmatics instruction. Likewise, Bataineh and Hussein (2015) aimed to assess the affordability of delivering pragmatics instruction through web-cam chat. Their study revealed that the implementation of instruction through web-cam chat contributed to not only their pragmatic competence but also listening and speaking skills over the period of eight weeks.

A more recent study was conducted by Zhang (2020) to unravel the difference between the impact of CMC interaction combined with instruction and CMC interaction alone. The study aimed at shedding light on the efficacy of instruction in CMC environments. Fifty-three Chinese EFL learners from a university participated in the study and they were distributed into two intact groups. The participants in the control group engaged in text-based chat with an American native English speaker through Skype once a week for 30 minutes, whereas the experimental group was taught about compliment responses for two sessions each of which lasted for 90 minutes in addition to their chats with the native speaker. The study followed a pre-test/post-test design. The quantitative results reported significant difference between the post-test results of the two groups approving of the impact of instruction. Additionally, the participants in the treatment group took part in two semi-structured interviews aiming to demonstrate their perceptions about the intervention. The participants expressed a variety of perspectives in the interviews related to L2 pragmatic knowledge development, raising awareness of the effect of L1 on L2 pragmatic production, and exposure to more authentic L2 input.

All the studies mentioned above have an intercultural tele-collaborative aspect. However, it is noteworthy that there can also be found research simply examining the impact of CMC without native speaker interference. For example, Ajabshir (2019) measured the

impact of synchronous and asynchronous CMC on EFL learners' pragmatic competence. The study aimed at providing considerable information on how different modes of CMC can contribute to learners' pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic development. For this purpose, 106 participants were assigned to three intact groups. Whilst one of the groups received face-to-face instruction, the other groups were taught by means of either synchronous or asynchronous CMC on high and low imposition requests. The findings aligned with the studies previously presented. In other words, it was documented that both CMC groups outperformed the face-to-face instruction group. There was no evidence that a particular type of CMC was more effective than the other. However, some differences were observed regarding pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic performance of the CMC groups. For example, the number of syntactic and lexical modifiers was higher in the post-test data of the asynchronous group while the synchronous group was likely to employ a wider range of strategies to adjust their requests in different situations.

Different from the previous studies, Zhang (2021) questioned the efficacy of CMC instruction coupled with data-driven approach. To this end, fifty-nine participants were divided into two groups. Whilst the control group interacted with an American native speaker through text-based messages via Skype, a data-driven approach was utilized as an additional implementation in the experimental group. The study was informed by both quantitative and qualitative techniques to analyze learning outcomes. Three interventions in which the participants had chat-based text with the American native speaker were recorded for the quantitative aspect of the study. They were analyzed as pre-intervention, post-intervention, and delayed post-intervention. In addition, retrospective interviews were conducted with each participant to shed light on the factors affecting the learners' performance of compliment responses. The analysis of quantitative data confirmed that combining instruction informed by data-driven approach and CMC-based chat is more effective than CMC-based chat alone. Furthermore, it had an influence on the participants' performance for longer. Additionally, retrospective interviews revealed three categories influencing the participants' pragmatic performance which were similar to Zhang (2020), namely L2 pragmatic knowledge, L1 influence, and online processing difficulties.

As the above-mentioned studies report, the implementation of different modes of CMC is likely to contribute to EFL learners' pragmatic performance. Whilst CMC can provide ample opportunities for tele-collaborative partnership with native-speakers (Eslami et al., 2015; Eslami & Liu, 2013; Zhang, 2020, 2021) which increases the quality of input outside the L2 classroom, it can also provide an online environment for instruction to take place without native

speaker interference (Ajabshir, 2019) especially at times when parties involved in education cannot meet face-to-face such as the Covid-19 period (Civelek & Karatepe, 2021a). However, Taguchi (2015) notes that the empirical research investigating the role of CMC for teaching pragmatics is still scarce. Similarly, there is no research available to the author's knowledge, in the Turkish EFL context to this end. Thus, one aspect of this thesis focuses on the impact of implementing pragmatics instruction through teacher-led computer-mediation on EFL learners' request performance.

2.5.2. Review of the Studies on the Use of Self-Access Materials for Teaching Pragmatics: A number of self-access materials are now available to L2 learners due to advancements in the internet technologies. Such materials entail a variety of opportunities for practice, the significance of which was underscored by the Skill Acquisition Theory. Even though conventional classroom contexts provide opportunities for practice to some extent, it is insufficient for the automatization of pragmatic features (Civelek & Karatepe, 2021b; Timpe-Laughlin, Sydorenko & Daurio, 2020). Thus, Sydorenko et al. (2018) recommends the use of technology to increase practice opportunities. Through self-access materials, L2 learners interact with a computer or a mobile device and complete tasks rather than interacting with a teacher or a native interlocutor as in CMC environments. Both CALL and MALL technologies offer a variety of web-based environments, mobile applications, and software which are likely to contribute to the language learning process of learners (Oberg & Daniels, 2013). Yet, there has been a limited number of digitally-mediated self-access materials for pragmatic development.

ILP research has begun to explore the potentialities of self-access materials for L2 learners' pragmatic development. For instance, some self-access web-sites were built to enhance different aspects of L2 pragmatic competence in different languages. The Center for Advanced Research on Language Acquisition (CARLA) established three websites aiming to teach pragmatics. For instance, one of these focuses on teaching five speech acts in Japanese (Cohen & Ishihara, 2005). The content of this website was developed based on the findings of empirical research in the field to achieve authenticity. Ishihara (2007) later documented the key constituents of this web-based curriculum which are (1) presenting empirically-established information on pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics and sample naturalistic audio dialogues; (2) the availability of pragmatic-awareness tasks and opportunities to receive explicit feedback on L2 pragmatic norms; (3) the presentation of language-focused exercises involving grammatical, lexical, and prosodic information; (4) ample opportunities for output production, (5) opportunities for self-evaluation and immediate feedback; and (6) the inclusion of

explanatory information about the sociopragmatic norms of the targeted language. Cohen and Ishihara (2005) as well as Ishihara (2007) reported positive reflections of their participants depending on the data they obtained from journal entries on their experience about the website. Similarly, some other websites were also developed to teach ten Spanish speech acts (Sykes & Cohen, 2006), requests and complaints in Spanish (Russell & Vasquez, 2011), and thanking in Chinese (Yang, 2017).

Apart from the above-mentioned websites, some digital games were also developed for pragmatic instructional purposes such as *Croquelandia* for practicing apologies and requests in Spanish (Sykes, 2013), and *Questarant* in order to teach formulaic expressions in Chinese (Tang & Taguchi, 2020). Taguchi (2020) comments that such websites and online games designed for educational purposes have a number of provisions including practice for target pragmatic features; input, output, and interaction opportunities; and individualized assistance through a feedback loop. Similarly, commercial games (e.g. *World of Warcraft*) also entails informal learning environments providing opportunities for pragmatic development (For a review, see Sykes & Dubreil, 2019). Such games necessitate the players to communicate with co-players to achieve game objectives. In other words, the players engage in authentic communication which involves a great number of pragmatic-related language use (Taguchi, 2020).

Additionally, computer technologies entails opportunities for teachers to create computer-structured tasks which can be implemented during class hours or employed by the learners as self-access materials. Such tasks are likely to give learners focus-on-form opportunities before moving to more demanding tasks. Sydorenko (2015) compared the impact of computer-mediated structured tasks and learner-learner role plays on pragmatic development of L2 learners of English in the United States. Computer-mediated structured tasks were enriched with native speaker models involving requests. The treatment began with pragmatic awareness-raising activities in which the learners watched sample dialogues produced by native speakers, and paid attention to the linguistic forms performed and the contextual factors surrounding the given situation. They engaged in group discussions, answered questions, made L1 and L2 comparisons, and received feedback. Following this, the control group completed learner-learner open role-play tasks whereas the experimental group took part in computer-delivered structured tasks. Both groups practiced the same scenarios. In the computer-mediated structured tasks, the dialogues stopped at pre-arranged places and the participants were expected to respond to the interlocutor in the video by recording their voice. The output

produced by the learners in both groups during the practice were used as data. The findings revealed that learners benefited from the native speaker models through computer-mediated structured tasks to a great extent. Additionally, innovative tasks entailed focus-on-form more when compared to the learner-learner role plays. Notwithstanding, learner-learner role-plays enabled learners to produce more creative output.

Likewise, there are Spoken Dialogue Systems (SDS) that are developed to assist language learning and teaching. Such systems provide learners with opportunities for self-regulated learning. They allow learners to interact with animated characters on their own. However, Bibauw, François and Desmet (2016) noted that these SDSs have two significant drawbacks. First, most of these systems are not fully developed, or even if they are, they are not accessible to secondary or college level-learners. Second, the impact of the majority of SDSs on learning outcomes has not been assessed, only the learner attitudes have been questioned so far. Additionally, Sydorenko, Daurio and Thorne (2018) reported that, due to the shortcomings of automatic speech recognition technologies and natural language processing algorithms, SDSs generally constitute dialogues in which the turns are predictable such as ordering food or buying a ticket. SDSs have also attracted considerable attention in ILP.

For example, Sydorenko et al. (2018) conducted a case study to probe the ability of *SimCon*, a self-access SDS, to improve international students' pragmatic oral production in English. *SimCon* provided learners with computer simulations through which they had chance to interact with real people to achieve a goal such as asking for a recommendation letter from a professor. Additionally, they received feedback on their actions after each simulation. As opposed to other spoken dialogue systems, the characters in *SimCon* are not animated; rather they are real people. The study was based on a pre-test/post-test design. In addition, a survey and interviews were employed for triangulation. The data revealed that *SimCon* was effective to help learners develop pragmatically appropriate strategies. It was shown that the learners had adopted various appropriate strategies from the content of the simulations. Yet, it was noted that some participants were relatively less successful than the others in terms of employing pragmatic strategies when compared to the others after the intervention. The scholars explained that this variability might stem from individual differences such as learners' existing knowledge regarding cultural norms of American English, and grammatical and pragmatic competence. The findings also demonstrated that the majority of learners had found *SimCon* effective, and expressed enthusiasm to use it in the future. Additionally, as in Sydorenko (2015), this study also reported that language samples produced by expert speakers were likely to enrich the

learners' oral production in terms of appropriateness. Furthermore, they stated that even though the study revealed promising results on behalf of *SimCon*, it is not a one-size-fits-all solution.

Similarly, Sydorenko, Jones, Daurio and Thorne (2020) sought to investigate the usefulness of implicit only and explicit + implicit instruction through *SimCon*. To this end, 26 ESL learners were assigned to two separate groups. The two groups differed in terms of the instruction type they received. While one of the groups was exposed to implicit instruction alone, the other group received implicit instruction coupled with explicit instruction. Two types of data were employed in the study: the learners' pragmatic language production in output simulations throughout the treatment, and guided self-reflection through introspective data. While production data aimed at shedding light on the changes in the learners' output over the time, the introspective data comprised learners' comparisons regarding the model input and their performance. The results demonstrated that learners were likely to benefit from both implicit only and implicit + explicit instruction. However, it was shown that implicit only groups were better at performing both the pragmatic strategies and the content which was similar to what the model input presented. On the other hand, the implicit + explicit group tended to create their own content. In addition, it was noted that some learners might need more explicit metapragmatic explanations than the others. Overall findings indicated that self-paced learning can contribute to learners' pragmatic development. Additionally, the scholars noted that more research should be conducted to shed light on the efficacy of various computer-guided self-paced learning materials on learner outcomes.

Besides SDSs such as *SimCon*, there are also self-access computer-based interactive platforms in order to deliver language instruction. One of these is *Words at Work*. The application intends to facilitate adult ESL/EFL learners' pragmatic development in the workplace in the United States without teacher interference. The platform constitutes nine modules each of which gives attention to a different pragmatic aspect of English. Each module involves not only e-lectures presenting metapragmatic information related to pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics but also a diversity of tasks assisting learners to notice and produce the focal pragmatic feature. Wain, Timpe-Laughlin and Oh (2019) investigated the perceptions of adult L2 learners about the efficacy of *Words at Work* for learning pragmatics. The data were collected through observations and interviews. Throughout the study, the participants first interacted with the modules they wished on *Words at Work* whilst the researcher was observing their engagement with the tool and taking notes. Then, they were interviewed on the usefulness of the tool. The results revealed that the tool successfully implemented the pedagogic principles

of digitally-mediated pragmatic learning tools which were underlined in the literature. In addition, it was well-documented that the learners adopted positive perceptions of the tool. They mentioned that they were more aware of the expressions to employ in terms of (in)directness while expressing particular speech acts after their interaction with the tool which clearly illustrates the development of pragmalinguistic competence. Similarly, they stated that the tool facilitated their awareness of politeness strategies to deploy depending on with whom they were interacting, which indicated a clear sign of sociopragmatic development. Additionally, the tool provided them with explanations and feedback which contributed to their cultural norms of American work place.

Furthermore, Timpe-Laughlin et al. (2021) carried out a study to determine the impact of adult ESL learners' engagement with the module focusing on requests on *Words at Work* on their pragmatic awareness. Twenty participants from different cultural backgrounds participated in the study. They varied in terms of their length of stay in the US. The study implemented pre and post-think-aloud interventions involving various tasks so as to reveal the cognitive processes that the participants underwent while performing the given tasks. The comparison of pre and post-think aloud data indicated that the participants were more aware about pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatic features surrounding the scenarios in the given tasks. That is, they showed a significant increase in terms of touching upon the way requests are verbalized in the scenarios and the contextual variables such as social distance between interlocutors, the imposition of requests, power relations between interlocutors. Additionally, they noted that the participants were deprived of metalanguage knowledge for explaining the pragmatic phenomena they realized in their pre-think-aloud interventions.

Even though there is not a considerable number of self-access materials available to teach and learn pragmatics, Web 2.0 technologies offer a number of applications which EFL teachers can benefit from to offer their learners self-access learning environments. Through these applications, EFL teachers are able to deliver content and a variety of activities online to facilitate their learners' language learning. *Nearpod*, for example, is a cloud based application enabling teachers to create student-paced interactive lesson contents for their learners. Civelek and Karatepe (2021b) investigated the impact of the implementation of pragmatics instruction through *Nearpod* on EFL learners' request modification. 11 participants voluntarily took part in the study. They interacted with seven student-paced *Nearpod* lessons without teacher presence. The lessons included explicit metapragmatic information related to the use of requests in various socio-cultural contexts and activities providing learners with the opportunity to

recognize and produce requests. An online oral DCT was utilized as the data collection tool. The learners' responses to the tests were qualitatively analyzed to reveal the modification strategies the participants deployed before and after the treatment. Additionally, a paired-samples t-test was run to report the impact of self-access *Nearpod* lessons on the learners' pragmatic performance. The t-test result documented that the learners benefited from the instruction significantly. Qualitative analysis revealed that the participants began to use a wide array of internal and external modifiers after their interaction with the self-access content. Moreover, it was noted that instruction through *Nearpod* helped learners overcome the pragmatic failure arising from L1 transfer.

As the above-mentioned studies demonstrate, ILP has begun to question the impact of digitally-mediated self-access materials on L2 learners' pragmatic related outcomes. These materials entail self-paced activities for recognition and production of targeted pragmatic features outside the conventional L2 classrooms. Given that the dearth of pragmatic language input and practice has been viewed as one of the major challenges in EFL contexts as mentioned previously, these tools holds great potential for improving the efficacy of pragmatics instruction in these educational contexts. Even though there has been a call for more research on the usefulness of learning pragmatics through CALL and MALL potentialities, especially with digitally-mediated self-access materials, the literature seems to fail to present satisfactory amount of research to this end (Civelek & Karatepe, 2021b). Therefore, one aspect of this paper aims to reveal the impact of self-paced pragmatics learning through digitally-mediated self-access tasks on Turkish EFL learners' pragmatic awareness and performance regarding the request speech act.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

The purpose of the current research is to probe the efficacy of teacher-led fully online pragmatics instruction through CMC and self-paced learning without teacher support on college-level EFL learners' pragmatic awareness and performance. Moreover, it aims at shedding light on EFL learners' perceptions about the use of self-access materials in order for the development of pragmatic ability.

3.1. Research Design

The present study is quasi-experimental research. The participants were assigned to the two groups depending on their availability to participate in online classes at pre-planned times rather than randomly being appointed as in true-experimental research (Creswell, 2009).

In order to achieve the objectives of this research, the components of both quantitative and qualitative research approaches were utilized. Therefore, this study adopts a mixed methods research design. Tashakkori and Creswell (2007) defined mixed methods research as “research in which the investigator collects and analyses data, integrates the findings, and draws inferences using both qualitative and quantitative approaches in a single study or program of inquiry” (p. 4). As it can be interpreted from the definition, conducting superior mixed methods research necessitates mixing the methods in the course of the whole study at different steps such as data collection, analysis, and interpretation.

Mixed methods research design provides researchers with many advantages. For instance, mixed methods research design benefits from both quantitative and qualitative data collection and analysis which helps the researcher to reduce the shortcomings of the two approaches (Creswell, 2009). In addition, it allows for a more complete understanding of the social phenomenon by means of the integration of qualitative and quantitative approaches (Melzi & Caspe, 2010).

As Riazi and Candlin (2014) quote, five purposes of mixed methods research design emerged as a result of Greene, Caracelli and Graham's (1989) analysis of 57 research articles utilizing mixed methods research design. First, triangulation was regarded as one of the purposes of mixed methods research. Triangulation refers to the implementation of more than one data collection tool which not only presents a clearer understanding of the construct studied, but also increases the validity of the research. Second, complementarity was reported to be one of the important purposes of mixed methods research. As in the present study, different types

of data enable the researcher to investigate different aspects of a particular construct (e.g. pragmatic awareness and pragmatic performance). Riazi and Candlin (2014) argue that “the underlying logic for complementarity rests on viewing social phenomena as multi-layered” (p. 144). Third, development can be the purpose of mixed method approach. It is when the second phase of a study is developed depending on the data collected in the first phase. The fourth purpose is initiation. Initiation refers to the use of different types of data collection and analysis so as to reveal unknown aspects of the contradictory results obtained from different types of data. Finally, expansion as a goal of the mixed method approach intends to widen the scope of the study.

There are different types of mixed method designs available to conduct. Some specific features enable researchers to define the kind of mixed method research they implement. The “timing” for data gathering is an important aspect to determine the type of research design. In other words, “whether it will be in phases (sequentially) or gathered at the same time (concurrently)” should not be ignored while deciding on the research design (Creswell, 2009, p. 206). In the present study, both qualitative and quantitative data are gathered concurrently. Throughout the designing process, it is equally important to consider which database, qualitative or quantitative, will be more emphasized. In the current research, qualitative data is drawn upon more.

As mentioned earlier, the main goal of the current investigation is to probe the impact of two kinds of fully online pragmatics instruction on Turkish EFL learners’ pragmatic competence. Since pragmatic competence is regarded as a multi-layered social phenomenon, different types of data collection tools and analysis techniques were employed to elicit rich information to best address the research questions. While online DCTs were used for quantitative data collection and analysis, Think Aloud (TA) interventions were conducted for the elicitation of qualitative data and its analysis. The former was utilized to question the impact of different types of treatment on pragmatic performance, and the latter to probe the effect of both treatment types on pragmatic awareness. The investigation of two different constructs of pragmatic competence (pragmatic performance and pragmatic awareness) not only indicates the fulfillment of complementarity purposes, but also allows for triangulating the datasets. Additionally, semi-structured interviews were brought into play so as to reveal the participants’ views on self-paced pragmatics learning, which adds breadth to the research objectives and fulfills expansion purposes. Considering all the above-mentioned gains which mixed method

approaches offer and the multi-layered nature of the current study, mixed methods research design was regarded to be the best fit to achieve the research objectives.

3.2. Participants

In October 2021, an announcement about a preparatory language course for WAT 2022 was delivered to the participants of the program through an international educational consultancy company. The speech act-based curriculum was shared with the participants via e-mail. Following this, voluntary students for the course were kindly asked to fill in a questionnaire including demographic questions (see Appendix 1). The course lasted for 12 weeks. A different speech act (e.g. agreeing, disagreeing, invitations, suggestions, requests, and refusals etc.) was introduced to the learners each week. 93 students registered in the course.

Convenience sampling was employed as the sampling technique in the study. Convenience sampling refers to the selection of “nearest individuals to serve as respondents and continuing that process until the required sample size was obtained or those who happen to be available and accessible at the time” (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007, p. 113-114). In other words, all the participants were students registered in a WAT language preparatory course taught by the researcher from the beginning of November 2021 to the end of January 2022 so they were all available and accessible. Even though the total number of the students who benefited from the course is higher, the participants were 40 college-level EFL learners (11 females, 39 males) studying in a variety of departments at the different state or private universities in Turkey. The other learners were excluded from the study due to several reasons such as their language proficiency level, their extremely high performance in the pre-test, or their nonattendance in the course. The remaining participants were assigned to two groups (teacher-led or self-paced) based on their availability to attend the online classes at pre-planned times. Whereas the teacher-led group received pragmatics instruction through synchronous CMC guided by the teacher, the self-paced group engaged with the digitally-mediated self-access materials to learn about pragmatics without teacher involvement.

Table 3 demonstrates the demographic data gathered from the participants. Both groups constituted 20 participants. As shown in Table 3, male participants outnumbered female participants in both groups. The participants were studying in different departments such as tourism, engineering, education, aviation, and medicine. Their age ranged between 19 and 26. The groups were comprised of A2 and B1 level participants based on their Online Oxford Placement Test results. However, the majority of the participants were B1-level learners in both the teacher-led and the self-paced group (n=13, 65%; n= 12, 60% respectively). Although

intermediate level was regarded as optimal in order for pragmatics instruction (Kasper, 2001) the cohorts included a small number of A2 level learners. This was seen as a good opportunity to observe to what extent different types of fully online pragmatics instruction are useful considering that teaching mixed-level classes is quite common in EFL contexts.

Table 3

Demographic information about the participants

	Teacher-led Group		Self-paced Group		Total	
	f (n)	p (%)	f (n)	p (%)	f (n)	p (%)
<u>Gender</u>						
Female	7	35	4	20	11	27.5
Male	13	65	16	80	39	72.5
Total	20	100	20	100	40	100
<u>Age</u>						
19-21	8	40	12	60	20	50
22-24	9	45	6	30	15	37.5
Over 24	3	15	2	10	5	12.5
Total	20	100	20	100	40	100
<u>Proficiency</u>						
A2	7	35	8	40	15	37.5
B1	13	65	12	60	25	62.5
Total	20	100	20	100	40	100
<u>Time spent online in a day</u>						
Less than an hour	1	5	0	0	1	2.5
1-3 hours	6	30	9	45	15	37.5
4-5 hours	8	40	9	45	17	42.5
More than 5 hours	5	25	2	10	7	17.5

Total	20	100	20	100	40	100
-------	----	-----	----	-----	----	-----

There are several reasons for selecting the above-mentioned participants for the current study. The first and foremost, they were all WAT participants. The WAT program is organized by the Department of State in the USA. The program provides college students from various countries to work in the USA during the summer and travel with the money they earned throughout the program. When the participants arrive in the USA, they will have to engage in intercultural encounters and perform a variety of speech acts in a diversity of social contexts. Second, their proficiency level is more appropriate for pragmatics instruction when compared to other learners registered in the course. Third, they volunteered to take part in the study. Lastly, as young adults, they have already developed a particular level of pragmatic awareness in their L1 (Turkish), and are expected to be aware of the significance of pragmatic norms in interaction.

3.3. Data Collection Tools

Since the present study adopted a mixed methods approach, a variety of data collection instruments were utilized. Initially, an online DCT was used as the pre-test and the post-test in both groups in order to reveal different types of treatments on the participants' pragmatic performance. Next, TA tasks performed by the participants before and after the instruction were audio-recorded so as to report on the impact of different types of fully online instruction on the learners' pragmatic awareness. Finally, semi-structured interviews were conducted with the participants in the self-paced group to question their perceptions of learning pragmatics through digitally-mediated self-access materials. The section below presents detailed information about the DCT, the TA interventions, and the semi-structured interviews used in this study.

3.3.1. DCT: Although Wolfson (1981) argues that speech acts “must be observed in naturalistic settings in order for analysis to be valid” (p. 7), it is not always possible to gather naturalistic data for research purposes due to several challenges. Felix-Brasdefer (2010) listed these challenges by reviewing the literature. First of all, it is difficult to keep sociolinguistic variables under control. Second, it may be difficult to observe the desired speech acts outside the classroom in native/non-native speaker interactions. Third, some speech acts are less frequent than others. Fourth, it is quite challenging to find native speakers to communicate with non-native speakers in a wide array of contexts. As a consequence, DCTs have been favored by the majority of scholars for research purposes, even though the responses to DCTs may not fully reflect real-life speech act performance (Cohen & Olshtain, 1994). Moreover, it is worth noting that a number of recommendations have been made in the literature in order to overcome the validity concerns in DCTs.

There are several reasons to utilize DCT as the data collection tool in the present research. First of all, DCTs are frequently used so as to measure the speech act performance of L2 learners in ILP research. In addition, it enables the researcher to keep the contextual variables in situations under control unlike the naturalistic data (Golato, 2003). It is also practical because it allows for quick collection of large amount of data (Beebe & Cummings, 1985).

A DCT typically involves items in which the description of a situation is introduced and followed by an incomplete dialogue. The respondent is asked to write what they would say in the given context to complete the dialogue. It is also common to find DCTs in which only the situations are presented without a dialogue. In the current study, the DCT consisted of 12 items varying in terms of contextual variables such as social distance, power distance, and rank of imposition. In addition, each item presented a blank turn and a rejoinder. The participants were expected to evaluate the given context and perform an appropriate request complying with the rejoinder (Zingir-Gülten, 2021). The DCT was shared with the participants through Nearpod. The full version of the DCT is presented in Appendix 2.

The items were designed in three phases in order to address the validity issues related to the DCT. First, twenty-four items were prepared by the researcher. These items were sent to 10 individuals who had participated in the WAT previously. They were asked to rate the situations from 1 (less likely to occur in WAT) to 6 (most likely to occur in WAT). The most realistic situations were selected for the final version of the DCT. That is, the DCT items represented scenarios the participants were likely to come across during their WAT experience. In the second phase, the DCT was shared with 12 experts, one of whom held a PhD in ILP and

contributed to the field with numerous articles, the three of whom were native speakers of American English teaching English in Turkey, and the others were English language teachers who took a course on pragmatics at MA level and teaching at English preparatory programs of different universities in Turkey. They were asked to comment on the clarity of situations by considering the participants' proficiency level as well as authenticity. Based on the feedback provided by the experts, modifications were made to the wording of the DCT items. Additionally, the content of items was enriched by providing more contextual information. The same DCT was used in the pre-test and the post-test. However, the sequence of the items was changed in the post-test so as to decrease familiarity. In their study comparing the effect of traditional DCT and content-enriched DCT on the elicited data, Billmyer and Varghese (2000) reported that the data obtained from such an enrichment is likely to demonstrate "more robust external modification and elaboration than do the archetypal content-poor prompts which most DCT studies to date have used" (p. 543). In the third phase, the final version of the DCT was pilot-tested with volunteer students who were not the actual participants of the study. However, they were similar to the actual participants in terms of their proficiency level and demographic background. This pilot testing enabled the researcher to understand whether the items needed further modification in terms of clarity and if it measured what it aimed to measure.

In terms of reliability, the internal consistency of the DCT employed in the study was found to be highly reliable with a Cronbach Alpha value of .91. Additionally, the participants' responses to DCT were scored by two American native speakers of English based on pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics independently. Pragmalinguistic accuracy was assessed over 2. If the request produced by the participants was linguistically accurate, they were allocated 2 points, if the request was partly accurate, they received 1, and if it was linguistically inaccurate, they got zero. On the other hand, sociopragmatic appropriateness was assessed by means of a 5 point Likert scale, 1 meaning very inappropriate to 5 meaning very appropriate. That is, whereas the highest pragmalinguistic test score that a participant could receive was 24 (2x12), the highest possible sociopragmatic score was 60 (5x12). The raters were both ELT specialists teaching English in Turkey and American native speakers of English. In order for the calculation of interrater reliability, intraclass correlation coefficient was measured. The intraclass correlation coefficient values for pragmalinguistic test scores in the pre-test and the post-test were found to be .77 and .92 respectively, indicating a high level of reliability (Bobak, Barr & O'Malley, 2018). Additionally, the intraclass correlation coefficient values for sociopragmatic tests scores in the pre-test and post-test appeared to be .63 and .84 respectively.

Whereas the former indicates a moderate level of reliability, the latter represents a high level of reliability (ibid.).

3.3.2. TA Tasks: TA protocols, also known as concurrent verbal reports, were first used in cognitive psychology and later began to be employed in other fields including ILP. The purpose of TA protocols is simply to shed light on the cognitive processes involved, which cannot be elicited from the production data, during the completion of particular tasks. In TA protocols, participants were asked to complete the given tasks, during which they were asked to think aloud at the same time (see Appendix 3).

There are a number of reasons that led this study to include TA protocols. In this research, TA tasks were employed in order to reveal the participants' awareness of pragmatic features before and after the treatment. There seems to be a gap in the literature in terms of the studies employing TA tasks so as to investigate pragmatic awareness of L2 learners of English. Additionally, TA tasks are likely to contribute to the validation of the data obtained from the DCTs (Felix-Brasdefer, 2010).

The task types were taken from Timpe-Laughlin et al. (2021) and the scenarios for the tasks in the study were crafted by the researcher. The TA intervention consisted of 4 types of pragmatic tasks. In the first type of tasks, the learners were asked to read three dialogues and respond to three questions. In this task, the learners were expected to identify the requests in the dialogues and evaluate its appropriateness in the given context by answering the given questions. In the second task, three scenarios were presented to the learners and they were asked to rate how polite the WAT participants in the scenarios should be on a scale from 1 to 10. This task aimed at revealing to what extent the learners evaluate the given context and decide on the appropriate level of linguistic politeness. In the third task, an e-mail including a request was introduced to the learners. The request was written in bold. They were asked to comment on the appropriateness of the request and express how they would perform it if it needed any revisions. In the final task, they were given a typical DCT which involved the description of a situation followed with a dialogue including a blank turn and a rejoinder. The learners were asked to complete the dialogue by performing a request for the blank turn. In order to avoid anxiety, the participants were allowed to speak in Turkish while completing TA tasks. However, all the participants completed the tasks by combining Turkish and English.

Similar to the design process of the DCT, the TA tasks were also shared with the same experts and native speakers. They were asked to provide comments on the content and the authenticity of the scenarios. After the feedback was gathered from them, minor modifications were made to the tasks accordingly.

3.3.3. Semi-structured Interviews: Interviewing is a useful data collection method to probe one's experiences and views on a specific topic. Furthermore, there seems to be a significant growth in the use of interviews in applied linguistics research (Mann, 2011). Although there are different ways to implement interviews, this study deployed semi-structured interviews. As Adams (2015) puts it, a semi-structured interview “employs a blend of closed- and open-ended questions, often accompanied by follow-up why or how questions” (p. 493). In the present study, the semi-structured interviews were conducted with the participants in the self-paced group so as to reveal their views on the use of digitally-mediated self-access materials for learning pragmatics by drawing on their experience throughout the treatment process (See Appendix 4 for the interview questions). Pre-planned open-ended questions required follow-up questions to allow for the collection of more in-depth data. That is why semi-structured interviews were considered to be the best fit for the current research rather than structured or open interviews.

3.4. Data Collection Procedure

The data collection procedure took place over 5 weeks. In the first week, all the participants were given the demographic questionnaire via e-mail. After the completion of the questionnaire, all the participants took the online Oxford Placement Test. According to their scores on the test, they were assigned to teacher-led and self-paced groups. After the distribution of the participants to the groups, an independent samples t-test was administered to reveal whether the groups were significantly different in terms of the participants' level of proficiency. The t-test result reported no significant difference between the two groups ($p > .05$).

In the second week, the DCT was sent to the participants as a Nearpod URL. The DCT functioned as the pre-test and aimed to measure to what extent the participants were likely to produce appropriate request in various situations with their existing knowledge. The participants were told to skip the scenarios without providing an answer if they were not likely to come up with one. Some of the participants were excluded from the study due to their high scores in the pre-test. After they had completed the DCT, all the participants were invited to meet with the researcher online one-on-one for the first TA (TA1) protocols. All the participants were trained on how to conduct TA tasks before the one-on-one meetings took place. The training session lasted about 15 minutes. TA1 protocols lasted for 20-25 minutes. Zoom was the medium of communication for the TAs. All the TAs were video-recorded for the analysis.

The third and the fourth week were devoted to the instruction. Both groups got exposed to fully online instruction. Five separate interactive lesson contents were prepared through

Nearpod. The Nearpod contents were enriched with the potentialities of other web 2.0 tools such as Canva infographics, Wordwall quizzes, Padlet discussions, and plotagon movies. However, the teacher-led group benefited from teacher presence during the online sessions which took place through Nearpod-integrated ZOOM whilst the self-paced group completed the exact same activities through digitally mediated self-access lesson contents provided via Nearpod. The activity contents on Nearpod can be completed on a computer or smaller devices such as tablets and smartphones. Thus, Nearpod can be considered a fruit of both MALL and CALL technologies. Jeon and Kaya (2006) argued that five hours or more of pragmatics instruction were likely to enhance the pragmatic outcomes of learners. Therefore, the instruction lasted for 5 hours (2 and a half hours each week) in the teacher-led group in total. However, the self-paced group completed the activities on their own pace.

Table 4

The content of Nearpod lessons used as digitally-mediated self-access materials

Nearpod Lesson	Activities involved
1 st Lesson	Video activities (recognizing requests in the videos), metapragmatic explanations, infographics (presentation of different types of requests), awareness raising activities (analysing the context in animated videos through multiple-choice and open-ended questions)
2 nd Lesson	Revision of the first lesson with slides, matching exercises, fill in the blanks exercises, Quiz (multiple-choice questions) providing immediate feedback
3 rd Lesson	Poll activities (rating the appropriateness of requests performed in different contexts), metapragmatic explanations, Multiple-choice DCT providing immediate feedback
4 th Lesson	Quiz (revision of the previous lessons) providing immediate feedback, providing alternative requests for different situations, Oral DCT followed with sample answers
5 th Lesson	Role-play DCTs enhanced with animated videos and followed with sample answers, analyzing e-mails to higher authority, e-mail writing

The activities were shared through Nearpod with the learners as five different lesson contents (see Appendix 6 for sample activities and metapragmatic explanations). The sequencing of the tasks was done based on Robinson's (2005) hypothesis. He claimed that moving from simple to complex tasks contributes to learners' noticing the targeted language features and results in more accurate and fluent spoken production. That is, all the activities were sequenced from easy to complex. Furthermore, the activities were designed in accordance with the recommendations made in the literature. The instruction involved pragmatic awareness raising activities, metapragmatic explanations, request production activities, and feedback. Furthermore, the intervention was enriched by means of authentic audio-visual clips from TV shows and short animated movies prepared by the researcher through the Plotagon application.

In the fifth week, all the participants completed the DCT again as the post-test. After the completion of the DCT, all the participants met with the researcher online through zoom for the second TA (TA2) protocols. Afterwards, the learners in the self-paced group were asked if they would take part in the interviews to further support the study. All the participants in the self-paced group volunteered to take part in the interviews. Semi-structured interviews were conducted with them by means of zoom. The interviews took about 12-15 minutes. All the interviews were video-recorded for analysis.

Table 5

Data collection procedure

Week	Applications		
Week 1	The completion of demographic questionnaire, the administration of the online Oxford Placement Test, and the distribution of the participants to the groups		
	<u>Teacher-led Group</u>	<u>Self-paced Group</u>	<u>Both Groups</u>
Week 2			the DCT as the pre-test and the TA1 protocols
Weeks 3 and 4	Pragmatics instruction through CMC by the teacher	Self-paced guided learning through digitally-mediated access materials	pragmatics through self-

Week 5	Semi-structured interviews	the DCT as the post-test and TA2 protocols
--------	----------------------------	--

3.5. Data Analysis

3.5.1. Analysis of the DCTs: DCT results were utilized so as to reveal the answers to the research questions regarding the impact of different types of fully online pragmatics instruction on EFL learners pragmatic performance. In order to find out what statistical tests to use to this end, Shapiro-Wilk test results, histogram graphs, as well as skewness and kurtosis values were examined. Table 6 shows the Shapiro-Wilk test results, and skewness and kurtosis values obtained from the learners' pragmlinguistic and sociopragmatic scores in both the pre-test and the post-test.

Table 6

The normality test results of the variables in each group

Test	Type of scoring	Group	n	Shapiro -Wilk	p	Skewness	Kurtosis
Pretest	Pragmlinguistics	Teacher-led	20	.901	.042	-.76	-.22
		Self-paced	20	.954	.432	-.50	-.35
	Sociopragmatics	Teacher-led	20	.969	.731	-.29	.38
		Self-paced	20	.956	.466	-.11	-.68
Posttest	Pragmlinguistics	Teacher-led	20	.966	.675	.22	.01
		Self-paced	20	.938	.220	-.80	1.04
	Sociopragmatics	Teacher-led	20	.878	.016	-.98	-.01
		Self-paced	20	.963	.607	.07	-.89

As shown in Table 6, Shapiro-Wilk test results reported that pragmlinguistic and sociopragmatic test scores of the self-paced group in both the pre-test and the post-test met the normality assumptions ($p > .05$). Thus, paired samples t-tests were conducted to find out the impact of self-paced learning through digitally-mediated self-access materials on EFL learners' pragmatic performance regarding pragmlinguistics and sociopragmatics. When the Shapiro-

Wilk test results for the teacher-led group were examined, it was found that the data regarding pragmalinguistic scores in the pre-test and sociopragmatic scores in the post-test were not distributed normally ($p < .05$). However, Kline (2000) stated that skewness and kurtosis values being between -2 and +2 allowed for parametric tests. Therefore, paired samples t-tests were administered to indicate the impact of teacher-led fully online pragmatics instruction.

Furthermore, the request head acts were analyzed based on Schauer's (2009) internal modification strategies in order to reveal a more comprehensive view of the changes in the learners' production of requests. Schauer's (ibid.) coding scheme for internal modifiers is presented in Appendix 5. The internal modification strategies employed by the learners in the pre-test and the post-test were visualized through graphs so as to demonstrate the changes more clearly. Furthermore, paired samples t-tests were run to see whether statistically significant changes occurred in the learners' use of syntactic and lexical downgraders from the pre-test to the post-test.

In order to find out whether there was a statistically significant difference between the two groups in terms of their improvement of pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic scores, the pre-test scores were first subtracted from the post-test scores. Later, Shapiro-Wilk test results and skewness and kurtosis values were tabulated (see Table 7). As seen in the table, the data regarding the improvement of pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic scores in the two groups were found to be normally distributed ($p > .05$). Next, an independent samples t-test, which is parametric test, was administered due to the normal distribution of the data.

Table 7

The normality test results for the development of pragmatic performance in both groups

Area of improvement	Group	n	Shapiro -Wilk	p	Skewness	Kurtosis
Pragmalinguistics	Teacher-led	20	.989	.997	-.09	.14
	Self-paced	20	.962	.590	.69	.18
Sociopragmatics	Teacher-led	20	.942	.257	.31	-.07
	Self-paced	20	.964	.620	-.18	-.54

3.5.2. Analysis of the TA Protocols: In order for the analysis of the data obtained from the TA protocols, all the TAs were transcribed verbatim. After the transcription process, the sense units in the data were coded for pragmatic-related episodes (PREs) based on the coding scheme of Timpe-Laughlin et al. (2021). PREs were defined as “any part of language production where learners talk about the pragmalinguistic forms they are producing and the sociopragmatic factors they are attending to (e.g., setting and interlocutor relationship), question their pragmatic language use, or correct themselves or others” (Kim & Taguchi, 2016, p.4). Timpe-Laughlin et al.’s (2021) coding framework classified PREs under 5 categories: orientation to situation, orientation to context variables, orientation to face, orientation to pragmalinguistics, and orientation to mode. The same coding scheme was utilized in order to allow for comparisons between the findings of the two studies. However, the former study involved scenarios taking place in the US work place domain only. In the present study, the scenarios varied in terms of the context. Thus, a few modifications were made to the scheme such as the exclusion of the codes which were absent in the data. After the coding of the PREs, the frequency counts for each category were tabulated. Later, it was apparent that the administration of statistical tests would be necessary in order to see whether statistically significant changes occurred in the instances of PREs in each category from TA1 to TA2.

Table 8

The normality test results of the PREs in TA1 and TA2 protocols

Orientation to...	TA	Group	Shapiro-Wilk	p	Skewness	Kurtosis
Situation	TA1	Teacher-led	.134	.200	.15	-.65
		Self-paced	.256	.001	-1.22	1.38
	TA2	Teacher-led	.182	.083	-.20	-1.44
		Self-paced	.127	.200	-.11	.54
Context Variables	TA1	Teacher-led	.309	.000	1.27	1.35
		Self-paced	.261	.001	1.01	.54
	TA2	Teacher-led	.183	.079	.68	.27
		Self-paced	.180	.091	-1.06	2.15

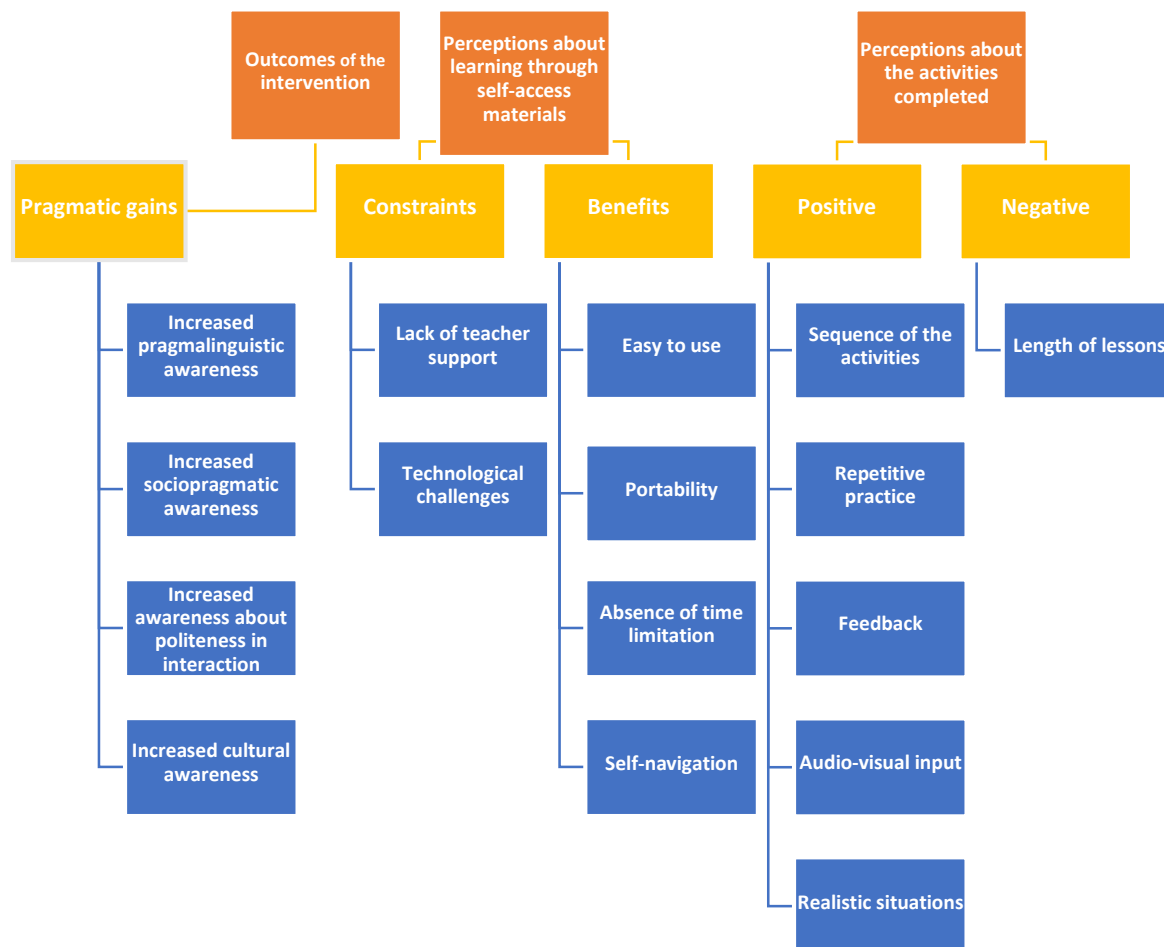
Face	TA1	Teacher-led	.463	.000	1.25	-.50
		Self-paced	.438	.000	.95	-1.24
	TA2	Teacher-led	.487	.000	1.62	.70
		Self-paced	.463	.000	1.25	-.50
Pragmalinguistics	TA1	Teacher-led	.211	.020	-.22	-.59
		Self-paced	.205	.028	-.49	-1.00
	TA2	Teacher-led	.218	.014	.06	.68
		Self-paced	.272	.000	.18	1.43
Mode	TA1	Teacher-led	.509	.000	2.12	2.78
		Self-paced	-	-	-	-
	TA2	Teacher-led	.509	.000	2.12	2.78
		Self-paced	.538	.000	4.47	20.00

Thus, normality tests were first conducted to determine the statistical test types which would be administered later. Table 8 presents the normality test results regarding the PREs in each category in TA1 and TA2 protocols. Based on the Shapiro-Wilk test results and the skewness and kurtosis values, either paired samples test or Wilcoxin signed rank test was administrated to find out whether the changes in the instances of the PREs from TA1 to TA2 were statistically significant.

3.5.3. Analysis of the Interviews: In order to question the self-paced group participants' (n=20) perceptions of using digitally-mediated self-access materials to learn about pragmatics, the data obtained from the semi-structured interviews were utilized. For the analysis of the semi-structured interviews conducted with the self-paced group, all the interviews were first transcribed verbatim. Later, content analysis was employed to categorize the messages conveyed by the participants throughout the interview.

Figure 2

The themes, categories, and codes emerged from the semi-structured interviews



CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

The present study aimed to reveal the answers to six specific research questions. The investigation compared the impact of two types of fully online pragmatics instruction procedures: learning through (1) teacher-led online sessions by means of synchronous CMC, and (2) self-paced digitally-mediated self-access materials. In this chapter, the results of the study, which were obtained by means of both qualitative and quantitative data collection methods, will be introduced. The findings are presented under three main headings. The results regarding research questions 1, 2 and 3 will be documented under the heading “Results Regarding the Development of Pragmatic Performance” while the findings related to research questions 4 and 5 will be reported under the heading “Results Regarding the Development of Pragmatic Awareness”. Finally, the results involving research question 6 will be displayed under the heading “Results Regarding the Learners’ Perceptions of Learning Pragmatics through Self-Access Materials”.

4.1. Results Regarding the Development of Pragmatic Performance

In this section, the results obtained from the pre-test and the post-test given to both the teacher-led group, who were guided by the teacher through computer mediation, and self-paced group, who engaged with digitally-mediated self-access materials for self-paced pragmatics learning, will be presented in detail. In addition, further explanations will be made to report the findings related to the development of request speech act production of the participants in both groups.

4.1.1. Teacher-Led Group: The first research question scrutinized the efficacy of teacher-led fully online pragmatics instruction through CMC for the development of EFL learners’ pragmatic performance. In order to reveal the answer to the first research question, a DCT was administrated as the pre-test and the-post-test. Next, descriptive statistics of the pre-test and the post-test results were tabulated in order to display the development from the pre-test to the post-test. Finally, a paired-samples t-test was employed in order to find out whether the treatment made a statistically significant difference from the pre-test to the post-test.

As mentioned earlier, the learners’ responses to the DCT items were scored separately for pragmlinguistics and socio-pragmatics by two American native speaker teachers. Table 9 indicates the descriptive statistics of the pre-test and the post-test results of the teacher-led group in terms of pragmlinguistics and sociopragmatics. The table displayed that the

participants improved their pragmalinguistic performance from the pre-test ($\bar{X}=12.20$, $SD=4.11$) to the post-test ($\bar{X}=14.65$, $SD= 3.21$). That is, pragmatics instruction through teacher-led CMC helped learners produce more linguistically accurate requests. Likewise, the participants were more successful in terms of realizing the sociocultural variables and performing requests accordingly in the post-test ($\bar{X}=38.70$, $SD=5.86$) than in the pre-test ($\bar{X}=28.85$, $SD=5.61$).

Table 9

Descriptive statistics of the pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic test scores of the teacher-led group

Test		\bar{X}	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pre-test	Pragmalinguistic Scores	12.20	4.11	.91
	Sociopragmatic Scores	28.85	5.61	1.25
Post-test	Pragmalinguistic Scores	14.65	3.21	0.71
	Sociopragmatic Scores	38.70	5.86	1.31

Table 10

Paired samples t-test results of the teacher-led group

Test	Paired Differences Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pragmalinguistics	2.45	3.92	.87	2.79	19	.01
Sociopragmatics	9.85	7.77	1.73	5.66	19	.00

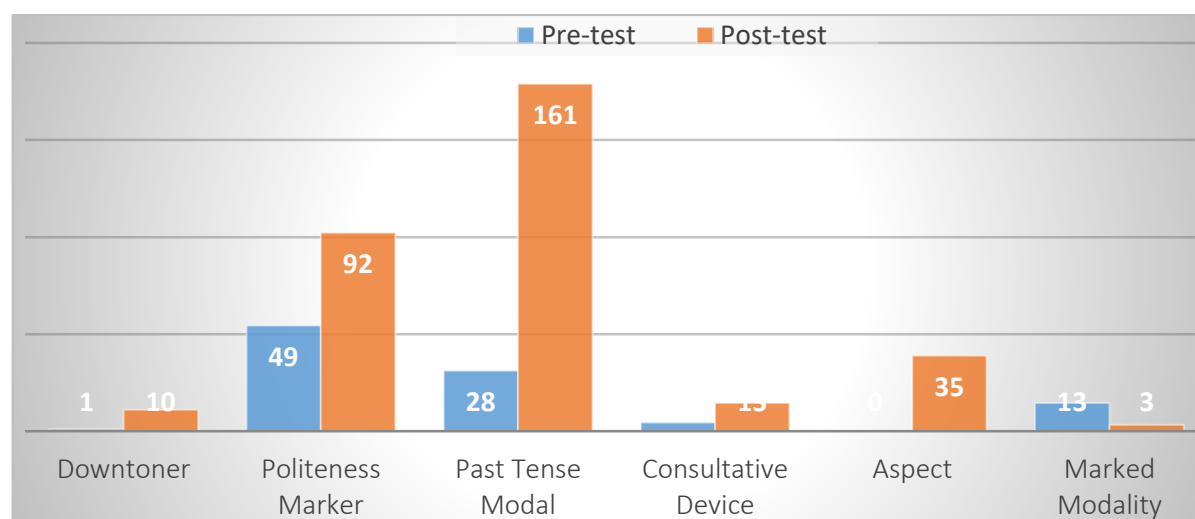
Table 10 signposts the results of the paired samples t-test which was conducted to measure whether the aforementioned increase in the learners' pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic test scores from the pre-test to the post-test was statistically significant.

According to Table 10, the learners in the teacher-led group significantly improved their pragmalinguistic performance ($t_{(19)} = 2.79, p=.01 <.05$). Yet, the effect size was found to be medium (Cohen's $d=.62$). Additionally, a statistically significant difference was observed in terms of sociopragmatic development ($t_{(19)} = 5.66, p=.00 <.05$), with Cohen's d of 1.26, which indicated a very large effect size. The calculation of effect size was based on Sawilowsky (2009).

The learners' responses to DCT scenarios were also analyzed qualitatively based on Schauer's (2009) classification of request modification strategies. Internal modifiers, both syntactic and lexical downgraders, were analyzed manually to shed light on the changes made to request head acts after the treatment. This analysis was expected to reveal a more comprehensive picture of the changes that occurred in request head acts with the help of pragmatics instruction through teacher-led CMC. Figure 3 visualizes the frequency of lexical downgraders in the teacher-led group learners' corpus of the pre-test and the post-test.

Figure 3

The use of lexical downgraders in the pre-test and the post-test by the teacher-led group



As Figure 3 demonstrates, the most frequent lexical downgrader found in the pre-test data was the politeness marker *please* ($n=49$). Although the instances of politeness markers appeared to have increased after the treatment ($n=92$), the learners started employing different lexical modifiers as well. For instance, the learners were more likely to utilize past tense modal verbs such as *could* and *would* in the post-test ($n=161$) when compared to the pre-test corpus ($n=28$). Similarly, no instances of aspect as a lexical modifier was found in the pre-test data whereas 35 instances were observed in the post-test data. That is, the learners seemed to have learned about how the progressive form of a verb can mitigate the imposition of requests.

Likewise, the instances of downtoners, the sentence adverbials such as *maybe* and *possibly*, increased from the pre-test (n=1) to the post-test (n=10). Furthermore, consultative device was found to be more common in the post-test (n=13) than the pre-test (n=4). As different from the other lexical modifiers, marked modality was the only one that showed a decrease in frequency from the pre-test (n=13) to the post-test (n=3). Even though marked modality was also introduced as a lexical modifier during the treatment, the learners tended to employ the newly-learned pragmalinguistic strategies in the post-test.

The statistical information presented in Figure 3 demonstrated the changes in the use of different lexical downgraders; however, it could not report whether there was a statistically significant difference in the amount of lexical downgraders from the pre-test to the post-test. Thus, a paired samples t-test was run to achieve this. The test results presented in Table 11 revealed a statistically significant difference between the frequency of lexical downgraders in the pre-test and the post-test ($t_{(19)} = 8.77$, $p=.00 < .05$). That is, the learners employed significantly more lexical downgraders in the post-test ($\bar{X}=15.60$) than the pre-test ($\bar{X}=4.75$).

Table 11

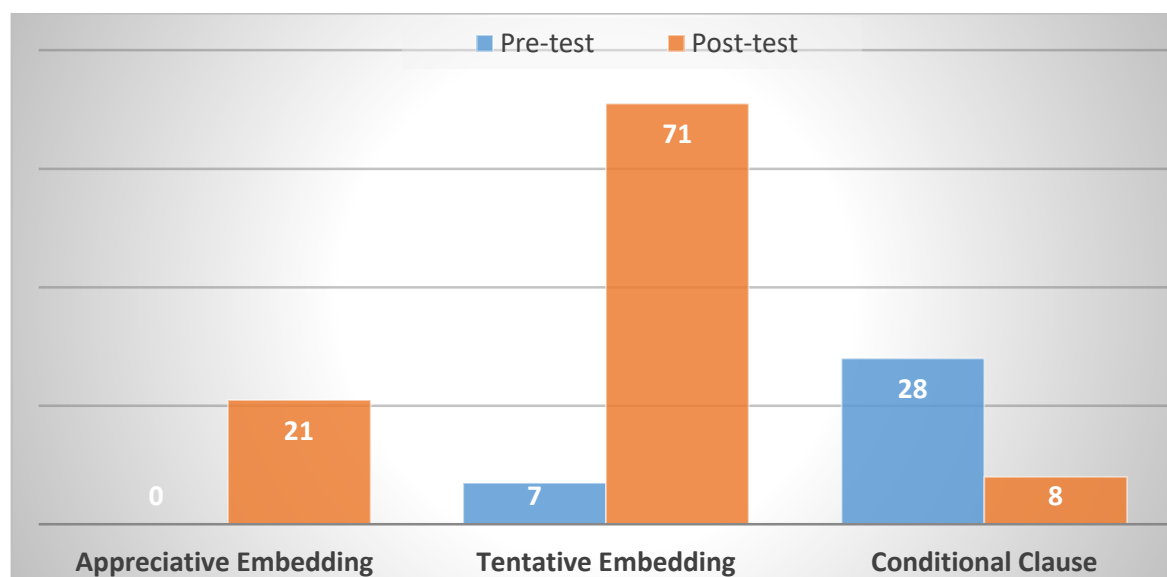
Comparison of the instances of the lexical downgraders in the pre-test and the post-test for teacher-led group

Test	n	\bar{X}	S	t	Sd	p
Pre-test	20	4.75	3.19	8.77	19	.00
Post-test	20	15.60	4.18			

As shown in Figure 4, teacher-led fully online pragmatics instruction through CMC also helped learners develop their use of syntactic downgraders. Whereas no instances of appreciative embedding were found in the pre-test, they started employing appreciative embedding as a syntactic downgrader in the post-test (n=21). Furthermore, they significantly improved their use of tentative embedding as a syntactic downgrader from the pre-test (n=7) to the post-test (n=71). However, they were less likely to employ conditional clauses to mitigate their requests after the intervention (n=8) when compared to the pre-test corpus (n=28).

Figure 4

The use of syntactic downgraders in the pre-test and the post-test by the teacher-led group

**Table 12**

Comparison of the instances of the syntactic downgraders in the pre-test and the post-test for teacher-led group

Test	n	\bar{X}	S	t	Sd	p
Pre-test	20	1.75	2.02	6.68	19	.00
Post-test	20	5.00	1.77			

In order to find out whether the changes in the frequency of syntactic downgraders in the pre-test and the post-test were statistically significant, a paired samples t-test was employed. As depicted in Table 12, test results revealed a statistically significant difference ($t_{(19)} = 6.68$, $p = .00 < .05$). The learners performed more syntactic downgraders in the post-test ($\bar{X} = 5.00$) than the pre-test ($\bar{X} = 1.75$).

4.1.2. Self-Paced Group: Research question 2 probed the impact of self-paced learning of pragmatics through digitally-mediated self-access materials on the participants' use of the features of pragmatics. The above-mentioned steps were followed to this end. That is, descriptive statistics of the self-paced groups' pre-test and post-test results were tabulated and a paired samples t-test was applied.

Table 13 demonstrates the descriptive statistics of the self-paced group's pre-test and post-test results. The results indicate that the learners in the self-paced group appear to have

been better at performing pragmalinguistic resources accurately in the post-test ($\bar{X}=17.30$, $SD=3.88$) when compared to their responses in the pre-test ($\bar{X}=12.10$, $SD= 3.44$). Table 13 also shows that the learners advanced their sociopragmatic test scores from the pre-test ($\bar{X}=31.65$, $SD=5.59$) to the post-test ($\bar{X}=42.25$, $SD=5.10$).

Table 13

Descriptive statistics of the self-paced group

Test		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pre-test	Pragmalinguistic Scores	12.10	3.44	.77
	Sociopragmatic Scores	31.65	5.59	1.25
Post-test	Pragmalinguistic Scores	17.30	3.88	0.86
	Sociopragmatic Scores	42.25	5.10	1.14

Table 14

Paired samples t-test result of the self-paced group

Test	Paired Differences Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
Pragmalinguistics	5.20	4.14	.92	5.60	19	.00
Sociopragmatics	10.60	5.12	1.14	9.25	19	.00

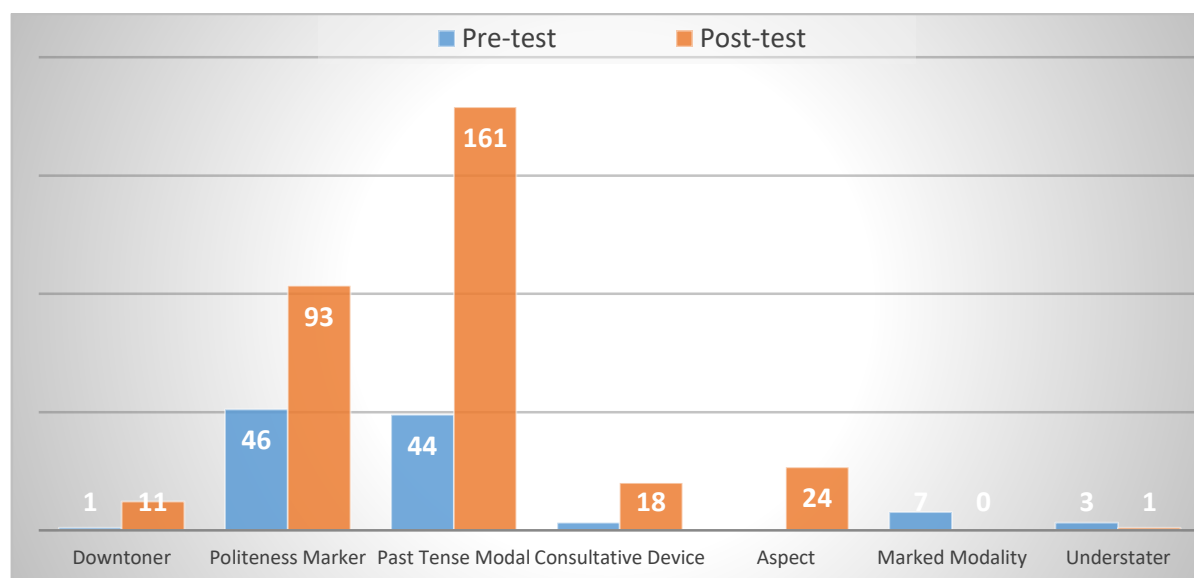
Table 14 displays the paired samples t-test results of the self-paced group. The findings reveal that the learners appear to have benefited significantly from the digitally-mediated self-access materials in terms of pragmalinguistics and showed a statistically significant improvement during the time span from the pre-test to the post-test ($t_{(19)} = 5.60$, $p=.00 < .05$). Additionally, the effect size appeared to be very large for pragmalinguistic development (Cohen's $d=1.25$, Sawilowsky, 2009). Similarly, the findings also showed that the self-paced

lessons through digitally-mediated self-access materials resulted in statistically significant changes in the learners' sociopragmatic performance ($t_{(19)} = 9.25, p = .00 < .05$) with a huge effect size (Cohen's $d = 2.07$, Sawilowsky, 2009).

In order to provide the reader with a more informative analysis of the changes in the learners' performance, the use of internal modifiers was also looked at. Such analysis was useful to display the changes in the head act of the requests following the learners' engagement with digitally-mediated self-access materials. Figure 5 demonstrates the instances of the use of lexical downgraders in the pre-test and the post-test data.

Figure 5

The use of lexical downgraders in the pre-test and the post-test by the self-paced group



As Figure 5 shows, the most common lexical downgrader was the politeness marker *please* in the pre-test ($n = 46$) similar to the teacher-led group. Similarly, the figure demonstrates that the learners were aware of the use of past form of modal verbs to soften requests in the pre-test ($n = 44$) to some extent. Yet, it is noteworthy that they significantly increased their use of both politeness markers ($n = 93$) and past tense modals ($n = 161$) in the post-test. The use of downtoners increased in time from just one occurrence in the pre-test to 11 in the post-test. Similarly, an increase in the number of consultative devices was documented from just 3 in the pre-test to 18 in the post-test. While no instance of aspect was reported in the pre-test data, the learners used the progressive form of the verb to soften their requests 24 times in the post-test. As opposed to the above-mentioned lexical downgraders, the use of marked modality and understaters decreased. Whereas the analysis revealed 7 uses of marked modality in the pre-test, the learners stopped using *may* as the modal verb in the post-test. As in the teacher-led

group, this can be regarded as a result of their willingness to perform newly-learnt strategies. As different from the teacher-led group, the pre-test (n=3) and the post-test (n=1) corpus of the self-paced group also involved a small number of understaters. This is not surprising since no particular attention was paid to the use of understaters in the digitally mediated self-access materials.

Moreover, a paired-samples t-test was run to find out whether there was a statistically significant difference between the number of the uses of lexical downgraders in the pre-test and the post-test. As demonstrated in Table 15, the test results showed statistically significant increase in the use of lexical down graders after the treatment ($t_{(19)} = 10.12$, $p=.00 <.05$).

Table 15

Comparison of the instances of the lexical downgraders in the pre-test and the post-test for self-paced group

Test	n	\bar{X}	S	t	Sd	p
Pre-test	20	5.20	3.10	10.12	19	0.00
Post-test	20	15.30	3.71			

Figure 6

The use of syntactic downgraders in the pre-test and the post-test by the self-paced group

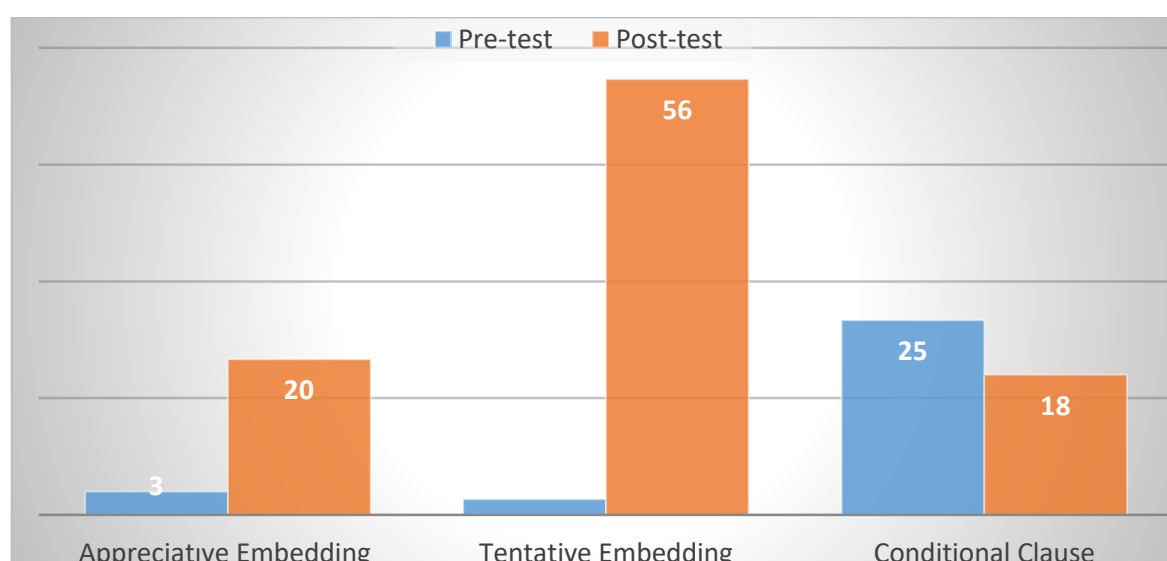


Figure 6 indicates the instances of syntactic downgraders in the pre-test and the post-test data of the self-paced group. As shown in the figure, few instances of appreciative embedding ($n=3$) and tentative embedding ($n=2$) were found in the pre-test data. Yet, the instances of appreciative embedding ($n=20$) and tentative embedding ($n=56$) increased in the post-test. However, similar to the teacher-led group, the use of conditional clauses was less frequent in the post-test data ($n=18$) than the pre-test data ($n=25$).

Another paired samples t-test was conducted to see whether the changes in the instances of syntactic downgraders were statistically significant. Table 16 shows that the learners preferred to use more syntactic downgraders in the post-test ($\bar{X}=1.50$) than in the pre-test ($\bar{X}=4.70$) by comparison. The test results reports that such an increase was statistically significant ($t_{(19)} = 4.85$, $p=0.00 < 0.05$).

Table 16

Comparison of the frequency of the syntactical downgraders in the pre-test and the post-test by the self-paced group

Test	n	\bar{X}	S	t	Sd	p
Pre-test	20	1.50	1.90	4.85	19	0.00
Post-test	20	4.70	2.63			

4.1.3. Comparison of the Development of Teacher-led and Self-paced Groups:

Research question 3 aimed to find out whether there was a statistically significant difference in terms of the development of pragmatic performance between the two groups. To this end, the pre-test scores obtained from the pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic tests were first subtracted from the post-test scores for each participant. Next, Normality assumptions were tested. Since the data were normally distributed based on Kline (2000), independent samples t-tests were run so as to find out whether there was a statistically significant difference in terms of the development in the learners' pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic test scores between the two groups.

As depicted in Table 17, the learners in the self-paced group appeared to have achieved more in terms of both pragmalinguistic test scores ($\bar{X}_{\text{teacher-led}}=2.45$, $\bar{X}_{\text{self-paced}}=5.20$) and sociopragmatic text scores ($\bar{X}_{\text{teacher-led}}=9.85$, $\bar{X}_{\text{self-paced}}=10.60$) when compared to the teacher-led

group. However, the independent samples t-test results given in the table revealed no statistically significant difference in terms of sociopragmatic gains ($p=.72<.05$) of the two groups. On the other hand, independent samples t-test findings indicated that the self-paced group significantly outperformed the teacher-led group in terms of their pragmalinguistic gains ($p=.03<.05$) with Cohen's d of 0.69 signifying medium effect size.

Table 17

The results of independent samples t-tests for pragmatic gains

Test	Group	\bar{X}	Std. Deviation	sd	t	p
Pragmalinguistics	Teacher-led	2.45	3.92	38	-2.15	.03
	Self-paced	5.20	4.14			
Sociopragmatics	Teacher-led	9.85	7.77	38	-.36	.72
	Self-paced	10.60	5.12			

4.2. Results Regarding the Development of Pragmatic Awareness

The study aimed at shedding light on to what extent different types of fully online pragmatics instruction procedures contribute to not only the learners' pragmatic performance but also their ability to verbalize the mental processes they undergo while making pragmatic decisions. In other words, the study questioned the impact of two types of fully online pragmatics instruction procedures on learners' pragmatic awareness as well. Thus, the findings introduced under this heading present the emerging PREs in the TAs the learners performed before and after the treatment. In order to analyze the PREs in the TA protocols, Timpe-Laughlin et al.'s (2021) scheme, which was the outcome of a type of a grounded theory analysis, was utilized. Table 18 shows the coding of PREs emerged in the TA interventions conducted before and after the treatment.

Table 18*Coding categories and frequency counts for PREs in all TAs*

Codes	Sub-codes	Example PREs	Number of PREs			
			Teacher-led group		Self-paced group	
			TA1	TA2	TA1	TA2
Orientation to situation	Reiterating plot	<i>He is in Los Angeles Airport. He goes to the helpdesk. Um, he asked the officer to tell him how he could go to Fresno. I would not say it like that but, um, I think it is an appropriate request. (TA1-Participant 21, Self-paced group).</i>	114	56	91	68
	Evaluating (social) norms, roles, and expectations	<i>Well, this is a formal environment. Um, I think she was supposed to be more polite (TA1-Participant 7, Teacher-led group).</i>	33	29	21	29
	Speculation	<i>Maybe it is a new t-shirt. Um, Maybe, she doesn't want to share</i>	21	14	10	12

		<i>it. We do not know that. (TA2-Participant 17, Teacher-led group).</i>				
Orientation to context variables	Size of the request	<i>She wants to leave early. Well, it is quite a big deal. She still needs to clean two more rooms. Who is going to clean those rooms? (TA2-Participant 6, Teacher-led Group).</i>	11	57	13	94
	Power differences	<i>Okay, she says “if it is ok”, that is good. But, “I need you to” is a bit direct. Um, Deniz is talking to her supervisor. She needs to be more careful when she talks to her supervisor, does not she? (TA2-Participant 38, Self-paced group).</i>	15	92	16	118
	Social Distance	<i>Well, they share the same room for some time. They must be close friends. (TA2- Participant 25, Self-paced group).</i>	29	77	49	89

Orientation to face	-	<i>He needs to be very polite because his roommate may feel offended (TA2- Participant 5, Teacher-led Group).</i>	5	4	6	5
Orientation to pragmalinguistics	-	<i>He says “repeat that, please”. I think it is inappropriate. Um, it may be a little impolite. He says “please” but it is not enough. It sounds weird (TA1-Participant 24, Self-paced group).</i>	62	105	57	105
Orientation to mode	-	<i>This is an e-mail, not a letter so I would attach some photos of my schedule to support my point. You know it is easy to attach photos. You can do it in a few seconds. (TA2- Participant 40, self-paced group).</i>	3	3	0	1

4.2.1. Teacher-Led Group: Research question 4 probed the impact of teacher-led fully online pragmatics instruction by means of CMC on EFL learners' pragmatic awareness. Table 18 indicates that the analysis of the PREs in the TAs in the teacher-led group revealed a sum of 293 instances of PREs in TA1 protocols and a sum of 437 PREs in TA2 protocols. This indicates a significant increase in the total number of PREs from TA1 ($\bar{X}=14.65$, $SD=2.77$) to TA2 ($\bar{X}=21.85$, $SD=4.30$) as depicted in Table 19. Figure 3 visually demonstrates the changes in the instances of different types of PREs from TA1 to TA2.

Table 19

Descriptive statistics of PREs in TA protocols of teacher-led group

Orientation to...	TA protocol	\bar{X}	SD	Minimum	Maximum
Situation	TA1	8.40	1.87	5	12
	TA2	4.95	1.70	5	7
Context Variables	TA1	2.75	1.83	0	5
	TA2	11.30	3.67	7	20
Face	TA1	.25	.44	0	1
	TA2	.20	.41	0	1
Pragmalinguistics	TA1	3.10	1.02	1	3
	TA2	5.25	1.20	5	8
Mode	TA1	.15	.36	0	1
	TA2	.15	.36	0	1
Total	TA1	14.65	2.77	11	14
	TA2	21.85	4.30	20	33

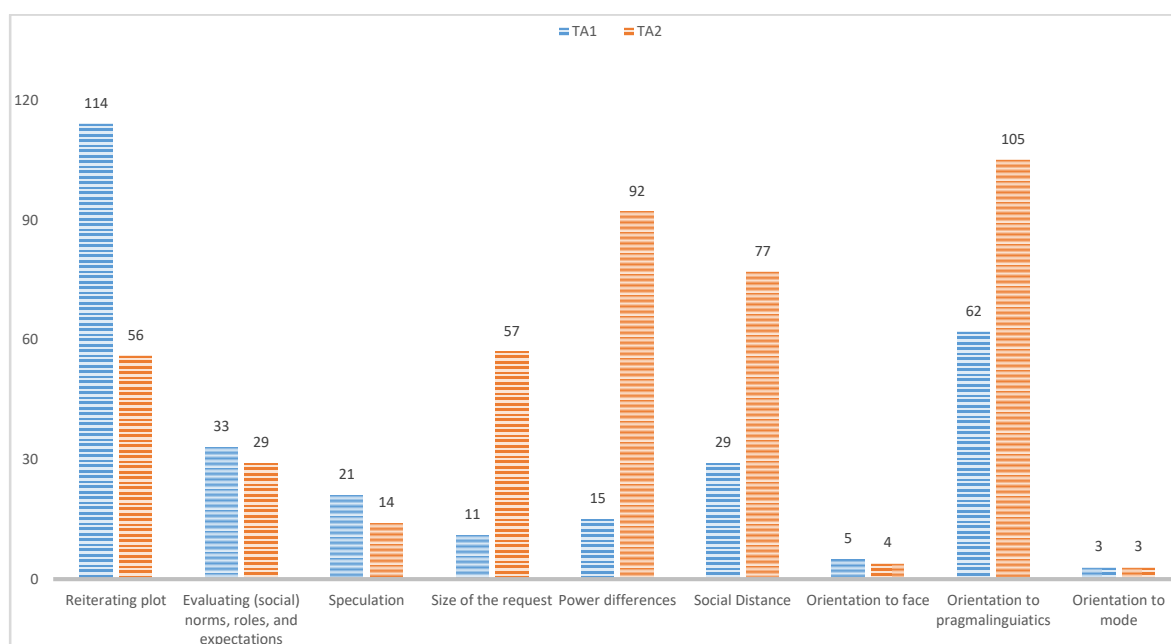
It is noteworthy that no statistically significant changes were observed in the categories *orientation to face* and *orientation to mode*. As Figure 7 indicates, frequency count reported 5 instances of PREs related to face-saving and face-threatening nature of the requests in TA1 protocols and 4 of them in TA2 protocols. Since the data regarding the number of PREs related to face is normally distributed, a paired samples t-test was run to find out whether there was a statistically significant difference in the frequency of the instances of PREs related to face-saving or face-threatening acts from TA1 to TA2. The paired samples t-test results documented no statistically significant difference ($t_{(19)} = .37, p = .71 > .05$).

Frequency count revealed 3 instances of PREs related to the mode of communication given in the scenarios in both TA1 and TA2 protocols as presented in Figure 7. Since the data related to the mode of communication did not meet the normality assumptions, a Wilcoxin signed-rank test was administrated. The test results showed no statistically significant changes from the TA1 to TA2 interventions ($z = .00, p > .05$).

On the other hand, significant changes occurred from TA1 to TA2 in terms of the amount of PREs in the other three categories. Whereas the analysis reported a statistically significant decrease in the frequency of PREs in the category of orientation to situation, statistically significant increases in the number of PREs were reported for two categories: orientation to context variables and orientation to pragmalinguistics.

Figure 7

The changes in the instances of PREs from TA1 to TA2 in teacher-led group



When the results were thoroughly examined, orientation to situation was found to be the most frequent category with a total number of 168 PREs in TA1 protocols ($\bar{X}=8.40$, $SD=1.87$). That is, the participants mostly tended to summarize a part of the given plot, mention the social norms and their related expectations for the situation, or speculate about the given scenario while making their pragmatic decisions. However, frequency count reported a decrease for the instances of the PREs for the given situation in TA2 protocols ($\bar{X}=4.95$, $SD=1.70$). In order to find out whether this decrease was statistically significant, a paired samples t-test was conducted. As shown in Table 20, a statistically significant decrease was found in the number of such PREs from TA1 to TA2 protocols ($t_{(19)} = 11.38$, $p=.00 < .05$).

Table 20

Paired samples t-test results of the PREs related to the given situations in teacher-led group

	n	\bar{X}	S	t	Sd	p
TA1	20	8.40	1.88	11.38	19	.00
TA2	20	4.95	1.70			

Frequency count demonstrated that the majority of the participants failed to recognize the context variables such as the size of request, the power difference, and the social distance between interlocutors in TA1 protocols ($\bar{X}=2.75$, $SD=1.83$). However, they were more likely to address the context variables after the treatment in TA2 protocols ($\bar{X}=11.30$, $SD=3.67$). This is an indication that teacher-led fully online pragmatic instruction through CMC helped learners become more aware of the sociopragmatic aspects that the situations posed. A paired samples t-test was run to reveal whether there was a statistically significant difference between the number of PREs related to context variables in TA1 and TA2 protocols. As Table 21 indicates, the intervention significantly made the learners more aware of the significance of context variables ($t_{(19)} = -11.94$, $p=0.00 < 0.05$).

Table 21

Paired samples t-test results of the PREs related to context variables in teacher-led group

	n	\bar{X}	S	t	Sd	p
TA1	20	2.75	1.83	-11.94	19	.00
TA2	20	11.30	3.67			

In TA1 protocols, the majority of the participants were either unaware of the impact of context variables while making pragmatic decisions or even if they were, they failed to verbalize it. They mostly tended to reiterate the plot and decide whether the given request is appropriate or not. For instance, Participant 16 responded to Task 1.1 as follows:

Excerpt 1

“Well, Ebru is at the US general consulate in Istanbul. The officer asks him where she would like to see the most but she does not understand. “Repeat that, please”. This is the request. Um, she nicely asks the officer to repeat the question. She says “please”. I think it is appropriate”. (TA1, Participant 16)

In the scenario, a WAT participant is having a visa interview at the US general consulate in Istanbul and cannot understand the question. As can be seen in the excerpt give above, the participant failed to assess the effect of the context variables. Instead, he explained what he understood from the dialogue and labelled “repeat that, please” as an appropriate request for the given context. As can be understood from the excerpt, the politeness marker *please* helped him to recognize the request. Yet, he thought that saying *please* would be enough to soften the direct request in the visa interview. That is, the participant seemed to ignore the social distance and the power distance between the speakers. However, he successfully explained the contextual variables for the same scenario in TA2. That is, the treatment helped the participant become more aware of the significance of social factors such as power differences and social relationship.

Excerpt 2

“... Ebru says that she does not understand the question. Then, she directly asks the officer to repeat the question. Um, the person she is talking to has a higher status

because, um, he is the one who will approve her visa, um, and they do not know each other. She can ask him to repeat the question more politely. But, this is not a very big request so she does not need to be very very polite.” (TA2, Participant 16)

Some participants speculated about the given situation and failed to notice the sociopragmatic norms in TA1 protocols. That is, they either talked about the probable consequences of the given situation or commented on possible thoughts or emotions of the interlocutors. For example, Participant 2’s response to the Task 2.1, in which the learners were given a situation and asked to rate the politeness level of the request that should be performed on a scale of 1 to 10, is as follows:

Excerpt 3

“Um, here I would say 8. In my opinion, she should be polite on a scale of 8 or 10. Um, she should be very polite. Um, because, um this is my opinion. I do not know. Um, because, Sinem may feel embarrassed. The Russian girl may not want to lend her t-shirt. I mean, um, she can’t just go and say something simple. I think this is an embarrassing request. She needs to be polite.” (TA1, Participant 2)

In the scenario, a Turkish WAT participant wants to borrow a t-shirt from her roommate with whom she has a close relationship. As the excerpt displays, Participant 2 expressed that the WAT student was supposed to be very polite. However, he paused a lot while trying to come up with a fair reason to support his view. Apparently, he did not consider context variables such as the relationship of interlocutors and imposition to make a reasonable appropriate decision. Instead, he commented on the emotional state of the speaker. He regarded being too polite as an indication of embarrassment. This decision might be based on the Participant 2’s identity and personal beliefs since he obviously considers not having a clean t-shirt as an embarrassing situation. However, he appeared to be more aware of the intimacy of the interlocutors and the imposition of the request in TA2.

Excerpt 4

“It (the given situation) says they are good friends. Um, for example, she can explain the situation. For example, um, she can say ‘I did not have time to clean my clothes, Can I borrow one of your t-shirts, please’. Um, since they are good friends, I would say 5 is enough. Um, moderate level of politeness would be enough. I mean something like ‘Can I ...? or Could I ...?’ and it is not a big request either.” (TA2, Participant 2)

Some participants noticed some of the contextual variables in a few scenarios in TA1 protocols. However, they seemed unwilling to take these variables into consideration while making pragmatic decisions as seen in the excerpt given below:

Excerpt 5

“I mean, here I cannot say 1 or I cannot say 10. Um, if someone lives in a dirty place, he has no idea about living in a community. If you become too polite, he will bring more problems in the future. If you become impolite, he will fight. I think I would be a bit direct, something like ‘How can you live here, bro? Clean here’. He does not know the guy; um, it is the first time they talk. But I would perform a level of politeness below average.” (Participant 12, TA1)

In the scenario, a WAT participant arrives his accommodation and talks to his roommate for the first time. The room is dirty and untidy in the situation. Participant 2 was asked to rate how polite the WAT participant should be while asking his roommate to clean the room. As the excerpt demonstrates, Participant 2 first expressed some bias about the listener’s personality and mentality in the situation. Later, he gave an example of what he would say in that situation. Even though Participant 2 was aware of the social distance between the interlocutors, he said he would not perform a more polite request. Based on the excerpt, it may be interpreted that he considered politeness as a sign of weakness in such a situation. Yet, he appeared more aware of the significance of social distance on appropriate language choice in TA2. However, he still implied that being too polite would make him look weak. This might be because of his own identity norms or cultural background.

Excerpt 6

“...If I were in this position, I would say something between 5 and 6. But, um, I would not say something more polite. I mean I would not offend him because it is the first time we talk. I would be moderately polite. If I say something very polite, he may think that he can do anything and I will behave like this.” (Participant 12, TA2)

Table 22

Paired samples t-test results of the PREs related to pragmalinguistics in the teacher-led group

	n	\bar{X}	S	t	Sd	p
TA1	20	3.10	1.02	-6.28	19	.00
TA2	20	5.25	1.21			

Apart from orientation to situation and orientation to context variables, a statistically significant change was also observed in orientation to pragmalinguistics as seen in Table 22 ($t_{(19)} = -6.28$, $p=.00 < .05$). Frequency count reported 167 instances of comments related to pragmalinguistics. The findings revealed 62 instances of pragmalinguistic comments in TA1 and 105 in TA2. That is, a significant increase occurred in terms of the learners' verbalization of pragmalinguistic features from TA1 ($\bar{X}=3.10$, $SD=1.02$) to TA2 ($\bar{X}=5.25$, $SD=1.20$).

Almost all the participants were able to identify the requests in the tasks in TA1. They mentioned that either the modal verbs such as *can* and *could* or the politeness marker *please* helped them recognize the requests. Some of them identified the request by reiterating the plot. Even though the majority of the participants were able to decide the level of appropriateness of the requests in the scenarios correctly, they fell short of explaining the significance of linguistic tools for appropriate request-making.

In Task 1.3, the participants were asked to find the request in the given dialogue, explain how they understood it was a request, and decide whether it was appropriate or not. The dialogue took place between a WAT participant working as a housekeeper and her supervisor. Here is how Participant 19 responded:

Excerpt 7

“Deniz is sick. She tells this to her supervisor. Um, I think this is normal, everybody gets sick. This is the request ‘I need you to let me leave early today’ (translates this request as “Could I leave early today” into Turkish). I think this is appropriate. This is what she needs. Um, maybe, um, she could say ‘please’. (Participant 19, TA1)

He started by summarizing the plot. Then, he found the request. However, he translated the given request, which was quite direct for the given situation, as an indirect request. The participant seemed to fail to address the power dynamics in the scenario and evaluate the linguistic formulation of the request accordingly. Eventually, he was able to notice the direct request, and he suggested adding the politeness marker *please* to soften the request. In TA2, Participant 19 successfully addressed the power dynamics and the size of request in the given scenario, criticized the blunt request formulation, and even suggested an appropriate request.

Excerpt 8

“[reads the scenario] Here is the request. ‘I need you to let me leave early today’. Since she is talking to her supervisor, there is, um, a status difference here. This is too direct. She was supposed to be more polite. She can say something like ‘Is there any chance I could leave early today’. I think this is also a big request, um, because she wants to leave her responsibility to some other people. (Participant 19, TA2)

Even though some participants were able to notice inappropriateness of the given requests in the scenarios, they appeared to have lacked necessary metalinguistic vocabulary to express the reason behind their pragmatic decision. In Task 3, the participants were given an e-mail text written to the program sponsor by a WAT participant. The study participants were asked to find the request in the e-mail and evaluate its appropriateness. Here is how Participant 1 responded to this task in TA1:

Excerpt 9

“Um, he explains why he wants to change his job. ‘I want you to offer me another job’ is the request here. She wants something. Um, it sounds, um, it sounds weird. I do not know why but I think it does not sound appropriate. Um, maybe we could add ‘I demand what is necessary to be fulfilled’ (a Turkish formulaic expression used at the end of complaint letters) instead of ‘I am looking forward to your response’. We have it in Turkish. Um, yeah I think we should add ‘I demand what is necessary to be fulfilled’ since it is a formal e-mail. (Participant 1, TA1)

As the excerpt shows, the participant realized that ‘I want you to offer me another job’ is an inappropriate request in an e-mail written to a higher authority. However, she seemed unable to express why it was inappropriate. She paused and mentioned that it sounded weird instead. This can be explained by the learner’s inadequate repertoire of metalinguistic vocabulary to

explain pragmalinguistics. Furthermore, the participant recommended to add ‘Gereğinin yapılmasını arz ederim’ which is a Turkish formulaic expression used at the end of formal complaint letters. That is, the learner was under the influence of L1 norms while composing a requestive complaint e-mail. However, Participant 1 demonstrated a higher level of pragmalinguistic awareness in TA2 protocols. She successfully mentioned the power distance by addressing the receiver’s status and criticized the directness of the request. In addition, she praised the use of supportive moves. Moreover, she was able to suggest alternative request forms to soften the request.

Excerpt 10

This e-mail is written to CIEE [one of the WAT program sponsors]. He is supposed to be more polite. Um, it is a good thing that he explains what he has been going through. It is a big request. Um, he wants to change his job. It’s good to use, um, support moves before asking for something big. He could say ‘I would be most grateful if you could...’, ‘Is there any chance you could offer me another job’ or ‘I was wondering if I could change my job’. (Participant 1, TA2)

4.2.2. Self-Paced Group: Research question 5 aimed at shedding light on the effect of self-paced pragmatics learning on EFL learners’ pragmalinguistic and socio-pragmatic awareness. As Table 18 indicates, frequency count documented 263 PREs in TA1 protocols and 534 PREs in TA2 protocols for the self-paced group. That is, there has been a significant increase in the number of PREs from TA 1 (\bar{X} =13.15, SD=3.11) to TA2 (\bar{X} =26.05, SD=3.34). Figure 4 shows the changes in the instances of PREs from TA1 to TA2.

Table 23

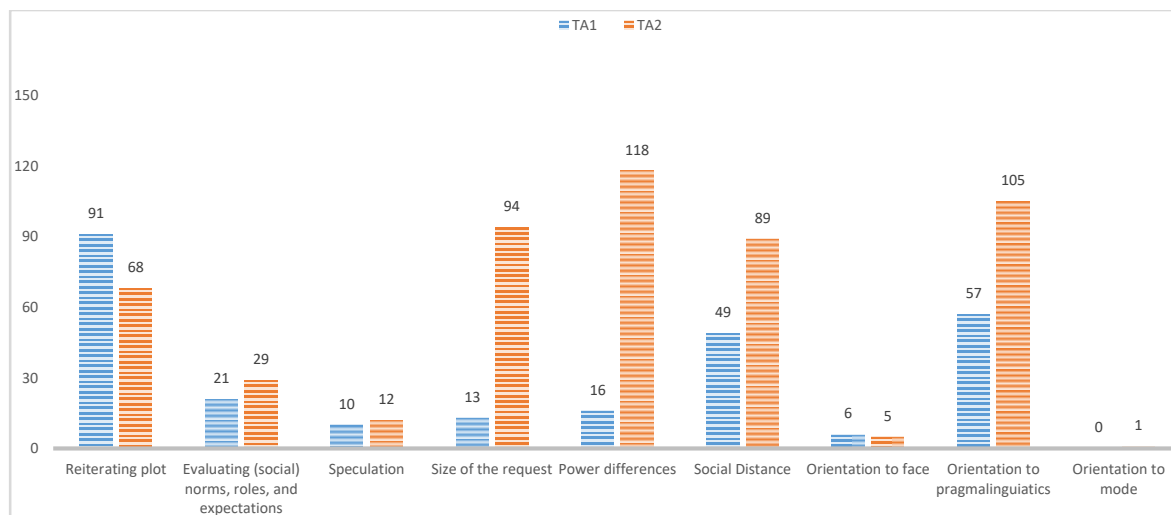
Descriptive statistics of PREs in TA protocols of Self-paced group

Orientation to...	TA protocol	\bar{X}	SD	Minimum	Maximum
Situation	TA1	6.10	2.24	0	9
	TA2	5.45	2.32	0	10
Context Variables	TA1	3.90	1.61	2	8
	TA2	15.05	2.87	7	20

Face	TA1	.30	.47	0	1
	TA2	.25	.44	0	1
Pragmalinguistics	TA1	2.85	1.08	1	4
	TA2	5.25	1.20	3	8
Mode	TA1	.00	.05	0	0
	TA2	.05	.22	0	1
Total	TA1	13.15	3.11	6	19
	TA2	26.05	3.34	18	32

Figure 8

The changes in the instances of PREs from TA1 to TA2 in the self-paced group



Similar to the *teacher-led* group, the least frequent categories in both TA1 and TA2 were found to be orientation to face and orientation to mode. As presented in Figure 8, frequency count revealed 6 instances of PREs related to face saving or face threatening nature of the requests in TA1 protocols ($\bar{X}=.30$, $SD=.47$) whereas there were 5 in TA2 protocols ($\bar{X}=.25$, $SD=.44$). The paired samples t-test results showed that there was no statistically

significant difference regarding the changes in the number of PREs related to face from TA1 to TA2 protocols ($t_{(19)} = .44, p = .66 > .05$).

Frequency count reported no instances of PREs related to the mode of communication in TA1 protocols while there was only one PRE found in TA2 protocols. Since the data were not distributed normally, a Wilcoxin signed-rank test was utilized. The test results revealed no statistically significant change from TA1 to TA2 ($z = .00, p = 1.00 > .05$).

Frequency count presented a total of 122 instances of PREs related to the given situation in TA1 protocols ($\bar{X} = 6.10, SD = 2.24$) and 109 instances in TA2 protocols ($\bar{X} = 5.45, SD = 2.32$). As opposed to the teacher-led group, no statistically significant difference was found between the frequency of PREs related to the given situations in TA1 and TA2 ($t_{(19)} = 1.13, p = 0.27 < .05$). That is, the learners in the self-paced group still tended to summarize the plot, talk about interpersonal expectations for the given situations, and speculate about conversation.

Frequency count presented 78 instances of PREs related to context variables in TA1 protocols ($\bar{X} = 3.90, SD = 1.61$) and 301 instances of them in TA2 protocols ($\bar{X} = 15.05, SD = 2.87$). Table 24 demonstrates the Wilcoxin signed rank test results of the PREs related to context variables in TA1 and TA2 protocols. As the table demonstrates, the instruction of pragmatics through self-access materials significantly increased learners' awareness of context variables ($t_{(19)} = -16.27, p = .00 < .05$). All the participants were more likely to address context variables after the treatment.

Table 24

Wilcoxin signed rank test results of the PREs about the context variables in the self-paced group

	n	Mean rank	Sum of ranks	z	p
Negative	0 ^b	.00	.00	-3,927	.00
Positive ranks	20 ^c	10.50	210.00		
Ties	0 ^d				
Total	20				

a. Group = Self-paced

b. TA2 Context Variables < TA1 Context Variables

c. TA2 Context Variables > TA1 Context Variables

d. TA2 Context Variables = TA1 Context Variables

The analysis of TA protocols revealed that the learners were either unaware of the significance of such variables while performing appropriate requests or unable to address these

variables before the treatment as in the teacher-led group. For example, Participant 25 responded to Task 2.3 in which the participants were asked to rate how polite they would be in the given situation on a scale of 1 to 10 in TA1 protocol as follows:

Excerpt 11

“Ali is a WAT participant. He works at a restaurant.-One of the customers complains about the food- A customer complains about the food. It’s Ali’s first week. Um, so, he does not know what to do. He will ask another employee- an experienced employee- to deal with the situation. I would be more polite in this situation. Um, because, um, it is a difficult situation. It is my responsibility but I cannot do it. I would be polite so he would help me.” (Participant 25, TA1)

As seen in the above excerpt, Participant 25 started the task by translating the scenario. Later, he expressed that he could use politeness as a tool to convince the listener to help him. Yet, he failed to mention the context variables. That is, he either fell short of recognizing the sociopragmatic features involved in the scenario or did not consider them to be worth articulating. However, the findings indicated that learners were more aware of the role of contextual variables and their impact on the linguistic formulation of requests in TA2 protocols. Even though the participant felt the need to reiterate some parts of the given scenario, he appeared to be more aware of the sociopragmatic norms in TA2 protocols as seen in the following excerpt:

Excerpt 12

“Ali works at a restaurant. Um, a customer complains about the food. I guess he wants to ask a more experienced employee to help him. Ali is a new employee. So, I do not think he had the chance to get to know the people well. He needs to be more polite. I am not sure about the size of request. Um, it is neither very big nor too small. Um, he was supposed to deal with the customer but he cannot. It should not be a difficult thing for an experienced employee. So, I think it is not a big deal. Yet, Ali is new. So, I would say 6 or 7. (Participant 25, TA2)

Similar to the teacher-led group, the number of PREs related to pragmalinguistics also observed a statistically significant increase from the TA1 to TA2. Some participants were able to address the context variables in the TA1 protocols. Yet, they appeared to have failed to relate

sociopragmatic norms and appropriate linguistic formulation in making a request. Here is how participant 23 responded to the e-mail task in TA1:

Excerpt 13

“He writes this e-mail to program sponsor. –My name is Mustafa Civelek- he introduces himself. He works at a restaurant. Okay. –My employer does not provide me with adequate work hours- um, he explains the problems about his job here. –I want you to offer me another job- this is the request. He wants them to find him another job. Since he writes this e-mail to the program sponsor, it is good that he explains the problems. Um, they need to know why he needs a different job. The request is short and simple. I think this is how it should be.” (Participant 23, TA1)

As the excerpt presents, the participant tended to translate the content of the e-mail text before he made an appropriate language choice. She praised the use of supportive moves and highlighted the status of the receiver. Yet, a request within a formal e-mail text written to a higher authority is expected to be more indirect. Although the participant was aware of the higher status of the receiver, she seemed to be unaware of the significance of the way requests were linguistically formulated. However, the change in the instances of PREs related to pragmalinguistics displayed an increase after the treatment.

Table 25

Paired samples t-test results of the PREs related to pragmalinguistics in the self-paced group

Test	n	\bar{x}	S	t	Sd	p
TA1	20	2.85	1.09	-8.17	19	.000
TA2	20	5.25	1.37			

Frequency count revealed a sum of 57 instances of PREs related to pragmalinguistics in TA1 protocols ($\bar{X}=2.85$, $SD=1.08$) and 105 instances in TA2 protocols ($\bar{X}=5.25$, $SD=1.20$). As shown in Table 25, the paired samples t-test results indicated that the treatment significantly improved learners pragmalinguistic awareness ($t_{(19)} = -8.17$, $p=.00 < .05$). As seen in the excerpt given below, participant 23 explained what the e-mail text should include before she read the e-mail content. Later, she praised the introduction and the use of supportive moves. Furthermore, she frankly asserted the power difference and the rank of imposition. As different

from her response in the TA1, she criticized the linguistic formulation of the request by pointing out to the context variables.

Excerpt 14

“[Reads the description] He writes this e-mail to the sponsor. There is a status difference. He should introduce himself, um, mention the reasons, and make the request politely. [Reads the e-mail content] He introduced himself, mentioned the reasons. Everything is normal. Yet, he was supposed to be more polite while making the request. –I want you to- this is too direct. It is a big request- change of employer. And...and the sponsor is going to read this. He should be more polite. For example, ‘Is there any chance you could offer me another job?’. (Participant 23, TA2)

Similar to the teacher-led group, the majority of the participants clarified that modal verbs such as *can* and *could*, the politeness marker *please*, or illocutionary force indicating devices such as *I want* helped them to recognize the requests. Some participants labelled every sentence including a modal verb as a request as seen in the following excerpt:

Excerpt 15

“-Mustafa arrives in Los Angeles International Airport as a participant of Work and Travel Program. Here is a dialogue between Mustafa and an officer at the helpdesk- okay, um, Mustafa is at the airport. He talks to the person at the help desk. –How can I help you- this is a request. There is ‘can’ here. I think it is polite and appropriate for the situation.” (Participant 30, TA1)

As the excerpt demonstrates, the participant began by reading and summarizing the description. He defines the utterance -How can I help you? - produced by the officer at the help desk as a request. Even though the officer obviously offers to provide help with the utterance, the participant tends to regard it as a request due to the existence of the modal verb. He was immediately asked what the officer requests the WAT participant to do. Here is how participant 30 responded:

Excerpt 16

“Um, she asks him, um, she asks him to tell her how she can help him” (Participant 30, TA1)

That is, Participant 30 maintained his thought about the utterance being a request. This may stem from how he learned requests at school.

The majority of the participants' TAs before the treatment indicated a lack of pragmalinguistic awareness. That is, most of them failed to highlight the significance of how request formulation contributes to the appropriateness. Therefore, most of them seemed to misjudge the appropriateness of the requests presented in the dialogues in TA1 protocols. Although some of them recognized inappropriate requests, they appeared to have difficulties to explain why they are inappropriate. Here is how Participant 26 responded to the airport scenario in TA1:

Excerpt 17

"...-I would be most grateful if you could tell me how I can find a bus to Fresno- um, this is the request. Can and could in it. I would not say it this way. I think it is not appropriate. I think it is too complicated, um, too long. I would say 'Can you tell me where is bus station for Fresno'" (Participant 26, TA1)

Participant 26 was able to find the actual request in the scenarios, as opposed to Participant 30, who could not. Moreover, he realized that it was a linguistically inappropriate request. In the scenario, a WAT participant asks the officer at the help desk to tell him where to find a bus to Fresno. While doing that, he makes a request which can be rated as extremely polite. However, Participant 26 failed to express why the request is inappropriate. Instead, he criticized the length and the complexity of sentence structure. This can be regarded as an indication of insufficient metalinguistic language as in the teacher-led group. Yet, participants seemed to have more language to explain pragmalinguistics after the treatment as can be interpreted from the excerpt below:

Excerpt 18

"...The officer asks- How can I help you?- and Mustafa responds -I would be most grateful if you could tell me how I can find a bus to Fresno.- This request is inappropriate. It is too polite. It is the officer's duty to help people at the airport so I do not think it is a big request. Yet, he talks to an officer at the help desk, um, he does not write a letter to an Ottoman sultan. Of course, he cannot say, um, 'tell me!'. I would use an indirect request with a modal verb but, um, not like this. Like 'could you tell me how can I find a bus to Fresno'." (Participant 26, TA2)

4.3. Results Regarding the Learners' Perceptions of Learning Pragmatics through Self-Access Materials

Research question 6 probed the learners' perceptions of learning pragmatics through digitally-mediated self-access materials. In order to reveal the answer to this question, the learners in the self-paced group were interviewed based on their self-paced pragmatics learning experience through Nearpod. As Table 26 shows, the analysis of semi-structured interviews revealed three main categories, namely outcomes of the intervention, perceptions about learning through self-access materials, and perceptions about the activities completed.

Under the first theme which is about the outcomes of the intervention, their gains of the knowledge of pragmatics appeared to be the one and only category. Initially, the interview findings showed that the majority of the participants (n=15, 75%) highlighted that the intervention helped them become more aware about the linguistic strategies they can use to perform the target speech act. For instance, Interviewee 1 stated *"I used to say 'I want you to ...' a lot while requesting something, but now I know different ways to make a request which are not as direct as 'I want'"*. Similarly, Interviewee 8 said *"I now know a lot of strategies that I can choose from, and a diversity of expressions which I can use to request something"*. As can be understood from the sample excerpts, the participants highlighted the increase in their pragmalinguistic repertoire after the treatment. Moreover, Interviewee 17 claimed *"I already knew the majority of the expressions and strategies, yet I would not use them. Now, I know how important the language I prefer is while making a request. So, I will be more careful about the language I use while making a request"*. In addition, the majority of the participants expressed that they used to employ the same modal verbs *can* or *could* when they needed to perform a polite request. They stated that the self-access materials they completed helped them learn about a diversity of strategies to achieve their goal in real-life communication contexts.

Table 26

The themes, categories and codes obtained from the semi-structured interviews

<i>Themes</i>	<i>Categories</i>	<i>Codes</i>	<i>Sample Statements</i>	<i>Frequency</i>
<i>Outcomes of the intervention</i>	<i>Pragmatic gains</i>	<i>Increased pragmalinguistic awareness</i>	<i>I used to employ the same expressions such as “can you ...?” and “could you?” in order to perform a request. I learned about different ways to express a request. [Interviewee 5]</i>	<i>15</i>
		<i>Increased sociopragmatic awareness</i>	<i>I now know that there are a variety of factors affecting the way I perform a request such as the status of the listener, how well I know the listener, etc. [Interviewee 10]</i>	<i>14</i>
		<i>Increased awareness about politeness in interaction</i>	<i>I now know that I sometimes need to be more polite than I used to be before the lessons or being too polite may sometimes put me in a funny position.[Interviewee 11]</i>	<i>7</i>
		<i>Increased cultural awareness</i>	<i>The way we write e-mails to higher authorities is different from English. Thanks to the lessons, I learned about how to start and end a requestive e-mail. [Interviewee 4]</i>	<i>14</i>

<i>Perceptions about learning through self-access materials</i>	<i>Constraints</i>	<i>Lack of teacher support</i>	<i>I would rather have a teacher next to me while learning a language. [Interviewee 10]</i>	4
		<i>Technological challenges</i>	<i>I tried to complete the lessons on my mobile phone. It would be easier to have a bigger screen. Sometimes, I could not see the whole activity because it did not fit in my screen. [Interviewee 2]</i>	2
	<i>Benefits</i>	<i>Easy to use</i>	<i>It was easy to use the self-access materials you shared with me. [Interviewee 14]</i>	16
		<i>Portability</i>	<i>I completed the activities in different places on my mobile phone whenever I am available. [Interviewee 2]</i>	1
		<i>Absence of time limitation</i>	<i>I took my time to complete each activity. I moved forward when I understand everything presented. I feel like I would miss some points in a classroom setting. [Interviewee 15]</i>	7
		<i>Self-navigation</i>	<i>Sometimes I could not remember some expressions and turned back to previous slides to remember them. [Interviewee 7]</i>	4

<i>Perceptions about Positive the activities completed</i>	<i>Sequence of activities</i>	<i>The easy activities prepared me for the more complex ones. Probably, I would not have been successful if I had started with the final lesson. [Interviewee 12]</i>	5
	<i>Repetitive Practice</i>	<i>I had chance to practice a lot. After a while, I stopped looking at my notes to complete the activities. [Interviewee 8]</i>	20
	<i>Feedback</i>	<i>When I saw the sample answers in the activities, I was like “how did I not think about it”. [Interviewee 20]</i>	16
	<i>Audio-visual input</i>	<i>I loved the videos. They were very helpful. [Interviewee 11]</i>	9
	<i>Realistic situations</i>	<i>All the dialogues were likely to occur during the WAT program. I wanted to pay attention to everything because I knew that I might experience a similar situation this summer. [Interviewee 8]</i>	11
<i>Negative</i>	<i>Length of the lessons</i>	<i>The length of the lessons bored me. [Interviewee 10]</i>	1

Second, the participants underscored that the treatment had contributed to their sociopragmatic awareness (n=14, 70%). Increased sociopragmatic awareness was the second most mentioned code, following increased pragmalinguistic awareness under the category of pragmatic gains. For illustration, Interviewee 2 expressed “*I will definitely consider the status difference when I request something*”. Interviewee 4 said “*When I go somewhere, I now know how I should make a request by paying attention to the status of the listener, or the size of my request, or how well I know this person*”. Likewise, Interviewee 6 admitted “*I have never considered requesting as a complex aspect of language before. However, I learned that it was quite complicated. I need to be careful about who I am talking to, what I ask for, where I am, how long I know this person, etc.*”. As the sample statements indicate, the self-access materials enhanced the learners’ sociopragmatic awareness since they said that they would be more careful about the social factors surrounding the context of any situation.

As a part of the pragmatic gains expressed throughout the interviews, increased cultural awareness shares second place with increased sociopragmatic awareness in terms of the frequency of being mentioned (n= 14, 70%). Most participants pointed out that they learned a lot about the culture-specific rules of the English language. Many participants underscored that they realized the variability of the cultural norms between Turkish and English. For example, Interviewee 6 remarked “*When I directly translate what I would say from Turkish, it may not make sense to people from other cultures or it may sound funny or offending*”. Likewise, Interviewee 3 asserted “*What I perceive as appropriate language use or behavior in Turkey may not be right while communicating with other people in English*”. As given in Table 24, some of the participants gave examples of the culture-specific rules they learned about in e-mail writing.

Increased awareness about politeness in interaction was found to be another area addressed by the participants in the interviews. More than a quarter of the participants specifically stated that the intervention enhanced their understanding of politeness (n= 7, 35%). This was evidenced in what interviewees deduced as a result of their learning experience. Interviewee 18 said “*I now know when I should be more polite or when I do not need to be very polite*”. In addition, Interviewee 19 explained “*I realized that my requests were sometimes too direct. The consequences of too direct requests in the videos helped me understand the significance of politeness*”.

Another theme appeared during the analysis of the interviews was the learners' perceptions about learning through self-access materials. Benefits and constraints of self-access materials were classified under two categories. For the constraints, a few participants (n=4, 20%) complained about the lack of teacher presence. To illustrate, Interviewee 5 stated "*There were times I did not know some of the words in a dialogue, it would be easier to complete the activities if I had a teacher supporting me*". That is, he felt the need for a teacher, possibly because of his relatively lower level of language proficiency in comparison to other learners. Sometimes learners needed a teacher's reassurance to feel that they were on the right track. Interviewee 13 explained "*I would like to have a teacher while learning something. Although I learned a lot of things from the lessons, I was not sure whether I fully understood everything while completing the activities*". Additionally, a small amount of the participants (n= 2, 10 %) expressed that they had some technological challenges. As Table 24 indicates, Interviewee 2 mentioned having a small screen as a problem. While he was trying to study on his smart phone, he had some issues. In addition, Interviewee 3 explained "*Since it was the first time I used Nearpod to learn something, I accidentally skipped the whole activity before I completed everything. So, I had to go back to fully complete it. Luckily, all my answers were recorded so I did not have to respond to the same questions again*". It is obvious that Interviewee 3 faced such a challenge due to her unfamiliarity with the learning tool.

On the other hand, the findings demonstrated that the majority of the participants (n= 16, 80%) found the self-access lessons as easy to use. Some participants explained the reasons behind their consideration of self-access learning as easy to use. As shown in Table 24, one of the participants (Interviewee 2) highlighted the portability feature of such materials. He stated that he completed the activities in different places. That is, self-access materials remove limiting space boundaries of traditional learning.

Furthermore, some participants commented on the absence of time limitation positively (n= 7, 35%). For instance, Interviewee 17 told "*If I had learned these in a normal lesson (a traditional lesson with teacher presence), I would have had to skip some activities before I fully learned. Yet, I spent as much as the time needed before I move to the next activity in self-paced lessons*". Moreover, the opportunities of self-navigation were also reported to be one of the benefits of self-access materials (n=4, 20%). For example, Interviewee 2 remarked "*When I felt the need to remember something, I turned back to the previous explanations or watched the videos again*".

The participants also reflected on specifically the self-accessible lesson contents they completed via Nearpod. As a result, the learners' perceptions about the activities they completed came into view as another theme during the analysis. As documented in Table 24, they listed either positive or negative perceptions. Only one of the students (Interviewee 10) expressed a negative thought about the lesson. He complained about the length of the lessons.

Nevertheless, all the participants agreed that the lessons provided them with repetitive practice. Interviewee 14 said *"I had the opportunity to practice a lot. After a while the scenarios seemed easier to complete"*. Likewise, Interviewee 20 mentioned *"There were a lot of activities. Even though they were in different forms, I had to do the same thing, in order to 'perform an appropriate request'. After a while, I stopped thinking and produced the appropriate request automatically"*. As seen in the sample statements, the interviewees appreciated that the materials provided the learning process with a lot of practice opportunities. They also emphasized that repetitive feedback led them to automatize their request production.

Moreover, most of the participants stressed that they received immediate feedback, from which they benefited to a great extent (n= 16, 80%). The following extract evidences this. Interviewee 9 conceded *"My favorite activity was in the last lesson content. The one in which the video stopped and I was asked what I would say in that particular situation. I had the chance to produce many requests. I also had the chance to see a sample answer after I submitted my own answer in each dialogue. When I heard the sample answer, I realized what else I could say to perform the particular request in a better way"*. Like this participant, other participants also highlighted that the course was designed to provide immediate feedback with alternative ways to make a request in the given situation. Interviewee 6 summarized this as follows: *"After open-ended questions [DCT]), I was provided with model answers and explanations in a slide. After the multiple-choice questions, I was informed about my correct and wrong answers. Finally, after the completion of the video activities (Role-play DCTs), I saw a model answer in the video"*. Drawing upon the statements presented, it can be concluded that model answers helped learners realize their mistakes or different ways to perform the target speech act in the given situation.

What is more, more than half of the participants declared that the realistic scenarios motivated them to focus on the lesson content more (n= 11, 55%). As mentioned earlier, all the dialogues, animated videos and exercises involved scenarios that the participants are likely to come across during their WAT program. Interviewee 2 stated *"I think the activities were very*

useful. All the activities were prepared to get me ready for the WAT program. All the videos involved WAT students. I think this was very helpful and motivating". Also, Interviewee 14 said *"I watched all the videos very carefully. They were all about WAT. I knew that I would experience similar situations in the US. Therefore, I noted some of the sample requests given in the lessons so I could use them during WAT when I experience a similar situation"*. Likewise, Interviewee 4 expressed *"I think the activities were very well-prepared. They were all about WAT. I wanted to learn everything presented in the lessons because I did not want to have a negative experience because of miscommunication during WAT"*.

In addition, almost half of the interviewees praised the audio-visual input provided in the digitally-mediated self-access materials. To illustrate, Interviewee 1 told *"I think the videos were very helpful. I would feel bored if I read a lot. It is good that most of the dialogues were not written. I did not feel bored at all"*. That is, it can be said that the audio-visual input provided learners with a more engaging form of pragmatic input. Furthermore, Interviewee 7 explained *"While watching the videos, I felt like I was there and I had to perform the most appropriate request"*. So, it can be concluded that the audio-visual input increased the authenticity of the situations.

A quarter of the interviewees commented on the sequence of the activities (n=5, 20%). For example, Interviewee 11 stated *"Every activity prepared me for the next one"*. Similarly, Interviewee 15 claimed *"I think everybody could learn from these lessons because it started with simple activities and got more difficult as we learn"*.

All in all, almost all the interviewees expressed positive perceptions about the use of digitally-mediated self-access materials to learn about pragmatics. The interview analysis presented findings which supported the findings of DCTs and TA protocols. The following section will discuss the findings of the present study by referring to the literature.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

In this chapter, the main findings of the present study are discussed in relation to the findings of the previous studies in the literature. The possible reasons behind the obtained results will be discussed. The discussion section was organized by referring to the research questions so as to provide the reader with a guide.

5.1. The Impact of Teacher-Led Fully Instruction through CMC on Pragmatic Performance

Research question 1 aimed to investigate to what extent teacher-led fully online pragmatics instruction through CMC would contribute to EFL learners' pragmatic performance. The intervention particularly focused on the production of appropriate requests. The statistical tests that were run to present the improvement regarding pragmatic performance reported clear results encouraging the use of teacher-led fully online instruction through CMC for pragmatic development. The comparison of the pre-test and the post-test results revealed that the participants significantly improved their request production in terms of pragmalinguistics ($p=.01<.05$) and sociopragmatics ($p=.00<.05$). The improvement in pragmalinguistic test scores indicated that the treatment significantly enhanced the learners' use of grammatically accurate linguistic strategies to use language appropriately in a given situation. Furthermore, the significant increase in sociopragmatic test scores demonstrated that learners seemed to have higher awareness of the role of the contextual variables.

Many studies have so far been conducted to investigate the efficacy of utilizing CMC for pragmatics instruction. The majority of them revealed similar results. For instance, Eslami and Liu (2013) reported that learning pragmatics through CMC can be as effective as face-to-face instruction. As opposed to the present research, their study involved a tele-collaborative aspect. Namely, the participants in that CMC group engaged in interaction with their peers in the United States. More recently, findings reported in Zhang (2020) also indicated that tele-collaboration was likely to contribute to learners' pragmatic performance when paired with instruction.

Similar to the present study, some studies brought attention to the use of CMC as a delivery tool without native speaker involvement for pragmatics instruction. They also revealed reassuring results in favor of the implementation of CMC-based instruction. For example, Ajabshir (2019) reported that learners could benefit from pragmatics instruction by means of

both synchronous and asynchronous CMC. She scored learner requests based on the pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic aspects separately. The scores from her pre-test to post-test aligned with the findings of the present study.

Moreover, to introduce a more comprehensive view of the changes in the request head acts, the instances of lexical and syntactic downgraders in the pre-test and the post-test were analyzed. The results of the analysis of the pre and post tests showed a statistically significant increase in the number of lexical downgraders ($p=.00<.05$). In terms of individual lexical downgraders, the politeness marker *please* appeared to be the most frequent lexical downgrader in the pre-test data as well as in the post-test data. Similarly, Kaivanpanah, Alavi and Taghizadeh Langari (2020) declared that the politeness marker *please* happens to be the most common lexical downgrader both before and after pragmatics instruction in their study. Faerch and Kasper (1989) clarified the frequent use of the politeness marker *please* as a result of its “double function as illocutionary force indicator and transparent mitigator” (p. 233).

Furthermore, the analysis put forward that the learners visibly started using past tense modals more after the treatment. This can be explained by the fact that modal verbs are easy to utilize and learners start learning them in the early years of their language studies (Schauer, 2009). What is more, the results showed that the learners began to employ aspect as a lexical downgrader to mitigate their requests after the treatment, whereas it was absent in the pre-test data set. The instruction improved their use of consultative devices and downtoners as well. However, they used less marked modality in the post-test than in the pre-test. This can be the result of their willingness to perform newly-learned lexical downgraders rather than the existing ones after the instruction period.

The paired samples t-test results revealed a statistically significant increase in the instances of syntactic downgraders as well ($p=.00<.05$). Tentative embedding was found to be the most common strategy employed in the post-test data. In addition, the analysis displayed that learners began using appreciative embedding which had been absent in the pre-test data. However, they were less likely to perform conditional clauses in the post-test.

Göy et al.'s (2012) cross-sectional study reported that there had been a small degree of improvement in terms of learners' use of internal modifiers across different proficiency levels. Yet, the present study demonstrated that learners were able to utilize different internal modification strategies when pragmatics phenomena are emphasized during the instruction process. Furthermore, the present research also documented that teacher-led CMC-based

instruction contribute to learners' repertoire of pragmalinguistic strategies to mitigate their requests.

5.2. The Impact of Self-Paced Learning on Pragmatic Performance

Research question 2 investigated the effect of self-paced learning of pragmatics through digitally-mediated self-access materials on EFL learners' pragmatic performance. To this end, the tasks completed with the teacher-led group were shared with the participants in the self-paced group. They were asked to complete the same tasks whenever they are available during the week. Nearpod, a cloud-based application, was chosen in order to present the tasks. The instructor was not the source of metapragmatic explanations, as in the teacher-led group. Instead, metapragmatic explanations were introduced by means of Nearpod slides or Plotagon movies.

The comparison of the pre-test and the post-test results demonstrated that self-paced pragmatics learning through digitally-mediated self-access materials significantly contributed to the learners' performance of appropriate requests in terms of both pragmalinguistics ($p=.01<.05$) and sociopragmatics ($p=.00<.05$). There are a few experimental studies of which findings support the findings of the present research. Cohen and Ishihara (2005) argued that learning speech acts in Japanese through a web-based curriculum would improve learners' pragmatic performance. Similarly, Sydorenko (2015) also showed that engaging with computer-mediated structured tasks was likely to contribute to learners' request production. The present study also involved computer-structured tasks which were created by combining the potentialities of different Web 2.0 tools such as Plotagon and Nearpod. In addition, the efficacy of SDSs, as digitally-mediated self-access materials, for pragmatic development has also been investigated in the literature. Sydorenko et al. (2018) reported that *SimCon*, an SDS providing learners with self-access tasks involving pragmatic goals, enhanced international students' appropriate language use. Moreover, Sydorenko et al. (2020) demonstrated that learners were able to benefit from SDSs regardless of the instruction method. Yet, they noted that some learners might need more explicit metapragmatic explanations. Civelek and Karatepe's (2021b) study, which utilized Nearpod as a digitally mediated self-access tool to deliver pragmatics instruction, also indicated that learners could learn about appropriate language use from self-access materials through self-paced learning. Although the majority of the above-mentioned studies utilized different digitally-mediated self-access materials to teach pragmatics, their findings supported the present research. That is, learners' engagement with

digitally-mediated self-access materials for self-paced learning is useful for pragmatic development.

As in the teacher-led group, the internal modification of requests produced by the participants in the pre-test and the post-test was also analyzed. The analysis revealed that learners began using significantly more lexical downgraders after self-paced pragmatics learning ($p=.00<.05$). That is, self-paced learning of pragmatics through digitally-mediated self-access materials helped learners improve their understanding of the use of lexical downgraders as the statistics indicated an increase. The requests were mostly mitigated by using *please* in the pre-test as in the self-paced group. As a result, it would not be an exaggeration to claim that the learners mostly relied on the use of politeness markers to soften their requests in the pre-test. They either lacked the knowledge of other pragmlinguistic strategies to mitigate the request or chose not to use them. Although total usage of lexical downgraders increased, *please* was still one of the most frequent after the intervention. This overuse can be explained explained by the fact that it was easy to use and frequently performed in language classrooms. Furthermore, Faerch and Kasper (1989) asserted that learners stick with *please* to modify their requests because they desire to “adhere to the conversational principle of clarity, choosing explicit, transparent, unambiguous means of expression rather than implicit, opaque, and ambiguous realizations. These qualities are exactly fulfilled by politeness marker” (p. 233).

The findings of the present study also indicated that, although the instances of past tense modals were more frequent in the self-paced group than in the teacher-led group in the pre-test, the use of these modals increased following the treatment. Similarly, Civelek and Karatepe’s (2021b) findings pointed out that learners were more aware of the function of past tense modal verbs as softeners after engaging with self-paced Nearpod lesson contents. Furthermore, another significant finding is that the learners began to utilize *aspect* as a lexical downgrader after the treatment whereas no instance of *aspect* was observed in the pre-test data set. This can be interpreted as a clear effect of the instruction on the learners’ request formulation. What is more, the participants used two lexical downgraders more in the post-test: *downtoners* and *consultative devices*. However, they were less likely to deploy marked modality and *understaters*. The decrease in the number of *understaters* is not surprising since they were not introduced during the treatment. On the other hand, the decrease in the instances of marked modality can be explained by learners’ enthusiasm to perform other downgraders introduced during the treatment period as in the teacher-led group.

Furthermore, the analysis yielded a significant increase in the frequency of syntactic downgraders from the pre-test to the post-test ($p=.00<.05$). As in the teacher-led group, tentative embedding appeared to be the most frequent syntactic downgrader after the treatment in the self-paced group. In addition, an observable increase was documented in terms of the change in the number of appreciative embedding in the post-test. That is, learning pragmatics through digitally-mediated self-access materials significantly contributed to the learners' use of both appreciative and tentative embedding. However, a slight amount of decrease was found in the instances of the conditional clause.

All in all, self-paced learning of pragmatics through digitally-mediated self-access materials enriched the learners' repertoire of pragmatological strategies for request formulation. Even though many studies noted that the development in terms of performing internal modifiers is quite slow (Borovina, 2017; Göy et al., 2012), the findings depicted that engagement with self-access materials yielded favorable results.

5.3. Comparison of the Pragmatic Development of the Two Groups

Research question 3 probed if there was a statistically significant difference between the improvement in request production of the two groups. There have been a few studies conducted in the field to compare the efficacy of different types of fully online instruction on EFL learners' pragmatic performance. Yet, these studies either elaborated on the effectiveness of different CMC tools (synchronous or asynchronous) to deliver pragmatics instruction (Ajabshir, 2019) or focused on the impact of different instruction methods (implicit, explicit or a combination of both) when presented with the same Web 2.0 tools (Eslami et al., 2015; Sydorenko et al., 2020, Karatepe, 2021). This particular study compared the impact of teacher-led fully online pragmatics instruction through CMC and self-paced pragmatic learning through digitally-mediated self-access materials.

In the current research, the statistical test results revealed no statistically significant difference in terms of the sociopragmatic improvement of the two groups ($p=.72>.05$). That is, both groups almost equally improved their understanding of the context variables and their impact on linguistic request formulation. However, the comparison of the improvement in terms of pragmatological performance indicated that the self-paced group significantly outperformed the teacher-led group ($p=.03<.05$). The learners in the self-paced group significantly improved the grammatical accuracy of their requests compared to those in the teacher-led group. Puebla, Fievet, Tsopanidi and Clahsen (2022) highlighted that CALL and MALL technologies provided

learners with self-directed learning which allows for pace adaptation. In the teacher-led group, slower learners tried to keep up with the faster learners. Therefore, they might not have been able to internalize the pragmalinguistic features introduced throughout the course. On the other hand, the learners in the self-paced group had the opportunity to spend as much time on each activity as they needed. Moreover, they were able to navigate through the self-access materials independently. In other words, they were able to go back to previous sections to review the metapragmatic explanations or the linguistic formulae introduced earlier. These potentialities that the self-access materials offered might be the reason behind the outperformance of the learners in the self-paced group.

5.4. The Impact of Teacher-led Fully Online Instruction through CMC on Pragmatic Awareness

Research question 4 aimed to discover to what extent teacher-led fully online pragmatics instruction through CMC enhance EFL learners' pragmatic awareness. The analysis of the TA protocols which were conducted before and after the treatment revealed prominent findings to this end. The coding of the PREs in TA data was based on Timpe-Laughlin et al.'s (2021) coding framework in order to allow for comparison. Since the learners tended to summarize the scenarios in the tasks, talk about the expected interpersonal behavior, or make speculations about the scenarios such as mentioning the likely consequences of the speech acts, orientation to situation appeared to be the most frequent category in TA1 protocols ($\bar{X}=8.40$, $SD=1.87$). However, the instances of PREs related to the given situations showed a statistically significant decrease after the treatment ($t_{(19)} = 11.38$, $p=.00 < .05$).

The analysis of TA1 protocols demonstrated that some learners expressed personal beliefs, which probably stem from their cultural background, rather than addressing the pragmatic features involved in the scenarios. For instance, Participant 2 regarded politeness as an indication of embarrassment while Participant 12 considered it a sign of weakness. Unfortunately, their personal beliefs resulted in unfavorable pragmatic decisions in TA1 protocols.

Furthermore, some learners showed a tendency to evaluate the scenarios based on their L1 pragmatic norms in TA1 protocols. Jung (2002) emphasized the significance of having the awareness of pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic differences between L1 and L2 in order to become a pragmatically competent speaker. Previous studies bringing attention to pragmatic performance also reported instances of L1 influence on L2 pragmatic decisions (For example,

Civelek & Karatepe, 2021b; Otçu & Zeyrek, 2008; Karatepe, 1998). Yet, the results of the present study show that the intervention appear to have helped learners to adopt an EIL speaker identity. That is, the learners seem to have understood that they were expected to make decisions about the given scenarios based on the acceptability of speech behavior in IC rather than solely relying on their personal beliefs or their L1 pragmatic norms. Moreover, TA1 data showed that even though the learners were able to draw fair conclusions on the appropriateness of the requests in the scenarios, they were unable to articulate the pragmatic aspects involved in the scenarios. This can be a result of a limited repertoire of metalinguistic vocabulary to explain pragmatic decisions. Borg (1994) listed speaking analytically about language as one of the main features of language awareness. Similarly, Svalberg (2007) emphasized the vital role of introducing metalinguistic vocabulary in order to enable learners to articulate pragmatic awareness. The learners were more successful at verbalizing the pragmatic phenomena in TA2 protocols. Almost all of them employed metalinguistic vocabulary such as power distance, higher status, supportive moves, size of the request, etc. Such terms were included in the metapragmatic explanations throughout the intervention. As a result, it can be said that the treatment enriched the learners' repertoire of metalinguistic vocabulary which helped them to analyze and articulate the pragmatic features in the scenarios.

The analysis of the data also revealed that the learners were more inclined to express the context variables involved in the scenarios and comment on the linguistic formulation of the requests in TA2 protocols. While the total number of PREs related to context variables was 55 ($\bar{X}=2.75$, $SD=1.83$) in TA1 protocols, it was 226 ($\bar{X}=11.30$, $SD=3.67$) in TA2 protocols. That is, the participants appeared to be significantly more aware of the importance of contextual factors such as power dynamics, social distance, and imposition of the request after the treatment ($t_{(19)} = -11.94$, $p=.00 < .05$). Likewise, the participants seemed to be significantly more aware of the impact of linguistic formulation on the degree of politeness ($t_{(19)} = -6.28$, $p=.00 < .05$). While the instances of PREs related to pragmalinguistics were 62 in TA1 protocols, 105 instances of this type of PREs were found in TA2 protocols. In other words, they showed little awareness about how linguistic formulation of a request would contribute to the politeness in TA1 protocols. The treatment increased the learners' awareness of how linguistic resources can enhance the level of politeness in requests.

As mentioned earlier, pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics were considered two major constituents of pragmatic competence (Leech, 1983; Thomas, 1983; Bachman & Palmer, 1996). Thus, pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic aspects of making requests in English were

frequently emphasized during the treatment. Similar to the findings reported in Timpe-Laughlin et al. (2021), the decrease in the number of PREs related to given situations and the increase in the number of PREs about pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics can be interpreted as the development of pragmatic awareness. Their study employed *Words at Work*, a digitally-mediated self-access learning prototype as the delivery tool for the instruction, whereas the present research demonstrated that teacher-led fully online pragmatics instruction through CMC enhances the learners' pragmatic awareness as well.

5.5. The Impact of Self-Paced Learning on Pragmatic Awareness

Research question 6 explored to what extent self-paced learning of pragmatics instruction through digitally-mediated self-access materials helped the learners develop pragmatic awareness. As in the teacher-led group, orientation to situation appeared to be the most recurring category in TA1 protocols with a sum of 122 instances ($\bar{X}=6.10$, $SD=2.24$). In other words, they repeatedly summarized particular parts of the given scenarios, explained their interpersonal expectations for the given situations, or speculated about the given scenario. Yet, there seemed to be no statistically significant decrease in the instances of orientation to the situation in TA2 protocols compared to the teacher-led group ($\bar{X}=5.45$, $SD=2.32$). The findings regarding orientation to the situation also contradict with the findings of Timpe-Laughlin et al.'s (2021) study. In their study, the significant decrease in the number of orientation to situation coupled with the significant increase in the instances of orientation to pragmalinguistics and orientation to context variables were regarded as an indication of increased pragmatic awareness.

Similar to the teacher-led group, the learners in the self-paced group also showed a statistically significant increase in their awareness of context variables ($z=-3.927$, $p=.00<.05$). While there were 78 instances of PREs about context variables in TA1 protocols ($\bar{X}=3.90$, $SD=1.61$), there were 301 instances of them in TA2 protocols ($\bar{X}=15.05$, $SD=2.87$). After the treatment, all the participants referred to the imposition of the requests, the power dynamics, and the social distance issues which the scenarios posed more often. The findings regarding the context variables in the present study support the findings of Timpe-Laughlin et al.'s (2021) study. That is to say, engaging with digitally mediated self-access materials appear to have enriched learners' awareness of the role of context variables. Even though some participants referred to context variables throughout TA1 protocols, they seemed to misjudge their impact on the illocutionary force of requests.

Moreover, the engagement with digitally-mediated self-access materials for self-paced learning of pragmatics also enhanced learners' pragmlinguistic awareness significantly ($t_{(19)} = -8.17, p = .00 < .05$). The findings indicated that some participants were likely to refer to every utterance involving the modal verb *can* as a request regardless of their function in the context. This can be a result of the way requests were taught to them from the beginning of their L2 education. Although some learners made reasonable comments on the appropriateness of the requests in request recognition tasks, they seemed to have lacked the necessary metalinguistic vocabulary to support their ideas as in the teacher-led group. Murray (2009) recommended equipping learners with metalinguistic vocabulary before making more sophisticated language analyses. The findings demonstrated that self-paced learning of pragmatics strengthen the learners' repertoire of metalinguistic lexicon to this end since they were more capable of expressing their thoughts on the pragmatic phenomena in the scenarios after the treatment.

Self-paced learning of pragmatics through digitally-mediated self-access materials helps learners raise pragmlinguistic and sociopragmatic awareness. As opposed to the teacher-led group and Timpe-Laughlin et al.'s (2021) study, the instances of orientation to the situation remained stable after the treatment in the self-paced group. Yet, this should not be considered a deficiency in pragmatic awareness since they performed better in the PREs related to pragmlinguistics and context variables. The participants' willingness to summarize and/or translate the given situations after the treatment might be as a result of their instincts for guaranteeing whether they understood the situation correctly. TA2 protocols involved phrases such as *I think*, *I guess*, and *I suppose* followed by PREs of orientation to situation. It is probable that they expected the researcher supervising the TA protocols to correct them if their interpretation or translation of the situation was wrong.

5.6. The Learners' Perceptions about Learning Pragmatics through Digitally-Mediated Self-Access Materials

Research question 6 sought to investigate the learners' perceptions of learning pragmatics through digitally-mediated self-access materials. This research question aimed to shed light on the reflections of the learners in the self-paced group about learning pragmatics through Nearpod without teacher interference. The semi-structured interviews conducted with the learners in the self-paced group revealed 3 main categories: outcomes of the intervention, perceptions about learning through self-access materials, and perceptions about the activities completed.

Under the first category which is the outcomes of the intervention, the learners emphasized the pragmatic gains they had after their engagement with the digitally-mediated self-access materials. The majority of the learners put forward that they became more careful about pragmalinguistic (n=15, 75%) and sociopragmatic features (n=14, 70%). The learners' expression of increased pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic awareness supported the results of the earlier research questions. Furthermore, their expression of pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic gains, which were two main aspects presented throughout the intervention, can be considered a sign of conscious learning. Similarly, Wain et al. (2019) showed that the learners in their study expressed that the digitally-mediated self-access learning prototype increased their awareness of the pragmatic phenomena. What is more, some participants particularly highlighted their increased awareness of politeness (n=7, 35%). Politeness, as a commonly researched phenomenon in ILP, is tightly interwoven with sociopragmatics and pragmalinguistics. Taguchi (2019) advocated that the knowledge of social norms such as politeness could not be transferred from the L1 since such norms did not apply to all cultures. Brown (2000) underlined that "a language is a part of a culture and a culture is a part of a language; the two are intricately interwoven so that one cannot separate the two without losing the significance of either language or culture" (p. 177). Furthermore, Cohen (2016) considered pragmatics as the common ground of language and culture. Fortunately, most learners also expressed increased cultural awareness in the semi-structured interviews (n=14, 70%).

The analysis revealed the perceptions about learning through self-access materials as another main category in the semi-structured interviews. These perceptions were classified as constraints and benefits. The majority of the learners mentioned the benefits of learning through digitally-mediated self-access materials. Most learners expressed that it was easy to use the digitally-mediated self-access materials to learn about pragmatics (n=16, 80%). Even though a variety of Web 2.0 tools such as Wordwall, Padlet, Plotagon, etc. contributed to the preparation of the lesson contents, the main delivery tool was Nearpod. Therefore, it can be interpreted that the learners found Nearpod application useful for self-paced learning. In Alnufaie's (2022) study which investigated learners' perceptions of such applications, simplicity appeared to be the most frequently mentioned feature. In line with the view of Puebla et. Al. (2022), the absence of time limitation was found to be the second most frequently mentioned benefit of learning through self-access materials (n=7, 35%). Additionally, some learners praised the self-navigation feature which Nearpod provided (n=4, 20%). That is, they were able to return to previously introduced metapragmatic explanations when they did not remember something. As

Cohen and Sykes (2008) underscored, the opportunity for self-navigation of the lectures enables learners to fulfill their individual needs better. What is more, one of the learners who completed the self-access learning content on his mobile phone expressed portability as a benefit which Nearpod offered. Likewise, Klopfer and Jenkins (2002) listed portability as one of the main potentialities of mobile learning.

Some constraints of self-access learning were also reported throughout the interviews. For example, some participants considered lack of teacher support as a constraint (n=4, 20%). Being successfully responsible for one's own learning process requires a high level of dedication and determination. These learners' tendency to need a teacher may be explained by a weakness in a lack of confidence. Tsang (2022) also documented that the lack of teacher support was considered as a constraint by the learners for self-directed learning. Few participants also mentioned the technological challenges which stemmed from a lack of familiarization with self-access learning and inadequate technological tools (n=2, 10%). Unfortunately, these two factors have come up as an obstacle in various studies which investigate the effectiveness of remote learning and teaching (Karakaya, 2022). It seems there is nothing much the teacher can do to support his/her students in this respect.

The learners also commented on the activities they completed. Whereas one learner complained about the length of the lesson contents, the rest of the learners expressed positive views. All the learners emphasized that they were provided with a lot of practice until the end of the intervention. Based on the Skill Acquisition Theory (DeKeyser, 2015), the digitally-mediated self-access learning materials shared with the learners involved a lot of tasks requiring activating both receptive and productive skills so as to result in the automatization of appropriate request production. Furthermore, most learners advocated that the learning material provided them with feedback (n=16, 80%). Timpe-Laughlin (2016) also advocated the vital role of feedback for successful pragmatics instruction. Moreover, more than half of the participants praised the content of the scenarios (n=11, 55%). All the scenarios presented in the tasks involved situations that WAT participants were likely to encounter during their program. Since the participants of the present study were going to participate in the WAT program in the summer of 2022, it is not surprising that such scenarios motivated them to learn more. What is more, almost half of the learners found the animated movies and authentic video clips in the self-access materials useful (n=9, 45%). Similarly, Wain et al. (2019) reported that the participants in their study, which aimed to shed light on the learners' perceptions about learning pragmatics through *Words at Work*, mentioned audio-visual input as one of the most beneficial

features. Finally, some participants commented on the sequence of the activities. They mentioned that the tasks being sequenced from easy to complex helped them understand the pragmatics phenomena better (n=5, 25%).

To sum up, the findings of the present study revealed that the potentialities of CALL and MALL technologies can be useful to introduce pragmatics. Furthermore, the learners held positive opinions towards the use of digitally-mediated self-access materials to learn about pragmatic features of the language. In the following section, the concluding remarks, implications and suggestions for further research will be presented.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSION

6.1. Summary

Since English has been acknowledged as an international language, numerous people are motivated to improve their communication skills in English for reasons such as education, business and travel etc. As mentioned earlier, English is the language used for communication when people from different cultural backgrounds interact. However, acquiring vocabulary and grammatical formulae is only one part of becoming a competent speaker of a language, and is insufficient for successful IC. The studies mentioned in the literature review emphasized the importance of pragmatic competence to this end. Thanks to the vital role of pragmatics to achieve communicative goals in IC, various studies were carried out to find out how pragmatics instruction would contribute to the development of pragmatic performance (Takahashi, 2010; Taguchi, 2011; 2015). Even though these studies revealed noticeable evidence in favor of pragmatics instruction, pragmatics is still underrepresented in EFL classes in Turkey (Karatepe & Civelek, 2021).

Mirzaei and Rezaei (2012) listed the lack of time and the focus on pragmatics in the curriculum as some reasons behind the underrepresentation of pragmatics in EFL classrooms. Fortunately, the potentialities that technology offers enable teachers and learners to establish a virtual learning environment behind the walls of traditional classrooms, outside of class hours. Due to the Covid-19 pandemic, both EFL learners and teachers have had the opportunity to experience fully online instruction. Fully online instruction can be in different forms such as through synchronous and asynchronous CMC tools or digitally-mediated self-access materials. The present study primarily aimed to compare the impact of teacher-led fully online pragmatics instruction through synchronous CMC and self-paced learning of pragmatics through digitally-mediated self-access materials on the participants' pragmatic performance and awareness. The participants were prospective WAT participants who will soon go to the USA for the program and engage in IC for which pragmatic competence is crucial.

The present research sought to reveal answers to six research questions: (1) What is the impact of teacher-led fully online pragmatics instruction through CMC on EFL learners' pragmatic performance?, (2) What is the impact of self-paced fully online pragmatics learning through digitally-mediated self-access materials on EFL learners' pragmatic performance?, (3) Is there a significant difference regarding the development of pragmatic performance between

the two groups being exposed to different types of fully online pragmatics instruction procedures?, (4) What is the impact of teacher-led fully online pragmatics instruction through CMC on EFL learners' pragmatic awareness?, (5) What is the impact of self-paced fully online pragmatics learning through digitally-mediated self-access materials on EFL learners' pragmatic awareness?, (6) What are the perceptions of EFL learners who engaged with digitally-mediated self-access materials about self-paced pragmatics learning?

Research question 1, "What is the impact of teacher-led fully online pragmatics instruction through CMC on EFL learners' pragmatic performance?", aimed to find out to what extent teacher-led fully online pragmatics instruction through CMC would contribute to performance of features of pragmatics. The findings demonstrated that the learners significantly improved their requests in terms of both pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics. Furthermore, it was found that teacher-led CMC instruction significantly enriched the learners' repertoire of internal modification strategies.

Research question 2, "What is the impact of self-paced fully online pragmatics learning through digitally-mediated self-access materials on EFL learners' pragmatic performance?", intended to explore the efficacy of the implementation of digitally-mediated self-access materials to deliver pragmatics instruction. According to the results, self-paced learning through digitally-mediated self-access materials were proven to have the potential for pragmatic development. The present study has documented that the learners developed their request production with regard to not only the pragmalinguistics, but also the sociopragmatic aspects of the language. Moreover, the analysis of the request head acts showed that the learners increased their use of internal modifiers after the treatment.

Research question 3, "Is there a significant difference regarding the development of pragmatic performance between the two groups being exposed to different types of fully online pragmatics instruction procedures?", sought to compare the impact of teacher-led fully online pragmatics instruction through CMC and self-paced pragmatic learning through digitally-mediated self-access materials. While the findings demonstrated no statistically significant difference in the improvement regarding sociopragmatic scores of the two groups, the self-paced group appeared to have outperformed the teacher-led group in terms of improvement regarding pragmalinguistics.

Research question 4, "What is the impact of teacher-led fully online pragmatics instruction through CMC on EFL learners' pragmatic awareness?", attempted to discover to

what extent teacher-led fully online pragmatics instruction through CMC contributed to the learners' pragmatic awareness. The results showed that the learners failed to recognize the pragmatic features involved in the tasks in TA1 protocols. They mostly summarized the scenarios or commented on the situations in the tasks. However, they were more aware of both pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic aspects in the tasks in TA2 protocols. That is, teacher-led pragmatics instruction through CMC enhanced the participants' pragmatic awareness.

Research question 5, "What is the impact of self-paced fully online pragmatics learning through digitally-mediated self-access materials on EFL learners' pragmatic awareness?", aimed to shed light on the impact of self-paced pragmatics learning through digitally-mediated self-access materials on the participants' pragmatic awareness. The findings indicated that the participants failed to address pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic elements in the tasks during TA1 protocols as in the teacher-led group. However, they appeared to be more aware of such aspects after the treatment. Although they still continued to summarize the scenarios in the tasks or comment on the situations given in the tasks, they were more capable of articulating pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic aspects in TA2 protocols.

Research question 6, "What are the perceptions of EFL learners who engaged with digitally-mediated self-access materials about self-paced pragmatics learning?", attempted to reveal the learners' reflections on their experience with digitally-mediated self-access materials to learn about pragmatics. The findings revealed three categories for the interviews. Firstly, they talked about the pragmatic gains they had after the treatment. The learners mentioned that learning pragmatics through digitally-mediated self-access materials enhanced their awareness about pragmalinguistics, sociopragmatics, cultural differences, and politeness in interaction. Second, they expressed their perceptions about learning through digitally-mediated self-access materials. They considered the digitally-mediated self-access learning materials as easy to use. Additionally, they praised the self-navigation and pace adaptation potentialities which Nearpod offered them. Moreover, a learner mentioned the portability feature as a benefit. However, a few participants expressed technological challenges and lack of teacher support as constraints of self-access learning. Finally, they evaluated the tasks which they completed to learn about pragmatics. All the participants mentioned that the content of the lessons provided them with a lot of practice opportunities. The majority of them expressed that the feedback they were given helped them improve their requests. Most learners praised the content of the scenarios which they found realistic. Furthermore, audio-visual input and the sequence of the tasks going from

easy to complex appeared to be among positive views about the tasks introduced throughout the treatment. Yet, one participant claimed that the length of the lesson contents bored him.

6.2. Implications

The present study has revealed significant findings which have some important implications for EFL teachers, policy makers, and software developers. The current research has introduced how different types of online resources would contribute to the learners' development of pragmatic competence. The findings revealed that teacher-led fully online pragmatics instruction through CMC had a positive impact on the learners' pragmatic performance. Thus, we can interpret that EFL teachers can benefit from CMC potentialities to introduce pragmatics outside of official class hours when the textbooks or curriculum failed to cover pragmatics sufficiently. At times like the Covid-19 pandemic, learners and teachers cannot come together for educational purposes. All teachers and students globally had to move to virtual environments. The current research showed that synchronous CMC can be a useful instruction tool to introduce pragmatics at such times.

However, pragmatics instruction through CMC comes with its own issues. With the emergence of the Covid-19 pandemic, many studies focused on the challenges of remote teaching. In Civelek, Toplu and Uzun's study (2021), lack of interaction in remote teaching, inadequacy of remote teaching tools, students' demotivation to attend online sessions were listed as some of the major reasons behind EFL teachers' negative perceptions for online teaching. It is no surprise that teachers regarded lack of interaction as an obstacle of online instruction when they adopted a teacher-centered teaching approach in which teachers provide information and learners are passive listeners. In order to overcome such obstacles, the present study coupled CMC-based instruction with other Web 2.0 tools such as Nearpod, Padlet, Canva, and Wordwall. Combining CMC-based instruction with other Web 2.0 tools may partly have been the reason behind the learners' significant improvement of the pragmalinguistic and the sociopragmatic test scores, since Web 2.0 tools such as Nearpod and Padlet offered every learner equal opportunities for participation in each activity. Thus, it can be recommended for teachers to combine CMC with other web 2.0 tools to create a more interactive, engaging, and student-centered learning environment. In addition, the content of the activities being completely about WAT program might have resulted in learners' increased motivation to complete the tasks.

The results of the present research reported that self-paced learning can be useful as well to enhance learners' pragmatic performance. The internet potentialities provide teachers with a lot of Web 2.0 tools enabling them to prepare digitally-mediated self-access materials for their learners. Inadequate pragmatic language input and output opportunities are considered as major challenges for pragmatic development in EFL classrooms (El-Okda, 2011; Washburn, 2001). However, digitally-mediated self-access materials can be useful to expand the learning of pragmatics beyond the traditional language classroom. The present research showed how digitally-mediated self-access materials can be effective to provide learners with metapragmatic explanations, and opportunities for authentic language input and practice. EFL teachers should be encouraged to use such materials as assignment to widen input and output opportunities or to deliver pragmatics instruction if the curriculum unsatisfactorily presents pragmatic phenomena.

However, preparation of such materials requires an adequate level of theoretical knowledge about pragmatics, computer literacy as well as knowledge about materials development for pragmatics instruction. Based on the findings of semi-structured interviews, providing learners with sufficient practice opportunities, offering feedback, enriching the contents with audiovisual input, including realistic situations that students are likely to experience, and sequencing activities from easy to complex can be listed as some of the features teachers should consider while preparing such materials. Due to the underrepresentation of pragmatics in EFL textbooks (Ishihara, 2011; Ren & Han, 2016; Vellenga, 2004), university-level courses such as Materials Adaptation can include how to develop materials to introduce pragmatic aspects of the language apart from the pragmatics-related courses. Additionally, Civelek et al. (2021) suggested equipping prospective English language teachers with the tools to increase the quality of online instruction. This can be achieved by including pragmatics teaching methods that use online facilities in university-level courses for prospective teachers, such as Instructional Technologies. Current EFL teachers could also benefit from in-service training on this topic.

Classes involving mixed-level learners are defined as one of the most frequent challenges which EFL teachers encountered in Turkey (Bekiryazıcı, 2015). Sykes and Dubreil (2019) put forward that teaching and learning pragmatics are complex tasks. Owing to the complexity of pragmatics in nature, it can be really difficult for slower learners to keep up with the faster ones. Therefore, it can be recommended for EFL teachers to make use of digitally-

mediated self-access materials since they provide opportunities for self-navigation and pace adaptation.

Hockly (2015) emphasized that there has been a huge growth in the number of online language learning communities for the past decades. The number of available online applications is increasing. Yet, such materials mostly bring attention to either semantic or grammatical activities (Alnufaie, 2022). Therefore, it would not be an exaggeration to complain about the lack of software to learn about pragmatics. The current study presents successfully developed digitally-mediated self-access tasks which can be inspiring for software developers.

The results also reported that self-paced pragmatics learning helped learners develop pragmalinguistic accuracy more than teacher-led CMC-based instruction. However, it should be kept in mind that the learners in the current study were prospective WAT participants and the activities involved in the self-paced materials were based on WAT scenarios. Since the learners were going to take part in similar dialogues in the USA, they were highly motivated to learn from the tasks. Self-paced learning requires satisfactory autonomy level and high motivation. That is, these findings should not be interpreted as an indication for ignoring pragmatics in the L2 classroom. Even if self-access materials as the source of pragmatics instruction are being used, EFL teacher should still motivate and guide their learners to this end and make pragmatics a part of assessment.

The findings also proved that pragmatics instruction by means of both teacher-led online sessions through CMC and self-paced pragmatics learning through digitally-mediated self-access materials were likely to enhance learners' pragmatic awareness. Whereas the learners in both groups failed to address the pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic aspects in TA1 protocols, they tended to be more successful at pointing out to such features in TA2 protocols. That is, metapragmatic explanations and awareness raising activities boosted the learner outcomes regarding pragmatic awareness. In order for noticing to occur during the learning and teaching process, learners need to learn to look at language use analytically (Borg, 1994). For such analysis to be successful, the learners need to be provided with metalinguistic vocabulary (Murray, 2009). The findings showed that both types of fully online pragmatics instruction involved in the study enriched the learners' metalinguistic repertoire to talk about pragmatic aspects of the language. Traditionally, EFL teachers have been reluctant to introduce metalinguistic vocabulary, based on the belief that it makes pragmatics more complex for

learners. However, the current study has shown this to be untrue. Therefore, it can be concluded that EFL teachers should not hesitate to introduce metalinguistic vocabulary.

6.3. Recommendations for Further Research

The present research, to the author's knowledge, has so far been the first study in Turkey being conducted to find out the impact of two types of fully online pragmatics instruction procedures on pragmatic competence. The study revealed important findings in favor of both types of fully online pragmatics instruction procedures by triangulating a variety of data collection tools and analysis techniques. However, the study has some drawbacks. Thus, the research proposes some recommendations for the further studies.

First of all, the study did not involve a control group receiving no pragmatics instruction or face to face pragmatics instruction. There is no doubt that involving a control group would enable to depict the impact of different types of fully online pragmatics instruction procedures more clearly.

Secondly, this study was conducted with prospective WAT participants studying in different departments at a variety of universities in Turkey. Similar studies can be conducted with different age groups to find out whether age affects the efficacy of online pragmatics learning.

Furthermore, adding a diversity of variables to the research such as the level of autonomy, the time spent online, and individual differences etc. would help the researchers to present a more clear understanding about the efficacy of different types of online pragmatics learning.

In addition, the current research focused on the development of speech acts. Further studies can be conducted to investigate the effect of different types of online instruction procedures on other speech acts such as refusals, suggestions or different aspects of pragmatics.

Finally, learners' perceptions about learning pragmatics through synchronous teacher-led online instruction can be investigated in the future studies.

REFERENCES

- Abrams, Z. (2013). Say what?! L2 sociopragmatic competence in CMC: Skill transfer and development. *Calico Journal*, 30(3), 423-445. <https://doi.org/10.11139/cj.30.3.423-445>
- Abrams, Z. I. (2014). Using film to provide a context for teaching L2 pragmatics. *System*, 46, 55-64. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2014.06.005>
- Adams, W. C. (2015). Conducting semi-structured interviews. In K. E. Newcomer, H. P. Hatry & J. S. Wholey (Eds.) *Handbook of practical program evaluation* (pp. 492-505). Wiley. <https://doi.org/10.1002/9781119171386.ch19>
- Ajabshir, Z. F. (2019). The effect of synchronous and asynchronous computer-mediated communication (CMC) on EFL learners' pragmatic competence. *Computers in Human Behavior*, 92, 169-177. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.chb.2018.11.015>
- Aksoyalp, Y., & Toprak, T. E. (2015). Incorporating pragmatics in English language teaching: To what extent do EFL course books address speech acts?. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics and English Literature*, 4(2), 125-133. <https://doi.org/10.7575/aiac.ijalel.v.4n.2p.125>
- Alcon Soler, E. (2005). Does instruction work for learning pragmatics in the EFL context? *System* (33), 1-24. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2005.06.005>
- Alcón, E., & Safont, M. P. (2008). Pragmatic awareness in second language acquisition. In J. Cenoz & N. Hornberger (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of language and education* (pp. 193–204). New York: Springer.
- Alcón Soler, E., & Guzmán-Pitarch, J. (2010). The effect of instruction on learners' pragmatic awareness: a focus on refusals. *International Journal of English Studies*, 10(1), 65-80. <https://doi.org/10.6018/ijes/2010/1/113981>
- Alnufaie, M. R. (2022). Mobile-assisted language learning applications: Features and characteristics from users' perspectives. *Studies in Self-Access Learning Journal*, 13(3), 312–331. <https://doi.org/10.37237/130302>

- Alsmari, N. (2020). The effect of flipped classroom instruction on developing Saudi EFL learners' comprehension of conversational implicatures. *International Journal of English Linguistics*, 10(2), 107-127. <https://doi.org/10.5539/ijel.v10n2p107>
- Anderson, J. R. (1993). *Rules of the mind*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Arvanitis, P. (2019). Self-Paced Language Learning Using Online Platforms. In M. Dressman and R.W. Sadler (Eds.). *The Handbook of Informal Language Learning* (pp. 117-138). <https://doi.org/10.1002/9781119472384.ch8>
- Atay, D. (2005). Raising the pragmatic consciousness of Turkish prospective EFL teachers. *Eurasian Journal of Educational Research (EJER)*, 20, 48-61.
- Austin, J. (1962). *How to do things with words*. Oxford University Press.
- Bachman, L. F. (1990). *Fundamental considerations in language testing*. Oxford university press.
- Bachman, L. F., & Palmer, A. S. (1996). *Language testing in practice: Designing and developing useful language tests*. Oxford University Press.
- Balçı, B. (2009). *A comparative study on the performance of the requests and apologies by Turkish and American teenagers: A pragmatic competence point of view*. M.A. Thesis. Adana: University of Cukurova.
- Bardovi-Harlig, K., & Dörnyei, Z. (1998). Do language learners recognize pragmatic violations? Pragmatic versus grammatical awareness in instructed L2 learning. *Tesol Quarterly*, 32(2), 233-259. <https://doi.org/10.2307/3587583>
- Bardovi-Harlig, K. (1999), Exploring the interlanguage of interlanguage pragmatics: A research agenda for acquisitional pragmatics. *Language Learning*, 49, 677-713. <https://doi.org/10.1111/0023-8333.00105>
- Bardovi-Harlig, K. (2013), Developing L2 Pragmatics. *Language Learning*, 63, 68-86. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9922.2012.00738.x>

- Bardovi-Harlig, K., & Mahan-Taylor, R. (2003). Introduction to teaching pragmatics. *English Language Forum*, 41, 37-39.
- Barón, J., & Celaya, M. L. (2022). ‘May I do something for you?’: The effects of audio-visual material (captioned and non-captioned) on EFL pragmatic learning. *Language Teaching Research*, 26(2), 238-255. <https://doi.org/10.1177%2F13621688211067000>
- Bataineh, A., & Hussein, N. (2015). The effect of using webcam chat on the undergraduate EFL students' pragmatic competence. *International Journal of education*, 7(2), 350-378. <http://dx.doi.org/10.5296/ije.v7i2.7929>
- Beebe, L., & Cummings, M. C. (1985). Speech act performance: A function of the data collection procedures? *Paper presented at TESOL Convention*, New York.
- Bekiryazıcı, M. (2015). Teaching mixed-level classes with a Vygotskian perspective. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 186, 913-917. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2015.04.163>
- Belz, J. (2003). Linguistic perspectives on the development of intercultural competence in telecollaboration. *Language Learning & Technology*, 7(2), 68-99.
- Belz, J. A. (2007). The role of computer mediation in the instruction and development of L2 pragmatic competence. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 27, 45-75. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0267190508070037>
- Bibauw, S., François, T., & Desmet, P. (2015). Dialog-based CALL: An overview of existing research. In F. Helm, L. Bradley, M. Guarda, & S. Thouëсны (Eds.), *Critical CALL—proceedings of the 2015 EUROCALL conference* (pp. 57–64), Padova, Italy. <https://doi.org/10.14705/rpnet.2015.000310>
- Billmyer, K., & Varghese, M. (2000). Investigating instrument-based pragmatic variability: Effects of enhancing completion tests. *Applied linguistics*, 21(4), 517-552. <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/21.4.517>
- Blum-Kulka, S., House, J., & Kasper, G. (1989). *Cross-cultural pragmatics: Requests and apologies*. Ablex, Norwood, NJ.

- Blum-Kulka, S., & Olshtain, E. (1984). Requests and apologies: A cross-cultural study of speech act realization patterns (CCSARP). *Applied linguistics*, 5(3), 196-213. <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/5.3.196>
- Bobak, C. A., Barr, P. J., & O'Malley, A. J. (2018). Estimation of an inter-rater intra-class correlation coefficient that overcomes common assumption violations in the assessment of health measurement scales. *BMC medical research methodology*, 18(1), 1-11. <https://doi.org/10.1186/s12874-018-0550-6>
- Borg, S. (1994). Language awareness as methodology: Implications for teachers and teacher training. *Language Awareness*, 3(2), 61-71.
- Borovina, D. Š. (2017). Croatian EFL learners' interlanguage requests: A focus on request modification. *ELOPE: English Language Overseas Perspectives and Enquiries*, 14(1), 75-93. <https://doi.org/10.4312/elope.14.1.75-93>
- Brown, H. D. (2000). *Principles of language learning and teaching*. 4th Edition. Pearson Education.
- Brown, P., & Levinson, S. C. (1987). *Politeness: Some universals in language usage* (Vol. 4). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.
- Burgucu-Tazegül, A., Han, T., & Engin, A. O. (2016). Pragmatic failure of Turkish EFL learners in request emails to their professors. *International Education Studies*, 9(10), 105-115. <https://doi.org/10.5539/ies.v9n10p105>
- Campbell, R. & Wales, R. (1970). The study of language acquisition. In J. Lyons(Eds.) *New Horizons in Linguistics*. Harmondsworth: Penguin
- Canale, M. (1983). From communicative competence to communicative language pedagogy. In J. C. Richards & R. W. Schmidt (Eds.), *Language and communication* (pp. 2–27). London, United Kingdom: Longman.
- Canale, M., & Swain, M. (1980). Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing. *Applied Linguistics*, 1,1–47. <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/I.1.1>

- Celce-Murcia, M., Dörnyei, Z., & Thurrell, S. (1995). Communicative competence: A pedagogically motivated model with content specifications. *Issues in Applied Linguistics*, 6(2), 5-35.
- Chomsky, N. (1965). *Aspects of the theory of syntax*. MIT Press.
- Civelek, M. & Karatepe, Ç. (2021a). Technology-enhanced pragmatics instruction. In Ş. S. Çimen & B. Bal Gezeğin (Eds.) *Pragmatics and Language Teaching* (pp. 230-249). Pegem Akademi Yayınları.
- Civelek, M. & Karatepe, Ç. (2021b). The impact of student-paced pragmatics instruction through Nearpod on EFL learners' request performance. *Advances in Language and Literary Studies*, 12(6), 67-78. <https://doi.org/10.7575/aiac.all.v.12n.6.p.67>
- Civelek, M., Toplu, I., & Uzun, L. (2021). Turkish EFL Teachers' Attitudes towards Online Instruction throughout the COVID-19 Outbreak. *English Language Teaching Educational Journal*, 4(2), 87-98. <https://doi.org/10.12928/eltej.v4i2.3964>
- Cohen, A. (2016). The teaching of pragmatics by native and nonnative language teachers: what they know and what they report doing. *Studies in Second Language Learning and Teaching*, 6 (4), 561-585.
- Cohen, A. D., & Ishihara, N. (2005). A web-based approach to strategic learning of speech acts. *The Center for Advanced Research on Language Acquisition (CARLA)*. Retrieved from <http://www.carla.umn.edu/speechacts/Japanese%20Speech%20Act%20Report%20Rev.%20June05.pdf>
- Cohen, L. , Manion, L. & Morrison, K. (2007). *Research Methods in Education (6th edition)*. London:Routledge.
- Cohen, A. D., & Olshtain, E. (1994). Researching the production of second-language speech acts. In E. E. Tarone, S. M. Gass & A. D. Cohen (Eds.) *Research methodology in second-language acquisition*, (pp.143-156). Psychology Press.
- Creswell, J. W. (2009). *Research design: Qualitative, quantitative, and mixed methods approaches* (Third edition). CA: Sage.

- Crystal, D. (1985). *A Dictionary of Linguistics and Phonetics*. 2nd edition. Oxford: Blackwell.
- Cunningham, D.J. (2016), Request modification in Synchronous Computer-Mediated Communication: The role of focused instruction. *The Modern Language Journal*, 100, 484-507. <https://doi.org/10.1111/modl.12332>
- Cunningham, D. J. (2019). L2 pragmatics learning in computer-mediated communication. In N. Taguchi (Eds.) *The Routledge handbook of second language acquisition and pragmatics* (pp. 372-386). Routledge.
- DeKeyser, R. (2015). Skill acquisition theory. In B. VanPatten & J. Williams (Eds.), *Theories in Second Language Acquisition: An introduction* (pp. 94-112). 2nd Edition. Mahwah, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum.
- Derakhshan, A., & Eslami, Z. (2020). The effect of metapragmatic awareness, interactive translation, and discussion through video-enhanced input on EFL learners' comprehension of implicature. *Applied Research on English Language*, 9(1), 25-52. <https://dx.doi.org/10.22108/are.2019.118062.1476>
- Economidou-Kogetsidis, M. (2008). Internal and external mitigation in interlanguage request production: The case of Greek learners of English. *Journal of Politeness Research Language, Behaviour, Culture*, 4(1), 111–137. <https://doi.org/10.1515/PR.2008.005>
- El-Okda, M. (2011). Developing pragmatic competence: Challenges and solutions. *The Asian EFL Journal Quarterly*, 13(2), 169-198.
- Eslami, Z., & Liu, C. N. (2013). Learning pragmatics through computer-mediated communication in Taiwan. *International Journal of Society, Culture & Language*, 1(1), 52-73.
- Eslami, Z. R., Mirzaei, A., & Dini, S. (2015). The role of asynchronous computer mediated communication in the instruction and development of EFL learners' pragmatic competence. *System*, 48, 99-111. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2014.09.008>
- Erton, İ. (2007). Applied pragmatics and competence relations in language learning and teaching. *Journal of language and linguistic studies*, 3(1), 59-71.

- Faerch, C., & Kasper, G. (1989). Internal and external modification in interlanguage request realization. In S. Blum-Kulka, J. House, & G. Kasper (Eds.), *Cross-cultural pragmatics* (pp. 221–247). Norwood, NJ: Ablex
- Félix-Brasdefer, J. C. (2010). Data collection methods in speech act performance. In A. M. Flor & E. U. Juan (Eds.) *Speech act performance: Theoretical, empirical and methodological issues*, 26(41), 69-82.
- Félix-Brasdefer, J. C. (2017). Interlanguage pragmatics. In Y. Huang (Ed.), *The Oxford handbook of pragmatics* (pp. 416–434). Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.
- Félix-Brasdefer, J. C., & Cohen, A. D. (2012). Teaching pragmatics in the foreign language classroom: Grammar as a communicative resource. *Hispania*, 95(4), 650-669.
- Fidan, N., & Karatepe, C. (2021). How Do Erasmus Students Evaluate Their Language Learning Experience Abroad?. *Eurasian Journal of Educational Research*, 93, 51-72.
- Fraser, B. (1975). Hedged performatives. In P. Cole & J. L. Morgan (Eds.) *Speech acts* (pp. 187-210). Brill. https://doi.org/10.1163/9789004368811_008
- Gass, S. M., Behney, J., & Plonsky, L. (2013). *Second Language Acquisition: An Introductory Course*. 4th edition. New York: Routledge.
- Gazioğlu, T. & Çiftçi, H. (2017). Developing pragmatic competence through teaching requests in English classrooms. *Journal of Uludağ University Faculty of Education*, 30(1), 139-165. <https://doi.org/10.19171/uefad.323400>
- Golato, A. (2003). Studying compliment responses: A comparison of DCTs and recordings of naturally occurring talk. *Applied linguistics*, 24(1), 90-121. <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/24.1.90>
- Golonka, E. M., Bowles, A. R., Frank, V. M., Richardson, D. L., & Freynik, S. (2014). Technologies for foreign language learning: A review of technology types and their effectiveness. *Computer assisted language learning*, 27(1), 70-105. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09588221.2012.700315>

- González-Lloret, M. (2019). Technology and L2 pragmatics learning. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, (39) 113-127. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0267190519000047>
- Göy, E., Zeyrek, D., & Otçu, B. (2012). Developmental patterns in internal modification of requests: A quantitative study on Turkish learners of English. In M. Economidou-Kogetsidis & H. Woodfield (Eds.) *Interlanguage request modification*, (pp. 51-86). John Benjamins. <https://doi.org/10.1075/pbns.217.03goy>
- Greene, J. C., Caracelli, V. J., & Graham, W. F. (1989). Toward a conceptual framework for mixed-method evaluation designs. *Educational evaluation and policy analysis*, 11(3), 255-274. <https://doi.org/10.3102/01623737011003255>
- Haghighi, H., Jafarigohar, M., Khoshsima, H., & Vahdany, F. (2019). Impact of flipped classroom on EFL learners' appropriate use of refusal: achievement, participation, perception. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 32(3), 261-293. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09588221.2018.1504083>
- Hockly, N. (2015). Developments in online language learning. *Elt Journal*, 69(3), 308-313. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccv020>
- Honna, N. (1995). English in Japanese society: Language within language. *Journal of Multilingual & Multicultural Development*, 16(1-2), 45-62. <https://doi.org/10.1080/01434632.1995.9994592>
- Hymes, D. (1972). On Communicative Competence. In J. Pride, & J. Holmes (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics* (pp. 269-285). Harmondsworth: Penguin Books.
- Ishihara, N. (2007). Web-based curriculum for pragmatics instruction in Japanese as a foreign language: An explicit awareness-raising approach. *Language Awareness*, 16(1), 21-40. <https://doi.org/10.2167/la398.0>
- Ishihara, N. (2010). Instructional pragmatics: Bridging teaching, research, and teacher education. *Language and Linguistics Compass*, 4(10), 938-953. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1749-818X.2010.00242.x>
- Ishihara, N. (2011). Co-constructing pragmatic awareness: Instructional pragmatics in EFL teacher development in Japan. *Tesl-Ej*, 15(2), 1-16.

- Jeon, E. H. & Kaya, T. (2006). Effects of L2 instruction on interlanguage pragmatic development: A metaanalysis, in J. M. Norris and L. Ortega (Eds.) *Synthesizing research on language learning and teaching*. Amsterdam: John Benjamins, 165–211
- Jung, J. Y. (2002) Issues in acquisitional pragmatics. *Studies in Applied Linguistics and TESOL*, 2(3). <https://doi.org/10.7916/salt.v2i3.1642>
- Kaivanpanah, S., Alavi, S. M., & Taghizadeh Langari, M. (2020). The effect of Bloom-based ILP instruction on Iranian EFL learners' use of external and internal modification strategies in the speech act of request. *Journal of Language Horizons*, 4(1), 273-297.
- Kakegawa, T. (2009). Development of the use of Japanese sentence-final particles through email correspondence. In N. Taguchi (Eds.) *Pragmatic competence* (pp. 301-334). Berlin, Germany: Mouton de Gruyter. <https://doi.org/10.1515/9783110218558>
- Karaaslan, C. (24.03.2021). Milli Eğitim Bakanı Ziya Selçuk SABAH'a konuştu. 'Hibrit modele birçok okulun altyapısı uygun'. Sabah Gazetesi. Retrieved from <https://www.sabah.com.tr/yasam/son-dakika-milli-egitim-bakani-ziya-selcuk-sabaha-konustu-uzaktan-egitim-kalici-olacak-5430695>
- Karakaya, G. (2022). An analysis of face-to-face education and emergency-remote teaching: Readiness of ELT teacher trainees [unpublished master's thesis], Bursa Uludag University.
- Karatepe, Ç. (1998). *Teaching pragmalinguistics in teacher training programmes* [unpublished doctoral dissertation]. University of Liverpool.
- Karatepe, Ç. (2001). Pragmalinguistic awareness in EFL teacher training. *Language Awareness*, 10(2-3), 178-188. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09658410108667033>
- Karatepe, Ç. (2016). Indirectness in requests in complaint letters to the higher institution by Turkish EFL students. *Procedia-Social and Behavioral Sciences*, 232, 354-361. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.sbspro.2016.10.050>
- Karatepe, Ç. (2021). Hedged Turkish complaints and requests in the Problem-Solution text pattern. *Pragmatics and Society*, 12(3), 488-504. <https://doi.org/10.1075/ps.18051.kar>

- Karatepe, Ç. & Civelek, M. (2021). A case study on EFL teachers' views on material adaptation for teaching pragmatics. *RumeliDE Dil ve Edebiyat Araştırmaları Dergisi*, 23, 894-910. <https://doi.org/10.29000/rumelide.953259>
- Kasper (1997). Can pragmatic competence be taught? *Honolulu: University of Hawai'i, Second Language Teaching & Curriculum Center*. Retrieved from <https://nflrc.hawaii.edu/NetWorks/NW06/default.html>
- Kasper, G. (2001). *Four perspectives on L2 pragmatic development*. *Applied Linguistics*, 22(4), 502–530. <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/22.4.502>
- Kasper, G., & Dahl, M. (1991). Research methods in interlanguage pragmatics. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, 13(2), 215-247. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0272263100009955>
- Kasper & Rose (2002). *Pragmatic development in a second language*. Oxford, UK: Blackwell.
- Katchamat, P. (2018). The effect of flipped classroom instruction on appropriacy of English apology by Thai EFL learners. *International Journal of Pedagogy and Teacher Education*, 2, 13-119. <https://doi.org/10.20961/ijpte.v2i0.25142>
- Kılıçkaya, F. (2010). The pragmatic knowledge of Turkish EFL students in using certain request strategies. *Gaziantep University Journal of Social Sciences*, 9(1), 185-201.
- Kim, J. Y. (2000). Social interaction in computer-mediated communication. *Bulletin of the American Society for Information Science and Technology*, 26(3), 15-17. <https://doi.org/10.1002/bult.153>
- Kim, Y., & Taguchi, N. (2016). Learner–learner interaction during collaborative pragmatic tasks: The role of cognitive and pragmatic task demands. *Foreign Language Annals*, 49(1), 42-57. <https://doi.org/10.1111/flan.12180>
- Kıyançiçek, E. (2023). The relationship between motivation and pragmatic awareness: A case study of Turkish EFL learners [unpublished master's thesis], Bursa Uludağ University.
- Kline, P. (2000). *Handbook of Psychological Testing*. London, United Kingdom: Routledge.

- Koç, E. M. (2011). Politeness in requests: A cross-cultural study of Turkish and British natives. *Eurasian Journal of Educational Research*, 42, 153-166.
- Korkmaz, S., & Karatepe, Ç. (2023). Exploring the pragmatic awareness and competence of EFL instructors at tertiary level. *Anadolu Journal of Educational Sciences International*, 13(1), 34-55.
- Leech, G. (1983). *Principles of pragmatics*. Harlow, England: Longman.
- Li, S. (2013). Amount of practice and pragmatic development of request-making in L2 Chinese. In N. Taguchi & J. Sykes (Eds.), *Technology in interlanguage pragmatics research and teaching* (pp. 43-69). <https://doi.org/10.1075/llt.36.04li>
- Li, S. (2019). Cognitive approaches in L2 pragmatics research. In N. Taguchi (Eds.) *The Routledge handbook of second language acquisition and pragmatics*, (pp.113-127). New York/London: Routledge.
- Limberg, H. (2016). Teaching how to apologize: EFL textbooks and pragmatic input. *Language Teaching Research*, 20(6), 700-718. <https://doi.org/10.1177%2F1362168815590695>
- Lin, H. (2015). A meta-synthesis of empirical research on the effectiveness of computer-mediated communication (CMC) in SLA. *Language Learning & Technology*, 19(2), 85-117.
- Madak, M. (2004). *Gender differences in the use of requests by Turkish EFL learners* [unpublished master's thesis], Uludag University.
- Maeluskul, T. (2017). Factors Affecting to Thai Students Decision Making to Join Work and Travel Program in USA. *Dusit Thani College Journal*, 11(1), 258-274. Retrieved from <https://www.tci-thaijo.org/index.php/journaldtc/article/view/135541>
- Mann, S. (2011). A critical review of qualitative interviews in applied linguistics. *Applied linguistics*, 32(1), 6-24. <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/amq043>
- McConachy, T. (2009). Raising sociocultural awareness through contextual analysis: Some tools for teachers. *ELT journal*, 63(2), 116-125. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccn018>

- McConachy, T. (2019). L2 pragmatics as ‘intercultural pragmatics’: Probing sociopragmatic aspects of pragmatic awareness. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 151, 167-176.
<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.pragma.2019.02.014>
- McConachy, T., & Hata, K. (2013). Addressing textbook representations of pragmatics and culture. *ELT journal*, 67(3), 294-301. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/cct017>
- McNamara, T. & Roever, C. (2006). *Language testing: The social dimension*. Malden: UK, Blackwell.
- Melzi, G. & Caspe, M. (2010). Research approaches to narrative, literacy, and education. In K. A. King & N. H. Hornberger (Eds.), *Research methods in language and education: Encyclopedia of language and education*. New York: Springer, 151–165.
- Mirzaei, A. & Rezaei, M. S. (2012). Exploring the underrepresentation of pragmatic competence in the 12 classrooms in Iran. *International Journal of Social Sciences and Humanity Studies*, 4 (1), 73-84 .
- Nu, T., Anh, T., & Murray, J. (2020). Pragmatic content in EFL textbooks: An investigation into Vietnamese national teaching materials. *TESL-EJ*, 24(3), 1-28.
- Oberg, A., & Daniels, P. (2013). Analysis of the effect a student-centred mobile learning instructional method has on language acquisition. *Computer assisted language learning*, 26(2), 177-196. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09588221.2011.649484>
- Otcu, B., & Zeyrek, D. (2008). Development of requests: A study on Turkish learners of English. In M. Pütz & J. Neff-Van Aertselaer (Eds.) *Developing contrastive pragmatics: interlanguage and cross-cultural perspectives*, (pp. 265-299).
<https://doi.org/10.1515/9783110207217>
- Puebla, C., Fievet, T., Tsopanidi, M., & Clahsen, H. (2022). Mobile-assisted language learning in older adults: Chances and challenges. *ReCALL*, 34(2), 169-184.
<https://doi.org/10.1017/S0958344021000276>
- Punar, N., & Uzun, L. (2019). The Effect of the Skype [TM] Conference Call on English Speaking Anxiety. *International Online Journal of Education and Teaching*, 6(2), 393-403.

- Purpura, J. (2004). *Assessing grammar*. Cambridge, England: Cambridge University Press.
- Ren, W., & Han, Z. (2016). The representation of pragmatic knowledge in recent ELT textbooks. *Elt Journal*, 70(4), 424-434. <https://doi.org/10.1093/elt/ccw010>
- Riazi, A. M., & Candlin, C. N. (2014). Mixed-methods research in language teaching and learning: Opportunities, issues and challenges. *Language teaching*, 47(2), 135-173. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444813000505>
- Robinson, P. (2005). Cognitive complexity and task sequencing: Studies in a componential framework for second language task design. *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching* (43), 1–32. <https://doi.org/10.1515/iral.2005.43.1.1>
- Russell, V., & Vásquez, C. (2011). A web-based tutorial for the instruction of Spanish pragmatics. *IALLT Journal of Language Learning Technologies*, 41(2), 27-55.
- Şanal, Ç., & Ortaçtepe, D. (2019). Conceptual socialization in EFL contexts: A case study on Turkish EFL learners' request speech acts realization. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies*, 15(1), 376-399. <https://doi.org/10.17263/jlls.547766>
- Savvidou, C., & Economidou-Kogetsidis, M. (2019). Teaching pragmatics: Nonnative-speaker teachers' knowledge, beliefs and reported practices. *Intercultural Communication Education*, 2(1), 39-58. <https://dx.doi.org/10.29140/ice.v2n1.124>
- Schauer, G. (2009). *Interlanguage pragmatic development: The study abroad context*. Bloomsbury Publishing.
- Schmidt, R. W. (1990). The role of consciousness in second language learning. *Applied linguistics*, 11(2), 129-158. <https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/11.2.129>
- Schmidt, R. (1992). Awareness and second language acquisition. *Annual review of applied linguistics*, 13, 206-226. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0267190500002476>
- Schmidt, R. (1995). Consciousness and foreign language learning: A tutorial on the role of attention and awareness in learning. In R. Schmidt (Eds.), *Attention and awareness in foreign language learning* (pp. 1-63).

Searle, J. R. (1976). A classification of illocutionary acts. *Language in society*, 5(1), 1-23.
<https://doi.org/10.1017/S0047404500006837>

Searle, J. R. (1979). *Expressions and meaning: Studies in the theory of speech acts*.
Cambridge University Press.

Searle, J.R. (2002). Speech Acts, Mind, and Social Reality. In G. Grewendorf & G. Meggle
(Eds.) *Speech Acts, Mind, and Social Reality*. Springer, Dordrecht.
https://doi.org/10.1007/978-94-010-0589-0_1

Seidlhofer, B. (2004). 10. Research perspectives on teaching English as a lingua
franca. *Annual review of applied linguistics*, 24, 209-239.
<https://doi.org/10.1017/S0267190504000145>

Selinker, L. (1972). Interlanguage. *International Review of Applied Linguistics*, 10, 209-231.
<https://doi.org/10.1515/iral.1972.10.1-4.209>

Sofu, H. & Demirkol, T. (2016). Keeping the track of request realization by Turkish EFL
learners. In C. Can, A. Kilimci & K. Papaja (Eds.) *Social Sciences and Humanities A
Global Perspective*, (pp. 291-305). Detay Yayıncılık.

Svalberg, A. M. (2007). Language awareness and language learning. *Language
Teaching*, 40(4), 287-308. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444807004491>

Sydorenko, T. (2015). The use of computer-delivered structured tasks in pragmatic
instruction: An exploratory study. *Intercultural Pragmatics*, 12(3), 333-362.
<https://doi.org/10.1515/ip-2015-0017>

Sydorenko, T., Daurio, P., & Thorne, S. L. (2018). Refining pragmatically-appropriate oral
communication via computer-simulated conversations. *Computer Assisted Language
Learning*, 31(12), 157–180. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09588221.2017.1394326>

Sydorenko, T., Jones, Z., Daurio, P., & Thorne, S. (2020). Beyond the curriculum: Extended
discourse practice through self-access pragmatics simulations. *Language Learning &
Technology*, 24(2), 48-69.

- Sykes, J. M. (2005). Synchronous CMC and pragmatic development: Effects of oral and written chat. *CALICO journal*, 22(3), 399-431. <https://doi.org/10.1558/cj.v22i3.399-431>
- Sykes, J. M. (2018). Interlanguage pragmatics, curricular innovation, and digital technologies. *CALICO journal*, 35(2), 120-141. <https://doi.org/10.1558/cj.36175>
- Sykes, J. (2013). Multiuser virtual environments: Learner apologies in Spanish. In N. Taguchi & J. Sykes (Eds.), *Technology and interlanguage pragmatics research and teaching* (pp. 71–100). Amsterdam, Netherlands: John Benjamins.
- Sykes, J. M., & Cohen, A. D. (2006). Dancing with words: Strategies for learning pragmatics in Spanish. Regents of the University of Minnesota. Retrieved from http://www.carla.umn.edu/speechacts/sp_pragmatics/home.html
- Sykes, J. M., & Dubreil, S. (2019). Pragmatics learning in digital games and virtual environments. In N. Taguchi (Eds.) *The Routledge handbook of second language acquisition and pragmatics*, (pp. 387-399). Routledge.
- Takahashi, S. (2010). The effect of pragmatic instruction on speech act performance. In A. Martínez-Flor & E. Usó-Juan (Eds.) *Speech act performance: Theoretical, empirical and methodological issues* (pp. 127-144). Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins.
- Tagashira, K., Yamato, K., & Isoda, T. (2011). Japanese EFL learners' pragmatic awareness through the looking glass of motivational profiles. *JALT Journal*, 33(1), 5-26.
- Taguchi, N. (2008). Cognition, language contact, and the development of pragmatic comprehension in a study-abroad context. *Language learning*, 58(1), 33-71. <https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-9922.2007.00434.x>
- Taguchi, N. (2011). Teaching pragmatics: Trends and issues. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, 31, 289-310. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0267190511000018>
- Taguchi, N. (2015). Instructed pragmatics at a glance: Where instructional studies were, are, and should be going. *Language Teaching*, 48(1), 1-50. <https://doi.org/10.1017/S0261444814000263>

- Taguchi, N. (2019). Second language acquisition and pragmatics: An overview. *The Routledge handbook of second language acquisition and pragmatics* (pp. 1-14). New York: Routledge.
- Taguchi, N. (2020). Digitally mediated remote learning of pragmatics. *Foreign Language Annals*, 53(2), 353-358. <https://doi.org/10.1111/flan.12455>
- Taguchi, N., & Roever, C. (2017). *Second language pragmatics*. Oxford University Press.
- Taguchi, N., Xiao, F., & Li, S. (2016). Effects of intercultural competence and social contact on speech act production in a Chinese study abroad context. *The Modern Language Journal*, 100(4), 775-796. <https://doi.org/10.1111/modl.12349>
- Tajeddin, Z., Alemi, M., & Pashmforoosh, R. (2018). Idealized native-speaker linguistic and pragmatic norms in English as an international language: Exploring the perceptions of nonnative English teachers. *Language and Intercultural Communication*, 18(3), 300-314. <https://doi.org/10.1080/14708477.2017.1413105>
- Tashakkori, A., & Creswell, J. W. (2007). The new era of mixed methods. *Journal of mixed methods research*, 1(1), 3-7. <https://doi.org/10.1177/1558689806293042>
- Timpe-Laughlin, V. (2016). Learning and development of second and foreign language pragmatics as a higher-order language skill: A brief overview of relevant theories. *ETS Research Report Series*, (2), 1-8.
- Timpe-Laughlin, V., Green, A., & Oh, S. (2021). Raising pragmatic awareness: A think-aloud study. *System*, 98, 102470. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2021.102470>
- Timpe-Laughlin, V., Sydorenko, T., & Daurio, P. (2020). Using spoken dialogue technology for L2 speaking practice: what do teachers think?. *Computer Assisted Language Learning*, 1-24. <https://doi.org/10.1080/09588221.2020.1774904>
- Timpe-Laughlin, V., Wain, J., & Schmidgall, J. (2015). Defining and operationalizing the construct of pragmatic competence: Review and recommendations. *ETS Research Report Series*, 2015(1), 1-43. <https://doi.org/10.1002/ets2.12053>

- Tang, X., & Taguchi, N. (2020). Designing and using a scenario-based digital game to teach Chinese formulaic expressions. *CALICO Journal*, 37(1), 1-22.
<https://doi.org/10.1558/cj.38574>
- Thomas, J. (1983). Cross-cultural pragmatic failure. *Applied linguistics*, 4(2), 91-112.
<https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/4.2.91>
- Thuruvan, P., & Yunus, M. M. (2017). The speech act of request in the ESL classroom. *3L: The Southeast Asian Journal of English Language Studies*, 23(4), 212-221.
<http://doi.org/10.17576/3L-2017-2304-16>
- Trosborg, A. (1995). Statutes and contracts: An analysis of legal speech acts in the English language of the law. *Journal of Pragmatics*, 23(1), 31-53. [https://doi.org/10.1016/0378-2166\(94\)00034-C](https://doi.org/10.1016/0378-2166(94)00034-C)
- Tsang, A. (2022). Self-access learning of English intonation with speech software: examining learners' perceptions with a focus on their concerns and negative comments. *Language Learning in Higher Education*, 12(1), 209-229. <https://doi.org/10.1515/cercles-2022-2045>
- Üstünbaş, Z. (2021). The effects of flipped instruction through authentic videos on Turkish EFL learners' use of speech acts and willingness to communicate [unpublished master's thesis], Bursa Uludag University.
- VanPatten, B. & Benati A. G. (2014). *Key terms in second language acquisition*. Bloomsbury.
- Vasquez, C., & Sharpless, D. (2009). The role of pragmatics in the Master's TESOL curriculum: Findings from a nationwide survey. *TESOL Quarterly*, 43 (1), 5-28.
<https://doi.org/10.1002/j.1545-7249.2009.tb00225.x>
- Vellenga, H. (2004). Learning pragmatics from ESL & EFL textbooks: How likely?. *TESL-EJ*, 8(2).
- Wafa'A, H., & Altakhaineh, A. R. M. (2019). The effect of flipped classroom instruction on developing emirati EFL learners' pragmatic competence. *International Journal of*

Learning, Teaching and Educational Research, 18(10), 89-111.

<https://doi.org/10.26803/ijlter.18.10.6>

Wain, J., Timpe-Laughlin, V., & Oh, S. (2019). Pedagogic principles in digital pragmatics learning materials: learner experiences and perceptions. *ETS Research Report Series*, 2019, 1-21. <https://doi.org/10.1002/ets2.12270>

Washburn, G. N. (2001). Using Situation Comedies for Pragmatic Language Teaching and Learning. *TESOL journal*, 10(4), 21-26.

Wolfson, N. (1981). Invitations, compliments and the competence of the native speaker. *International Journal of Psycholinguistics*, 8(4), 7–22.

Wyner, L. (2014). Second Language Pragmatic Competence: Individual Differences in ESL and EFL Environments. *Working Papers in TESOL & Applied Linguistics*, 14(2), 84-99. <https://doi.org/10.7916/salt.v14i2.1307>

Yang, L. (2017). The effects of L2 proficiency on pragmatics instruction: A web-based approach to teaching Chinese expressions of gratitude. *L2 Journal*, 9(1), 62-83. <https://doi.org/10.5070/L29132729>

Yıldız, M. T. (2001). *Indirectness in the acquisition of pragmatic competence in a second language* [unpublished master's thesis], Uludag University.

Yıldız, T. (2004). *Gender differences in the use of requests by Turkish EFL learners* [unpublished master's thesis], Uludag University.

Yule, G. (1996). *Pragmatics*. Oxford University Press.

Zhang, Y. (2020). The effect of combining computer-mediated communication with instruction on EFL learners' pragmatic competence. *International Journal of TESOL Studies*, 2(4), 50-63. <https://doi.org/10.46451/ijts.2020.12.06>

Zhang, Y. (2021). Combining computer-mediated communication with data-driven instruction: EFL learners' pragmatic development of compliment responses. *System*, 103, 1-15. <https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2021.102624>

- Zhu, W. (2012). Polite requestive strategies in emails: An investigation of pragmatic competence of Chinese EFL learners. *RELC Journal*, 43(2), 217-238.
<https://doi.org/10.1177/0033688212449936>
- Zıngır-Gülten, A. G. (2008). *Requesting in English: Interlanguage pragmatics of Turkish children* [unpublished doctoral dissertation]. Anadolu University.
- Zıngır-Gülten, A. G. (2019). Requesting in English: Interlanguage pragmatics of Turkish children. In V. Krystev, R. Efe, & E. Atasoy (Eds.) *Theory and practice in social sciences* (pp. 298-307). St. Kliment Ohridski University Press, Sofia.
- Zıngır-Gülten, A. G. (2021). Research into pragmatics. In Ş. S. Çimen & B. Bal Gezeğin (Eds.) *Pragmatics and Language Teaching* (pp. 144-159). Pegem Akademi Yayınları.

APPENDICES**Appendix 1: Demographic Questionnaire**

1. Age:

- 19-21 22-24 Over 24

2. Gender:

- Male Female

3. University:

4. Department:

5. How much time do you approximately spend online in a day?

Less than an hour

1-3 hours

4-5 hours

More than 5 hours

6. Are you available to participate in online sessions between 10 a.m.-11.45 a.m. on Saturday and Sunday?

Yes

No

Appendix 2: Discourse Completion Test

Read the following situations and write what you would say in the blank turns in the dialogues.

1. You work at a hotel as a housekeeper. It's almost the end of your work period. You have known your supervisor for four months. You visit your supervisor in his office. You want to leave work a week earlier than your work end date. Here is a dialogue between you and your supervisor:

You: Do you have a minute, Chris?

Supervisor: Yeah, come on in.

You: _____

Supervisor: Well, I think that's okay. It's the end of the season, and we don't welcome a lot of visitors. However, you were supposed to provide us with a 2-week notice before your end date. You leaving early would put the hotel in a difficult position if we were welcoming more visitors.

2. You arrive in the USA. You need to call your sponsor to register in SEVIS, but you don't have a SIM card that works in the USA. You go to the Human Resources (HR) office. It's the first time you talk to the HR manager. You want to use their phone. Here is a dialogue between you and the HR manager:

You: Hello. I am a work and travel participant from Turkey.

HR Manager: Hey, welcome. Is there anything I can help you with?

You: _____

HR Manager: Sure. The phone is over there.

3. Your friends are going to San Francisco this weekend, and you want to go with them. However, you have to be at work. You have a new supervisor and you don't know him well. You want to have the weekend off so you can join your friends. Here is a dialogue between you and your supervisor:

You: Good evening, Chris.

Supervisor: Good evening. How is it going?

You: Fine, thanks. What about you?

Supervisor: Great!

You: _____

Supervisor: Well, we are quite busy this weekend, and this week's schedule has already been announced. Unfortunately, we can't accommodate your request.

4. It's the end of the day and you see your supervisor leaving the building. Your home is very close to the supervisor's house. You have known your supervisor for some time. You want to ask him to give you a ride. Here is a dialogue between you and your supervisor:

You: Hey, Chris. Are you leaving?

Supervisor: Yeah.

You: _____

Supervisor: Sure. Let's go.

5. You go to a restaurant to have dinner. The table seems a little dirty. You want to ask the server to get the table cleaned. Here is a dialogue between you and the server:

Server: Welcome. What would you like?

You: _____

Server: Oh, sorry about that. I'll get the table cleaned right away.

6. You work as a housekeeper at a large hotel. Your supervisor divided the housekeepers into groups and you are the group leader. One of your group members, Monika, left work early because she was sick. You have a close relationship with the housekeepers in your group. You want to ask one of them to clean 5 more rooms today. You don't want to sound bossy or impolite. Here is a dialogue between you and the housekeeper:

You: Hey, how are the things coming along?

Housekeeper: Pretty good, thanks. Nearly done.

You: Oh great. _____

Housekeeper: That's ok. I'll finish here and come and help with the other rooms.

7. You work at a hotel restaurant as a busser, and you share your housing with an American working there. Your roommate's 15-year old brother Cameron stays with you for a few days. The house is a little messy and you don't have time to clean because you need to go to work.

Your roommate is also at work. You want to ask your roommate's younger brother to clean the house. Here is a dialogue between you and Cameron:

You: You're staying home today, Cam?

Cameron: Yes, I don't have any plans.

You: _____

Cameron: You mean the whole house? Okay, I'll do it.

8. You stay in a dorm during your work and travel experience. There is one lady you've known for some time. She is working in the dorm. You go to the front desk. You want to have an extra blanket. Here is a dialogue between you and the lady:

You: Hey!

Lady: Hello, how may I help you?

You: _____

Lady: Sure. Just a minute.

9. It's your first day in the US. You are bored because you don't know anyone. You see two Romanian Work and Travel participants going to the beach. You want to join them. Here is a dialogue between you and the Romanian Work and Travel participants:

You: Hey, what's up?

Andrei: Not much. We are going to the beach.

You: _____

Andrei: Yeah, sure. Do you have a swimsuit?

10. You don't have enough money to pay this week's rent, which is \$150. You want to borrow that much from your close Polish friend, Victoria. You visit Victoria at her house. Here is a dialogue between you and Victoria.

You: I need to pay the rent today.

Victoria: I've already paid mine.

You: _____

Victoria: I'd love to help, but I don't have that much money.

11. You stay in a dormitory. You don't get along with your roommate and want to move to your close friend Debby's room. Unfortunately, Debby already has a roommate from Bulgaria. You don't know Veselina very well and you see her at the dorm. You want to ask Veselina to change rooms. Here is a dialogue between you and Veselina

You: Hey, excuse me. Do you have a minute?

Veselina: Yeah. Sure.

You: _____

Veselina: I'm sorry, but I really don't want to change my room.

12. Your roommate, Diana from the Philippines, is leaving the house to go shopping. You have shared the same room for two months. You want to ask Diana to buy a tube of toothpaste for you. Here is a dialogue between you and Diana:

Diana: I am going to Walmart. Do you need anything?

You: _____

Diana: Sure.

Appendix 3: Think Aloud Tasks

TASK 1. Read the dialogues and answer the following questions:

- Underline the “request” performed in the following dialogue.
- How do you know that it is a request?
- Do you think the request is appropriate (suitable) in the given context? Why (not)?



1.1. Ebru, a Work and Travel participant from Turkey, goes to the US General Consulate in Istanbul to apply for a J1 visa. Here is a dialogue between Ebru and a consular officer (CO).

Ebru: Hello.

CO: Hi. Can you tell me about yourself, please?

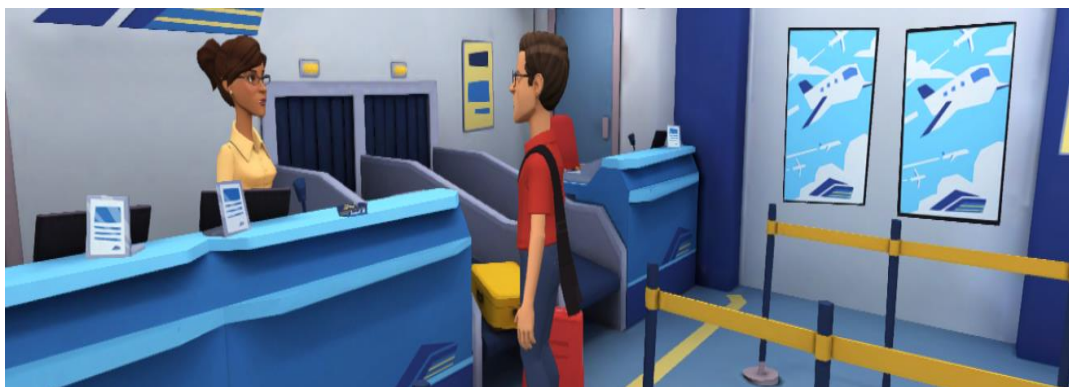
Ebru: Sure! My name is Ebru. I am a student from Bursa Uludag University. I am studying mechanical engineering. This is my first time participating in the Work and Travel Program.

CO: There are lots of places to visit in the USA. Where would you like to see most?

Ebru: I couldn't understand the question. Repeat that, please.

CO: (asks slowly) Where would you like to see most in the USA?

Ebru: Well, I would like to visit some national parks such as Kings Canyon and Yosemite before I come back to Turkey.



1.2. Mustafa arrives in Los Angeles International Airport as a participant of Work and Travel Program. Here is a dialogue between Mustafa and an officer at the helpdesk:

Officer: How Can I help you?

Mustafa: I have just arrived in Los Angeles. I would be most grateful if you could tell me how I can find a bus to Fresno?

Officer: Sure. Here is a map of the airport. (points to the map) We are here, and the exit is here. You can take a taxi in front of the exit door to go to Greyhound Bus Station and you can find a bus going to Fresno there.

Mustafa: Oh, thanks.

Officer: You're welcome.



1.3. Deniz, a Work and Travel participant from Turkey, works as a house keeper at a hotel in Virginia Beach. Here is a dialogue between Deniz and her supervisor, Sophie.

Deniz: Hey, Sophie.

Sophie: Hey, Deniz. What's wrong?

Deniz: I have two more rooms to clean, but I don't feel well. If it's OK, I need you to let me leave early today.

Sophie: You want to leave early? Well, I need to check how many rooms are left first. We need to finish all the rooms in an hour.

TASK 2. Evaluate the scenarios.

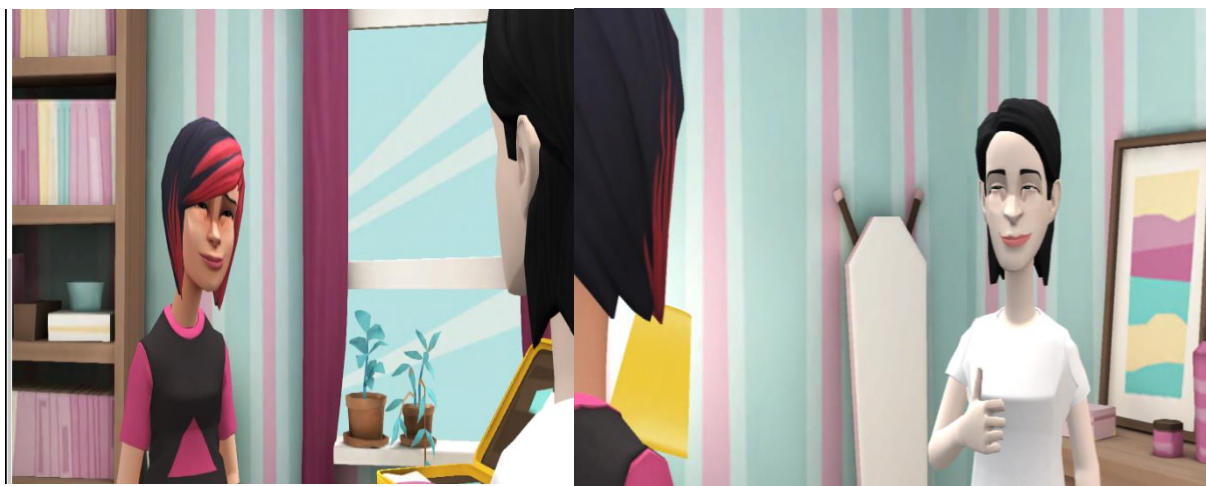
Read the scenarios given below carefully and rate how polite the requests in these scenarios should be in the scale given below.



2.1. Gokhan, a Work and Travel participant from Turkey, arrived at his accommodation. He has not met his roommate yet. As Gokhan enters the house, he is shocked. The living room is really dirty and untidy. He approaches him and asks him to clean his mess.

less Polite -----more polite

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10



2.2. Sinem, a work and Travel participant from Turkey, shares her accommodation with another girl from Russia. They are good friends. Sinem has no clean clothes; she explains the situation to Elmira and asks to borrow one of her t-shirts.

less Polite -----more polite

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10



2.3. Ali, a Work and Travel participant from Turkey, works at a restaurant. One of the customers complain about the food. It's Ali's first week at work and he barely knows the people working there. He wants to ask a more experienced American employee to deal with the situation.

less Polite -----more polite

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9 10

Task 3. Writing requests.

A work and travel participant wrote an e-mail to his program sponsor to complain about his job and asked for permission to change his job. The participant's request is written in bold.

- Is the email written appropriately? Is the request appropriate? Why? Why not? If not, how would you make this e-mail more appropriate?

Hello,

I am a work and travel participant from Turkey. My name is Mustafa Civelek. I work as a server at a restaurant in California. My employer does not provide me with adequate work hours and I cannot manage my expenses, so **I want you to offer me another job.**

I am looking forward to your response.

Regards,

Mustafa Civelek

Task 4. Oral production of request

Read the dialogue given below. A work and Travel participant, Merve, wants to change her position at work. She goes to the Human Resources Office to talk to the HR manager. She has never met the HR manager. If you were Merve, how would you say the request?



HR manager: I was waiting for you. What's the matter?

Employee: I heard that the restaurant was looking for a new server.

HR manager: Yes, that's true.

Employee: _____

HR manager: Well, I am not sure if I can help you. Do you have any serving experience?

Appendix 4: Semi-structured Interview Questions

1. Do you think you learned something about making requests in English from the digitally-mediated self-access materials? If yes, what did you learn?
2. Do you think you will be more careful while making requests in intercultural communication during your Work and Travel experience?
3. Do you think it was difficult to learn about requests in English through digitally-mediated self-access materials without teacher support?
4. What did you find useful about the contents of the digitally-mediated self-access materials?
5. Did you encounter any challenges while learning about requests in English by using digitally-mediated self-access materials?
6. Do you think the tasks provided you with the opportunity to practice what you learned? If yes, how?
7. Do you think the tasks helped you to learn from your mistakes? If yes, how?
9. What aspects of digitally-mediated self-access materials did you find useful?

Appendix 5: Schauer's (2009) Coding Framework for Internal Modification Strategies

Type of the Modifier	Name	Function	An example from the data sets
Lexical Downgraders	Downtoner	Sentence adverbial that is used to reduce the force of the request	Could I <i>possibly</i> have tomorrow off, please?
	Politeness Marker	Employed by the speakers to bid for their interlocutor's cooperation	Can you <i>please</i> clean my table?
	Understater	Adverbial modifier that is employed to decrease the imposition of the request by underrepresenting the proposition of the request	The table looks a little dirty. Any chance to clean it up <i>a bit</i> , please?
	Past Tense Modals	Past tense forms such as <i>could</i> instead of <i>can</i>	<i>Would</i> you give me one more blanket, please?
	Consultative Device	Used to consult the interlocutor's opinion on the proposition of the request	I think my house is on your way. <i>Would you mind</i> driving me home?
	Aspect	Progressive form of the verb that is used deliberately by the speaker	I was <i>wondering</i> if we could swap our rooms.
	Marked Modality	<i>Might</i> and <i>may</i> make the request appear more tentative	If you don't mind, <i>may</i> I use your phone to call them?
Syntactic Downgraders	Conditional Clause	Employed by the speakers to distance themselves from the request	So I wanted to ask you that <i>if</i> you could clean the house for today?
	Appreciative Embedding	Used by the speakers to reinforce the request internally by stating their hopes and positive feelings	<i>I would appreciate</i> if we could change our rooms please?
	Tentative Embedding	Employed by the speaker to make the utterance appear less direct and to show hesitation	<i>I was hoping</i> I could leave work one week earlier?


Appendix 6: Sample Tasks and Metapragmatic Explanations



Slayt 2 / 24

Do you talk to your supervisor/ manager/ professor the way you talk to your friends in Turkish? What is the difference?

Hazır mısınız? Yanıtınızı buraya girin.

 Ses Kaydet



 Open Ended Question

Slayt 3 / 24

"Tell me! Where is it?" Is this an appropriate request? Why? What would you say in this situation?

0:32 / 1:39

  Etkileşimli Mod



LET'S REMEMBER THE DIALOGUES

Dialogue	Situation	Request
1	Ali asks a stranger how he can go to Armtrak train station	Tell me! Where is it?
2	Ali wants to use his supervisor's cell phone	I want you to give me your cell phone.
3	Ali asks his roommate to clean the kitchen after he had his breakfast	I need you to clean the kitchen

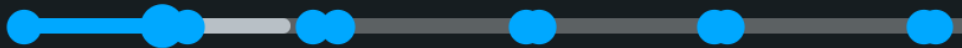
In these situations, Ali performed inappropriate requests. The requests are too «direct».

- In dialogue 1, Ali talks to a stranger. He doesn't know the hearer. He is expected to be **more polite**.
- In dialogue 2, Ali talks to his supervisor who is in higher position. He is expected to be **more polite**.
- In dialogue 3, Ali talks to his roommate whom he has known for a week. So, they are not very close. Additionally, Ali asks his roommate to clean the kitchen after messing it up. He is expected to be **more polite**.



What is the relationship between speakers in the dialogue?

- A. Close friends
- B. Roommates
- C. Supervisor-employee
- D. teacher-student



0:21 / 2:20



Etkileşimli Mod



LET'S REMEMBER THE DIALOGUES

Dialogue	Roles of the speakers	Place	Request
1	Employee-Supervisor	Cafe	I am sorry to have to ask this, but I have a terrible headache. I was wondering if I could leave early today.
2	Customer- Grocery Store Employee	Grocery store	Excuse me! Can you please tell me where the cheese section is?
3	Friend-Friend	Street	I am visiting my parents this weekend. You know I have two cats. When I am out of town, would you be able to feed them once a day?
4	Employee-Supervisor	Cafe	I have to go to the Social Security Office to apply for a social security number, and you know that the Office does not work on the weekend. Could I possibly have tomorrow off? So I can go to the social security office.
5	Friend-Friend	Park	I am going to the Social Security Office tomorrow. I was hoping we could go there together. I don't think I can manage this alone. I may need some help.

All the requests in the dialogues are **appropriate**.

Strategies to make polite requests

use modal verbs
(e.g. Can)



Can you tell me where the Armtrak train station is, please?

say "please"



Can you **please** tell me where the cheese section is?

Apologize



I am sorry (to ask this) but I was wondering if I could leave early today.

state a reason

I have to go to the Social Security Office to apply for a



Soru 1 / 10

It's the end of your Work and Travel program. Before you leave the US, you want to buy a handbag for your mother. You go to a store. You want to ask the salesperson to show you where the handbags are.

Which of the following is **the most appropriate request**?

A. Show me where the handbags are, please.



B. Excuse me, I would be most grateful if you could show me where the handbags are.



C. Excuse me, can you please tell me where the handbags are?



D. I want you to tell me where the handbags are.



Skip
Quiz



It's your first week in the US. Your roommate listens to music loudly. You don't know him well. You go to his room. You want to ask him to turn down the music and you say "**Turn down the music, I am trying to sleep.**"

How can you say this more politely?

Hazır mısınız? Yanıtınızı buraya girin.



Ses Kaydet

Your roommate leaves home to go shopping. You want to ask her to buy some cheese for you. You say:
"Would you buy some cheese for me, please? I'll pay when you come home"

A. Appropriate

B. Somewhat Appropriate

C. Inappropriate

Soru 2 / 12

You work as a housekeeper at a hotel. Your supervisor calls all the housekeepers into his office. He informs you about some new rules but you can't understand what he says. You want to ask him to speak more slowly. What do you say?

A. I am sorry but it's difficult for me to understand everything. Could you speak a bit slower, please?

B. Hey, I am not a native speaker. Speak slowly, please.

C. Sorry, but I can't hear you. Can you speak up?

D. Excuse me, Would you be able to speak slowly? We are not in a race.



Open Ended Question

Slayt 2 / 9

How would you ask your supervisor for a ride in this dialogue?

2:25 / 6:25

Etkileşimli Mod

Navigation icons: back, forward, play, volume, settings, and a progress bar.



Writing e-mails to higher authority

Slayt 7 / 9

Parts of an e-mail:

1. Begin with a greeting
2. Introduce yourself
3. State the reason
4. Make the request
6. Conclude the e-mail



Slayt 8 / 9

Sample e-mail written to CIEE by a WAT participant

Dear sir/madam,

My name is Mustafa Civelek. I am a Work and Travel Participant. I work at Cedar Point Amusement Park as a ride operator. I am writing this e-mail in reference to my job. Unfortunately, my employer does not provide me with adequate work hours and there are no second job opportunities here. It's quite difficult for me to maintain my life here. I was hoping I could change my job. I am looking forward to your response.

Regards,

Mustafa

Red: Greeting

Green: Introducing yourself

Yellow: stating the purpose of e-mail

Blue: Stating the problem/reason

Pink: Request

Brown: Concluding remarks

Black: Closing

ÖZ GEÇMİŞ			
Adı-Soyadı	Mustafa CİVELEK		
Bildiği Yabancı Diller	İngilizce		
Eğitim Durumu	Başlama	Bitirme	Kurum Adı
Lise	2010	2014	Ali Metin Kazancı Rize Lisesi
Lisans	2014	2018	Bursa Uludağ Üniversitesi
Yüksek Lisans	2020	2023	Bursa Uludağ Üniversitesi
Çalıştığı kurum	Başlama	Ayrılma	Çalışılan Kurumun Adı
1.	2018	2019	Rize Fen Bilimleri Okulları
2.	2019	2020	Rize Çözüm Koleji
3.	2020	2022	Çayeli Barbaros MTAL
4.	2022	-	Çayeli Fen Lisesi
Katıldığı proje ve toplantılar	ICRAL 2020 (IVth International Conference on Research in Applied Linguistics)		
Yayınlar:	<p>Civelek, M., & Karatepe, Ç. (2021). The impact of student-paced pragmatics instruction through Nearpod on EFL learners' request performance. <i>Advances in Language and Literary Studies</i>, 12(6), 67-78.</p> <p>Civelek, M., Toplu, I., & Uzun, L. (2021). Turkish EFL teachers' attitudes towards online instruction throughout the COVID-19 outbreak. <i>English Language Teaching Educational Journal</i>, 4(2), 87-98.</p> <p>Civelek, M. & Karatepe, Ç. (2021). Technology-enhanced pragmatics instruction. In Ş. S. Çimen & B. Bal Gezegin (Eds.) <i>Pragmatics and Language Teaching</i> (pp. 230-249). Pegem Akademi.</p> <p>Civelek, M., & Toplu, I. (2021). How Likely Is It to Teach Culture in EFL Courses?-The Case of Private and State School Teachers in Turkey. <i>European Journal of English Language Teaching</i>, 6(3).</p> <p>Karatepe, Ç. & Civelek, M. (2021). A case study on EFL teachers' views on material adaptation for teaching pragmatics. <i>RumeliDE Dil ve Edebiyat Araştırmaları Dergisi</i>, 23, 894-910.</p>		

			12.01.2023 Mustafa CİVELEK