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THE EFFICIENCY OF SHORT STORIES IN TEACHING SPEECH ACTS AS A PART OF PRAGMATIC COMPETENCE AND RELATED PRAGMATIC AWARENESS LEVELS OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE INSTRUCTORS AT TERTIARY LEVEL

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ABSTRACT

THE EFFICIENCY OF SHORT STORIES IN TEACHING SPEECH ACTS AS A PART OF PRAGMATIC COMPETENCE AND RELATED PRAGMATIC AWARENESS LEVELS OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE INSTRUCTORS AT TERTIARY LEVEL

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This study investigates the effectiveness of explicit purposive instruction through short stories on the acquisition of speech acts by Foreign Language (EFL) learners in Turkey. Secondly, it explores the extent to which EFL instructors are aware of pragmatic value of short stories in teaching speech acts and their actual practices in the classrooms. In line with these purposes, two separate groups as EFL learners and instructors were involved in this research. To assess the efficiency of short stories in teaching speech acts as part of pragmatic competence, data were collected from 28 pre-intermediate Turkish learners of English as a foreign language through assigning them in two groups, one treatment and one control group, each containing 14 learners. Participants in both groups were given a Discourse Completion Test (DCT) as a pre-test and a post-test. Learners in the treatment group received an explicit instruction through two short stories with role- playing and simulation, while the control group did not. The instruction lasted 4 weeks. Pre-Test and Post-Test Results indicated that the instruction on speech acts made the treatment group outscored the control group. In other words, explicit instruction based on the use of short stories improved learners' speech act comprehension significantly.

The second objective of this study is to gather some information about whether foreign language instructors were aware of the pragmatic value of short stories in teaching process. Data were collected from 20 EFL instructors via a structured questionnaire, containing two parts. The first section was to measure pragmatic awareness levels of EFL instructors. In the second section, their actual practices of using short stories as pragma-linguistic source in the classrooms were investigated. Findings illustrated that according to most of these instructors participating in this study, short stories have a positive impact on foreign language teaching, and so most of them always utilize short stories as pragma-linguistic sources in EFL settings.

Key Words:

Pragmatic Competence; Speech Acts; Explicit Instruction

ÖZ

EDİMSEL YETİNİN BİR PARÇASI OLAN SÖZ EYLEMLERİN ÖĞRETİMİNDE KISA HİKÂYELERİN ETKİSİ VE ÜÇÜNCÜ DÜZEYDEKİ YABANCI DİL ÖĞRETMENLERİNİN BUNA İLİŞKİN EDİMSEL FARKINDALIK DÜZEYLERİ

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Bu çalışma, kısa hikâyelerle beraber açık öğretimin Türkiye'deki yabancı dil öğrencilerinin söz eylem edinimleri üzerindeki etkisini incelemektedir. İkinci olarak, söz eylemlerin öğretiminde yabancı dil öğretmenlerinin ne ölçüde kısa hikâyelerin edimsel değerinin farkında olduklarını ve sınıf içi kısa hikâye kullanımlarını araştırmaktadır. Bu amaçlar doğrultusunda, yabancı dil öğrencilerinden ve öğretmenlerinden oluşan iki ayrı grup bu araştırmaya dahil edilmiştir. Edimsel yetinin bir parçası olan söz eylemlerin öğretiminde kısa hikâyelerin etkisini incelemek için, veriler İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen orta seviye öncesindeki 28 Türk denekten toplanmıştır. Bu öğrenciler her biri 14 kişi içeren uygulama ve kontrol grubu olarak ikiye ayrılmıştır. Her iki gruptaki katılımcılara ön test ve son test olarak bir söylem tamamlama testi verilmiştir. Uygulama grubundaki öğrenciler kısa hikâyelerle beraber açık öğretim alırken, kontrol grubundakiler bu öğretime tabi tutulmamışlardır. Öğretim 4 hafta sürmüştür. Ön test ve son test sonuçları, uygulama grubundaki öğrencilerin, söz eylemlere dayanan öğretim sayesinde kontrol grubunda olanlara büyük fark attıklarını göstermiştir. Diğer bir deyişle, kısa hikâyelere dayanan açık öğretim öğrencilerin söz eylem kavrayışını önemli derecede geliştirmiştir.

Bu çalışmanın ikinci amacı ise, yabancı dil öğretmenlerinin kısa hikâyelerin öğretme sürecindeki edimsel değerinin farkında olup olmadıkları hakkında bilgi toplamaktır. Veriler, iki bölümden oluşan yapılandırılmış bir anket ile 20 yabancı dil öğretmeninden

toplanmıştır. İlk bölüm, yabancı dil öğretmenlerinin edimsel farkındalık düzeylerini ölçmüştür. İkinci bölümde ise, bu öğretmenlerin edimsel-dilsel kaynak olarak sınıf içinde kısa hikâye kullanımları araştırılmıştır. Bulgular, bu çalışmaya katılan öğretmenlerin çoğuna göre, kısa hikâyelerin yabancı dil öğretimi üzerinde olumlu bir etkisi olduğunu ve bu yüzden bu öğretmenlerden çoğunun İngilizcenin yabancı dil olarak okutulduğu ortamlarda edimsel-dilsel kaynak olarak her zaman kısa hikâyeleri kullandıklarını göstermiştir.

Anahtar Kelimeler:

Edimsel Yeti; Söz Eylemler; Açık Öğretim

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Background to the Study

Until the 1970s, particularly grammatical or structural approach had been applied to EFL teaching. The main objective of this approach was that if students produced grammatically accurate sentences, they could learn how to communicate in the target language. Foreign languages are generally taught through the grammatical (structural or formal) syllabus design organized along grammatical lines giving primacy to language form. In the 1970s, however, this belief began to change, because it was clear that although a student was able to produce grammatically-correct sentences, he could not use them tactfully or appropriately in real life. In other words, being able to master linguistic structures is not enough to communicate effectively in a foreign language, because it is believed that to learn a language is indeed to learn how to communicate in that language (Zhao& Throssell, 2011). It became clear that communication required that students perform certain functions as well, such as promising, inviting, and declining invitations within a social context (Wilkins, 1976). Such observations contributed to a shift in the field in the late 1970s and early 1980s from a linguistic structure-centered approach to a Communicative Approach (Widdowson, 1990). Thus, language teaching moved the focus of syllabus design away from the grammatical syllabus to attempts to describe the nature of a communicative syllabus (Munby, 1978). It is also worth noting that, "there was a shift from the situational syllabus, which is commonly referred to as product-oriented, analytical syllabi whereby learners are required to achieve situational language accuracy, to communicative syllabi; namely, the functional-notional syllabus" (Ash-Shammari & Al-Sibai, 2005). As a part of the functional- notional syllabus, teaching language functions became the major factor in language teaching programs.

Since there has been a shift from linguistic competence to communicative one in recent years, the study of pragmatic language use has become appealing to many researchers and EFL teachers. Crystal (1997: 301) defines pragmatics as "the study of language from the point of view of users, especially of the choices they make, the

constraints they encounter in using language in social interaction and the effects their use of language has on other participants in the act of communication". "Currently, this term is extensively used in the field of second and FL acquisition and teaching, especially in reference to *pragmatic competence* as one of the abilities subsumed by the overarching concept of communicative competence" (Rueda, 2006: 173). Chomsky (1980: 224) defined the notion of pragmatic competence as the "knowledge of conditions and manner of appropriate use (of the language) in conformity with various purposes". Thus, making learners pragmatically competent has been the primary purpose of language teaching programs.

Pragmatics in language teaching and the concept of functions as part of the functional-notional syllabus also lead to the emergence of speech acts as important elements in EFL teaching, which has resulted from the development of Speech Act Theory. Speech Act Theory studies communicative actions in social contexts namely, "those patterned, routinized phrases used regularly to perform a variety of functions such as 'requesting', 'refusing', 'complimenting', 'greeting', 'thanking' and 'apologizing '' (Cohen &Ishihara, 2005:3). "Communicative action includes not only using speech acts, but also engaging in different types of discourse and participating in speech events of varying length and complexity" (Rose & Kasper, 2001: 2). In other words, "learners of a language not only need to learn the correct words and forms, but also the strategies for learning what to use them for, when to use them, how to use them, and how they may be combined with other speech acts" (Cohen &Ishihara, 2005: 3). Thus, a speech act as an action performed by means of language is an important element of communicative competence and the speech act theory not only conveys the linguistic rules people share to create the acts, but also leads language learners to use this language tactfully or appropriately. With regard to this aspect, it is crucial to master in speech acts while learning a second or foreign language, because they not only facilitate the process of communication but also make it more effective.

Teaching pragmatics, specifically speech acts, is reported to be challenging in the related literature. Several researchers (House, 1996; Tateyama et al., 1997; Rose and Ng, 2001; Takahashi, 2001; Kasper and Rose, 2002; Koike and Pearson, 2005) defend that speech acts should be taught openly. In other words, these researchers give support

to explicit instruction by which learners engage in metapragmatic activities that focus on the features of the target language. For instance, Eslami- Rasekh et al. (2004) investigated the effect of explicit metapragmatic instruction on the speech act comprehension of advanced EFL students. They included speech acts of requesting, apologizing, and complaining via teacher-fronted discussions, cooperative grouping, role plays, and other pragmatically oriented tasks as part of their explicit instruction. Using a pretest-posttest control group design, with Iranian undergraduate ELT students, a multiple choice pragmatic comprehension test was used both as a pre-test and post test to measure the effect of instruction on the pragmatic comprehension of the students. The results showed that students' speech act comprehension improved significantly and that pragmatic competence can be taught through explicit instruction even in EFL settings. However, others (Bouton, 1994; Kubota, 1995; Fukuya et al., 1998) contend that speech acts need to be acquired in the language classroom. That is to say, they suggest that through implicit instruction, which does not provide an opportunity for learners to use metapragmatic activities, pragmatics, specifically speech acts, should be taught. For example, in Salehi's (2011) study, the effect of explicit and implicit teaching of speech acts of apologies and requests was examined with 40 students. The study adopted quasi-experimental research design with two groups of implicit and explicit. To investigate the relationship between grammatical competence and pragmatic competence, a discourse completion test was given to both groups. Results showed that implicit group outperformed those in explicit group.

Regarding the major role of speech acts in teaching pragmatic competence, many activities and materials have been suggested to develop effective speech act behavior among foreign language learners. In order to help language learners acquire standard, polite and universal English, Li (1984) argues that language learners should be exposed to 'Authentic Language' of English. This means that to teach successful communication learners should deal with authentic materials, so EFL teachers should use various learning activities to make students engage in meaningful and authentic language use instead of in merely mechanical practice of language patterns (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). It is believed if EFL teachers can incorporate the knowledge of speech acts into those activities through Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) which is presently thought to provide a style of teaching and learning that is beneficial to

language learners (Richards& Rodgers, 2001), language learners may learn and utilize the target language more effectively and successfully (Lee& VanPatten, 2003; Newby, 2006; Littlewood, 2007). To achieve this, various authentic sources, such as English movies, TV shows and news broadcasts, from the native speech community should be used by EFL teachers in the classroom.

As authentic materials literary texts such as theatre extracts, poems, novels and stories can also be used to develop learners' pragmatic competence; because they present model language use and reflect target culture, making students engage in meaningful and authentic use of language. For instance, with the use of short stories learners can master in communication. As Adhikari (2006) points out, "short stories can be used as one of the means to achieve the ultimate goal of language teaching program. The ultimate goal of language teaching program is to develop communicative competence in language learners. Being communicatively competent means to be able to use the language appropriately in the given socio-cultural matrix. For this, users should possess the rules of lexico- grammar and the rules of the language use. Short stories can be used for this purpose".

In this study, we aim to explore the effect of short stories on teaching speech acts through explicit instruction as it is believed that pragmatic knowledge is an important component of foreign language teaching.

1.2 Problem

Non- native speakers of English generally fail to achieve the tactful use of English in their daily lives while communicating with native speakers although they have linguistic competence. Turkish learners of English usually suffer from the problems in comprehending and performing communicative actions in target language since language teaching has focused on the structure of language for years. Some Turkish researchers (Mızıkacı, 1991; Erçetin, 1995; İrman, 1996; İstifçi, 1998; Tunçel, 1999) focused on sociopragmatic failures of learners in Turkish and English speech act preferences and suggested possible sources to solve this problem in their studies. Thus, it is important for learners to master pragmatic knowledge making the process of communication much more effective in especially learning process.

As functional use of language is central in foreign language teaching, teaching pragmatic language use must be emphasized in language classrooms. Therefore, Speech acts as crucial parts of pragmatic knowledge are to be involved in teaching any foreign language.

In Turkey setting, it is evident that speech acts should be taught in English as a foreign language. However, in the existing curricula, there are no conscious attempts or traces to teach pragmatic language use. It has been claimed that "most textbooks and written manuals have been based on native speakers' intuitions rather than on empirical studies of pragmatic forms" (Boxer, 2003; LoCastro, 2003). Some researchers (Bardovi-Harlig et al., 1991) observed that the several of course-books introduce new grammatical structures instead of providing realistic conversational input, which causes course-books to be pragmatically inappropriate. Thus, the instruction given with only textbooks in foreign language classrooms is considered to be insufficient to develop Turkish learners' speech act behaviors. In line with the literature defending the use of explicit instruction in teaching speech acts in L2 , it is believed that speech acts as instances of functional language use should be emphasized and involved in language teaching. Therefore, EFL learners in Turkish setting should be taught pragmatic knowledge so that they can know how to use it appropriately in social or cultural contexts. On the other hand, EFL teachers in Turkish context should be aware of the importance of pragmatic knowledge. They should also provide all sort of pragmatic knowledge including speech acts so as to develop learners' pragmatic competence. In other words, English teachers need to help students understand socially appropriate communication like ; (…) speech acts in different social and cultural settings such as how to offer a request with respect and politeness (Flood, 2003).While doing this, methods and materials must be selected appropriately.

At this standpoint, literary texts play an important role as authentic materials in L2 teaching process. According to Collie and Slater (1991), there are four main reasons for using literary texts in foreign language classes. The first one is that literary texts are authentic materials. "In a classroom context, learners are exposed to actual language samples of real life /real life like settings" (Hişmanoğlu, 2005: 54). Secondly, literary texts are invaluable in that they reflect target culture, its social life and target people's

world view, perceptions and values. In EFL teaching learners' communicative competence can be cultivated through contexts, because they consist of various cultural patterns and values. Byram (1988) asserts that language has no function independent of the context in which it is used, thus language always refers to something beyond itself: the cultural context. Literary texts also support learners linguistically as they provide structural models and expressions. Additionally, as Mckay (1982) mentioned, they help personal development of the learners. Frye (1964: 129) supports this benefit of literature as follows: "It is clear that the end of literary teaching is not simply the admiration of literature; it' something more like the transfer of imaginative energy from literature to the students".

Therefore, EFL learners in Turkish setting should be taught pragmatic knowledge so that they can know how to use it appropriately or tactfully in social or cultural contexts. On the other hand, EFL teachers in Turkish context should be aware of the importance of pragmatic knowledge. They should also provide all sort of pragmatic knowledge including speech acts so as to develop learners' pragmatic competence. In other words, English teachers need to help students understand socially appropriate communication; (…) speech acts in different social and cultural settings such as how to offer a request with respect and politeness (Flood, 2003).

Especially short stories can be used to teach speech acts. They are best sources for analyzing both structures and functions of literary communication, because they consist of many formal or informal conversations among characters, between readers and characters, and even between authors and readers. Through using short stories learners can be engaged in authentic cultural experiences. The reason why we chose short stories in this study is that they are shorter and consist of many dialogues when compared to other genres such as novels and stories. In other words, "short stories seem to be the unique literary works to make use of due to their practical implementation, compact nature and readability in one setting. They are not broad in scope and have a single effect on the readers" (Alagözlü, 2006: 34).

Based on our observations on the insufficiency of pragmatic instruction, this study suggests that research needs to be conducted to determine the effect of short stories as tools of teaching pragmatics specifically, speech acts. In other words, this study focuses

on the pragmatic value of short stories in teaching speech acts to promote learners' pragmatic ability. Besides, language instructors need to be made aware of the use of short stories as pragma-linguistic sources.

1.3 Purpose of the Study

This study primarily purposes to draw attention to the need to teach pragmatics. In line with this, it is necessary to develop learners' pragmatic competence in L2 teaching process. Knowledge of speech acts as part of pragmatic competence plays a crucial role in learners' daily use of language. It is important for developing learners' communicative competence. Based on the theories of speech acts proposed by Austin and Searle (1970), there is now a large and fast-growing literature on interlanguage pragmatics, that is, a branch of pragmatics which specifically discusses how non-native speakers comprehend and produce a speech act in a target language and how their pragmatic competence develops over time, or in other words; learners' use and acquisition of L2 pragmatic ability (Kasper and Blum-Kulka, 1993; Kasper and Rose, 1999; Bardovi-Harlig, 2001). As foreign language learners, participants in these studies do not have a chance to perform L2 use outside the classroom, and so they cannot develop their communicative and pragmatic competence in their daily use of language. Since pragmatic competence requires communication in the world outside, the language classroom in its classical format and only textbooks are not enough for learners to product L2 language use in the real world.

Secondly, our study aims to test the efficiency of short stories in teaching speech acts pragmatics. Collie and Slater (1991) claimed that as authentic materials literary texts have positive effects on language learning and teaching, since in reading literary texts, students have to cope with language indented for native speakers and thus they gain additional familiarity with many different linguistic uses, forms, fundamental human and cultural issues and types of language use. Many writers such as Vandrick (1997), Lao and Krashen (2000), Murdoch (2002) and Erkaya (2005) mention that as a literary text, short stories have many benefits for making students engage in meaningful and authentic use of language and developing learners' four skills. As Adhikari (2006) points out, "the purpose of teaching short stories in the language classroom is obviously different from the purpose of teaching them in the literature classroom. In the former case, the short stories are used as a means to develop communicative competence […]".

The third objective of this study is to explore if explicit instruction works in teaching pragmatics and speech acts. In many studies, different teaching methods have been suggested to teach speech acts as part of pragmatic competence. Although most researchers still argue that to acquire pragmatic competence automatically learners should be exposed to the target language sufficiently to acquire pragmatic use automatically, others believe that in EFL context, explicit instruction is more effective in teaching functions of the target language. As a consequence, many studies prove that explicit instruction must be used more in teaching pragmatic abilities. To sum up, there are parties who defend explicit and implicit instructions in teaching pragmatics, particularly speech acts. However, "the results of the explicit method are generally better than the implicit method in the preceding literature in spite of opposite results in some studies" (Duan, 2008: 47). To observe to what extent explicit instruction can be effective in teaching speech acts, participants in this study were exposed to explicit instruction based on teaching speech acts in the given short stories.

Finally, in this study, it is aimed to find out if language instructors are aware of pragmatic value of short stories. As language teachers often notice and some literature suggests (e.g.,Bardovi-Harlig et al. 1991; Boxer and Pickering, 1995), few ESL/EFL textbooks reflect natural use of the language. For example, Bardovi-Harlig et. al. (1991) examined conversational closings in 20 textbooks for American English and found that a few of them represented closing phases accurately. Myers-Scotton and Berstein (1988) discovered similar discrepancies between the representation of many other conversational features in authentic discourse and textbook dialogues. Due to the inaccurate conversational representations in textbooks, learners are not aware of their pragmatic and language competence totally. Many ELT texts that are currently popular for the teaching of functions continue to concentrate on the acquisition of linguistic competence, with insufficient attention to a fuller communicative competence. It is generally accepted that the achievement of communicative competence involves not only linguistic but sociolinguistic, discourse and strategic competence as well (Canale and Swain, 1980). Therefore, language teachers should be aware of the importance of authentic discourse and differentiate between what is natural and what is not.

1.4 Research Questions

This study aims at answering the following questions;

1. Are short stories used to teach pragmatics, specifically speech acts?
2. Does explicit instruction work? Are short stories used for teaching speech acts explicitly?
3. Are language instructors aware of pragmatic value of short stories in language teaching?
4. What are language instructors' actual practices of using short stories as pragma-linguistic source in the classroom?

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

In this chapter, the aim is to present the review of the related literature and terminology. This review consists of three parts. The first part is an overlook of functional-notional syllabus including definitions of communicative and pragmatic competence. The second part is a brief definition of pragmatics in general. Speech acts, approaches to speech acts and Speech Act Theory are also explained in this part. Finally, research on pragmatics in language teaching is reviewed in the last section. Specifically, this part included speech acts in English language teaching and the role of explicit instruction in teaching speech acts as part of pragmatic competence as well as the place of literature, that is; short stories in teaching pragmatics, particularly speech acts.

2.2 Functional-Notional Syllabus

For years, language teaching programs had focused on the development of learners' linguistic competence. For this purpose, "language learning syllabuses for schools and colleges were structured around the grammar of the target language, dealing with categories such as noun classes or verb tenses systematically in turn and they assumed that the learner's goal was a complete, in-depth mastery of the target language, and also that the learner would be willing to study for some years before applying practically what had been learned" (Ash-Shammari & Al-Sibai, 2005). However, by the 1970s the needs and interests of learners of foreign languages gained importance in language teaching and learning. Thus, "there was a shift from the situational syllabus, which is commonly referred to as product-oriented, analytical syllabi whereby learners are required to achieve situational language accuracy, to communicative syllabi; namely, the functional-notional syllabus" (Ash-Shammari & Al-Sibai, 2005).

D. A. Wilkins (1976) was the most important proponent of this syllabus. He stated that "a notional-functional syllabus should comprise three categories of meaning: semantic-grammatical meaning (including time and quantity), modal meaning

(including an indication of the certainty and attitude of the speaker) and communicative function (including requests, complaints, and compliments, among a vast array of others)" (Richards, 2001: 37).

According to White (1988), two significant elements of the notional-functional syllabus are a notional aspect and a functional aspect. "The former is concerned with concepts such as 'time, space, movement, cause and effect' while the latter describes and classifies 'the intentional or purposive use of language'" (Raine, 2010: 5).

Ever since teaching language functions gained importance in foreign language teaching with the emergence of this syllabus, language educators have tried to find ways to teach complex second- or foreign language (L2) functions. So, pragmatic instruction focusing on the development of learners' functional abilities has become even more important in foreign language classrooms. To examine the main aim of Communicative Language Teaching, relating to pragmatic awareness, the functional- notional syllabus should be analyzed in depth. Premises, components and characteristics of functional notional syllabus are presented as following:

Premises:

1. Communication is meaningful behavior in a social and cultural context that requires creative language use rather than synthetic sentence building.
2. Language is constructed around language functions and notions; functions such as evaluating, persuading, arguing, informing, agreeing, questioning, requesting, expressing emotions and semantico- grammatical notions such as time, quantity, space, location and motion.

Components:

1. The situations in which the foreign language will be used. A situation will always include the following: the participants, the place and the time.
2. Topics, and what the learner will able to do with these, for example, everyday interactions, such as buying food, giving directions, are offering advice, etc.
3. The language activities in which the learner will engage
4. The language functions which the learner will perform

5. The general notions which the learner will be able to handle. Notions are the interaction of categories of meaning and grammatical form.
6. The specific (topic-related) notions which the learner will be able to handle.
7. The language forms the learner will be able to use. These forms are usually referred to as exponents which are the language utterances or statements that stem from the function, the situation and the topic.
8. The degree of skill the learner will be required to display.

Characteristics:

1. A functional view of language focusing on doing something through language
2. A semantic base, as opposed to a grammatical or a situational base
3. A learner-centered view of language learning
4. A basis in the analysis of learners' needs for using language that is reflected in goals, content selection and sequencing, methodology, and evaluation
5. Learner-centered goals, objectives, and content organization reflecting authentic language behavior and offering a spiraling development of content
6. Learning activities involving authentic language use
7. Testing focused on ability to use language to react to and operate on the environment (cited in Ash-Shammari & Al-Sibai, 2005).

2.2.1 Communicative Competence

Due to the shift from a linguistic structure-centered approach to a Communicative Approach in the late 1970s, the communicative syllabus gained importance in language teaching. In effect, "Communicative Language Teaching emerged as the leading current frame work and has since been readily embraced by language educators" (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). Called the Communicative Approach, it focuses on the combination of linguistic form, meaning and functions. This shift has made communicative competence a key concept in language teaching and learning.

The first person introducing the term of competence was Chomsky. In his book "Aspects of the Theory of Syntax" (1965) a distinction between competence and performance was made. He defined competence as "the monolinguial speaker-listener's knowledge of language and equated performance with the actual use of

language in real situations" (Chomsky, 1965). Thus, "competence, which is regarded as the proper object of transformational grammar, is exclusively associated with rules of form and criterion of grammaticality" (Chomsky, 1965: 11).

Chomsky's concepts of competence were disapproved by many researchers (e.g. Savignon, 1972) in applied linguistics. They expressed "their strong disapproval at the idea of using the concept of idealized, purely linguistic competence as a theoretical ground of methodology for learning, teaching and testing languages" (Bagaric, 2007). According to applied linguists, the Chomskyan concept of competence (1957, 1965) was too restricted due to providing only a partial account of the knowledge required for language use. Hymes introduced the notion of "communicative competence" in 1967. He described the term as "knowledge required to use language effectively and appropriately in context" (Blum-Kulka, 1980). Namely, Hymes (1972) defined communicative competence "not only as an inherent grammatical competence but also as the ability to use grammatical competence in a variety of communicative situations, thus bringing the sociolinguistic perspective into Chomsky's linguistic view of competence" (Bagaric, 2007).

Using the contrast between the "underlying" and the "actual" in distinguishing between competence and performance, Hymes (1972: 283) bases his redefinition of competence (in terms of communicative competence) on the acceptability rather than the grammatical correctness of utterances. According to Trosborg (1995: 9), this implies a much more comprehensive concept of competence, which in a sense subsumes Chomsky's narrow notion of linguistic competence, as communicative competence embraces rules of form as well as rules of use.

Besides Chomsky and Hymes, there were other applied linguists who made valuable researches to develop the concept of communicative competence. . He defined competence in terms of the knowledge of linguistic and sociolinguistics conventions, and related capacity with using knowledge as means of creating meaning in a language. According to him, ability does not turn into competence, but remains "an active force for continuing creativity" (Widdowson, 1983: 27).

Canale and Swain (1980) and Canale (1983) also defined the concept of communicative concept as "a synthesis of an underlying system of knowledge and skill needed for communication" (Bagaric, 2007). They classified types of knowledge as knowledge of underlying grammatical principles, knowledge of how to use language in a social context in order to fulfill communicative functions and knowledge of how to combine utterances communicative functions with respect to discourse principles.

Models of Communicative Competence

After Hymes (1972:283), the first practical model of the communicative competence was offered by Canale and Swain (1980). This model was later revised and developed by Canale (1983). According to a fairy recent framework (Canale and Swain, 1980; Canale, 1983), communicative competence is seen "as a modular or compartmentalized view of competence, rather than as a single global factor".

On the linguistic level, communicative competence includes four interrelated areas of competence: linguistic competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence and strategic competence. According to Trosborg (1995:10), comprising the knowledge of how to communicate meaning, suing acceptable forms in appropriate contexts, it conflates the concepts of linguistics and socio-cultural knowledge.

On the psycholinguistic level, two dimensions of communicative competence are a knowledge component and a skills component (Trosborg, 1995:10). Canale and Swain (1980: 34) emphasize that the notion involves knowledge as well as skill in using this knowledge in actual communication. Whereas knowledge denotes what one knows (consciously or unconsciously) about other aspects of communicative language use, skill refers to how well one can use this knowledge in actual communication (Canale, 1983:5).

Canale and Swain (1980), Canale (1983) view communicative competence as having four aspects:

1. Grammatical competence is concerned with mastery of the language code itself.

2. Discourse competence concerns mastery of how to combine grammatical forms and meanings to achieve a unified spoken or written text in different genres.
3. Sociolinguistic competence addresses the extent to which utterances are produced and understood appropriately in different sociolinguistic contexts depending on contextual factors.
4. Strategic competence is composed of mastery of verbal and non-verbal communication strategies that may be called into action for two main reasons: (a) to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to limiting conditions in actual communication or to insufficient competence in one or more of the other areas of communicative competence; and (b) to enhance the effectiveness of communication.

Grammatical competence is mainly concerned with mastery of linguistic code (verbal or non-verbal) including vocabulary knowledge as well as knowledge of morphological, syntactic, semantic, phonetic and orthographic rules. Namely, this kind of competence deals with the mastery of the language code. It embraces features and rules of the language such as vocabulary, word formation, sentence formation, pronunciation, etc. (Baleghizadeh, 2007).

According to Canale (1983), the main concern of discourse competence is the appropriateness of utterances to their linguistic contexts. It deals with how sentences are combined to form unified spoken or written texts. Cohesion and coherence are two important concepts to form this unity. Cohesion deals with how utterances are agglutinated through pronouns, ellipses, conjunctions, etc. on the other hand, coherence asserts the logical relationships among different parts of a text. Trosborg (1995) also takes discourse competence to include discourse management, e.g. turn taking, use of gambits, discourse phases, such as openings and closings of a conversation. The theoretical framework rests on recent work in the area of discourse analysis (e.g. Sinclair and Coulthart, 1975; Burton, 1980; Coulthart and Montgomery, 1981).

As related to Hymes' belief about the appropriateness of language use in a variety of social situations, the sociolinguistic competence is concerned with the

appropriacy issue. It deals with how utterances are produced and understood appropriately in different sociolinguistic contexts. According to Canale (1983:7), "appropriateness of utterances refers to both appropriateness meaning and appropriateness of form".

In the model of Canale and Swain, strategic competence is composed of knowledge of verbal or non-verbal communication strategies including paraphrase, circumlocution, repetition, reluctance, avoidance of words, structures or themes, guessing, changes of register and style, modifications of messages, etc.

Since the adoption of the communicative approach, the focus on linguistic or grammatical accuracy in the learning of a second or foreign language (FL) "has passed to second place, giving primary importance to the achievement of functional abilities in the target language (TL) with the final purpose of understanding and producing language that is appropriate to communicative situations in accordance with specific sociocultural parameters" (Rueda, 2006: 170). As a consequence, the notion of pragmatic competence has been extensively used in the field of second and FL acquisition and teaching as an overarching concept of communicative competence.

2.2.2 Pragmatic Competence

Chomsky (1980: 224) defined the notion of pragmatic competence as the "knowledge of conditions and manner of appropriate use (of the language), in conformity with various purposes. Grammatical competence that in Chomskyan terms is "the knowledge of form and meaning" is opposite to this concept. Canale and Swain (1980) included pragmatic competence as one important component of their model of communicative competence. In this model, pragmatic competence was identified as sociolinguistic competence and defined as the knowledge of contextually appropriate language use (Canale & Swain, 1980; Canale, 1983; Rueda, 2006). This definition was expanded by Canale (1988) through stating that pragmatic competence includes "illocutionary competence, or the knowledge of the pragmatic conventions for performing acceptable language functions, and

sociolinguistic competence, or knowledge of the sociolinguistic conventions for performing language functions appropriately in a given context" (Canale, 1988: 90).

According to Bialystok (1993), pragmatic competence includes: 1) the speaker's ability to use language for different purposes; 2) the listener's ability to get past the language and understand the speaker's real intentions (e.g. indirect speech acts, irony, and sarcasm); and 3) the command of the rules by which utterances come together to create discourse.

Pragmatic competence is a critical component in the communicative spectrum due to its attention to the role of the hearer in the communicative process. As discussed in previous sections, for many years, the learning of a second or foreign language (FL) was equated with linguistic or grammatical accuracy. However, since the adoption of Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) as an approach which reflects pragmatic competence the language teaching or learning has focused on the recognition of interdependence of language and communication. Widdowson (1978) notes that although students may have learned the rules of linguistic usage, they are often unable to use the language in context. Effective communication, then, can only take place when the message conveyed by the speaker is interpreted appropriately and understood by the hearer (Savignon, 1997). Thus, the acknowledgment of pragmatic competence is an essential component to achieve proficiency in second language (L2).

Factors Affecting Pragmatic Competence

According to Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnvei (1998), the factors such as input, instruction, level of proficiency and length of stay living in the L2 culture, and the L1 culture affect the pragmatic competence directly.

The first factor is related to learners' input. Academic materials such as textbooks or even the instructor may not expose learners to appropriate target language input, since several textbooks are not sufficient to teach speech acts at all, and so learners cannot get enough pragmatic information about a language. As Cook (2001) states, "foreign language instructional settings are characterized by restricted input and practice due to two facts: first, that the target language tends to be treated as an

object of study instead of as a means of socialization and a communication tool; and second, that classroom organization is teacher-fronted". "Bardovi- Harlig and Hartford (1996) have characterized traditional teacher-student talk as an unequal status encounter, where the teacher's speech does not serve as a good model for the speech of the learners" (Rueda, 2006: 176). Therefore, academic talk, instructors and L2 learning materials restrict the learners' input.

Instruction has also a direct effect on pragmatic competence. The more learners are exposed to specific pragmatic features by the instructor the more their pragmatic awareness can be affected. "As testing assessments have typically evaluated the learner's linguistic competence through grammar-oriented tasks, the learner may not feel it is necessary to prepare for tasks based on pragmatic understanding of these forms" (Vitale, 2009: 17). This affects pragmatic language learning negatively.

The learner's level of proficiency is another factor that affects pragmatic competence. "Through only a limited amount of research has been done in this area, some studies reveal that advanced learners are likely more capable of performing a speech act more appropriately in a given context" (Vitale, 2009: 18). A study conducted by Koike (1996) supports this idea. In this study, Koike selected two separate groups; one including advance learners, the other including intermediate students to evaluate the pragmatic knowledge of EFL and ESL learners from Hungary. The results showed that advanced learners' pragmatic abilities were undoubtedly better than intermediate students'. Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnvei (1998) also assert that "the longer the learner interacts with native speakers or is immersed in a community of speakers of the L2, the more pragmatically aware the learner becomes".

The length of stay in the L2 culture has an influence on pragmatic competence. Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnvei (1998) also assert that "the longer the learner interacts with native speakers or is immersed in a community of speakers of the L2, the more pragmatically aware the learner becomes".

The relationship between the first language and culture is the last factor affecting pragmatic competence. Beebe views pragmatic transfer as "transfer of L1

sociocultural communicative competence in performing L2 speech acts or any other function of language, where the speaker is trying to achieve a particular function of language" (Beebe et al., 1990: 56). If the speaker achieves to convey the message successfully, a positive transfer occurs. On the other hand, a negative transfer occurs when the learner incorrectly uses a speech act, linguistic form of a speech act, or opts to omit a speech act where it is needed based on his/her comparison of the L1 and L2 (Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnvei, 1998).

In consequence, pragmatic instruction in the FL classroom needs to fulfill three functions: 1) exposing learners to appropriate target language input, 2) raising learners' pragmatic and metapragmatic awareness about the instructed aspect, and 3) arranging authentic opportunities to practice pragmatic knowledge (Rueda, 2006).

To understand the concept we need a deeper look at the concept of pragmatics in language study in general.

2.3 Pragmatics

The modern usage of *pragmatics* was first introduced by Morris (1938: 6) who used the term in a very broad sense to refer to the study of "the relations of signs to interpreters". Crystal (1997:301) defined pragmatics as "the study of language from the point of view of users, especially of the choices they make, the constraints they encounter in using language in social interaction and the effects their use of language has on other participants in the act of communication". Namely, communicative actions in sociocultural contexts are the main concern of pragmatics studies. Communicative action includes not only includes not only using speech acts (such as apologizing, complaining, complimenting and requesting), but also engaging in different types of discourse and participating in speech events of varying length and complexity (Rose&Kasper, 2001).

Morris originally defined pragmatics as "the discipline that studies the relations of signs to interpreters, while semantic studies the relations of signs to the objects to which the signs are applicable" (as cited in Liu, 2007: 6). Sharples (1996) defines pragmatics in this way: "Those aspects of the study of language that pertain to the identity and intentions of the speaker and the hearer, and the context in which

speech takes place". Regarding context, he said "it is sometimes most narrowly regarded as the body of world knowledge to which speakers and hearers have access in generating and interpreting speech" (Sharples, 1996).

According to Levinson (1983:5), pragmatics, in a traditional sense, comprises "the study of language usage", to be distinguished from syntax, which is "the study of combinatorial properties of words and their parts", and from semantics, which is "the study of meaning" (Levinson, 1983; 5). Leech (1983) redefines pragmatics for the purpose of linguistics as "the study of meaning in relation to speech situations, deals with "utterance meaning" rather than sentence meaning, and he makes a distinction between semantic and pragmatic meaning. Whereas semantic meaning is defined purely as "a property of expressions in a given language" (What does X mean?), he sees pragmatic meaning "relative to a speaker or user of the language" (What did you mean by X?) (Leech, 1983: 6).

According to Leech (1983) and Thomas (1983), there are two components of pragmatics; *pragmalinguistics* and *sociopragmatics*.

Pragmalinguistics refers to "the resources for conveying communicative acts and relational or interpersonal meanings" (Rose & Kasper, 2001). Namely, "pragmalingusitics includes strategies like directness and indirectness, routines and a large range of linguistic forms which can intensify or soften communicative acts" (Kasper, 1997). For Kasper and Rose (2002), "pragmatic linguistic knowledge requires mappings of form, meaning, force, and context, that may be obligatory as when prepackaged routines are used or not as when non-conventional indirectness is needed". The main task of pragmalinguistics is to answer three questions:

1- Why do communicants begin their verbal communication?
2- Why is a verbal communication of communicants realized in this particular way?
3- How do communicants act in a speech communication? (Matveeva & Zyubina, 2011)

For example, in two versions of an apology "*I'm absolutely devastated – could you possibly find it in your heart to forgive me?*", the speaker chooses from among the

available pragmalinguistic resources of English which serve the function of apologizing (which would also include other items such as *It was my fault* or *I won't let it happen again*), but she indexes a very different attitude and social relationship in each of the apologies (e.g. Fraser, 1981; House & Kasper, 1981; Brown and Levinson, 1987; Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper, 1989).

On the other hand, sociopragmatics is defined as "the sociological interface of pragmatics" (Leech, 1983:10), referring to the social perceptions underlying participants' interpretation and performance of communicative action. Speech communities differ in their assessment of speakers' and hearers' social distance and social powers, their rights and obligations, and the degree of imposition involved in particular communicative acts (Blum-Kulka & House, 1989; Olsthain, 1989; Takahashi & Beebe, 1993; Kasper & Rose, 1999). As Thomas (1983) points out, although pragmalinguistics is, in a sense, akin to grammar in that it consists of linguistic forms and their respective functions, sociopragmatics is very much about proper social behavior, making it a far more thorny issue to deal with in the classroom- it is one thing to teach people what functions bits of language serve, but it is entirely different to teach people how to behave "properly".

2.3.1 Speech Act Theory

Since this study is concerned with teaching speech acts to Turkish learners of English through using short stories, it is necessary to clarify what is meant by the term 'speech act' first. This clarification is to help us understand the significance of speech acts in the development of learners' pragmatic competence.

A speech act can be defined as 'an utterance as a functional unit in communication' (Richards, Platt & Weber, 1985). While conveying a meaning, people create utterances or speeches involving grammatical structures and words. At the same time, they exercise some acts or actions via those utterances.

The concept "speech act" was first introduced in modern language philosophy by Austin in his book *How to Do Things with words (*1962). According to Austin, the concept of speech acts is based on 'constative utterances' and 'performative utterances'. Constatives are utterances in which something is said and they can be evaluated along a

dimension of truth while performatives are utterances in which something is done which cannot be evaluated along a dimension of truth but 'felicity (appropriateness) '.

Austin (1962) listed the general characteristics of performatives as follows:

· They do not describe, report, or constate anything at all,

· They are not true or false,

· They can't be checked by looking at world,

· Uttering a performative is part of doing an action (an action not normally described as "just saying something" (cited in Deveci, 2003: 14).

Austin emphasized that when a person utters sentences, he performs actions. In the place of initial distinction between constatives and performatives, Austin substituted a three-way contrast among the kinds of acts that are performed when language is put to use, namely the distinction between locutionary, illocutionary, and perlocutionary acts, all of which are characteristic of most utterances, including standard examples of both performatives and constatives (Sadock, 1974).

- *Locutionary act:* the utterance (phonemes, morphemes, sentences) of a sentence with determinate sense and reference
  For Example: 'Would you close the door, please?' (a direct question with a clear content)
- *Illocutionary force* (act): the making of a statement, offer, promise, etc. in uttering a sentence, by virtue of the conventional force associated with it.
  *For Example: '*The door is there". (an indirect request to ask somebody to leave)
- *Perlocutionary act:* the bringing about of effects on the audience by means of uttering the sentence, such effects being special to the circumstances of utterance (cited in Deveci, 2003: 16).

It is also necessary to clarify Searle's concept of speech act. On the basis of Austin' Speech Act Theory, Searle (1969) develops 'linguistic theory' and proposes 'linguistic acts'. Namely, in his analysis of speech acts, Searle argued that all linguistic communication involves linguistic acts. While Austin stresses a performative act, Searle

deals with the conditions and rules related to how a listener responses to an utterance. According to Searle, the important things in speech acts are what the speaker means or intends, what the utterance conveys, what the hearer appreciates, and what the rules govern the linguistic elements (Zhao & Throssell, 2011). Contrary to Austin, Searle (1976) points out that "many verbs are not markers of illocutionary force but of some other feature of the speech act". "Searle (1969) places speech act at the very crux of the study of language, meaning and communication" (Zhao and Throssell, 2011: 89).

Hudson defined speech act function as "a bit of speech produced as part of a bit social interaction- as opposed to the linguist's and philosopher's decontextualised examples" (1980:110).

2.3.1.1 Classification of Speech Acts

Locutionary Speech Acts

As the least ambiguous component of the speech act, locutionary act refers to performing an act of saying something. According to Austin, there are three aspects of the locutionary act:

Austin claims that to say anything is:

- always to perform the act of uttering certain noises (a phonetic act)
- always to perform the act of uttering certain vocables or words (a phatic act)
- generally to perform the act of using that [sentence] or its constituents with a certain more or less definite 'sense' and a more or less definite 'reference', which together are equivalent to 'meaning' (rhetic act) (Bach and Harnish 1979: 19).

Three sub-acts of the locutionary act are phonetic, phatic and rhetic which were often criticized by Austin followers such as Searle and Wardhaugh. Searle (1969: 412) warns that Austin's rhetic act is nothing else but a reformulated description of the illocutionary act and he therefore suggests another term, the so-called propositional act which expresses the proposition (a neutral phrase without illocutionary force). In other words, a proposition is the content of the utterance. On the other hand, Wardhaugh (1992: 285) mentions that propositional acts are those matters having to do with referring and predicating: we use language to refer to matters in the world and to make predictions about such matters.

Locutionary acts can be defined as direct speech acts, because the speaker performs his/her utterances directly. In other words, there is a direct correlation between the utterance type and the function. For instance, in the utterance "Let's go out" the speaker makes a suggestion directly, and so the type and the function are related. Direct speech acts can be strengthened by the use of performatives, as in the utterance "I suggest you to go out".

Illocutionary Speech Acts

Trosborg (1995: 22-23) asserts that "illocutionary acts are seen as communicative devices which express an intended environmental effect beyond comprehension of the speech act. According to Searle, such verbs as state, describe, assert, warn, remark, comment, command, order, request, criticize, apologize, censure, approve, welcome, promise, object, demand and argue denote illocutionary acts, and he reports Austin's claim that there are over a thousand such expressions in English (as citied in Searle, 1979: 136). Both Austin and Searle base their theories on the hypothesis that "speaking a language is engaging in a rule-governed form of behavior" (Searle, 1969: 11).

In his last chapter, Austin (1962) presents a preliminary, intuitive, five-way taxonomy of illocutionary acts that Austin himself admitted was neither particularly well-motivated nor always unambiguous in its application to particular examples (Sadock, 1974). Austin's classification of illocutionary acts is as follows:

1- *Verdictives:* acts that consist of delivering a finding, e.g. acquit, hold (as a matter of law), read something as, etc.
2- *Exercitives:* acts of giving a decision for or against a course of action, e.g. appoint, dismiss, order, sentence, etc.
3- *Commissives:* acts whose point is to commit the speaker to a course of action, e.g. contract, give one's word, declare one's intention, etc.
4- *Behabitives:* expressions of attitudes towards the conduct, fortunes or attitudes of others, e.g. apologize, thank, congratulate, welcome, etc.
5- *Expositives:* acts of expounding of views, conducting of arguments, and clarifying, e.g. deny, inform, concede, refer, etc.

In "A classification of illocutionary acts", Searle (1976: 1-6) makes a consistent classification of functions of language usage by dividing illocutionary acts into a limited number of major categories. . According to his ideas, there are five classes of speech acts defined as follows:

1- *Representatives:* The representative act makes the speaker commit to the truth of something. With the purpose of describing the world the speaker says how something is, in Searle's words he tries to make "the words match the world" (1976). This class includes acts such as affirming, alleging, asserting, stating, forecasting, predicting, announcing, concluding, insisting, notifying, confessing, denying, and so on (Parker & Riley, 2000: 15).

2- *Directives:* The speaker performing directives tries to get the hearer to do something. The main aim of the speaker is to make "the world matches the words". For example, the purpose of a request is to involve the hearer in some future function which has positive consequences (benefits) for the speaker and may mean costs to the hearer (Trosborg, 1995: 14-15). This class includes acts of requesting, ordering, questioning, forbidding, advising, suggesting, insisting, recommending, warning, and so on (Parker & Riley, 2000:15).

3- *Commissives:* The point of commissives is to commit the speaker to do something. Similar to directives, the speaker tries to make "the world watches the words". In the case of an offer, as an example, the speaker means that he volunteers to carry out a future action assuming that the result of which will have some positive consequences for the hearer (but he is not sure if the hearer wants the action carried out or not) (Trosborg, 1995:16). This class includes acts of promising, volunteering, offering, threatening, swearing, vowing, and so on (Parker & Riley, 2000:15)

4- *Expressives:* The point of this class is to state what the speaker feels. They express various psychological states such as likes, dislikes, joy, sorrow, etc. for example, in an apology, the speaker expresses the regret (on the part of the speaker) having performed (or failed to perform) a prior action which has negative consequences on the hearer (Trosborg, 1995: 15). Thanking, welcoming, apologizing, congratulating, deploring, objecting and commiserating are some examples of this class (Parker & Riley, 2000: 15).

5- *Declarations:* Declaratives change the world through their utterance. The speaker's attempt is to make both "words to world" and "world to words" (Trosborg, 1995: 16). This last groups includes acts of naming, resigning, baptizing, appointing, surrendering, christening, declaring war, firing from employment and so on (Parker & Riley, 2000: 15).

Perlocutionary Acts

While performing perlocutionary acts, the speaker produces a further effect on the hearer. Although sometimes these speech acts are not very different from illocutionary or indirect speech acts, there is an important feature which tells them apart. This difference can be explained in the following example:

E.g. 'Would you open the door?'

In this utterance, the speaker makes a request. If it is considered as merely an illocutionary act, the hearer should open the door to make the act successful, but when considered as a perlocutionary act, the utterance succeeds only if the hearer actually opens the door.

2.3.2 Directness and Indirectness

When people perform an utterance, they sometimes try to say something indirectly. Namely, they sometimes mean more than what they say. Verschueren's (1985:10) statement "this is not true only with respect to the propositional content of utterances but also with respect to their illocutionary force. Such indirectness needs to be accounted for and in connection with the illocutionary force in terms of indirect speech acts" supports this idea. Parker and Riley (2000: 23) mention that an illocutionary act is issued directly when the syntactic form (structure) of the utterance matches the illocutionary force of the utterance (function).

Speech acts are categorized into direct and indirect speech acts in terms of the extent of the directness. Direct speech acts convey the illocutionary force the same as the surface form whereas indirect speech acts refer to the illocution different from the literal meanings. According to Searle (1975), an indirect speech act is one illocutionary act performed indirectly by using another speech act directly. For instance, in the utterance

‘Do you feel cool?’ the speaker asks a question directly, but in fact he makes an indirect request for closing the window.

Direct speech acts usually lack ambiguity because of their conversational relationship between utterances and functions. However, indirect speech acts include implicit meaning and connotation which cause the hearer to be confused. Namely, the hearer has to read between the lines and then infer the speaker’s true intention of the utterance in the light of certain conventional ways of formulating these acts (Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper, 1989; Leech, 1983; Searle, 1979). An act is indirect if it is not performed by means of performing any other act (Akmajian et al., 1979: 272). For example, an indirect illocutionary act is issued when the Wh- interrogative form “Why don’t you be quiet?” is used as the directive “Be quiet!” (Parker & Riley, 2000: 23). “Can you pass me the salt?” is an indirect speech act because it is an imperative subtype distinguished as an interrogative (Verschueren, 1985; 10).

Indirect speech acts are regarded to be more polite than direct speech acts in English (Yule, 1996: 56). Taylor (1990) supports Gibbs’ (1986) findings claiming that over 90 percent of English speakers’ requests are made indirectly. According to many English speakers, German speakers learning English is not polite because they sometimes prefer to use direct speech acts in performing their utterances in their native language. That’s why German speakers make pragmatic errors in English. Wierzbicka (1985) supports this idea with this statement: “the more indirect a request is, the more polite it is”.

2.3.3 Approaches to Speech Acts

2.3.3.1 Politeness

Each speech community has its own understanding in using language and establishing interpersonal relations, leading to potential difficulties in interaction between cultures. Since the late 1970s, various politeness theories have been proposed within pragmatics to explain interactional conventions of language use- both universal and culture-specific. To analyze these theories in depth, the term ‘politeness’ is to be defined first.

Watts (2003) notes that” the politeness phenomena had not yet developed due to a lack of theoretical basis” until Speech Act Theory emerged in the 1960s. For this

reason, politeness in linguistic pragmatics and sociolinguistics is considered a fairly new discipline in North America and Western Europe. The notion of politeness is still debated in the field of pragmatics due to its nature as a cross-cultural phenomenon, varying from one social context to the other. As Koike (1992) notes, "politeness is a social constitution that comprises the interrelationship between sociocultural norms, linguistic form, and function".

For this reason, it is very difficult to make a true definition of politeness. Primarily, its contextual variability and complexity has prohibited researchers from providing one precise definition inclusive of all cultural contexts. Whereas some have researched specific politeness theories concerning particular cultures, others have been interested in notable universal definitions of politeness. Thus, as not only a pragmatic concept but also as a lay concept and sociolinguistic concept, the term 'politeness' leads to some confusion among researchers. Lakoff (1973) believed politeness could be conveyed by following two principal rules of interactional competence: 1) Be clear; 2) Be polite. According to Lakoff (1973), politeness is also further illustrated by the following principles: a) don't impose; b) give options; and c) make the listener feel good-be friendly. Lakoff herself points out that there is inconsistency within her own postulation that being polite may not always coincide with expressing oneself clearly and adequately. In the following, the three principle approaches to the study of politeness from a pragmatic perspective are presented in a framework adopted by Fraser (1990).

2.3.3.1.1 Conversational-maxim view

Both the conversational- maxim and the face-saving view of politeness have their starting point in Grice's account of verbal interaction (Grice, as cited in Cole and J.L. Morgan, 1978). Grice's belief is that ultimate goal of any two or more individuals engaged in a conversation is to achieve comprehension, or clearly convey the message. This notion is based on Grice' Cooperative Principle (CP) which states that "you should make your conversational contribution such as is required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of talk exchange in which you are engaged" (1975: 45). In his framework, Grice also defines several maxims and sub-maxims as guidelines for 'rational' linguistic usage, yet these conversational maxims differ from grammatical rules. Related to this issue, Fraser asserts that "whereas the

violation of a grammar rule results in ungrammaticality and the assessment not 'knowing' the language, violation of a conversational maxim may be accepted as signaling certain speaker intentions" (1990:81). Fraser sumps up the principle by stating that "other things being equal, minimize the expression of beliefs which are unfavorable to the hearer and at the same time (but less important) maximize the expression of beliefs which are favorable to the hearer" (1990:225).

In accordance with Grice's maxims, Lakoff (1973) further develops the concept of grammaticality to denote the direct interrelationship between the grammar itself and pragmatics as it relates to the concept of politeness: "We should like to have some kind of pragmatic rules, dictating whether an utterance is pragmatically well-formed or not, and the extent to which it deviates if it does" (1973: 296).

Together with Lakoff, Leech (1983) maintains the fundamentals of Grice's approach but with the alternative approach of classifying politeness as a component of rhetorical pragmatics regarding goal-directed linguistic behavior. (Vitale, 2009). Like other researchers, such as Edmonson (1981) and Lakoff (as cited in Barron, 2003), Leech's opinion is that speakers not only heed the co-perative principle in conversation, but also a further principle relating to the interactional nature of conversation. He also developed Politeness Principle which is sometimes in conflict with Grice's co-perative principle. The objective of Politeness Principle is to establish and socially maintain the alliance of the speaker and hearer so that the speaker may assume cooperation (Koike, 1992). Similar to the co-perative principle, politeness principles includes a number of maxims such as Tact, Meta, Generosity, Approbation, Modesty, Agreement, and Sympathy, each of which functions along a range of different pragmatic scales which allow a speaker to determine the relevant degree of modesty, agreement, generosity, etc. necessary in each particular case. Leech's maxims have a relationship with particular illocutionary forces.

On the other hand, such polite theorists, such as Brown and Levinson (1987), Lakoff (as cited in Barron, 2003) and Leech (1983), argue, however, that Grice's account of verbal interaction is insufficient as it concentrates on the referential function of language, and thus, does not adequately account for politeness in language- indeed, politeness is characterized as a mere flouting of the maxims. Unlike Grice, politeness

researchers highlight the relational function of language, and the related conflict and resultant trade-off between the goals of politeness and maximum efficiency.

2.3.3.1.2 Face-saving view

A second central assumption of the theory relates to Goffman's (as cited in Barron, 2003: 16) concept of 'face' which Brown and Levinson adopt and expand to include both positive and negative aspects. Brown and Levinson (1978, 1987) proposed that there are two principal types of politeness. Face refers to "…the public self-image that every member wants to claim for himself" (Brown & Levinson, 1987: 61). In interaction, face "…can be lost, maintained, or enhanced, and must be constantly attended to" (Brown & Levinson, 1987: 61). In order to protect 'face' of both parties, both the speaker and the listener use particular communication strategies to assuage the communication (Koike, 1992).

As the first type of politeness, negative politeness refers to the "consideration of the listener's wish to be unimpeded in taking action and having attention" (Koike, 1992: 21). This type of politeness is based on the notion of negative face, "the want of every 'competent adult member' that his action be unimpeded by others" (Brown & Levinson, 1987: 62). On the other hand, Koike (1992) defines positive politeness as the speaker's attempt to make the hearer aware that the needs of both parties are somewhat similar. This type of politeness is derived from positive face or "the want of every member that his wants be desirable to at least some others" (Brown & Levinson, 1987: 62).

Brown and Levinson's speech-act based approach is based on the idea that certain speech acts are intrinsically face-threatening acts, i.e. they potentially threaten either the positive and/ or negative face of the speaker and/ or the hearer. While engaging in face-management, speakers choose from a range of five super-strategies and a large selection of sub-strategies that strategy which best serves to reduce the particular face-threat at hand. These five super-strategies are: Do the act bald on the record; Do the act with positive redress (positive politeness); Do the act with negative redress (negative politeness); Do the act off record; and Don't do the act.

Brown and Levinson (1987) propose three interdependent variables to assess the degree of politeness required in a given interaction. These variables are as follows;

-social distance (D): the degree of familiarity and solidarity that both the hearer and the speaker share.

-relative power (P): the degree of imposition that the speaker may inflict on the hearer due to the power differential between two parties.

-absolute ranking (R): the weightiness of impositions relative to a given culture's expectations and mores.

Brown and Levinson's (1987) theory has some good sides such as its insightful explanations into the workings of the society, the questions it has raised, its tangibility and, thus, ease of application to further empirical research endeavors. However, it has also some negative aspects which cause it to be extensively criticized among researchers.

The most important criticism is Brown and Levinson's claim for universality for their theory. This issue has been criticized on two accounts. Firstly, the universality of the concept of face itself has come into question since it presupposes that the notion of self is identical across cultures (Kasper, 1994: 3208). In other words, Matsumoto (1988) and Ide (1989) claim that Brown and Levinson assume that the speaker's choice of language is based on volition. Secondly, the proposed universally-valid positive correlation between face and politeness has been criticized. Gu (1990: 242), Ide (as cited in Barron, 2003: 16) and Matsumoto (1988) suggest, for example, that marking social standing rather than saving face is the primary motivation in interaction in Japan, i.e. social indexing rather than strategic politeness (Kasper, 1994: 3208).

Another point which has been questioned by researchers is the direct relationship proposed by Brown and Levinson (1987) between increasing indirectness and increasing politeness, as this issue has been proved to be incorrect by empirical evidence presented by Blum-Kulka (1987: 136) and House-Edmondson (1986:290). Related to this issue, Turner mentions that it may be illogical to assume that negative politeness is employed when the degree of face-threat is relatively high and positive politeness when it is somewhat lower, regardless of whether it is the positive or negative face which is actually affected (1996: 6).

A further criticism shown by empirical research as inaccurate is the direct relationship suggested by Brown and Levinson between increasing weight of contextual factors and increasing politeness. Wolfson (1988: 32), on the basis of her own research on middle class American English and those of other researchers' findings, proposes a bulge theory to explain why intimates and status unequals and strangers all use approximately the same politeness patterns and why this relative level of politeness is lower than that invested by non-intimates, status equal friends, co-workers and acquaintances.

2.3.3.1.3 Conversational-contract view

This view was developed by Fraser (1975) and Fraser and Nolen (1981). Drawing upon both Grice's (1975) Cooperative Principle and Goffman's (1959) notion of 'face', this view contends that both the hearer and speaker have certain rights and obligations that will initially determine what two parties can expect from one another (Vitale, 2009). Essentially, both parties may accommodate one another by re-negotiating these unique rights and obligations (Fraser, 1990).

As Kasper (1994. 3207) puts it: "Acting politely…is virtually the same as using language appropriately" according to this theory. However, either in the course of, or following, a particular conversation, such perceptions may be readjusted due to the dynamics of interaction (Fraser, 1990: 232). Although this theory can be commended for highlighting the interactive nature of conversation, overall the theory is difficult to apply to empirical research given its abstract and imprecise nature (Thomas, 1995: 117).

2.3.4 Pragmatics across Cultures

Many studies on the comparison of pragmatics in and between different cultures have been available in literature. Researchers, then, moved a cross-cultural approach from an initial contrastive approach. The definitions of both approaches are explained in depth in the following.

2.3.4.1 Contrastive Pragmatics

Although each language has its own communicative functions, it differs from others in the ways in which a given function is realized. Riley (1981) has pointed to the task of

making a particular language function the object of the study and then contrast its linguistic realizations in a number of languages.

Reiss (1985:6) asserts that in identifying speech acts, the aim is basically to work within a contrastive model of language functions to show what kinds of speech acts there are, what functions they serve, and how they are related to each other. As claimed by Austin and Searle and supported by Brown-Levinson, speech acts should be compared linguistically.

In different countries, people may speak in different ways- not only because they use different linguistic codes, involving different lexicons and different grammars, but also because their ways of using the codes are different (Wierzbicka, 1991: 67). Each language has different cultural norms reflected in speech acts. Different cultures find expression in different systems of speech acts; in the words of Wierzbicka (1991:26) "different speech acts become entrenched, and to some extent, codified in different languages." According to Trosborg (1995: 40), "different pragmatic norms reflect different hierarchies of values characteristic of different cultures, and a comparison, for example of speech acts across countries, will more often than not involve a comparison of different cultures".

"As a result of the influence of culture on the realization of speech acts, contrastive pragmatics has developed into the particular field of cross-cultural pragmatics concerned with contrasting pragmatics across cultural communities" (Trosborg, 1995:40).

2.3.4.2 Cross-Cultural Pragmatics

"Whereas contrastive pragmatics analysis points to language differences as linguistic phenomena, the term 'cross-cultural' should be used as a cover term for the study of all pragmatics phenomena relating to cultural differences" (Trosborg, 2010).

House-Edmondson defines cross-cultural pragmatics as the following:

"Cross-cultural pragmatics is a field of inquiry which compares the ways in which two or more languages are used in communication. Cross-cultural pragmatics is an important new branch of contrastive linguistic studies because in any two languages

different features of the social context may be found to be relevant in deciding what can be expressed and how it is conventionally expressed" (1986: 282).

Wierzbicka explains cross-cultural pragmatics from a different point of view as the following:

"In different societies and different communities, people speak differently; these differences in ways of speaking are profound and systematic, they reflect different cultural values, or at least different hierarchies of values; different ways of speaking, different communicative styles, can be explained and made sense of in terms of independently established different cultural values and cultural properties" (1991:69).

Culturally determined differences in expectations and interpretations may create misunderstandings and ill-feelings (Gumperz, 1978). Studies of cross-cultural differences resulting in miscommunication have been reported, e.g. deriving from interactions between speakers of British English and Indian English in England (Gumperz, 1982a; 1882b), and from interactions between speakers with English and Russian cultural backgrounds (Thomas, 1983).

An aspect which has received a considerable amount of attention in cross-cultural pragmatic research is the notion of indirectness (Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper, 1989: 5-7). The Greeks are reported to be more indirect than the Americans in Tannen's study (1981), while speakers of Hebrew, on the other hand, are more direct than speakers of American English (Katriel, 1986). The other contrastive studies such as Blum-Kulka's (1982) study of requests, and House and Kasper's (1981) study of German and English requestive behavior have supported this idea.

Universality vs. culture specificity in relation to the notion of speech acts is another concern of cross-cultural pragmatics. A claim for universality has been made by, e.g. Austin (1962); Searle (1969, 1975); Brown and Levinson (1978, 1987) for politeness strategies. The theory is that strategies for realizing speech acts, for conveying politeness and mitigating the force of utterances are essentially the same across cultures,

although they are subject to cultural specification and elaboration in any particular society (Brown & Levinson, 1987: 13-15).

2.3.4.3 Interlanguage Pragmatics

Pragmatics as a domain inquiry within second language acquisition is usually referred to as Interlanguage Pragmatics (Farnia & Suleiman, 2009). Interlanguage pragmatics refers to the "nonnative speakers' comprehension and production of speech acts, and their L2 (second language) - related speech act knowledge is acquired" (Kasper & Dahl, 1991:1). In other words, interlanguage pragmatics is the study of use and acquisition of various speech acts in the target language by second language learners (Nguyen, 2005). Since the late 80s, there have been some important empirical research in the realm of interlanguage pragmatics; however, interlanguage pragmatics is still an "incipient area not so much of theory but of research" (Valle, 1998: 139).

The relationship between L2 proficiency and L1 transfer or the influence of learners' native language and culture on their production and comprehension of L2 speech acts is still being debated in interlanguage pragmatics studies, since in interlanguage pragmatics it is assumed that "intercultural miscommunication is often caused by learners' falling back on their L1 sociocultural norms and conventions in realizing speech acts in a target language" (Takahashi, 1996: 189). Some researchers such as Takahashi and Beebe (1996), Blum-Kulka (1982), Olshtain and Cohen (1989) have asserted that L2 proficiency influences pragmatic transfer positively. The assumption is that more proficient learners have enough control over the L2 to express L1 native speakers' opinions at the pragmatic level; thus, they are more likely to transfer L1 sociocultural norms than less proficient learners (Takahashi & Beebe, 1993; Takahashi, 1996). A number of interlanguage pragmatic studies have shown that beginners' poor interlanguage performance is due to their deficient L2 proficiency (e.g. Beebe & Takahashi, 1989). In Takahashi and Beebe's (1987) findings, low-proficiency learners are less likely to transfer L1 pragmatic knowledge because of their limited L2 proficiency. These findings make Takahashi and Beebe's hypothesis more plausible and "call for a more in-depth study of proficiency effects on pragmatic transfer" (Takahashi, 1996:194).

2.4 Pragmatics in Language Teaching

Since teaching speech acts gained the primary importance in language teaching programs, various studies on pragmatics and its effect on language teaching have been suggested in literature. According to Kasper and Rose (2001: 3), there is now a large and fast-growing literature on learners' use and acquisition of L2 pragmatic ability; and many studies have proved that pragmatic ability is teachable (Koike & Pearson, 2005; Takahashi, 2001; Yoshimi, 2001). Yet, the question is what instructions and techniques may be more effective to teach pragmatic competence. With respect to this problem, this part follows research on speech acts in language teaching and a discussion of instructions and techniques used in teaching speech acts.

2.4.1 Speech Acts in Language Teaching

Many studies have examined teaching effects of different kinds of speech acts such as requests, offers, and suggestions in language teaching. Most of them proved that to teach communicative actions learners should receive an instruction. For example, in Billmyer's (1990) study adapting pretest-posttest design, 18 intermediate Japanese learners of English received an instruction to teach how to compliment appropriately while learners in the control group did not. The results proved that subjects in the treatment group showed complimenting behavior more closely approximating native speaker forms than subjects in the control group, which supported the idea that instruction has a good effect on the development of learners' speech act performances.

Most studies like Billmyer's prove that different teaching methods can be used to teach pragmatic competence. "Comparing the effectiveness of different teaching approaches, most studies selected two types of pedagogical intervention, i.e. explicit versus implicit teaching" (Duan, 2008: 43). The following section gives definitions of explicit and implicit instruction by focusing on their relations with teaching speech acts.

2.4.1.1 Explicit and Implicit Instruction

There are a number of studies on definitions of these instructions in literature. Early in the 1990s, Stern (1992; 327) asserted that "the explicit-implicit dimension is just whether the learner should be taught to approach the learning task consciously as an

intellectual exercise, or whether he should be encouraged to avoid thinking about the language and absorb it intuitively".

a- Explicit Teaching Method

According to Stern (1992), an explicit teaching strategy assumes that second language learning is, for many people, a cognition process leading to an explicit knowledge of the language. Observation, conceptualization, explanation, mnemonic devices, rule discovery, relational thinking, trial-and-error, explicit practice, and monitoring are the teaching techniques of explicit instruction.

Norris and Ortega (2000) argued that "explicit instruction was rule explanation (deductive/metalinguistic), or had direction to attention to forms and arrives at rules". Doughty (2003: 265) held that "explicit instruction includes all types in which rules are explained to learners, or when learners are directed to find rules by attending to forms".

House (1996) describes the following procedures of explicit instruction:

- Explicit metapragmatic information concerning the use and function of routines provided orally
- Provision of handouts containing explicit metapragmatic information
- Listening to tapes of their own language behavior
- Auto-feedback elicited linking observed performance of metapragmatic awareness

Yoshimi's (2001) study is also based on five systematic and complete steps of procedures of explicit instruction:

1- The explanatory handout: information about the function and use of the target items

2- The NS model: exposure to native models of nonformal, extended discourse and the use of target items in such discourse

3- The planning session: opportunities for planning the production of nonformal, extended discourse

4- Communicative practice: opportunities for communicative practice of the target items in conjunction with extended discourse

5- Corrective feedback. Feedback on the use of target items and the production of extended discourse (Yoshimi, 2001: 225-227)

In literature there are several studies- most of which suggest that the explicit teaching method may be more effective in teaching speech acts as part of pragmatic ability. For instance, Wildner- Bassett's (1984, 1986) study analyzed gambits to express (dis) agreement in a business context. For this purpose, two groups, one for treatment, one for control, participated in the work. Results showed that the explicit group outperformed those who received instruction based on the principles of suggestopedia in terms of the quality of gambits.

In Takahashi's (2001) study, learners received an explicit instruction to teach biclausal request forms. To examine the effects of input enhancement on the development of English request strategies, Japanese English learners at a Japanese university using four input conditions were selected as subjects. The results indicated that "the degrees of input enhancement influenced the acquisition of request forms, explicit teaching having the strongest impact, followed by form-comparison, form-search and meaning focused" (Duan, 2008, 44).

The aim of Koike and Pearson's (2005) study was to find out which instruction- explicit or implicit- is more effective in teaching pragmatics information. For this purpose, English- speaking learners of third- semester Spanish were exposed to explicit and implicit pre-instruction, and explicit and implicit feedback. Results proved that the groups experiencing explicit pre-instruction and explicit feedback during exercises outperformed learners in both the other experimental group and the control group in multiple choice items.

Also, in Rose and Ng's (2001) study learners in the explicit group were significantly better in responding compliments than their implicit counterparts. In this study, Rose and Ng compared the effects of inductive and deductive approaches (or the explicit and the implicit approaches) on the teaching of English compliments. Learners in deductive group gave more appropriate responses to compliments when compared to others in inductive group.

b- Implicit Teaching Method

Norris and Ortega (2000) argued that "implicit instruction was not rule explanation, and has no direction to attend to forms". According to Doughty (2003: 265), implicit instruction makes no avert reference to rules or forms".

Implicit instruction can be practiced in three ways: one is through implicit practice; "the other is through experimental approaches which focus the learners' attention on interesting activites and content involving the use of the second language; the last one is through creating a receptive state of mind in the learner" (Duan, 2008: 58).

Takahashi (2001) classified implicit teaching in three different conditions:

1- In the form-comparison condition, comparing their own request strategies with those provided by native- English speaking requesters in the corresponding situations.
2- The form-search condition, finding any "native (like) usage" in the input containing the target request strategies.
3- In the meaning-focused condition, listening and reading the input and answer comprehension questions. (Takahashi, 2001: 174)

Fukuya and Zhang (2002) focused on recast in implicit instruction. The steps are defined as follows:

1- When a learner makes an inappropriate request, the teacher recasts it by using one of the target request conventions.
2- When the learner makes an appropriate request but with an incorrect linguistic form, the teacher recasts the form.
3- The teacher ignores other cases is learners make the correct usage and form. (Fukuya & Zhang, 2002: 5)

Koike and Pearson (2005) focused more on implicit feedback. According to them, when the learner answers a question correctly, the teacher only says "Yes" or simply nods or moves on to the next item, but if the answer is incorrect, the teacher states "What was that?" or "Mm- I didn't understand".

Although the previous studies give support to explicit instruction in teaching speech acts, some studies show the opposite results, which indicate that through implicit instruction speech acts can be taught more effectively. For instance, in Kubota's (1995) replication of Billmyer's study, implicature comprehension of learners was examined. Results showed that learners in an implicit group outperformed those in an explicit group.

In Fukuya et al.'s (1998) study, the researchers aimed to find out to what extent Focus on Forms (interactions followed by explicit debriefing on pragmatic forms) and Focus on Form (interactions followed by debriefing on meaning) as part of language instruction affected learners' ability to make requests. Although learners in three treatment groups experienced no significant differences, the implicit nature of instruction affected statistical results significantly.

2.4.2 Techniques to Teach Speech Acts

Speech acts are an important component of any language teaching program which aims to train students who are pragmatically competent. That's why in recent years many researchers have drawn great interest into this field. Many ideas and techniques have been suggested to develop effective speech act behavior among foreign language learners. The main aim of all studies is to answer this question: Are speech acts haphazardly picked up in the process of second language acquisition, or should they be systematically taught? According to many researchers, such as Kasper (1997), Kasper and Rose (1999) and Kasper (2001a, 2001b), speech acts can be taught in a second or foreign language classroom through explicit instruction.

One of teaching approaches to pragmatic learning based on the advantage of the planned and explicit teaching condition over the implicit one is analyzed by House and Kasper (1981), Rose and Ng. Kwai-Fun (2001) and Takahashi (2001) in their studies. To show the effect of this teaching approach, House and Kasper selected German university students of EFL in their study (1981). By designing two versions of the same communicative course, one explicit and one implicit, the authors exposed learners to adequate input and opportunities to practice. Learners in the explicit version of the course received metapragmatic information and had a good performance in discussions

and role plays whereas learners in the implicit treatment did not receive any metapragmatic explanation. Results of the study indicate that there was an improvement in both groups, but the explicit group used a higher variety of discourse marks and strategies in discussions, role plays and other parts. House (1996) and Takahashi (2001) found similar results in their studies, and so they also thought that explicit instruction is much more effective in pragmatic learning.

Although many studies have been focused on the idea that explicit metapragmatic instruction seems to be more effective than implicit treatment, there are also a few studies conducted by researchers, such as Fukuya et al. (1998), Fukuya and Clark (2001) and Martı´nez-Flor (2004), that have examined how implicit instruction works for pragmatic learning present inconclusive results. In other words, the aim of these researchers is to illustrate how the focus on form approach can be conceptualized in the interventional research on pragmatic learning by adopting a pro-active focus on form.

Olshtain and Cohen (1991) developed their teaching strategies to formulate the steps used in teaching speech acts. As one of these strategies is employed in this study as a data collection instrument, we will give a detail explanation of these strategies as follows (adapted from Olshtain and Cohen, 1991).

1. *Discourse Completion Task (DCT):* This is one of the most important tools in interlanguage and cross-cultural pragmatics research in which students are required to do a completion exercise and provide appropriate responses to various scenarios (Cohen, 1996). Kwon (2004) notes that DCT is a controlled elicitation data method so that it allows participants to vary their response because the situations are developed with status embedded in the situations. Thus, it will help the participants to distinguish which strategy is used when they encounter a situation where another interlocutor has lower, equal, or higher status.

   A Sample Discourse Completion Test is given as follows:

   Please write in the provided space whatever you would say in the following conversational situations.

   Your advisor suggests that you take a course during summer. You prefer not to take classes during the summer.

Advisor: What about taking a course in the summer?

You: ……

(Bardovi- Harlig and Hartford, 1993)

2. *The Model Dialogue*: Through this useful technique, we can present students with examples of speech acts in use (Olshtain & Cohen, 1991). At first, students are asked to listen to a dialogue. Later, students are encouraged to identify the kinds of speech acts used in this dialogue. With the use of more dialogues without any information concerning the particular situation, students' speech act behavior is tried to be developed.
3. *Role- play:* This is an effective tool in teaching speech acts if it follows the model dialogue. After students have analyzed a number of dialogues in terms of their language functions, it is time to divide them in pairs and have them act out these dialogues (Baleghizadeh, 2007). At that point, more importantly, students should be supplied with ample information about the interlocutors in the conversation and about the situation.
4. *The evaluation of a situation:* The learners' awareness of the factors affecting the choice of semantic formulas can be further reinforced with the use of this technique. In this activity students are given a set of apology/refusal situations, and for each they have to decide, in pairs or small groups, whether the violation requiring the apology is severe or mild, whether the speaker/ apologizer needs to intensify his/ her apology, whether a specific strategy is called for.
5. *Feedback and discussion:* When teachers wants to learn about students' perceptions, expectations, and awareness of similarities and differences between speech act behavior in the target language and in their native culture, they can use these activities. To receive a further feedback from students, role plays and groups discussion can be employed in teaching process.

Tajvidi (2000) talks about another strategy in addition to these ones:

6. *Discourse rating task:* This type of task requires the learners to rate various responses on a continuum (e.g. unassertive to assertive, indirect to direct, or impolite to polite) based on a given scenario (Lee and McChesney, 2000). The following example is taken from Lee and McChesney's study (2000: 163):

Bob is a senior manager who has worked at the company for 20 years. Two months ago a college student intern, Barbara, started a three-month project there. There is "no smoking policy" at the company. However, Bob, who is not Barbara's supervisor, has seen her openly smoking in the office several times, even after he has told her that there is "no smoking" policy. Bob feels very strongly that the smoke is harmful to the employees. He is trying to persuade Barbara to stop smoking in the office.

Bob: Barbara, can I talk to you for a minute?

Barbara: Sure, what's up?

a) *I would appreciate it if you could smoke outside.*
   nonassertive 1 2 3 4 5 6 assertive
b) *Look, smoking is not allowed in here. Please smoke outside.*
   nonassertive 1 2 3 4 5 6 assertive
c) *Don't you think it might be a good idea to smoke outside?*
   nonassertive 1 2 3 4 5 6 assertive
d) *I've been smelling smoke in the office, have you?*
   nonassertive 1 2 3 4 5 6 assertive
e) *How many times do I have to tell you there is "no smoking" policy in the office?*
   nonassertive 1 2 3 4 5 6 assertive

When these tasks are role played with students, they can be effective tools to develop students' pragmatic function abilities. Thus, to measure the development of students' pragmatic competence, these tasks can be used in a second or foreign language classroom.

Olshtain and Cohen (1983) argued that to teaching speech act sets and their strategies play an important role in developing learners' pragmatic ability. According to Cohen (1996: 385), an important point in teaching a given speech act such as requesting, ordering, apologizing, etc. is to "arrive at a set of realization patterns typically used by native speakers of the target language, any of which would be recognized as the speech act in question, when uttered in the appropriate context". In other words, by teaching

speech acts sets and their strategies employed by native speakers, students can be aware of that there are various ways of performing speech acts in the target language.

In brief, there have been lots of studies suggesting different techniques in teaching speech acts on the literature. According to Tajvidi (2000), the main principle of any technique we use to teach speech acts is as follows:

"Activities should be expanded to include practice in performing speech acts with addressees of different ages, sexes, and social status so as to give the learners the required practice in selecting language strategies according to these variables".

Using DCTs as part of treatment procedures, all of these tasks were taken into consideration in our study while preparing lesson plans for teaching speech acts.

To teach speech acts, appropriate materials should be selected, language learners should be exposed to 'Authentic Language' of English with appropriate materials. In other words, learning activities should be designed to foster students to be engaged in meaningful and authentic language use instead of in merely mechanical practice of language patterns (Larsen-Freeman, 2000). It is believed if EFL teachers can incorporate the knowledge of speech acts into those activities through Communicative Language Teaching which is presently thought to provide a style of teaching and learning that is beneficial to language learners (Richards & Rodgers, 2001). To achieve this, various authentic sources, such as English movies, TV shows, news broadcasts and so on should be used by EFL teachers in the classroom. In fact, as claimed by Bardovi-Harlig (1996: 34), "it is important that learners observe native speakers in action".

Moreover, EFL students can role play some situations (Peterson & Coltrane, 2003). For example, the use of spoken corpora (Alcon & Safont as cited in Soler, 2005; Campoy and Safont as cited in Martinez, 2004; Koester, 2002; Safont & Campoy as cited in Martı´nez-Flor, 2004) has been regarded as a useful instrument to present authentic speaker input in the classroom. This kind of training and practice can help language learners improve their pragmatic competence effectively (Larsen- Freeman, 2000).

2.4.3 The role of Short Stories in Teaching Speech Acts

As a literary text, short stories are important authentic materials in EFL teaching. Many researchers claim that short stories have many benefits for making students engage in meaningful and authentic use of language and developing learners' four skills. Erkaya (2005) makes a list of benefits of using short stories to language teaching.

1. **Reinforcing the skills**

   Firstly, it is believed that through using short stories teachers can foster students' writing skills. Murdoch (2002: 9) indicates that "short stories can, if selected and exploited appropriately, provide quality text content which will greatly enhance ELT courses for learners at intermediate levels of proficiency". Also, Oster (1989: 85) affirms that literature helps students to write more creatively. Instructors can create a variety of writing activities to help students to develop their writing skills. They can ask students to write dialogues (Murdoch, 2002: 9).

   Also, reading skills and the knowledge of vocabulary can be enhanced with the use of short stories. Lao and Krashen (2000) present the results of a comparison between a group of students that read literary texts and a second group that read non-literary texts at a university in Hong Kong.

   The group who read literary texts showed improvement in vocabulary and reading. While reading a text, students inhabit the text, and so they begin to learn new words. Through guessing meanings of these words from the text, their vocabulary knowledge also starts to increase day by day.

2. **Motivating Students**

   Since short stories usually have a beginning, middle and an end, they encourage students at all levels of language proficiency to continue reading them until the end to find out how the conflict is resolved. (Erkaya, 2005). Elliot (1990: 197) affirms that literature motivates advanced students and is "motivationally effective if students can genuinely engage with its thoughts and emotions and appreciate its aesthetic qualities". Also, Vandrick (1997: 1) asserts that literature motivates students "to explore their feelings through experiencing those of others". Thanks to these issues, learners can find short stories much

more exciting than texts in coursebooks. By selecting stories appropriate to students' level of language proficiency, instructors avoid "frustrational reading" (Schulz, 1981: 44). In other words, the selection of short stories should be coherent with students' interests and needs.

3. **Introducing Literary Elements**

   In especially literature classes teachers can utilize short stories to introduce such simple literary elements as character, setting and plot. Also, instructors can use various activities while teaching short stories. Gajdusek (1988) explains how literature can be introduced by describing the order of activities: pre-reading activities, factual in-class work, analysis and extending activities.

4. **Teaching Culture**

   Since short stories are authentic materials, they offer a full and vivid context in which characters from many social backgrounds can be described. Through reading short stories, learners can get some clues about characters' beliefs, thoughts, customs, possessions and speech acts.

Other educational benefits are listed in this way; (Arıoğul, 2001)

- makes the students' reading task easier due to being simple and short when compared with the other literary genres,
- enlarges the advanced level readers' worldviews about different cultures and different groups of people,
- provides more creative, encrypt, challenging texts that require personal exploration supported with prior knowledge for advanced level readers,
- motivates learners to read due to being an authentic material,
- offers a world of wonders and a world of mystery,
- gives students the chance to use their creativity,
- promotes critical thinking skills,
- facilitates teaching a foreign culture (i.e. serves as a valuable instrument in
- attaining cultural knowledge of the selected community,
- makes students feel themselves comfortable and free,
- helps students coming from various backgrounds communicate with each other because of its universal language,

- helps students to go beyond the surface meaning and dive into underlying meanings,
- acts as a perfect vehicle to help students understand the positions of themselves as well as the others by transferring these gained knowledge to their own world.

To sum up, Ellis and Brewster (1991) give several reasons why teachers should use storybooks.

• Storybooks can enrich the pupils' learning experience. Stories are motivating and fun and can help develop positive attitudes towards the foreign language.

• Stories exercise the imagination and are a useful tool in linking fantasy and the imagination with the child's real world.

• Listening to stories in class is a shared social experience.

• Children enjoy listening to stories over and over again. This repetition allows language items to be acquired and reinforced.

• Listening to stories develops the child's listening and concentrating skills.

• Stories create opportunities for developing continuity in children's learning (among others, school subjects across the curriculum) (Adapted from Ellis and Brewster 1991:1-2)

The purpose of teaching short stories in the language classroom is obviously different from the purpose of teaching them in the literature classroom. In the former case, the short stories are used as a means to develop communicative competence. In other words, short stories consist of many speech acts (language functions such as suggesting, requesting, offering, complaining, etc.,) which help learners develop their communicative skills in real life. Thus, they can be used as a means to develop learners' pragmatic competence. This proves the pragmatic value of short stories in language teaching. In the latter case; they are used as a means to develop 'literary competence'. Linguistically speaking, short stories develop language awareness in learners (Adhikari, 2006). This means that as authentic materials, short stories are used to teach new

vocabulary items and grammatical structures to language learners. Thus, they can directly see how the words and structures are presented in various ways in a text.

From psycholinguistic perspective, short stories facilitate language acquisition by providing '…meaningful and memorable contexts for processing and interpreting new language' (Lazar, 1991). From sociolinguistic viewpoints, short stories help language learners get knowledge on how the language operates in society (Adhikari, 1996). As a representation of culture, short stories give a variety of knowledge about the target language culture. Philosophically speaking, short stories deal with fundamental issues of human life such as love and sex, compassion and hatred, life and death, and so on (Adhikari, 2006). This philosophical side makes the short stories a valuable authentic material for language teaching.

2.5 Contributions of the Study

This study has valuable contributions to the literature. In fact, it focuses on three academic fields: literature, language teaching and linguistics. Since it investigates to what extent short stories as literary texts are effective in teaching process, it is valuable in infusing literary works in language teaching. In other words, literature is combined with language teaching in this research. So, it can be a good source for analyzing the role of literature in foreign language teaching. Also, this study aims to find appropriate ways to teach speech acts which is a branch of Linguistics. Thus, it can make several contributions to the studies of Linguistics.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This experimental research study investigates the effect of use of short stories on the development of pragmatic competence. It seeks to find whether explicit purposive instruction of speech acts through short stories teach speech acts in L2 classrooms. Secondly, the study explores the extent to which EFL instructors are aware of pragmatic value of short stories in teaching speech acts and their actual practices in the classrooms.

This chapter presents and justifies the research methodology designed for the above purposes. The research design including the participants, the data instruments and the data collection procedure are given. As the study has a pretest-posttest research design, the description of the Discourse Completion Test used as the pre-test and the post test is included. The content of one month instruction for the treatment group is explained in detail.

3.2 Research Design

In this study, a Pretest-Posttest research design, which is an experimental study design, is used. Three basic characteristics of experimental designs are mentioned as follows:

1. A treatment and a control group (or groups) are present

2. The students are randomly selected and assigned to the groups

3. A pretest is administered to capture the initial difference between the groups (Hatch & Farhady, 1981: 22)

According to Hatch and Farhady (1981), the two most common experimental designs based on basic characteristics mentioned above are Posttest only control group and Pretest Posttest control group design. Hatch and Farhady define the first design as

follows: “there are two groups- an experimental group which receives the special treatment and a control group which does not. In this design, initial differences between the groups are controlled for by the random selection and random assignment of the students” (1981: 22). The only difference of the second design from the first one is that a pretest is given before the treatment. In this study, Pretest Posttest control group design is used to see whether there will be a change or improvement in pragmatic knowledge when learners receive explicit instruction with the use of short stories.

Kumar (1996: 83) describes a pre-test/ post- test design as two sets of cross- sectional observations on the same population to find out the change in the phenomenon or variable(s) between two points in time. According to Kumar (1996), the main advantage of post-test design (also known as the before-and-after design) is that it can measure change in a situation, phenomenon, issue, problem or attitude. He also notes, “a before-and-after study is carried out by adopting the same process as a cross-sectional study except that it is comprised of two cross-sectional observations, the second being undertaken after a certain period” (1996: 83).

To observe if there is any significant difference between learners receiving explicit instruction based on teaching speech acts and others who did not, this study adopted the pretest-posttest design.

3.3 Participants

The main objectives of this study was to investigate the effect of short stories in teaching speech acts as a part of pragmatic competence and to measure pragmatic awareness levels of language instructors. Target groups of this study were foreign language learners and instructors. This means that two separate groups as students and instructors are involved in this research.

To assess the effects of short stories in teaching speech acts 28 pre-intermediate Turkish learners of English as a foreign language in a state university were selected and randomly assigned into two groups, one treatment and one control group, each containing 14 learners.

To gather some information about whether foreign language instructors were aware of the pragmatic value of short stories in teaching process, 20 EFL (English as a Foreign Language) instructors from a state university and a private university were selected.

3.3.1 EFL learners

Sophomores at the Faculty of Education and Fine Arts of the state university were selected as the subject population. Two groups of EFL learners participated in the study, one treatment and one control group, each containing 14 learners, comprising a total 28. The mean age over two groups ranged between 19 and 22 years old. They all spoke Turkish as their native language (L1), and they were all learning English as a foreign language (L2). The reason why especially these groups were selected is that the researcher works in this university as an English instructor, and so observing these learners in teaching and learning process was much easier.

The subjects were all of pre-intermediate level as determined by the university. Freshmen who have not taken any language education before in preparatory schools are all considered to be at the elementary level while sophomore students are taken as pre-intermediate learners of English.

The learners took 3 hours of English classes a week as a regular compulsory course. They were taught by non-native language instructors who have at least 3 year teaching experience. In the academic term during which the study was conducted, the students used the textbook English for life (by Tom Hutchinson, 2007), which focuses on a mixed syllabus including a skill-based syllabus in which the content of the language teaching involves a collection of particular skills that may play a role in using language. The coursebook follows a structural syllabus giving primacy to language form along grammatical lines, and a topical syllabus dealing with vocabulary.

According to curriculum prepared by the university, instructors were responsible for teaching three units in the coursebook a week. In the textbook, regarding functional language use or pragmatic language use, it is observed that there are some parts organized to teach some speech act types such as offering, requesting and suggesting. They are given in some dialogues of listening activities. Although these activities help learners have an idea about how to use language, it seems that they are not sufficient to

teach how speech acts can be used appropriately in real settings. Furthermore, only a limited number of speech act strategies are presented to learners, which might make the learners produce appropriate speech acts in social contexts.

3.3.2 English Language instructors

In this study, the secondary source of data was 20 non- native EFL instructors working in preparatory- school of a state university and a private university. Some of them were the researcher's colleagues who kindly accepted to participate in the study. Due the availability and accessibility, only these universities were selected. Instructors' mean ages were 29. Out of them, 16 were females and 4 were males. Their teaching experiences ranged from two to seven years. They taught 23 hours a week.

3.4 Data collection instruments

As data collection tools, primarily, a Discourse Completion Test (DCT) was prepared and given to all participants of this first group of learners twice as a pre- and post test. Both the control and the treatment group took the same test before and after the treatments to make a fair analysis and comparison among these groups. Secondly, a questionnaire was used to collect data from language instructors.

3.4.1 Discourse Completion Test (DCT)

To examine whether short stories can be used to teach speech acts, and are efficient in developing learners' pragmatic competence, a controlled elicitation procedure was used in this study. The instrument used to elicit data from the students was a Discourse Completion Test (DCT). The selection of an appropriate data collection instrument is very important, since it determines the reliability and accuracy of the data to represent the authentic performance of linguistic action. One of the major data collection instruments in pragmatic research is Discourse Completion Test. Kasper and Dahl (1991) define DCT as a written questionnaire containing short descriptions of a particular situation intended to reveal the pattern of a speech act being studied. Varghese and Billmyer (1996) define DCT as a questionnaire containing a set of very briefly described situations designed to elicit a particular speech act. Several types of DCTs are described as the following (Nurani, 2009).

1- **The classic DCT**: The prompt is ended by a rejoinder and/or initiated by interlocutor's utterance.

Example: Walter and Leslie live in the same neighborhood, but they only know each other by sight. One day, they both attend a meeting held on the other side of town. Walter does not have a car but he knows Leslie has come in her car.

Walter:……..

Leslie: I'm sorry but I'm not going home right away.

(Blum Kulka, House, and Kasper, 1989)

2- **Dialogue Construction**: An interlocutor initiation may commence, but the rejoinder is not present.

Example: Your advisor suggests that you take a course during summer. You prefer not to take classes during the summer.

Advisor: What about taking a course in the summer?

You: ……

(Bardovi- Harlig and Hartford, 1993)

3- **Open-item Verbal Response**: Participants are free to respond without any limitation from an interlocutor initiation and rejoinder, but they are required to provide verbal response.

Example: You have invited a very famous pedagogue at an institutional dinner. You feel extremely hungry, but this engineer starts speaking and nobody has started eating yet, because they are waiting for the guest to start. You want to start having dinner. What would you say?

(Safont-Jorda , 2003)

4- **Open-item Free Response Construction**: participants are free to give verbal response or non-verbal response, and even allowed not to response at all.

Example: You are the president of the local chapter of a national hiking club. Every month the club goes on a hiking trip and you are responsible for organizing it. You are on this month's trip and have borrowed another member's hiking book. You are hiking by the river and stop to look at the book.

The book slips from your hand, and falls in the river and washes away. You hike on to the rest where you meet up with the owner of the book.

You:……..

(Hudson, Detmer, and Brown, 1995)

5- **The New Version of DCT**: It is developed by Billmyer and Varghese (2000). It is a modification of open-item verbal response.

It is the end of the working day on Friday. You are the librarian and have been working in the University Reserve Room for two years. You like your job and usually the Reserve Room is quiet. Today, a student is making noise and disturbing other students. You decide to ask the student to quiet down. The student is a male student who you have often seen work on his own in the past two months, but today he is explaining something to another student in a very loud voice. A lot of students are in the library and they are studying for their midterm exams. You notice that some of the other students are looking in his direction in an annoyed manner. What would you say?

(Billmyer and Varghese, 2000)

In this study, open-item verbal response type was used to collect the required data, as the main objective was to investigate if learners could perform appropriate speech acts or responses in social contexts or particular situations without any limitation, and to make the students recognize and understand the target speech acts.

3.4.1.1 Advantages of DCTs

According to Beebe and Cummings (1996), the advantages of DCT are in the following:

1. DCT allows researchers to collect a large amount of data in a relatively short time.
2. DCT creates model responses which are likely to occur in spontaneous speeches.
3. DCT provides stereotypical responses for a socially appropriate response.

Nelson, Carson, Al Batal and El Bakary (2002) also support Beebe's and Cummings's ideas by stating that DCT is an appropriate instrument for interlanguage pragmatics research. It can be applied directly to participants coming from different cultural background whilst natural data cannot provide such facility since in natural data collection, participants' variables such as status and ethnic background are difficult to control.

Kwon (2004) notes that DCT is a controlled elicitation data method so that it allows participants to vary their response because the situations are developed with status embedded in the situations. Thus, it will help the participants to distinguish which strategy is used when they encounter a situation where another interlocutor has lower, equal, or higher status.

One advantage of DCT is that respondents will provide the prototype response occurring in one's actual speech (Nurani, 2009). Therefore, DCT is more likely to trigger participants' mental prototype whereas natural data are more likely to bring on unpredictable and uncommon items in a speech such as repetition of certain words, and back channel (Kwon, 2004). Also, DCT helps researchers comprehend the construction of a speech act in an authentic communication due to DCT's nature as a prototype of actual speech acts.

Kwon (2004: 342) indicates that DCT is an effective data collection instrument when the objective of the investigation is to "inform the speakers pragmalinguistic knowledge of the strategies and linguistic forms by which communicative acts can be implemented, and about their sociopragmatic knowledge of the contextual factors under which particular strategies and linguistic choices are appropriate". Houck and Gass (1996) agree with Kwon's statement, as "they find that when the focus of the study is on data production, data elicitation measures such as DCT is the most appropriate means because natural data cannot produce adequate data due to the infrequent emergence of speech act being studied" (Nurani, 2009: 672).

Although some researchers such as Kasper and Dahl (1991), Brown and Levinson (1987) and Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford (1993) point out the weaknesses of DCT such as its limitation in authenticity of the situations, the complexity of real conversations,

eliciting narrower range of semantic formulas and fewer strategies than the natural data and not eliciting comprehensive features in a speech act when compared to oral-mode (role-play), it is still one of the major data collection instruments in the analysis of speech act behavior.

Consequently, we aim to study speech act production. A DCT is the most appropriate data instrument as the objective of this study is to measure the development of EFL learners' pragmatic performance through the situations in the given short stories (Appendix 1).

3.4.2 Questionnaire

The second instrument used to elicit data from language instructors was a structured questionnaire. Based on the pilot study conducted for the same purpose last year, this questionnaire was developed. It measured language instructors' awareness of pragmatic value of short stories and their actual practices of short stories as a pragma-linguistic source in the classroom. In the questionnaire with two sections, in the first section 5 statements were prepared to master language instructors' perceptions about the importance of short stories' use in language teaching. It questioned language instructors' awareness of pragmatic value of short stories. The second section including 5 statements was conducted to measure language instructors' actual practices of using short stories as pragma-linguistic source in the classrooms. It sought for the frequency of instructors' responses about this issue. (Appendix 2).

3.5 Selection of short stories

In this study, we used two short stories as authentic materials. They were not simplified. We chose them as we thought that simplifying may destroy authenticity. Before choosing these short stories, some criteria were determined to select the appropriate short story to teach speech acts. These criteria were as follows;

1- Students' linguistic level: Learners' vocabulary, grammar and language knowledge change at each level. Thus, materials should be chosen in accordance with the purposes of these levels (beginner, intermediate, pre-intermediate and advanced). Namely, students' level should match the language in contexts. For

this reason, especially short stories appropriate for pre-intermediate learners were analyzed.

2- Authenticity: It means the experience of reality. Traditionally, authentic materials have been defined, "as those which have been produced for purposes other than to teach language" (Nunan, 1988: 99) and as “"a text which is usually regarded as textually authentic if it is not written for teaching purposes, but for a real-life communicative purpose. . ." (Lee, 1995: 324). The objective of this study is to make the students engaged in authentic language use of English. Therefore, while selecting the short stories, authenticity became a major factor. Although some short stories were appropriate for the learners' level, they were not related to real life issues. Especially, authentic stories were selected. They are believed to reflect real life language.

3- The other important criterion is to select the short stories based on dialogues containing a variety of speech acts. Though some short stories were suitable for two criteria discussed above, there were not enough dialogues to make a speech act analysis for this study.

4- After selecting the appropriate short stories, we made a speech act analysis in the selected short stories. In other words, they were elaborated in terms of speech acts. Since they did not contain all types of speech act listed previously, we were limited to the types of speech acts that were observed in the selected short stories.

5- Considering the taxonomy by Austin (1975) we disregarded illocutionary force of speech acts, or indirect speech acts, and so only direct speech acts are used, as they are suitable for the students' level.

Taking into consideration all the criteria mentioned above, we chose Ernest Hemingway's two short stories*; A Day's Wait* (1933) and *A Clean Well-Lighted Place* (1933).

Particularly, Ernest Hemingway's writing style is one of the most important reasons why these short stories were selected. Hemingway believed that “"a writer's style should be direct and personal, his imagery rich and earthy, and his words simple and vigorous” (Magill as cited in Cooper, 2005). It is thought that this simplicity and directness can

make the students feel more comfortable. Also, they are good sources for making the students engaged in authentic language use of English, since they convey authentic issues. For instance, *A Day's Wait* Hemingway portrays the tragic outcome of miscommunication between a boy and a father, and in *Clean Well-Lighted Place,* the writer suggests that many people sometimes feel lonely, and so try to find a clean well-lighted place to feel better and safe, which all people in real life experience this feeling. Thus, both of them reflect real life issues. Besides these features, in each story there are lots of dialogues containing a variety of speech acts.

After selecting the stories, we made a speech act analysis on them. The aim was to answer this question: "Which speech acts are involved in the selected short stories?" All the adjacency pairs were considered in a detail way. We tried to find especially direct speech acts to make learning process easy for the students. At the end of this analysis, the speech acts were involved in the DCT as following:

1- Suggesting
2- Advising
3- Refusing
4- Requesting
5- Agreeing
6- Promising
7- Convincing
8- Warning

The same sorts of speech acts were questioned in the DCTs through the scenarios created. Scenarios were not exactly the same situations in the stories, but simulations. Particularly following questions were asked during the analysis:

a. Who are the participants of the conversations?
b. Where do the conversations take place?
c. What is happening in the conversations?
d. Which speech act sets and strategies do the characters use in the conversations?

3.5.1 DCT as a pre-test

In accordance with the questions mentioned above and speech act analysis eight scenarios were constructed based on the two short stories. They were adapted into real life via the DCT (Appendix 1). In the first situation, where someone has caught flu, the speech act of suggesting was elicited. The second situation, where someone comes across an old drunk man in a café, included the speech act of advising. The third situation, where someone refuses to stay at home and relax, illustrated the speech act of refusing. The fourth situation elicited the speech act of ordering in a café. The fifth situation, where someone promises to help for someone's homework, illustrated the speech act of promising. In the sixth scenario, where someone tries to convince somebody, the speech act of convincing was illuminated. The seventh situation, where someone needs to agree with a person, elicited the speech act of agreeing. The last one, where someone warns his/her friends about the illnesses" was prepared to teach the speech act of warning.

As a result, a DCT with eight situations including speech act sets adapted from the selected short stories was prepared. As pretest-posttest research design with two groups of participants was used in this study, the, DCT prepared was given to the participants as a pre and posttest. Both the control and the treatment group took the same tests before and after the treatments to make a fair analysis and comparison among these groups.

3.6 Procedure in Treatment and Control Groups

Each of the participants from the control and the treatment group was first given DCT as a pre-test. The students performed the pretest at the beginning of the 2011-2012 Spring Semester during their class time. Primarily, a maximum of three minutes for each situation, comprising 24 minutes in total, were given to learners to complete the test. After both groups had completed the pretest, teaching process for the treatment group was initiated by the instructor. The learners in the control group continued their English curriculum using the course-book without any explicit reference or instruction of speech acts.

3.6.1 Explicit Instruction of Speech Acts in the Treatment Group

In the treatment process, two lesson plans for each short story were prepared. The activities and tasks used in teaching process or during the treatment were designed to teach appropriate linguistic forms that are likely to be encountered in performing speech acts with the use of the selected short stories. The study was conducted in the spring term of 2011-2012 academic term.. The treatment lasted till the beginning of April, 2012. Total time of the treatment was approximately 10 class hours. A detailed description of the instruction applied to the treatment group was as follows:

Before the selected short stories were studied in the classes, the students were expected to read these texts on their own at home. The instruction for each story lasted two weeks, one for the analysis of the short stories and one for the teaching of speech acts via the short stories, comprising a total 4 weeks.

First Week- The Analysis of *A Day's Wait*

In the first week, Hemingway's *A Day's Wait* was studied in the class. For this purpose, a lesson plan (Appendix 3) in which various activities were used to teach vocabulary and reading was prepared.

Vocabulary Teaching

As a first step, the instructor selected the unknown vocabulary. They were 'Flush, Covey, Commence, Lightheaded, Sleet, Pirate, Quail, Prescribe' that would create problems in comprehension. She used some techniques in teaching the unknown vocabulary in the short story. By following steps in teaching vocabulary as shown below, she made the student familiar with the new vocabulary and helped them to get ready for while-reading session.

1. *Lead in:* The instructor told a meaningful story, constructed out of all of these unknown words.
2. *Convey the meaning:* The instructor taught the selected words with two techniques- demonstration (pictures) and definition (dictionary meaning and synonyms). The words-'prescribe', 'sleet', 'shiver', 'quail', 'covey' and 'pirate'- were taught with the help of pictures by which the students could guess the

meanings of these words. The instructor stuck 5 pictures on to the white board and asked the students "What do you see in this picture?", and then by pointing at pictures she used the new word in a sentence (Appendix 3A). The other words- 'glassy', 'slip', 'slither', 'lightheaded', 'flush', 'scatter', 'bother', 'commence', 'silly' and 'refuse', were taught by explaining their dictionary meanings and synonyms. She stuck two different coloured cartoons onto the white board. One of these colours included the unknown vocabulary; the other one included the meaning of them. She tried to teach these vocabularies by using her body language, synonyms, facial expressions, etc. instead of giving the meaning directly. Then, she stuck the meaning of these words in a mixed order onto the board and wanted the students to match them (Appendix 3B).

3. *Repetition:* The instructor wanted the students to repeat the words they had learned.
4. *Verification:* After the students had repeated these words, a vocabulary worksheet (Appendix 3C) including 15 incomplete sentences was given to the students, and they were required to fill in the blanks with the correct words in order to check if they grasped the meaning.
5. *Use:* The students were asked to write a dialogue by using the new words that they had learned.
6. *Model sentence:* Model sentences using the new words were dictated to the students by the instructor. (Demirel, 2003: 88)

Teaching Reading

As an active process, reading is based on critical thought before, during, and after engaging a text. To develop learners' reading comprehension, there are three stages: pre- reading, on-reading and post-reading. The aim of pre-reading stage is to encourage the students to participate to discuss the text and express their ideas on the topic. On-reading stage, students should be fully engaged in the text with comprehension strategies such as making connections, monitoring understanding, stopping to summarize, asking questions. Post-reading stage gives an opportunity to the students to clarify, connect, summarize, and evaluate the text truly. To study *"A Day's Wait"*and*"A*

Clean Well-Lighted Place", these stages were applied to the lesson plans with various activities.

Pre-Reading Stage

- At the beginning of the lesson, firstly, some pre-reading questions were asked to the students.
- To warm up and set the scene for the reading, the instructor told a story of hers so as to establish a link between the story and the real life.
- After that, the students were asked to look at the title of the story and guess what the story was.

On-Reading Stage

- During the reading stage, firstly, the students were asked to write a summary of the story by their own, since they were expected to read the short story before they came to the class.
- After some students had read their summaries in the class, each paragraph of the story was read aloud in the class by different students.
- To make an in- depth short story analysis, a character map (Appendix 3D) was given to the students at first.
- Then, a worksheet (Appendix 3E) including scanning, skimming and comprehension questions was given to the students.
- After scanning and skimming questions had been answered by the students, the students dealt with a story map (Appendix 3F) and a chart (Appendix 3G) in which they were expected to place main events in their order of occurrence. With the use of these materials, they could make an outline of the story.
- As a last step of the reading stage, some comprehension questions were asked to comprehend the story better. Each question was discussed in a detailed way.

Post-Reading Stage

- As a post-reading activity, a role play activity in which the students were asked to create a conversation between the given characters with their partners in five minutes was utilized.

- In this activity, students pretended to be one of the characters and were expected to have a conversation.
- The lesson was finished after some of the students had performed their conversations before the class.

Second Week- Teaching Speech Acts in *A Day's Wait*

In the second week, the speech acts of suggesting, refusing, promising and convincing were taught via the short story *"A Day's Wait"* (Appendix 4). It was aimed to teach how to use communicative functions appropriately in social contexts.

Activity I

- After stating the aim of the lesson, firstly, the instructor asked some pre-questions about the subject.
- To make the students much more familiar with the subject they would learn the instructor wrote 8 situations, which were different from the ones in DCT, on the board, and the students were asked what they would say in these situations.
- After the instructor had listened to the students' responses, 8 appropriate responses for these situations were written in a mixed order on the board, and the students were asked to match responses with these situations.

The aim of this activity was to see what each learner could do with his/her present knowledge prior to any instruction dealing with linguistic expressions, and to draw students' attention to the different possibilities available to express a suggestion, make a promise, perform a refusal and make statements to convince somebody to do something.

Activity II

- As a first step, four dialogues consisting of the speech act of suggesting, refusing, promising and convincing in the given short story were chosen. In order to teach these speech act performances, a worksheet (Appendix 4A) in which four situations having similar responses to the ones in the short story were presented was prepared.
- The students were separated into four groups. Each one of the four situations in the worksheet was given to each group, and they were asked to write what they

would say in these given situations. By discussing the options with their own groups they were expected to find the most appropriate response for the given situation.

- After each of the groups had written their responses for the situation given to them, the representatives of each group read their own responses by turns, and these responses were discussed with the students in the other groups.
- After situations had been given and responses had been elicited, each group was asked to look at the short story, to find the situation similar to the one given to them in the worksheet, and to underline characters' responses in the form of suggesting, refusing, promising and convincing.
- At the end of this activity, characters' speech act performances and students' responses to the given situations in the worksheet were compared on the board. Meanwhile, each group was asked to compare their own responses to the given situation with characters' speech act performances in a similar situation.
- To enable the students to corroborate the subject, the instructor wrote the selected dialogues of the characters with alternative responses on the board. By listing all the possible structures and expressions for the same function to each of four situations in the short story, the instructor tried to make the students engaged in pragmatic use of English and prove that there are various ways of performing the speech act of suggesting, refusing, promising and convincing.

Activity III

- As a role play activity, the students were asked to create a conversation in which four types of speech acts they had learned would be presented between the given characters with their partners in five minutes.

Activity IV

- In addition to the third activity, four situations for each speech act type the students had learned were prepared as a role play activity. In the first situation, it is expected to make a suggestion. The second situation elicits the speech act of refusing. The third one, where someone makes a promise not to do something

again, is constructed to show how to make promises in the target language. In the last one, the students are expected to convince somebody to do something.

- Each of these situations was written on separate cards, and enough copies for the students were made by the instructor.
- After the students had been paired-up, each group selected one of these cards. After reading their own situations, they were asked to write down an appropriate dialogue in which each learner would assume a different role with their partners.
- At the end of the lesson, the students with their partners performed in front of the class and received explicit corrective feedback from the instructor and their peers.

Third Week- The Analysis of *A Clean Well-Lighted Place*

The lesson of the third week was conducted to study the other short story, *A Clean Well-Lighted Place* (Appendix 5). To develop learners' vocabulary knowledge and reading comprehension, similar activities and techniques to the ones used in the study of *A Day's Wait* were employed.

Vocabulary Teaching

As in the first week, initially, crucial words such as 'dusty, deaf, commit suicide, despair, hang, nasty, regard, dignity, unjust, insult, lack, nonsense, reluctant, dread' were selected by the instructor, as without knowing the meaning of these words the students might not be able to understand the context fully. In other words, the students would have difficulties in comprehension. To teach unfamiliar vocabulary, the instructor followed the steps described as follows:

1. *Lead in*: The instructor established a context including all of the selected words in the short story to teach the unknown vocabulary items.
2. *Convey the meaning:* The selected words- 'dusty', 'deaf', 'commit suicide', 'despair', 'hang', 'nasty', 'regard', 'dignity', 'unjust', 'insult', 'lack', 'nonsense', 'reluctant', 'dread'- were taught by explaining their dictionary meanings and synonyms. The instructor stuck two different coloured cartoons onto the white board. One of these colours included the unknown vocabulary; the other one included the meaning of them. The instructor tried to teach these

vocabularies by using her body language, synonyms, facial expressions, etc. instead of giving the meaning directly. Then, she stuck the meaning of these words in a mixed order onto the board and wanted the students to match them (Appendix 5A).

3. *Repetition:* The students repeated the words they had learned.
4. *Verification:* With the use of a vocabulary sheet (Appendix 5B) including 15 incomplete sentences the instructor checked if the students grasped the meaning of the words they had learned.
5. *Use:* The instructor made the students use the new words in a context. As an activity, some pictures giving clues about the new words were selected by the instructor (Appendix 5C). The students worked in pairs. Looking at each of these pictures, the students were asked to write a short dialogue about what they perceived with their partners. They should use the new words that they had learned.
6. *Model sentence:* The instructor dictated model sentences using the new words to the students. (Demirel, 2003: 88)

Teaching Reading

Pre-Reading Stage

- To introduce the topic and help students to make predictions about the story, some pre-reading questions were asked at the beginning of the lesson.
- By telling a story of hers, the instructor tried to warm-up the students and set the scene for the reading. By doing so, the realia was brought to the class.
- In addition to this, the title of the story was discussed to predict what the story was.

On-Reading Stage

- During the reading stage, firstly, the instructor had the students read the story aloud in the class again.
- After that, the instructor asked some questions about the characters such as "How many characters are there? What do you think about them?" To

corroborate their ideas, a character map (Appendix 5D) was given to the students.

- Then, a worksheet (Appendix 5E) including scanning, skimming and comprehension questions was given to the students. With the help of scanning questions and skimming questions the main events were described.
- To make the story much more understandable for the students a story map (Appendix 5F) and a chart (Appendix 5G) in which the students were expected to place main events in their order of occurrence were given to them. With the use of this map and chart the students could make an outline of the story.
- After the students had completed these activities, some comprehension questions were asked. To support these questions, a concept map (Appendix 5H) was used.

Post-Reading Stage

- During the post-reading stage, some writing ideas were given to the students, and as a role play activity, they were expected to choose one of them and to create a dialogue with their partners.

Fourth Week- Teaching Speech Acts in *A Clean Well-Lighted Place*

On the second of April, 2012, the final class was allotted to teach speech acts in the story *A Clean Well- Lighted Place* (Appendix 6).

Activity I

- The instructor stated the aim of the lesson by asking some pre-questions about the subject.
- To observe how the students made use of speech acts in daily communications without any instruction, the instructor wrote 8 short situations, which the students could frequently experience in real life, on the board, and asked if they were into this kind of situations, what they would say.
- Each student's response was elicited by the instructor. To help them to understand to what extent their responses were linguistically and pragmatically true, the instructor wrote 8 appropriate responses for these situations in a mixed

order on the board, and asked the students to match responses with these situations.

Activity II

- In order to teach the speech acts- advising, requesting, warning and agreeing-, the instructor prepared a worksheet (Appendix 6A) in which four situations having similar responses to the ones in the short story were presented.
- To carry out this activity, the students were separated into four groups. Each one of the four situations in the worksheet was given to each group as a stimulation and role-play activity. The main mission of each group was to write what they would say in these given situations and to find the most appropriate response by discussing the options with their own groups.
- Each response was read aloud in the class, and then was discussed with the students in the other groups.
- At the end of the elicitation of students' responses, each group was asked to look at the short story, to find the situation similar to the one given to them in the worksheet, and to underline characters' responses in the form of advising, requesting, agreeing and warning.
- After each group had found the similar situation in the short story, characters' speech act performances and students' responses to the given situations in the worksheet were compared on the board. Meanwhile, each group was asked to compare their own responses to the given situation with characters' speech act performances in a similar situation. Possible structures and expressions were listed and their functions were made clear.
- To teach that there are various ways of performing the speech act of advising, requesting, agreeing and warning, the instructor wrote the selected dialogues of the characters with alternative responses on the board.

Activity III

- At the post reading stage, some writing ideas were given to the students, and as a role play activity, they were expected to choose one of them and to create a

dialogue containing especially speech acts they had learned with their partners in five minutes.

Activity IV

- As a role play activity, four situations in which speech acts the students had learned were elicited were prepared and written on separate cards. In the first situation, someone gives an advice to his/her parents. The second situation where someone makes a request illustrates the speech act of requesting. The students are expected to warn somebody about something in the third one. In the last situation, someone agrees with an idea.
- Then, the instructor separated the students in pairs, and gave one of these cards to each group.
- The students were expected to role-play the situation written on their own cards by having a conversation in which each learner would assume a different role.
- At the end of the lesson, the students with their partners performed their own situations without looking at the paper. Their performances were evaluated by the instructor and their peers.

3.6.2 Teaching Process in the Control Group

While the explicit instruction was carried out in the treatment group by the instructor, the learners in the control group continued their ordinary curriculum with their coursebook- *English for Life Pre-Intermediate* (Hutchinson, 2007) and their own instructor. The coursebook is comprised of 80 units, each of which aims at developing students' vocabulary and grammar knowledge, and reading and writing skills. It focuses on a mixed syllabus including a skill-based syllabus in which the content of the language teaching involves a collection of particular skills that may play a role in using language and a structural syllabus giving primacy to language form along grammatical lines, and a topical syllabus dealing with vocabulary. Namely, an integrated skills approach is adapted to this coursebook, as, for example, in order to teach grammatical structures, practices are supported with listening, speaking, reading and writing activities.

As mentioned earlier, the learners in both control and treatment group studied 3 hours of English a week as a compulsory course. According to curriculum prepared by the university, instructors were responsible for teaching three units in the coursebook a week. During the explicit instruction lasting from the twelfth of March to the second of April, nine units in the coursebook were taught to learners in the control group. In the teaching process, only textbook and its resource activities such as workbook and photocopiable activities were used.

First Week- The Analyses of Units 51, 52 and 53

In the first week, while Hemingway's "A Day's Wait" was analyzed in the treatment group, Units 51, 52 and 53 were taught within 3 hours a week to the control group. The control group did not study any kind of short stories except for texts in the course-book.

Unit 51

On unit 51 there was a reading passage called "What will the future be like?".

Warm-up Activity

- The instructor prepared a selection of topics and wrote them on separate pieces of paper, e.g. cars, planes, mobile phones, money.
- After students had been put into small groups, a set of topics was given to them and they were asked to place the topics face down in front of them.
- Later, they turned the first piece of paper over and made a prediction, e.g. "What do you think cars will be like in the future?".
- Students took it in turns to pick up a topic and made two predictions about the future.
- To give some clues about what they would read, the instructor went through the pictures and wanted the students to discuss the given topics.

Activities for Teaching Reading and Vocabulary

- On reading stage, audio was played for students to read and listen to the text, and they were asked to tick the topics that people wrote about while listening.
- After the topics had been elicited, each paragraph was read by different students.

- At that point, the instructor taught key vocabulary for each paragraph by using pictures and giving their synonyms.
- To question whether students had understood the text completely, some topics in the text such as mobile phones, computers, transport and the world's population were selected, and the students were expected to find out what else the writers say about these things. This activity was also supported with students' own ideas about these issues.
- As a post-reading practice, students were required to write six questions about the future and to express their own opinions in the class. In addition to this, they played a game of Whispers with future sentences/predictions.

Unit 52

In the second hour of the lesson episode 7, which was the serial of episode 6, was studied. The aim of this part was to teach expressions for talking about money problems.

Warm-up Activity

- To warm-up the students, the instructor wrote out a list of problems, e.g. I've lost my credit card. I failed my English exam. My car won't start.
- Students in small groups were told that they were going to read out a problem and to write one piece of advice.

Activities for Teaching Reading and Vocabulary

- In the pre-reading stage, students were expected to read episodes 5 and 6 again and the questions about these parts were asked.
- In class-reading, audio was played to familiarize students with how the story developed and with the characters' voices.
- Key vocabulary was elicited and taught with the use of pictures. Then, the new words were written on the board and drilled as a class and individually.
- In the next part, the students were asked to cover the text to answer some questions about the pictures to check basic comprehension.

- After the students had listened to the text again, other questions about important parts of the story were asked. In addition to this, they were expected to complete the sentences taken from the text.
- At the close of the lesson, the class was divided into groups and the names of some characters in the story were written on the board, and the instructor told each group to write two predictions for each of the individuals /couples.

Unit 53

On unit 53 students learned and used a lexical set of words to describe different types of activities.

Warm-up Activity

- To give some prompts, the instructor collected pictures of people doing different things, e.g. playing cards, bungee jumping. (Since the focus was on adjectives that describe the activities, the names of the activities were not taught)
- Then, the pictures were held up one by one, and the students were expected to write an adjective to describe each activity.

Activities for Teaching Vocabulary

- As an addition to warm-up activity, the instructor focused on the pictures given on this unit. All of these pictures gave some clues about the activities.
- The instructor told students to cover the labels and asked questions about the pictures.
- Different pictures were also shown to monitor the students' learning.

Activities for Teaching Language Forms

- The students learned the use of the –ing form with no article when talking about activities.
- Listening activity in which students were expected to make questions by using activities they heard caused learners to comprehend this issue much better.
- In addition to this, the use of some verbs, such as 'can't mind, like, don't mind, love, don't like', was explained with various examples.

Second Week- The Analyses of Units 54, 55 and 56

In the second week, the aim of the lesson was to teach Units 54, 55 and 56, according to weekly program.

Unit 54

On this unit, students learned and practiced the first conditional to talk about future possibilities and certainties.

Warm-up Activity

- At the beginning of the lesson, the instructor made a Word Snake of activities from lesson 53 to prepare learners to learn by stimulating their minds and/or their bodies.

Activities for Teaching Grammar

- To teach the grammatical structure, the instructor first made use of the text on the unit.
- After having told students to cover the text, the instructor asked questions about the pictures. Students' responses were elicited and different possibilities were discussed in the class.
- After that, the audio was played for students to read and listen. To check comprehension, questions about the text were asked.
- Through using examples in the text and giving several exercises, the instructor started to explain the rules of the first conditional in depth.
- The diction between the use of *if* and *when* was mentioned. To develop students' communicative abilities, to monitor their learning progress related to the understanding of this structure and to receive positive feedback, some incomplete sentences structured with first conditional type were given to learners, and they were asked to complete them with their own ideas.
- The lesson was finished with a follow-up activity. The instructor wrote the two clauses of conditional sentences on separate pieces of paper, and gave one sentence half to each student, and told them to find the other half of their sentence and read it out.

Unit 55

For practice and repetition of grammar information relating to learning first conditional type, a reading passage was given on Unit 55 by which students reviewed the first conditional and read and understood a holiday guide, as grammar knowledge could be accelerated through written texts.

Warm-up Activity

- The second hour of the lesson was started with a warm-up activity. The instructor wrote activities from lesson 53 and previous lessons on separate pieces of paper, and placed them face down on a table at the front of the class.
- A student came and selected an activity, and he/she mimed the activity and the other students guessed what he/she was doing.
- When students guessed the activity, it was written on the board.

Activities for Teaching Reading and Vocabulary

- The instructor asked questions about the pictures of the passage called "Dream Holidays" to scan it.
- After they had listened to it, the students were asked to match the texts with the correct pictures.
- Each paragraph was read in the class by different students. At that point, the instructor elicited and taught key vocabulary for each text by giving their synonyms or antonyms.
- To check comprehension, questions for each text were asked in the second part.

Activities for Teaching Language Forms

- The use of the first conditional structure with time clauses that start with *when*, *before, after* and *while* was explained to students.
- In the third part, some adjectives mentioned in the texts were given and learners were asked to find out what these adjectives describe in the texts. As a writing activity, students were expected to write their own dream holiday by using questions given in the fourth part.

Unit 56

Expressions for booking a hotel room were illustrated on Unit 56 in the last hour of the lesson.

Warm-up Activity

- To give some clues about what students would learn, the instructor collected pictures of different types of holiday accommodations, such as bed and breakfast, caravan, tent, in a mixture of different locations, and displayed them on the board.
- The students were asked to choose one place where they would like to spend a holiday and one where they wouldn't, and to write the reasons for their choices. Students in groups compared their ideas.

Activities for Teaching Reading and Vocabulary

- At the beginning of the unit, there was a conversation between a receptionist and caller. Through looking at pictures the students were expected to answer the instructor's questions.
- Then, the audio was played for students to read and listen to the conversation. To check comprehension, some questions about the texts were asked, and also two students were nominated to act out the conversation.
- In the second part, everyday expressions for booking a hotel room were classified in a table. To teach them, the instructor told students to cover the text and to focus on everyday expressions. An incomplete sentence was written on the board, and by pointing out the gap the instructor asked students in pairs to supply the missing word.
- As a writing activity, the students were expected to write an email to confirm a hotel reservation.

Third Week- The Analyses of Units 57, 58 and 59

Teaching process in the control group was carried out with Units 57, 58 and 59 in the third week.

Unit 57

On Unit 57, a lexical set of vocabulary to describe office equipment and office activities was presented.

Warm-up Activity

- The lesson begined with a warm-up activity. The instructor wrote out a list of 10-15 objects in her classroom as anagrams, and prepared enough copies for students to work in pairs.
- A column for each team was drawn on the board and the lists were handed out. The instructor reminded students that the objects were in the classroom.
- Teams competed to solve the anagrams and raced to the board to write the words in their column. The first team to write a word on the board won the point for that word.

Activities for Teaching Vocabulary

- Like the objects in the classroom, things in an office were presented in the same way with warm-up activity.
- Through pointing out each picture the instructor repeated each word. To practice, different pictures were shown to students in pairs.
- To make students be capable of uniting these objects with appropriate verbs, the instructor also went through office activities. For this purpose, students were asked to complete the expressions with the correct words in exercise 2.

Activities for Teaching Grammar

- The rules of past tense were reminded in exercise 3 in which students were expected to write the past simple forms of the verbs.
- As writing and speaking activity, the students were asked to write and talk about their day yesterday.
- At the end of the lesson, the instructor wrote out office activities on separate pieces of paper, and prepared one for each student. After having handed out the pieces of paper, she told students to find five people who did their task yesterday.

Unit 58

The aim of the second lesson was to teach a grammatical structure- *have to* and *must*. Since some students were bored and did not want to study English, the instructor wanted to make the lesson enjoyable with a warm-up activity before starting.

Warm-up Activity

- She offered to play a game of Vocabulary Snap with verb and noun collocations from lesson 57. Thanks to this activity, students got ready to listen to the lesson.

Activities for Teaching Grammar

- To teach and practice *have to* and *must* to talk about obligation, a conversation was presented on Unit 58. Before reading it, the instructor told students to cover the text and asked questions about the pictures.
- After that, the students read and listened to the conversation from the audio. To check comprehension, some questions about the text were asked.
- By using sentences in the text, the instructor went through the uses of *must /mustn't* and *have to,* and then asked students to read the text again and to find other examples including these structures.
- In other exercises, students were asked to complete the sentences with *must, mustn't, have to* and *don't have to*.
- In writing section, they were expected to write six sentences about their lives by using these structures.

Unit 59

The instructor tried to develop students' listening and speaking skills on Unit 59 which aimed at teaching descriptions of journeys to work and giving students a chance to talk about their daily journeys.

Warm-up Activity

- Before listening to conversations, the instructor prepared a mini quiz about time including questions such as "How many minutes are there in an hour?" "What is three and a quarter hours in minutes?".

- Students were put in teams to answer the questions which were read out. The first team to call out the correct answer would win a point.

Listening Activity

- After warm-up activity, some pictures were shown to students before listening to the conversations, and some questions were asked about them.
- After the elicitation of students' responses, the instructor put learners in pairs to list other forms of transport by reminding them to use a preposition, and then asked them to call out their ideas.
- New words were written on the board and each one was drilled. The audio was played for students to familiarize themselves with the speakers.
- At the end of listening activity, the instructor went through the cities, and said which city the people work in. The answers were gone through as a class.
- To check comprehension, some questions containing some information about the things mentioned in the conversations were presented in the table in exercise 2.

Activities for Teaching Language Forms

- Students learned time expressions and how to use them appropriately.
- To receive a positive feedback from students, the instructor told them to read through the text and to find which time expressions were used.
- At the close of the lesson, some questions were given to students, and they were expected to write a paragraph by using these questions.

Fourth Week- Revision

In the fourth week, the instructor made a revision of the units students had learned up to this point, because they would have English mid-term that week. With the use of testing materials of the coursebook the instructor reviewed each lesson with the students.

To sum up, although both groups took 3 hours of English classes a week as a regular compulsory course and used the same course-book, learners in the treatment group received a special instruction together with two short stories while others in the control

group did not, but only continued their regular curriculum. In the control group, learners were engaged in activities and texts in the course-book, whereas the treatment group was exposed to an explicit instruction based on teaching speech acts through two short stories as authentic materials.

Based on the propositions by Olshtain and Cohen, we conducted the explicit instruction in the treatment group. According to Olshtain and Cohen (1991), there are five steps for presenting and practicing speech acts:

1- *Diagnostic assessment:* Determining the students' level of awareness of speech acts in general and of the particular speech act to be taught.

2- *Model dialogs:* Presenting students with examples of the speech act in use.

3- *The evaluation of a situation:* Having students decide, in pairs or small groups, whether a speech act realization is appropriate.

4- *Role play activities*: Having the learners provide the details of the speech act and then act out, in role-play fashion, the conversation which is likely to take place between themselves and the interlocutor(s).

5- *Feedback and discussion:* Having students talk about their perceptions, expectations, and awareness of similarities and differences between speech act behavior in the target language and in their first culture.

In line with these steps, speech acts in the selected short stories were taught to the learners in the treatment group. The major differences between the explicit instruction in the treatment group and the formal instruction in the control group can be summarized as follows;

a. Both had the regular instruction, but learners in the treatment group received an additional instruction.

b. During the explicit instruction, firstly, appropriate short stories were chosen to teach speech acts considering the criteria given above. As authentic materials, short stories were used in the teaching process.

c. Social contexts similar to those in the short stories are given to the students. Students got a chance to produce all the possible appropriate speech acts in the classroom and compare their own speech act performances with the characters' in the story.

d. Later, the students were asked to rehearse and write a dialogue in which speech acts they had learned would be presented. In this activity, the students were expected to assume characters' roles in the short stories.

e. Situations including the performances of speech acts the students had learned were prepared as a scripted role-play activity after they were asked to write down appropriate dialogues for the given situations (different from those in the stories) with their partners.

f. Finally, by means of groups discussion their performances were evaluated.

3.7 DCT as a post-test

The same DCT as a post-test was delivered after the treatment had been completed on the second of April. Learners were given the same DCT, which was given before explicit instruction as a pre-test, with the same maximum amount of three minutes. Namely, both tests had the same items in the same sequence. Delivering the same test as a post-test might be considered as a drawback, but we believed there was enough time for the participants to be protected from the effects of the pre-test. According to Hatch and Farhady (1981:22), "as a general rule of thumb, if the time between the pretest and the posttest is not considerable- at least two weeks- you should seriously consider whether or not to give a pretest. If the time interval is sufficient to make you feel fairly confident that it will have little or no effect, then a posttest should be given". So, the same test was given as a post-test to both groups after four weeks, which was sufficient to get reliable results.

3.8 Questionnaire to the EFL Instructors

The second data instrument was a questionnaire for language instructors (Appendix 2). The questionnaire has two sections, each including 5 statements. The first section was to measure language instructors' awareness of pragmatic value of short stories in

language teaching. The first statement sought the role of short stories in language teaching and learning process. The second item elicited the efficiency of short stories in the development of learners' communicative competence and language awareness. The third statement discussed the relationship between short stories and target culture. The pragmatic value of short stories in language teaching was questioned in the fourth item. In the fifth one, EFL instructors' opinions about the role of short stories in linguistic area were investigated.

In the second section, containing 5 statements, EFL instructors' actual practices of using short stories as pragma-linguistic source in the classrooms were investigated. Specifically, we wanted to ask if the instructors use short stories in the classroom. The first item measured the extent of instructors' preference for using short stories in the teaching process. In the second statement, why instructors employ short stories in language teaching was questioned. The third examined how instructors make use of short stories in teaching target language. With the fourth statement, one of instructors' actual practices of using short stories, while teaching speech acts, was looked into. The last one was about the extent to which topics can be useful for instructors in especially discussion parts.

In the questionnaire, to code the data, a likert scale was used. After the concepts to measure were defined, Scale items were determined. These items were rated on a 1(strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) Disagree- Agree response scale as seen in the following;

Likert Scale

1. = strongly disagree
2. = disagree
3. = undecided
4. = agree
5. = strongly agree

3.9 Limitations to the Study

The present study is limited in the small number of short stories. Only two short stories were used due to time limitation. Additionally, in this study, we investigated

eight types of speech acts (suggesting, advising, refusing, ordering, promising, agreeing, convincing and warning). More short stories might be involved into the curriculum and used for the same purposes. Although there are many speech acts that would be studied, only direct speech acts involved in the selected short stories were taught in the teaching process. So, the results cannot be generalized for all speech acts and all situations.

The third limitation concerns the fact that, this study involved learners only in one State University. Thus, we cannot make generalizations about learners in other universities.

Also, only 20 EFL instructors participated in this study, so the results may change when more EFL instructors are selected.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

This chapter includes the presentation of the data collected from DCTs used as pre-test and post-test in this study. Thus, it aims to reveal the use of the short stories as instructional materials for teaching speech acts to EFL learners explicitly. The main objective of this study was to investigate the utilization of short stories in teaching speech acts as part of pragmatic competence. Thus, two separate groups as students and instructors were involved in this research. To assess learners' actual use of direct speech acts two groups, one treatment and one control group, each containing 14 pre-intermediate Turkish learners of English as a foreign language, comprising a total 28, were given DCT containing eight situations as a pre-test at the beginning of the 2011-2012 Spring Semester during the class periods of the participating students. After the instructional treatment lasting approximately 10 hours, the same DCT as a post-test was given to the learners in both groups to examine whether short stories were effective in the development of learners' pragmatic competence. The responses made by EFL learners to situations in DCT as the pre-test and DCT as the post-test were then evaluated by the first (the researcher) and the second rater (a native speaker) together. The following sections (4.2 to 4.3) contain the analysis of pre-test and post-test results delivered to the EFL learners.

Another objective of this study was to measure language instructors' awareness of short stories' pragmatic value and their actual use of short stories. To collect data about these issues, a structured questionnaire based on the Likert scale was given to 20 language instructors. The analysis of questionnaires' is presented in the following section (4.3).

Basically, this chapter seeks to answer to the following research questions as stated before:

1. Are short stories used to teach pragmatics, specifically speech acts?

2. Does explicit instruction work? Are short stories used for teaching speech acts explicitly?
3. Are language instructors aware of pragmatic value of short stories in language teaching?
4. What are language instructors' actual practices of using short stories as pragma-linguistic source in the classroom?

4.2 Pre-Test and Post- Test Results

To investigate the use of short stories in teaching speech acts explicitly to EFL learners and to compare learners getting the instructional treatment with those receiving no special treatment, a DCT was used in this study. As a pre-test and a post- test, this data instrument was given to both control and treatment groups. The aim of the pre-test was to measure to what extent language learners could use appropriate speech acts in expressing themselves in a given situation without any special instruction and to understand whether they had enough pragmatic knowledge of speech act sets.

The pre-test (DCT) with eight situations testing speech act sets in the selected short stories were prepared, and learners in both groups were asked to write what they would say in the given contexts. With the use of this test, we measured students' production of correctly constructed speech acts. After the pre-tests had been collected, the instructional treatment with the use of two selected short stories was carried out in the treatment group while the control group continued their curriculum, namely they were not subjected to any additional treatment. After the instructional treatment lasting four weeks, the same DCT as a post-test was given to learners in both groups. The aim of this test was to investigate whether students receiving this instruction in the treatment group became more pragmatically competent and better at practicing speech acts tested in the DCTs when compared to those in the control group.

To analyze pre-test and post-test results and to get numeric data it was necessary to grade students' responses to the given situations in DCT as a first step. Since there were eight situations in the test, learners' responses to each one were graded from 0 to 1. Appropriate responses were given "1", while inappropriate ones were scored as "0". In other words, the scoring of the tests was calculated between 0 and 8 for each participant.

While reviewing students' responses, two criteria for the acceptability of the utterances were determined as "grammatical accuracy" and "communicative accuracy". To decide whether learners' utterances were grammatically correct, the set of rules for constructing words, phrases, verbs, punctuations and other grammatical aspects were taken into account. Communicative accuracy was related to whether students could give appropriate and feasible responses to the given situations in the test.

That is to say, students' responses were analyzed both grammatically and communicatively. By taking these two criteria into consideration, utterances were graded in two ways; 0, 5 point was given for grammatical correctness of the utterances, and the other 0.5 point was for communicative value, comprising a total 1 point. In other words, it was concluded that if one utterance was grammatically correct but communicatively incorrect, it got 0, 5 point. If students did not write any response to one situation, 0 point was given to the score that situation.

Interrater Reliability

In order to achieve reliability of the scores, we obtained the scores of two raters, as the scores may differ from person to person, and so the assessment of sentences carried out by only one person may lead to subjective scoring. To get much more reliable and valid results and to be objective in scoring, utterances were graded by both the researcher as the first rater and a native speaker as the second rater. All sentences were read by both raters, and points were given according to their consensus. In line with agreed-on decisions, total points for each student were determined.

4.2.1 Comparison between Pre-Test and Post-Test Results of the Learners in the Control and the Treatment Group

The pre-tests and the post-tests in both groups were compared to display whether there was any difference in their performances before and after treatment. Since one of our objectives was to compare learners receiving an instructional treatment with the ones who did not, this section shows the statistical differences between the two groups. By this way, it was aimed to find out much more reliable and valid results to support the purpose of this study.

Regarding the pre-test results of the learners in the control and the treatment group, two hypotheses were determined: 1) there is not statistically significant difference between the pre-test results of the learners in the control group and the pre-test results of the learners in the treatment group with regard to their mean scores; (2) there is statistically significant difference between the pre-test results of the learners in the control group and the pre-test results of the learners in the treatment group with regard to their mean scores. It was aimed to find out which hypothesis was valid in this study by calculating mean and standard deviation of students' scores on the pre-tests.

Table 4.1 Mean Scores and Standard Deviations of the Pre-Tests

Paired Samples Statistics

		Mean	N	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean
Pair 1	Control Group DCT 1 (Pre-test)	1,500	14	,8771	,2344
	Treatment Group DCT 1 (Pre-test)	4,036	14	2,5379	,6783

Table 4.1 shows that mean scores of the pre-test results of the learners in the control group was 1, 500, and standard deviation was 0, 8771, while mean scores of the pre-test results of the learners in the treatment group was 4, 036, which is quite higher. Standard deviation was calculated as 2, 5379.

Table 4.2 Paired Samples T-test of the Pre-Tests in Two Groups

Paired Samples Test

		Paired Differences					t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)
		Mean	Std. Deviation	Std. Error Mean	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference Lower	Upper			
Pair 1	Control Group DCT 1 (Pre-test) - Treatment Group DCT 1 (Pre-test)	-2,5357	2,5227	,6742	-3,9923	-1,0792	-3,761	13	,002

As seen in this table, two hypotheses were analyzed statistically. The data suggest that since $\alpha=0.05$ is $p=0.002<\alpha=0.05$, the first hypothesis is rejected. This indicates that there is statistically significant difference between the pre-test results of the learners in the control group and the pre-test results of the learners in the treatment group with regard to their mean scores of DCT as the pre-test.

When the results displayed in Table 4.1 and 4.2 are taken into consideration, besides statistical significance, mean scores of students' pre-test results in the treatment group were higher than the control group. Since the pre-test results of the treatment and the control group were statistically different, covariance analysis (ANCOVA) was made to observe whether the post-test results of learners in both groups became different or not.

Table 4.3 Winsorized Means of the Post-Tests in Two Groups

Group	N	Pretest Mean	Posttest Mean	Winsorized Mean
Control	14	1.50	1.04	2.08
Treatment	14	4.04	4.93	3.89

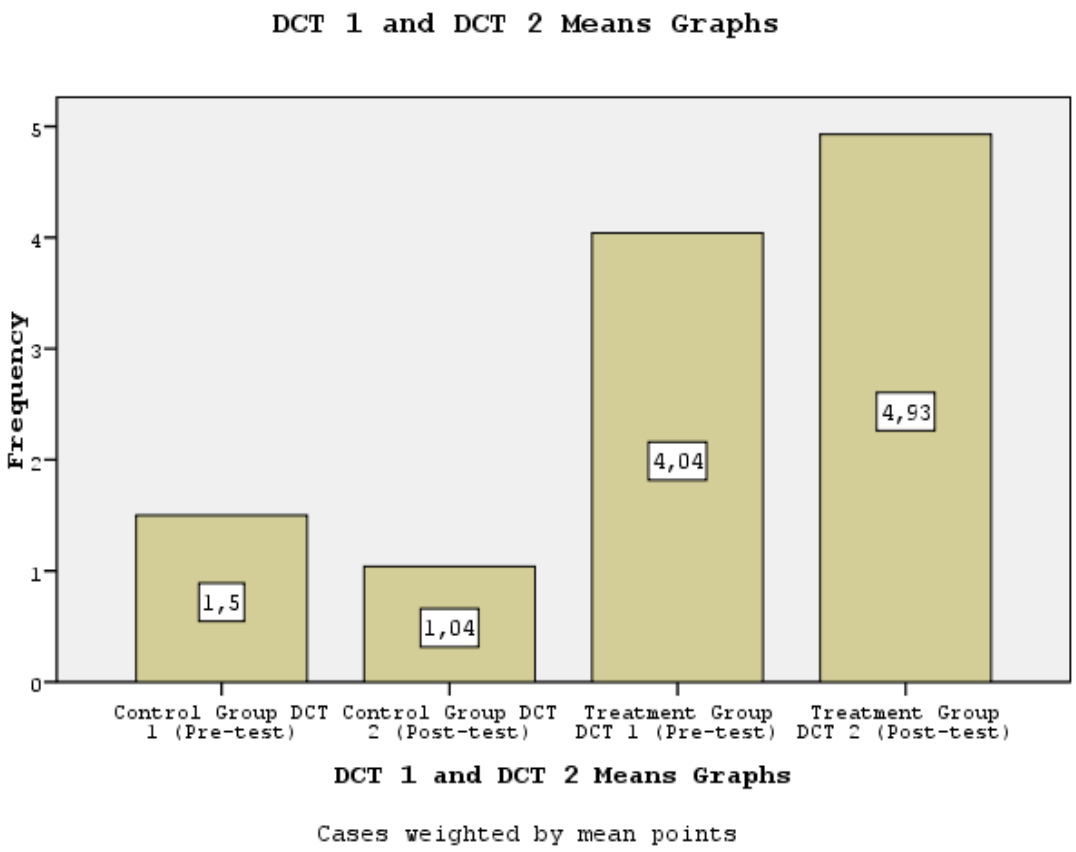
Table 4.4 Comparison of the Post-Test Scores in Two Groups

Source of Variance	Sum of Squares	sd	Mean of Squares	F	p
Posttest	15,473	1	15,473	23,663	,000
Group	16,347	25	,654		
Error	434,750	28			
Total	185,741	27			

As it is shown in Table 4.3 and 4.4, a covariance analysis (ANCOVA) was made due to the significant difference in the pre-test results of learners in both groups. From examining the data presented in these tables, it was found that winsorized mean scores of students' post-test results in the control group was 2,08 while winsorized mean

scores of students' post-test results in the treatment group was 3, 89. The results of ANCOVA analysis illustrate that there is a significant difference (0, 1) between winsorized means obtained from the treatment and the control group. This suggests that the explicit instruction together with two short stories in the treatment group was more effective in teaching speech acts when compared to the formal instruction in the control group.

Figure 4.5 Mean Scores of Students on DCT as the Pre-test and DCT as the Post-Test



This figure displays mean scores of both groups. For the control group, mean scores of the students on the pre-test was 1, 5, while their mean scores on the post-test was 1, 4. For the treatment group, there was an increase in the mean scores ranging from 4, 4 to 4, 93. With these figures, a comparison was made between two groups to see if there were any significant differences in the way each group acquired pragmatic knowledge

in the use of speech acts. As a result, it was found that learners receiving instructional treatment through two short stories improved significantly in speech act performances.

We made across group comparisons while analyzing the data. To sum up, in the control group, to our surprise, mean scores on the pre-test were higher than mean scores obtained from the post-test. The mean scores on the post-test demonstrated an apparent decrease that ranged from 1, 5 to 1, 04. This shows lack of pragmatic instruction, as there was no significant improvement in their speech act performances. The fact that learners got higher marks on the pre-test when compared to the post-test might prove that the existing regular instruction does not support pragmatic knowledge and therefore, learners might get less aware of speech acts and forget despite their probable background knowledge. It should be noted that the existing formal instruction the instruction had no effect on the development of learners' pragmatic ability.

As for the treatment group, they produced significantly higher scores on the post-test when compared to the pre-test results. Thus, their mean scores on the post-test displayed an increase that ranged from 4, 04 to 4, 93. This suggests that there was a significant change and improvement in learners' speech act behaviors. In other words, instruction using short stories as authentic materials did work well and caused significant improvement in the use of speech acts.

Additionally, when the scores of the pre- tests and the post- tests delivered across the groups were compared, it was seen that, there were statistically significant differences as revealed by Paired Samples T-Test. Since the significant difference in the pre-test results of the two groups, ANCOVA analysis was made to examine whether there is any significant difference in the post-test results. Results showed that the winsorized mean on the post-test in the control group was 2, 08 whereas the winsorized mean on the post-test in the treatment group was 3, 89.

As regards the statistically significant difference between the results of the post tests, it can be easily said that the instruction on speech acts made the treatment group outscored the control group.

4.3 Analysis of Questionnaire

As the second data collection instrument, a structured questionnaire including two sections, each containing 5 statements, comprising a total 10, was used to find out the answers to the last two research questions: (3) Are language instructors aware of pragmatic value of short stories in language teaching? (4) What are language instructors' actual practices of using short stories as pragma-linguistic source in the classroom? Answers are sought statistically in this section.

4.3.1 Pragmatic Awareness Levels of Language Instructors

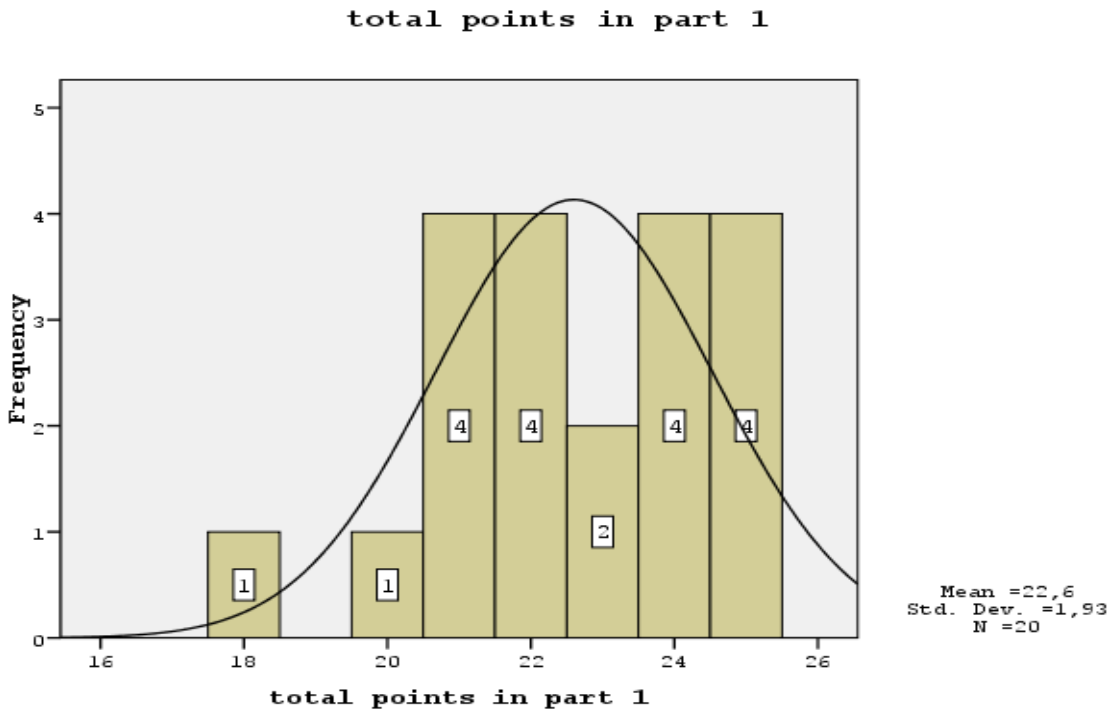
Short stories as authentic materials were used in teaching speech acts to develop learners' pragmatic competence in this study. To explore the place of short stories in teaching speech acts and to get reliable results, EFL instructors' practices and attitudes towards the use of short stories at the tertiary level were also taken into consideration. Prepared for this purpose, a questionnaire contained two sections: The first section, comprising 5 statements, was to measure EFL instructors' awareness of pragmatic value of short stories in language teaching. To see if EFL instructors are aware of pragmatic value of short stories in teaching speech acts each statement was graded with scale items as "strongly disagree", "disagree", "undecided", "agree" and "strongly agree". These items were rated on 1 to 5. 20 EFL instructors were required to select the most appropriate statement which corresponded most closely to their situation. In Paired Samples T-Test mean scores obtained from the first section of the questionnaire provided insight into how aware the language instructors are about the use of short stories as pragmatic devices (Table 4.6)

Table 4.6 Pragmatic Awareness Scores of Language Instructors

total points in part 1

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	18	1	5,0	5,0	5,0
	20	1	5,0	5,0	10,0
	21	4	20,0	20,0	30,0
	22	4	20,0	20,0	50,0
	23	2	10,0	10,0	60,0
	24	4	20,0	20,0	80,0
	25	4	20,0	20,0	100,0
	Total	20	100,0	100,0	

Figure 4.7 Mean Scores and Standard Deviations of Instructors' Pragmatic Awareness



The figure above presents pragmatic awareness levels of the language instructors. As seen in the graph, 1 instructor scored 18 points; 1 instructor got 20 points; 4 instructors

scored 21 points; 4; 22 points; 2; 23 points; 4; 25 points; and 4; 25 points. Their mean score was 22, 6, and standard deviation of their total points was calculated as 1, 93. The lowest point was 5, and the highest was 25. To see if language instructors are aware of pragmatic value of short stories, a classification of scores was made as follows;

5 points= unaware

6-10 points= aware a bit

11-15 points= undecided

16- 20 points= aware

21- 25 points= fully aware

By taking this classification and statistical data into account, it was found that fifteen percent of language instructors participating in the study were aware of pragmatic value of short stories in language teaching, but eighty- five percent were fully aware of the importance of this authentic material in developing the use of speech acts.

4.3.2 EFL instructors' actual practices in using short stories as pragmatic sources

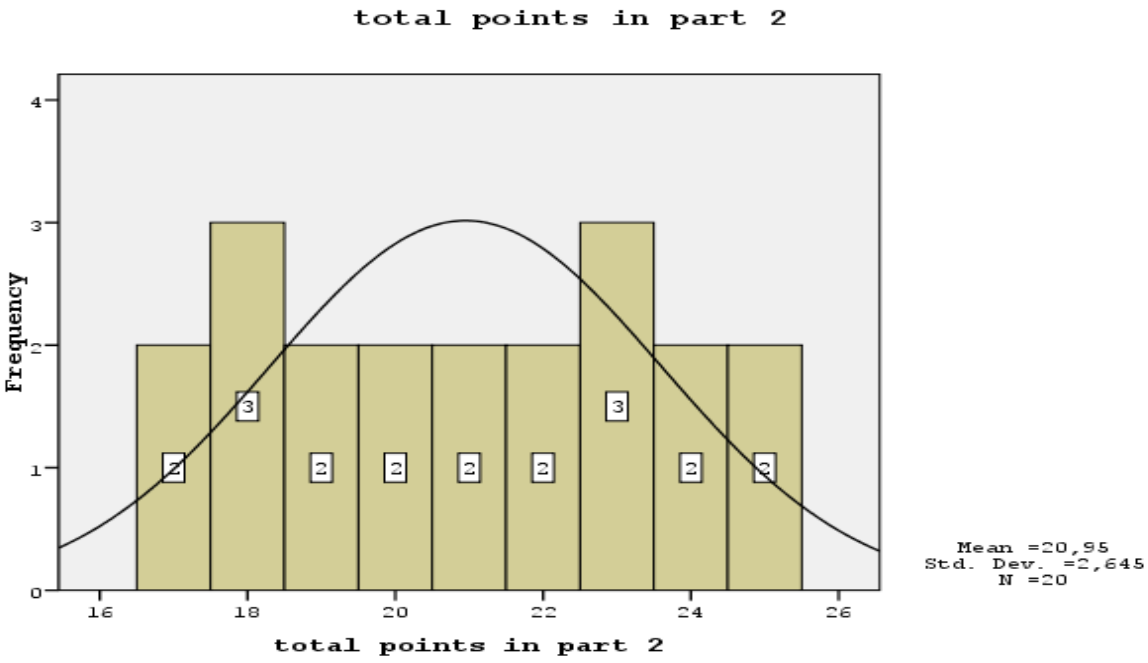
While the first section in the questionnaire was to measure EFL instructors' awareness of pragmatic value of short stories in language teaching, in the second part of the questionnaire, EFL instructors' actual practices of using short stories as a pragma-linguistic source in the classrooms were investigated. Like the first section, the second part also comprised 5 statements, each of which was graded with a scale from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree". These items were rated on a 1 to 5 basis. Table 4.8 and Figure 4.9 demonstrate statistical analysis of language instructors' scores elicited from this section.

Table 4.8 Language Instructors' Scores in Part 2

total points in part 2

		Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Valid	17	2	10,0	10,0	10,0
	18	3	15,0	15,0	25,0
	19	2	10,0	10,0	35,0
	20	2	10,0	10,0	45,0
	21	2	10,0	10,0	55,0
	22	2	10,0	10,0	65,0
	23	3	15,0	15,0	80,0
	24	2	10,0	10,0	90,0
	25	2	10,0	10,0	100,0
	Total	20	100,0	100,0	

Figure 4.9 Mean Scores and Standard Deviations



To see if EFL instructors use short stories as pragma-linguistic sources in the classroom, 20 language instructors' responses to 5 statements were analyzed statistically in this section. The figure above presents the range of total points of these instructors'

responses to each statement in the second part of the questionnaire. Their total points indicate that 2 instructors scored 17 points; 3 instructors; 18 points; 2 instructors; 19 points; 2 instructors; 20 points; 2 instructors; 21 points; 2 instructors; 22 points; 3 instructors; 23 points; 1 instructor; 24 points; and 2 instructors; 25 points. . Their mean score was 20, 95, and standard deviation of their total points was calculated as 2, 645. As above, the lowest point was 5, and the highest was 25. To investigate how often EFL instructors utilize short stories as pragma-linguistic sources in the classroom, the same classification of the scores was used.

5 points= “I never use”

6- 10 points= “I rarely use”

11- 15 points= “I sometimes use”

16- 20 points= “I usually use”

21-25 points= “I always use”

As a result, it was found that fifty- five percent of instructors participating in the study always use short stories as pragma-linguistic sources in the classroom. The forty-five percent usually use this material in language teaching to develop learners’ pragmatic, communicative and linguistic competence.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

5.1 Introduction

In this chapter, first, the findings of this investigation related to the research questions are discussed. Then, implications of the study for EFL in Turkey setting are accounted. Finally, some suggestions are provided for future research.

5.2 Discussion of Findings and Research Questions

It was aimed to investigate two basic research questions in this study. The first one was whether short stories together with explicit instruction facilitate the acquisition and production of speech acts as part of pragmatic competence. The second one was related to pragmatic awareness levels of English language instructors at tertiary level and their actual uses of short stories in foreign language classrooms.

To answer the first question, the study adopted a pretest-posttest research design with two groups, one treatment and one control group. With Paired Samples T-Test, pre-test and post-test results of each group were compared.

To seek an answer to the second question, a questionnaire was used to collect data from language instructors.

Whether short stories are effective in teaching pragmatics, specifically speech acts together with explicit instruction is the main research topic of this study. To investigate this issue, learners in the treatment group received explicit instruction, focusing on speech acts with two short stories while the others in the control group did not.

Regarding the pre-test and post-test results, inter- group comparison in our study indicated that in the control group the mean scores on the post-test demonstrated an apparent decrease when compared to the mean scores on the pre-test. This decrease can be interpreted as the absence of emphasis of the existing regular instruction. As the uses of speech acts are not paid much attention, the learners are not competent enough in using appropriate speech acts and there was no significant improvement in their speech

act performances. This may suggest the existing formal instruction had no effect on the development of learners' pragmatic ability.

On the other hand, compared with their performances on the pre-test, the treatment group produced higher scores on the post-test. In other words, learners' ability to use speech acts showed statistically significant improvement in the treatment group. This suggests that explicit instruction on speech acts has a positive effect on language learners' development of pragmatic knowledge. After four 4 week's instruction, the students in the treatment group did seem to be more aware of speech act uses and their realization. Instruction using short stories as authentic materials did work well and caused significant improvement in the use of speech acts.

In general, the results of this study contribute to an ongoing discussion on the efficiency of short stories in teaching foreign languages. Short stories are authentic supplementary materials that can be easily used in teaching foreign languages. Many researchers (Collie and Slater; 1991; Lazar, 1993; Arıoğul, 2001; Murdoch, 2002; Erkaya, 2005; Adhikari, 2006) agree on the benefits of short stories in language teaching.

Also, Murdoch (2002: 9) indicates that "short stories can, if selected and exploited appropriately, provide quality text content which will greatly enhance ELT courses for learners at intermediate levels of proficiency". According to him, through using short stories in language teaching, four skills (reading, writing, speaking and listening) of learners can be enhanced.

Most notably, the findings of this study indicate that the role of explicit instruction is an important factor in teaching speech acts as part of pragmatic competence. The use of short stories appears to have influenced the learners in treatment group to perform better than those in the control group. In other words, post-test results show that learners who were given an explicit instruction through short stories produced speech acts more appropriately. They also became much more aware of varied forms of speech acts. The input from the short stories and explicit instruction affected pragmatic competence of learners positively. This has been supported by some other studies in the literature. For instance, Bardovi-Harlig (2001) states that there are many aspects of L2 pragmatics that

are not acquired without the benefit of instruction, or in the best case, they are learned more slowly, which makes instruction at least facilitative if not necessary. Additionally, several researchers (Olshtain & Blum-Kulka, 1985; Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford, 1990; Bardovi-Harlig, 2001) who argued the realization of speech acts by foreign language learners have "highlighted the necessity of instruction in pragmatics based on results reporting that a high grammatical competence is not always indicative of a successful pragmatic performance in the target language" (Rueda, 2006). Furthermore, in some previous studies (House and Kasper, 1981; Olsthain and Cohen, 1990; Lyster, 1994; Morrow, 1995; Kasper, 1997; Tateyama et al., 1997; Rose, 1999; Takahashi, 2001), the researchers found that the students receiving explicit instruction outperformed those who did not.

This study also demonstrates the efficiency of short stories in raising learners' pragmatic awareness. Although the primary purpose of language teaching has been to develop learners' communicative functions, some textbooks are insufficient to teach pragmatic aspects (especially speech acts) of the target language. Bardovi-Harlig (2001: 25) argues that since teachers' talk cannot be considered as a pragmatically appropriate model for learners, "textbooks with conversations are designed to be models for students, and yet they generally fall short of providing realistic input to learners". In line with this statement, the textbook used by learners in this study contains grammatical structures, cultural information and communicative activities, but speech acts are taught superficially. In other words, conversations and activities are not sufficient to help learners to acquire pragmatic knowledge at all. Our results showed that learners in the control group got higher marks on the pre-test when compared to post-test results, which suggests that the instruction given with the course-book had no effect on the development of learners' pragmatic ability. That is to say, the findings of the post-test indicate that the textbook instruction gave little feedback and lacked relevant input for the learning of speech acts.

Our study revealed that almost all language instructors teaching at tertiary level are aware of the importance of short stories. Specifically, the majority of EFL instructors consider that short stories have the following benefits: (1) Short stories raise language awareness in learners and support communicative competence, so they play a major role

in language teaching and learning process; (2) Learners get a good deal of knowledge about the target culture from short stories. By this way, they improve themselves; (3) Short stories consist of many speech acts which help learners develop their communicative skills in real life. Thus, short stories are used as a means to develop learners' pragmatic competence; (4) Short stories by which some specific structures like words, structures and speech acts can be taught to learners are effective in the development of learners' linguistic competence. This suggests that EFL instructors had a positive attitude towards the efficiency of short stories in developing learners' pragmatic competence.

It seems that EFL instructors know they need to use short stories to teach pragmatics in the classroom. The fifty- five percent of instructors participating in the study report they always use short stories as pragma-linguistic sources in the classroom. The forty-five percent usually use this material in language teaching to develop learners' pragmatic and linguistic competence. Specifically, EFL instructors use short stories for the following purposes: (1) To develop students' linguistic, communicative and pragmatic competence; (2) To teach grammar and lexical items such as pronouns, particles and word-order; (3) To teach speech acts in the textbook; (4) To introduce target culture, ideologies and artistic feelings and discuss in the classroom for learners' personal growth (Carter & Long, 1991: 2-3). This indicates that short stories are used as pragma-linguistic sources in language classrooms by EFL instructors.

Although most of language instructors are conscious of pragmatic value of short stories and need for teaching speech acts in the classroom, it can be said that there is a contradiction between their pragmatic awareness level and pragmatic performance of the learners trained in the regular formal instruction as evident in the case of the control group in our study.

As the findings of this study support and suggest, the instruction is very important for EFL in Turkey setting, because in language classrooms learners have only limited access to produce appropriate utterances. Although, generally, learners have higher levels of grammatical competence, they cannot use speech acts tactfully in social contexts, which proves the lack of their pragmatic competence. That is to say, in the EFL context, language learners mostly work through developing grammatical

competence without paying equal attention to pragmatic competence (Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnyei, 1998; Alagözlü and Büyüköztürk; 2009). In their study which examined the pragmatic comprehension level of 25 Turkish EFL students at university Alagözlü and Büyüköztürk (2009: 89) concluded that "pragmatic comprehension levels of the students are relatively low when compared with other aspects of linguistic knowledge and their oral and written performances", which makes the role of explicit pragmatic instruction in FL classrooms important and necessary.

In EFL context, learners can be exposed to appropriate target language input with L2 learning materials as part of explicit instruction. Yet, studies indicate that "the vast majority of L2 learning materials frequently do not present realistic input, or sometimes neglect particular speech acts or language functions" (Rueda, 2006). For instance, although textbooks are used as a primary source of input in the teaching process, many of them may lack of developing learners' pragmatic awareness (Bardovi-Harlig, Hartford, Mahan-Taylor, Morgan, & Reynolds, 1991; Boxer & Pickering 1995; Bardovi-Harlig 2001; Uso-Juan, 2007). In other words, some textbooks used in EFL in Turkey present limited conversations and functions to teach speech acts.

To fill in the pragmatic gap in EFL instruction, curriculum in especially Turkey setting should be redesigned to include pragmatic concerns. As a first step, textbooks which provide L2 learners with appropriate input and are designed with pragmatics should be chosen in the teaching process. Secondly, to arrange authentic opportunities to practice pragmatic knowledge, authentic materials such as newspapers, websites, television shows, magazines, graded readers and actual excerpts of conversations between native speakers together with explicit instruction can be employed in EFL settings. These materials can be supplemented with some class activities such as drama or stimulation, role plays and model dialogues.

As authentic materials, literary texts can also be utilized to develop learners' pragmatic abilities, since "using of literature in language teaching is very advantageous for it offers four benefits: authentic material, cultural enrichment, language advancement, and personal growth" (Collie & Slater, 1991). As literary texts, short stories together with explicit instruction can be effective on the development of learners' pragmatic awareness.

5.3 Implications

The findings of this study support and suggest the importance of instruction on pragmatics in language settings, because "language classrooms have been considered as poor input environments for developing pragmatic ability in a target language (TL); compared to real interaction outside the classroom, classroom discourse is functionally and formally limited for the achievement of this goal" (Rueda, 2006). Especially EFL learners have more difficulties in learning English when compared to those in a second language environment. As Cook (2001) states, "FL instructional settings are characterized by restricted input and practice due to two facts: first, that the TL tends to be treated as an object of study instead of as a means of socialization and a communication tool; and second, that classroom organization is teacher-fronted". In consequence, input and learning materials become important factors of pragmatic instruction.

Secondly, "The role of explicit pragmatic instruction becomes even more important in FL classrooms where opportunities for the full range of human interactions are limited, and in consequence learners have more difficulties in acquiring appropriate language use patterns" (Kasper & Schmidt, 1996). "These ideas constitute a rationale for pedagogical intervention, with the two-fold goal of first, making learners aware of their previous knowledge and the ways to take advantage of it by using their existing pragmatic foundations in appropriate sociopragmatic contexts, and second, helping learners to attend to both the linguistic forms of utterances and the relevant social and contextual features with which they are associated" (Schmidt, 2001). These statements and the findings of this study suggest that with explicit instruction the target pragmatic features such as speech acts can be learned more effectively Yet, the efficiency of explicit instruction is based on the selection of appropriate authentic materials and learning activities.

To give relevant input to learners in EFL settings, some authentic materials should be used in teaching process. Apart from the short stories used in the present study, authentic conversations in videos, scenes from various films or television sitcoms can be utilized to raise learners' pragmatic awareness during the explicit instruction.

Also, it is important to develop activities which help learners to develop their pragmatic abilities. In this study, role-plays which have been widely employed in

previous studies (Trosborg, 1995; Safont, 2005) were used to teach speech acts. Apart from this learning activity, "other productive activities like those of stimulation or drama may be employed (Kasper, 1997).

5.4 Future Research

The following recommendations for further research are suggested:

1- We selected eight types of speech acts (suggesting, advising, refusing, ordering, promising, agreeing, convincing and warning) in this study, and so focused primarily on learners' ability to appropriately perform these speech acts in communicative contexts. Additional studies need to be done to examine different speech acts.

2- Although there are many speech acts that would be studied, only direct speech acts involved in the selected short stories were taught in the teaching process. In future studies, indirect speech acts can be investigated by means of different authentic materials.

3- In the present study, we used only two short stories together with explicit instruction to teach speech acts. The teachability of other speech acts and pragmatic aspects could be examined by employing different short stories and approaches.

4- In this study, the instructor of the treatment and the control group was not the same person. Although the instructor of the control group continued the curriculum by using textbook material and did not deal with any practice or material to teach pragmatic aspects of language, learners' participation and motivation towards the activities may have been affected by her personality and teaching style. So, future studies can explore the role of teachers' style in developing learners' pragmatic competence.

5- We gave the same DCT, which was given before explicit instruction as a pre-test, to learners in this study. Namely, both tests had the same items in the same sequence. In future studies, different DCTs can be used to observe whether there is any significant difference in learners' pragmatic abilities.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1

DISCOURSE COMPLETION TEST

Directions: There are eight situations below. Read each situation carefully, and write what you would say in the following situations.

1- One of your friends doesn't feel very good. He has caught flu. You suggest him to go to sleep and take some medicine.

You say:

2- In the cafe which you often go in the evenings, you see an old man who is very drunk. You want him to go home.

You say:

3- You feel ill. A friend of yours wants you to stay at home and relax, but you don't want to do this.

You say:

4- You are in a restaurant. You want to order a meal.

You say:

5- You have a roommate. She wants your help for her homework. You promise to help after you complete your own homework.
You say:

6- A boy, who has very high temperature, thinks that he will die soon. You think just the opposite, because the illness is a simple flu. You try to convince him.

You say:

7- You work in a cafe as a waiter. There is a customer who comes to the cafe regularly. He stays late and so you can't go home until he leaves. Your friend, one of the waiters in the cafe, thinks that this man is a real problem. You agree with him.

You say:

8- It is cold and snowy outside. You are at one of your friends' home. They want to get out and have fun in the snow. You want to warn them about the illnesses.

You say:

APPENDIX 2

QUESTIONNAIRE

Dear participants,

Making learners pragmatically competent has been the primary purpose of language teaching programs. That's why many researchers have drawn great interest into speech acts which are essential for developing learners' functional abilities. Thus, many ideas, materials and techniques have been suggested to develop effective speech act behavior among foreign language learners. In this study we used short stories as an authentic material in teaching speech acts to develop learners' pragmatic competence. To measure the efficiency of this teaching style with the given material, namely to get much more reliable results, EFL instructors' attitudes towards this issue and actual uses of short stories will also be taken into consideration.

Prepared for this purpose, this checklist contains two sections. The first section is to measure EFL instructors' awareness of pragmatic value of short stories in language teaching. In the second part, EFL instructors' actual practices of using short stories as a pragma-linguistic source in the classrooms are investigated. Through your participation, I eventually hope to get a general point of view about EFL instructors' attitudes towards the efficiency of short stories in teaching speech acts as a part of pragmatic competence.

You do not need to write your name on the questionnaire. Please tick the most appropriate number of each statement which corresponds most closely to your desired response. Thank you for your time.

PART 1

	Strongly Disagree	**Disagree**	**Undecided**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
	1	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
1) Short stories play a major role in language teaching and learning process.					
2) Short stories raise language awareness in learners and support communicative competence.					
3) Learners get a good deal of knowledge about the target culture from short stories. They improve themselves.					
4) Short stories consist of many speech acts (language functions such as suggesting, requesting, offering, complaining, etc.,) which help learners develop their communicative skills in real life. Thus, short stories are used as a means to develop learners'					

pragmatic competence.					
5) Short stories by which some specific structures like words, structures and speech acts can be taught to learners are effective in the development of learners' linguistic competence.					

PART 2

	Strongly Disagree	**Disagree**	**Undecided**	**Agree**	**Strongly Agree**
As a language instructor,	**1**	**2**	**3**	**4**	**5**
1) I use short stories in the classroom as authentic materials.					
2) I use short stories to develop my students' linguistic, communicative and pragmatic competence.					
3) I use short stories as a supplementary resource while teaching grammar and lexical items such as pronouns, particles and word-order.					
4) I benefit from conversations in short stories while teaching speech acts in the textbook (such as offering greetings, making requests, showing apologies, expressing thanks, agreeing or disagreeing with					

others,), thereby they can learn how to make use of appropriate speech acts in similar social contexts.					
5) I choose themes from short stories to introduce target culture, ideologies and artistic feelings and discuss in the classroom for learners' personal growth (Carter & Long, 1991: 2-3)					

APPENDIX 3

LESSON PLAN

Teacher's name: Elif Can Akyıldız

Date: 12.03.2012

Time: 80 minutes

Topic: Short Story "A Day's Wait"

Level of the students: Pre-intermediate

Materials: Board, Board markers, Papers, power point slides, short story, handouts

Objectives:

1- To engage the students intellectually, emotionally, and linguistically, and to provide the basis for a motivating variety of classroom activities.
2- To teach new vocabulary with the help of the given short story.
3- To motivate the students for reading and discussing a text successfully.

I- PRE-READING STAGE

A) Warm-up and Motivation &Rapport

Good afternoon class; how are you today?

B) State the aim of the lesson

Today, we are going to read and discuss Ernest Hemingway's short story "A Day's Wait"

- Asking pre-reading questions to the students like:

  - How is your relationship with your parents?
  - Do you share all your feelings (happiness, fear, worry) with your parents?
  - Are parents always sensitive to their children's feelings, especially fears?

- Why do children sometimes hide their fears from their parents?
- Have you ever felt bad or caught flu?
- How did you feel? How did you get better?

C) Set the scene

- By telling one of her ex stories the instructor tries to bring realia to the class in order to make the students guess the context.

- The instructor tells, "When I was in middle school, I was afraid of darkness, and so I didn't want to go to bed alone, but I preferred to hide my fear from my parents, because I supposed that if I had told this fear to them, they may have been angry and said 'Don't behave like a little girl!'. This feeling caused me to hide my fear from my parents. Whenever I went to bed, I cried until sleeping. One day my father heard my crying and asked me what happened, but I said nothing. Then, he supposed that I made a bad thing which made me cry. Angrily he asked me the same question, but I said nothing again. When he began to shout, I said cryingly "I am afraid of darkness and being alone in the bed". Contrary to my feelings, he hugged me and said that there was nothing to be afraid". Did you have this kind of an experience in your childhood? Did you share your fears or worries with your parents or hide these feelings from them?"

- After the students share their own stories with their friends and the instructor, they will be asked to guess what the text is about when they look at the title of the story.

D) Teach the vocabulary

- The instructor selects some words in the short story and lists them as follows:

- **Flush, Covey, Commence, Lightheaded, Sleet, Pirate, Quail, Prescribe, Shiver, Bother, Glassy, Slip, Slither, Scatter, Refuse, Silly**

- The reason why especially these words were selected to teach is that they would create problems in comprehension. The instructor uses some techniques in teaching the unknown vocabulary in the short story. By following steps in

teaching vocabulary, she makes the students familiar with the vocabulary and helps them to get ready for while-reading session.

1. Lead- in: By establishing a context the instructor tries to teach the unknown words. To reach this aim, she creates a meaningful story including all of these unknown words.

Context

Last month my brother had a cold with high temperature. Although he is 28, he is afraid of doctors, so he didn't want to go to doctor first. Finally, my mother convinced him to see a doctor. The doctor prescribed four different medicines and suggested that he should have rest for a week. While we were going to home, my mother was driving slowly and carefully because of the bad weather conditions. It was sleeting. Since the surface was so glassy, my mother warned us to walk carefully or we could slip and slither. As soon as we came home, my mother sent my brother to his bed, as he looked lightheaded. My father was at home, too. My mother flushed suddenly, because the room was messy. My father scattered everything into the room. While they were arguing about this issue, I went to my brother's room. He was shivering into his bed. When he saw me, he told that he saw a beautiful dream in which he was flying with a covey of quail. After a short conversation, I said, "I don't want to bother you. If you sleep, I can go out". He smiled and said that he was bored with sleeping and being in bed. So, I suggested watching a movie about pirates. He became very happy, and then we commenced watching it. Although my friends made very good comments about this film, we thought that its story was so silly. After we had finished watching the film, I advised him to sleep. At first he refused, but then he fell asleep.

2. Convey the meaning: With the use of pictures, flashcards, film strips, realia, drawings, mime, gestures and acting the unknown vocabulary is demonstrated. The instructor teaches the selected words with two techniques- demonstration (pictures) and definition (dictionary meaning and synonyms). The words- 'prescribe', 'sleet', 'shiver', 'quail', 'covey' and 'pirate'- are taught with the help of pictures by which the students can guess the meanings of these words.

The instructor sticks 5 pictures on to the white board and asks the students "What do you see in this picture?", and then by pointing at pictures she uses the new word in a sentence (Appendix 1).

The others- 'glassy', 'slip', 'slither', 'lightheaded', 'flush', 'scatter', 'bother', 'commence', 'silly' and 'refuse', are taught by explaining their dictionary meanings and synonyms. The instructor sticks two different coloured cartoons onto the white board. One of these colours includes the unknown vocabulary; the other one includes the meaning of them. The instructor tries to teach these vocabularies by using her body language, synonyms, facial expressions, etc. instead of giving the meaning directly. Then, she sticks the meaning of these words in a mixed order onto the board and wants the students to match them (Appendix 2)

3. Repetition: The instructor wants the students to repeat the words they have learned.
4. Verification: After repeating these words, a vocabulary sheet including 15 sentences will be given to the students, and they will be asked to find the right word and to write it in its correct place in order to check if they grasped the meaning (Appendix 3).
5. Use: The instructor makes the students use the new words in a context. As an activity, the students are asked to write a composition or dialogue by using the new words that they have learnt.
6. Model sentence: Model sentences using the new words are dictated to the students by the instructor.

(Demirel, 2003: 88)

II. WHILE (ON) READING STAGE /IN-CLASS READING

a) Since the students were asked to read the short story before they came to the class, firstly, they will be asked to write a summary of the story by their own.

b) After some students have read their summaries in the class, each paragraph of the story is read aloud in the class by different students.

c) Then, a character map is given to the students to make a detailed analysis of characters in the story (Appendix 4).

d) A worksheet including scanning, skimming and comprehension questions will be given to the students.

1-Scanning questions

- What is the name of the son?
- What is the matter of the son?
- How many medicines did the doctor give for the son?
- What is the name of the book the father is reading?
- Why is the son worried about his temperature?

2- Skimming questions

-	Schatz has a stomachache.	T	F
-	Schatz's temperature is two hundred and one.	T	F
-	The father went hunting while his son was resting in his bed.	T	F
-	The father does not look after his son.	T	F
-	Next day the son seemed very happy.	T	F
-	The father sensed his son's fear.	T	F

e) To make the story much more understandable for the students a story map and a chart in which the students are expected to place main events in their order of occurrence are given to them. With the use of this map and chart the students can make an outline of the story (Appendix 5 & 6).

3- Comprehension questions

1- In what season does the story take place?
2- How does the father know his son is sick?
3- Why doesn't the boy pay attention to the book his father is reading to him?
4- Where does the father go while his son is resting in bed?
5- What is the boy waiting for?

6- How much time passes from the beginning of the story until the end?

III. POST-READING ACTIVITIES

- For the role play activity, the students will be asked to create a conversation between the father and the boy, the father and the doctor or the doctor and the boy next day with their partners in five minutes. Then, some of them will be taken to the stage to perform their conversations.

APPENDIX 3A

PICTURES

PRESCRIBE

SLEET

SHIVER

A COVEY OF QUAIL

PIRATE

APPENDIX 3B

Match the words with their definitions.

1. Glassy	a. Not accept
2. Slip	b. Weak and ill
3. Slither	c. Annoy
4. Lightheaded	d. Start
5. Flush	e. Fall
6. Scatter	f. Stupid
7. Bother	g. Smooth and shiny like glass
8. Commence	h. Your face becomes red and hot usually because you are embarrassed or angry
9. Silly	ı. To throw objects over an area
10. Refuse	i. To move smoothly by twisting and sliding

APPENDIX 3C

VOCABULARY WORKSHEET

Flush, Covey, Commence, Lightheaded, Sleet, Pirate, Quail, Prescribe, Shiver, Bother, Glassy, Slip, Slither, Scatter, Refuse, Silly

Find the right word and then place it to its place.

1- The man ..... in his wet clothes.
2- The little boy was too worried about his temperature to listen to stories of .....and hidden treasure.
3- She felt..... from the hot weather and lack of water.
4- His doctor..... the medicine in capsule form.
5- The weather forecaster predicted a winter storm with snow and .....
6- She.....on the ice and broke her ankle.
7- A.....of..... sat hidden in the bushes.
8- When my parents heard that I couldn't pass the exam, they .....
9- I asked him to leave, but he.....
10- The snake.....along the grass.
11- At the signal from the teacher, the students ..... to take the exam.
12- She gets upset over such.....things.
13- You can see a .....sea when you look out from the window.
14- He.....some flower seeds in the garden.
15- I'm sorry to .....you, but could I speak to you for a moment?

Vivid Vocabulary

Directions: Complete the following chart with information about the vocabulary words you will encounter in this story.

WORD	What it means…	What it looks like…
flush		
covey		
commence		
slip		
lightheaded		
sleet		
pirate		
quail		
slither		
prescribe		
refuse		
shiver		
silly		

scatter		
bother		
glassy		
WORD	**What it means…**	**What it looks like…**

APPENDIX 3D

Name _____ Date_____

Class/Subject _____ Teacher_____

Character Map

What character says and does.	What others think about character.
Character's Name	
How character looks and feels.	How I feel about character.

APPENDIX 3E

WORKSHEET

1-Scanning questions

- What is the name of the son?
- What is the matter of the son?
- How many medicines did the doctor give for the son?
- What is the name of the book the father is reading?
- Why is the son worried about his temperature?

2- Skimming questions

- Schatz has a stomachache. T F
- Schatz's temperature is two hundred and one. T F
- The father went hunting while his son was resting in his bed. T F
- The father does not look after his son. T F
- Next day the son seemed very happy. T F
- The father sensed his son's fear. T F

3- Comprehension questions

- In what season does the story take place?
- How does the father know his son is sick?
- Why doesn't the boy pay attention to the book his father is reading to him?
- Where does the father go while his son is resting in bed?
- What is the boy waiting for?
- How much time passes from the beginning of the story until the end?

APPENDIX 3F

Name _____ Date _____

Class/Subject _____ Teacher _____

Story Map

Title

Setting (Where, When, Time, Place)

Characters

Plot/Problem

Event	Event	Event

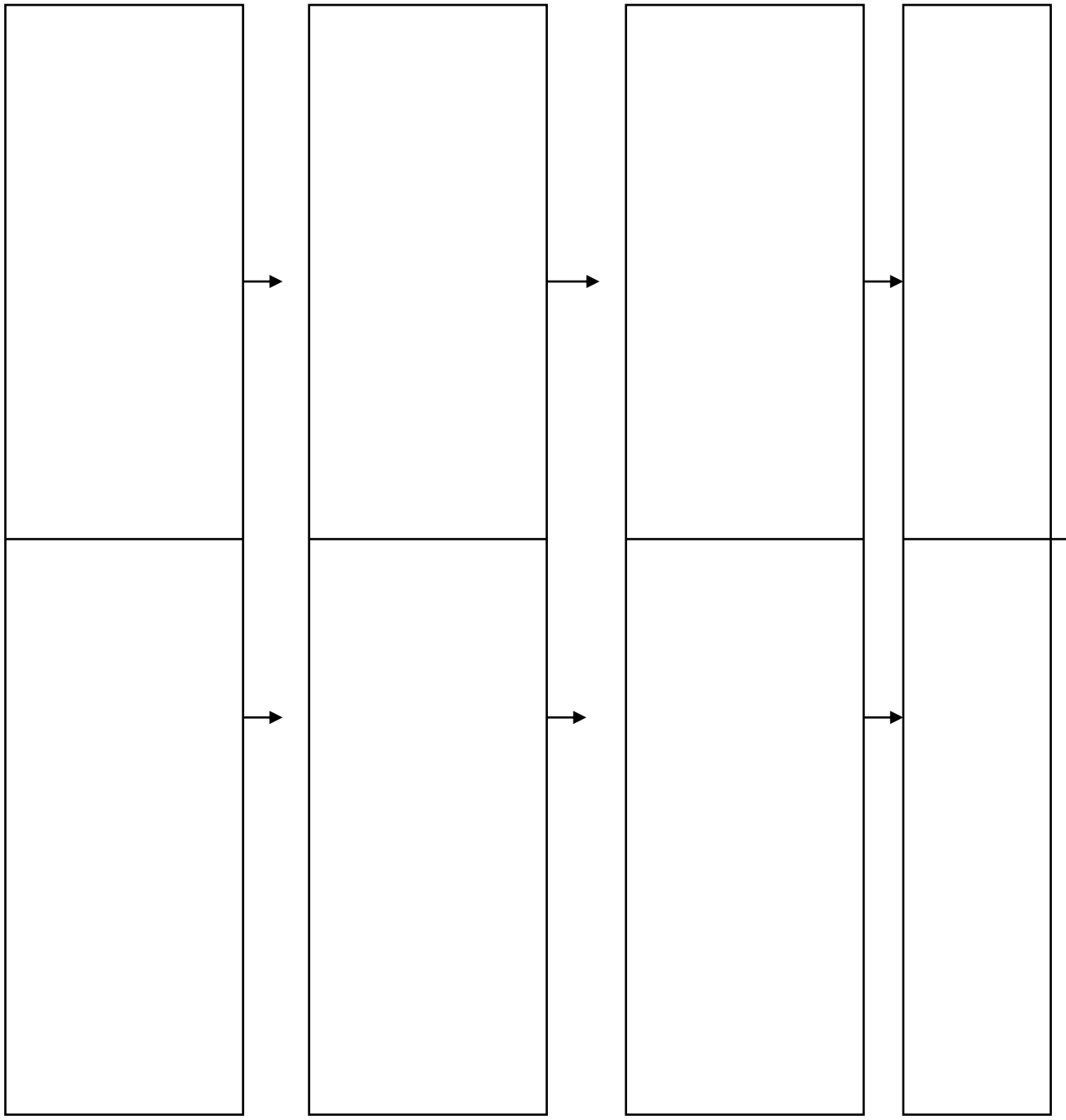
Solution

APPENDIX 3G

Name _____ Date_____

Class/Subject _____ Teacher _____

Sequence of Events Chart



APPENDIX 4

LESSON PLAN

Teacher's name: Elif Can Akyıldız

Date: 19.03.2012

Time: 90 minutes (approximately)

Topic: Four types of speech acts in Ernest Hemingway's short story 'A Day's Wait'

Level of the students: Pre-intermediate

Materials: Board, Board markers, Papers, short story, handouts, work sheets, role cards.

Objectives:

1- To develop learners' communicative competence with the help of the given short story.
2- To teach appropriate linguistic forms that are likely to be encountered in performing speech acts.
3- To prove the pragmatic value of short stories in language teaching and learning.

Procedure

PRE

A) Warm-up and Motivation

- Good afternoon class; how are you today?

B) State the aim of the lesson

- Today we are going to learn how to make suggestions, to make a promise, to refuse an invitation or an idea, and what would be said to convince somebody to do something.

- Asking some pre-questions about the subject to the students like;
-
- How do you make suggestions?
- How do you make a promise?
- How do you refuse an invitation?

} In your real life?

- How do you convince somebody to do something?

- After having discussed these questions with the students, 8 situations are written on the board and the students are asked what they would say in these situations.

1. When one of your friends says "I am too fat to wear this dress, so I am very unhappy",
2. When a man, about whom you don't know anything, invites you to dinner at a restaurant,
3. When one of your colleagues wants your help for his project,
4. When your best friend says she is not qualified enough to get a job, but you think that she has all qualifications to get any job,
5. When your brother says "I have suffered from sleeplessness for two weeks",
6. When one of your friends asks you to drive him/her to airport tonight,
7. When your friend says she is very tired, and so she doesn't want to go out, but you think you will have lots of fun,
8. When one of your classmates, who you don't like very much, asks to borrow some money,

WHAT WOULD YOU SAY?

- After the instructor listens to the students' responses, 8 appropriate responses for these situations are written in a mixed order on the board, and the students are asked to match responses with these situations.

a. I'll help you after finishing my works.

b. I wish I can do it, but I don't have enough money, too.
c. You should eat much more fruits and vegetables instead of fast food.
d. I know you are tired, but if we go out, we'll have lots of fun and you'll forget your tiredness.
e. That's not true. You have a successful educational background and you can speak two foreign languages. In addition, you are hardworking and intelligent. Who wouldn't want to employ this kind of a person!
f. No, I can't. I don't even know you.
g. Of course, I promise to take you to there. Be ready at 11 pm.
h. You have felt stressed for two weeks. That's why you have this problem, but why don't you see a doctor just in case?

- The aim of this activity is to see what each learner can do with his/her present knowledge prior to any instruction dealing with linguistic expressions, and to raise students' awareness of the different possibilities available to express a suggestion, make a promise, perform a refusal and make statements to convince somebody to do something.

WHILE

- As a first step, four dialogues consisting of the speech act of suggesting, refusing, promising and convincing in the given short story are chosen.
- In order to teach these speech act performances a worksheet (appendix 1) in which four situations having similar responses to the ones in the short story are presented are prepared.
- The students are separated into four groups. Each one of the four situations in the worksheet is given to each group, and they are asked to write what they would say in these given situations.
- By discussing the options with their own groups they are expected to find the most appropriate response for the given situation.

- After each of the groups has written their responses for the situation given to them, the representatives of each group read their own responses by turns, and these responses are discussed with the students in the other groups.
- After situations are given and responses are elicited, each group is asked to look at the short story, to find the situation similar to the one given to them in the worksheet, and to underline characters' responses in the form of suggesting, refusing, promising and convincing.
- After each group has found the similar situation in the short story, characters' speech act performances and students' responses to the given situations in the worksheet are compared on the board.

IN THE STORY **STUDENTS'RESPONSES**

1. Schatz: I've got a headache. Students' responses to situation 1
   His father: You *better* go back to bed.

2. His father: Why don't you try to go to sleep? I'll wake you up for the medicine. Students' responses to situation 2
   Schatz: *I'd rather stay awake*.

3. Schatz: No, I'm all right. Students' responses to situation 3
   His father: You go to bed. *I'll see you when I'm dressed.*

4. Schatz: Oh, yes, I am. I heard him say a hundred and two. Students' responses to situation 4
   His father: *People don't die with a fever of one hundred and two. That's a silly way to talk.*

- Each group is asked to compare their own responses to the given situation with characters' speech act performances in a similar situation.

- To teach that there are various ways of performing the speech act of suggesting, refusing, promising and convincing, the instructor writes the selected dialogues of the characters with alternative responses on the board as follows;

DIALOGUES	**ALTERNATIVE RESPONSES & LINGUISTIC FORMS**
1. Schatz: I've got a headache.	His father: a. I suggest that you should go back to bed. b. Try going back to bed. c. How about/ what about going back to bed? d. Why don't you go back to bed? e. You need to go back to bed. f. You should go back to bed.
2. His father: Why don't you try to go to sleep? I'll wake you up for the medicine.	Schatz: a. I'd like/ love to sleep, but I can't. b. Maybe two hours later. c. No, ı don't want to sleep now. d. I want to stay awake.

3. Schatz: No, I'm all right.	His father: a. You go to bed. I promise to see you when I'm dressed. b. I promise that I'll see you when I'm dressed. c. I shall see you when I'm dressed.
4. Schatz: oh, yes, I am. I heard him say a hundred and two.	His father: a. I have never heard that a person died with a fever of one hundred and two. b. Are you serious? This should be a joke. Nobody dies with a fever of one hundred and two. c. Come on, Schatz! You aren't going to die with a fever of one hundred and two. d. This fever is very normal. What gave you that idea?

- By listing different responses to each of four situations in the short story, the instructor tries to make the students engaged in pragmatic use of English and prove that the students can perform speech acts in different linguistic forms.

POST

- As a role play activity, the students are asked to create a conversation in which four types of speech acts they have learned will be presented between the father and the boy, the father and the doctor or the doctor and the boy next day with their partners in five minutes.

- In addition to this activity, four situations for each speech act type the students have learned are prepared as a role play activity.
- Each of these situations is written on separate cards, and enough copies for the students are made by instructor.
- After selecting one of these cards, the students are asked to work in pairs and write down a dialogue in which each learner assumes a different role. An example of this type of activity is as follows;

Read the following situations and write down an appropriate dialogue with your partner.

Situation 1

You see one of your new classmates working in the library very late in the evening. This classmate is browsing the Web in order to find new information about his thesis. He looks very tired. What would you suggest him?

Situation 2

You friend, Jack, plays in a jazz band. He is going to have a concert soon, and he asks you to buy a ticket to the concert. You really do not want to go, because it will cost you $45, and you feel this is too expensive. What would you say to refuse this invitation?

Situation 3

You work in a private company. You are normally a punctual person, but for two weeks you have been late for work because of unexpected reasons. To speak this issue your boss calls you. You are aware of that he is very annoyed with this situation. While talking with him, what would you say to make a promise?

Situation 4

You have been in the school choir for some years now, and wish to convince a close friend of yours, who is interested in music, to join the choir. What would you say to convince him?

APPENDIX 4A

WORKSHEET

Instructions: There are four situations. Read each situation carefully, imagine you are a participant in it, and then think about how you would perform the speech act of suggesting, refusing, promising and convincing in each of them. You can add any details you like to your responses. You can make notes; however, try to perform the situations without looking at the paper. Your performance will be evaluated by the members of the other groups.

Situation 1:

You notice that one of your classmates hasn't come to the class for three days. You are worried about him. After school, you call him, and learn that he has had a stomachache for three days. What would you suggest him?

Situation 2:

You don't feel very good, because you have caught flu. Your mother wants you to go to the doctor and to take some medicine, but you don't want to do this. What would you say to refuse this idea?

Situation 3:

Your girl friend has wanted to go to the cinema with you for a long time, but you have been very busy because of your works. To make her happy you promise to go to the cinema at this weekend. What would you say?

Situation 4:

Your brother, who has a headache, thinks that this maybe a symptom of a serious illness. You try to convince him that there is nothing to be afraid, because it is only a simple headache. What would you say?

APPENDIX 5

LESSON PLAN

Teacher's name: Elif Can Akyıldız

Date: 26.03.2012

Time: 80 minutes

Topic: Short Story "A Clean Well-Lighted Place"

Level of the students: Pre-intermediate

Materials: Board, Board markers, Papers, pictures, short story, handouts

Objectives:

1- To engage the students intellectually, emotionally, and linguistically, and to provide the basis for a motivating variety of classroom activities.
2- To teach new vocabulary with the help of the given short story.
3- To motivate the students for reading and discussing a text successfully.

I- PRE-READING STAGE

A) Warm-up and Motivation &Rapport

Good afternoon class; how are you today?

B) State the aim of the lesson

Today, we are going to read and discuss Ernest Hemingway's short story "A Clean Well-Lighted Place".

- Asking pre-reading questions to the students like:
  - What is the meaning and purpose of life for you?
  - Do you know anybody who suffers from emptiness and loneliness?

- Do you think that having plenty of money is enough to be happy or not to feel lonely in life?
- Have you ever felt depressed, lonely and lost?
- What led you to have these feelings?
- What did you do to feel better and safe?
- Why do people sometimes feel lonelier at night?
- What can people do to escape their loneliness?

C) Set the scene

- By telling one of her own stories the instructor tries to bring realia to the class in order to make the students guess the context.

- The instructor tells, "When I was in the university, I had a friend. She had everything which all people want to have. She was very beautiful. Many boys in the school fell in love with her, and so tried to attract her, but she was interested in none of them. She was a successful student. All of her points were very high, and each teacher loved her. In addition, she was very rich. She had her own car and house. Despite all of these good things, she always seemed as if she had had a serious problem. She rarely smiled and talked. One day we heard that she had committed suicide, and so had been in the hospital for two weeks. I decided to visit her. When she saw me, she started to cry. I asked "What's wrong with you?" and she told "I know I have everything, but I feel lonely and lost. I have to live alone in a big house, because my parents are on abroad, and they don't pay attention to me. They behave as if I weren't their daughter. My life is meaningless, and so I don't want to live." After this conversation, I called her parents and explained her situation. Two days later they came to the hospital and promised that they would never ever leave her alone. Have you known this kind of a person in your life? Have you ever felt depressed or lonely although there is no reason?
- After the students share their own stories with their friends and the instructor, they will be asked to guess what the text is about when they look at the title of the story.

D) Teach the vocabulary

- The instructor selects some words in the short story and lists them as follows:

  - **Dusty, Deaf, Commit suicide, Despair, Hang, Nasty, Regard, Dignity, Unjust, Insult, Lack, Nonsense, Reluctant, Dread**

- The reason why especially these words were selected to teach is that they would create problems in comprehension.
- The instructor uses some techniques in teaching the unknown vocabulary in the short story. By following steps in teaching vocabulary, she makes the students familiar with the vocabulary and helps them to get ready for while-reading session.

1. **Lead- in:** By establishing a context the instructor tries to teach the unknown words. To reach this aim, the she writes a meaningful story including all of these unknown words.

   Context

   We have a neighbor who is an old man. Although he has two sons, he is a lonely man, because neither of his children visits him. I always feel so sad for this man, and so one day I decided to visit him at home. When I came in, I was shocked, because his home was very dusty and especially his room smelled very bad. I made coffee for both of us. At that time, he started to tell his own story, "Last year my wife and I had a traffic accident. It was my fault. Since I was drunk, I was driving carelessly. In this accident my wife died and I became deaf. This terrible event changed all of my life badly. I lost my dignity. My children blamed me for their mother's death and insulted me. They were reluctant to live with me at the same home, and so they moved into a new house. They have had no regard for me and have seen their own father as a nasty thing since this accident. Two weeks earlier I tried to commit suicide, because I was in despair. I thought that my wife's death was unjust while I was alive. This was not a dread but guilt. My life was nonsense, because I lacked love, kindness, confidence and respect. I

was all alone, so I just wanted to die. I tried to hang myself with a rope, but I couldn't, because I didn't want my children think that their father was a coward. Since this event I have lived in hope of that my children will forgive me one day."

2. **Convey the meaning:** With the use of pictures, flashcards, film strips, realia, drawings, mime, gestures and acting the unknown vocabulary is demonstrated. The instructor teaches the selected words with a technique- definition (dictionary meaning and synonyms). The selected words- 'dusty', 'deaf', 'commit suicide', 'despair', 'hang', 'nasty', 'regard', 'dignity', 'unjust', 'insult', 'lack', 'nonsense', 'reluctant', 'dread'-are taught by explaining their dictionary meanings and synonyms. The instructor sticks two different coloured cartoons onto the white board. One of these colours includes the unknown vocabulary; the other one includes the meaning of them. She tries to teach these vocabularies by using her body language, synonyms, facial expressions, etc. instead of giving the meaning directly. Then, she sticks the meaning of these words in a mixed order onto the board and wants the students to match them (Appendix 1)
3. **Repetition:** The instructor wants the students to repeat the words they have learned.
4. **Verification:** After repeating these words, a vocabulary sheet including 15 sentences will be given to the students, and they will be asked to find the right word and to write it in its correct place in order to check if they grasped the meaning (Appendix 2).
5. **Use:** The instructor makes the students use the new words in a context. As an activity, some pictures giving clues about the new words were selected by the instructor (Appendix 3). The students work in pairs. Looking at each of these pictures, the students are asked to write a short dialogue about what they perceive with their partners. They should use the new words that they have learned.
6. **Model sentence:** Model sentences using the new words are dictated to the students by the instructor.

(Demirel, 2003: 88)

II- WHILE (ON) READING STAGE /IN-CLASS READING

a) Since the students were asked to read the short story before they came to the class, firstly, they will be asked to write a summary of the story by their own.

b) After some students have read their summaries in the class, each paragraph of the story is read in the class by different students.

c) Then, a character map is given to the students to make a detailed analysis of characters in the story (Appendix 4).

d) A worksheet including scanning, skimming and comprehension questions will be given to the students.

1-Scanning questions

- What is the matter of the man?
- How many waiters are there inside the café?
- How old is the man?
- What drink does the man order?
- Who looks after the man?
- What time does the man leave the café?
- What do the waiters do after they close up the café?

2- Skimming questions

- The man is poor. T F
- The man tried to commit suicide, because he felt depressed. T F
- Both of the waiters are married. T F
- Both of the waiters feel so sad for the man. T F
- The man comes to the café every night. T F
- The man tried to kill himself with a knife. T F
- The man stayed at the café until daylight. T F
- The man was drunk. T F

e) To make the story much more understandable for the students a story map and a chart in which the students are expected to place main events in their order of occurrence are given to them. With the use of this map and chart the students can make an outline of the story (Appendix 5 & 6).

3- Comprehension questions

- Where does the story take place?
- Why does the man want to die?
- Why does the man's niece save him?
- Why is the younger waiter angry with the man?
- Why does the older waiter think that he is different from the younger one?
- What similarities are there between the man and the older waiter?
- Why does the older waiter prefer a clean well-lighted place to a bar?
- To support these questions a concept map is given to the students (Appendix 7).

POST-READING ACTIVITIES

- Some writing ideas are given to the students, and as a role play activity they are expected to choose one of them and to create a dialogue with their partners.

Writing

Read the writing ideas that follow, and choose one of them.

1. Create a conversation between the younger waiter and his wife when he gets home.
2. Create a conversation between the man and his niece when he gets home.
3. Imagine that the older waiter wants to visit the old man next day. Create a conversation between two characters.
4. Continue the story, assuming that after three weeks the waiters hear that the man commits suicide again and dies. Write a dialogue between these characters.
5. Write a letter in which the man tells his feelings.

APPENDIX 5A

Match the words with their definitions.

1. Dusty
2. Deaf
3. Dread
4. Despair
5. Hang
6. Nasty
7. Regard
8. Dignity
9. Unjust
10. Insult
11. Lack
12. Nonsense
13. Reluctant
14. Commit Suicide

a. Silly and not true
b. Calm and serious behavior that makes people respect you
c. To not have something or enough of something
d. A strong feeling of fear or worry
e. Very bad
f. Dirty
g. Not wanting to do something
h. Unable to hear
ı. Admiration or respect for someone or something
i. A feeling of having no hope
j. Unfair
k. To fasten or attach (a thing) so that it is supported only from above or at a point near its own top; suspend.
l. To kill yourself
m. To say or do something to someone that is rude and offensive

APPENDIX 5B

VOCABULARY WORKSHEET

Dusty, Deaf, Commit suicide, Despair, Hang, Nasty, Regard, Dignity, Unjust, Insult, Lack, Nonsense, Reluctant, Dread

Find the right word and then place it to its place.

16- I'm..... to go to this party, because there will be some people I don't like.
17- He.....his coat on the hook behind the door.
18- The home was very old, and the furniture was.....
19- She had a .....of being lonely in her childhood.
20- How dare you .....me in front of my friends!
21- After she had lost her mother, she tried to.....twice.
22- He was sent to prison although he was innocent. This is.....!
23- She really.....self-confidence.
24- He goes to a school for the.....children.
25- What's that .....smell in this cupboard?
26- She talks such.....sometimes, and so nobody wants to listen to her.
27- All of these terrible events caused her to be in.....
28- My boss is very rude. He has no.....for his employees.
29- He behaved with great.....and courage.

Vivid Vocabulary

Directions: Complete the following chart with information about the vocabulary words you will encounter in this story.

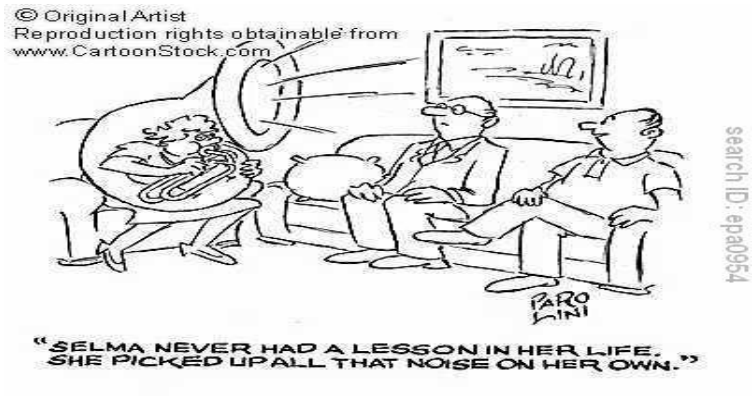
WORD	What it means…	What it looks like…
dusty		
deaf		
commit suicide		
despair		
hang		
nasty		
regard		
dignity		
unjust		
insult		
lack		
nonsense		
reluctant		

dread		
WORD	**What it means…**	**What it looks like…**

APPENDIX 5C

PICTURES

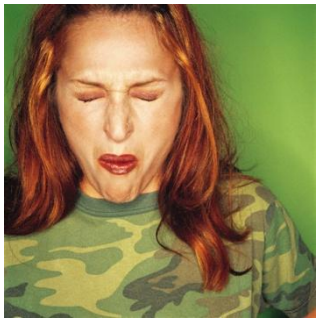
1. 

2. 

3. 

4. 

5. 

6.  

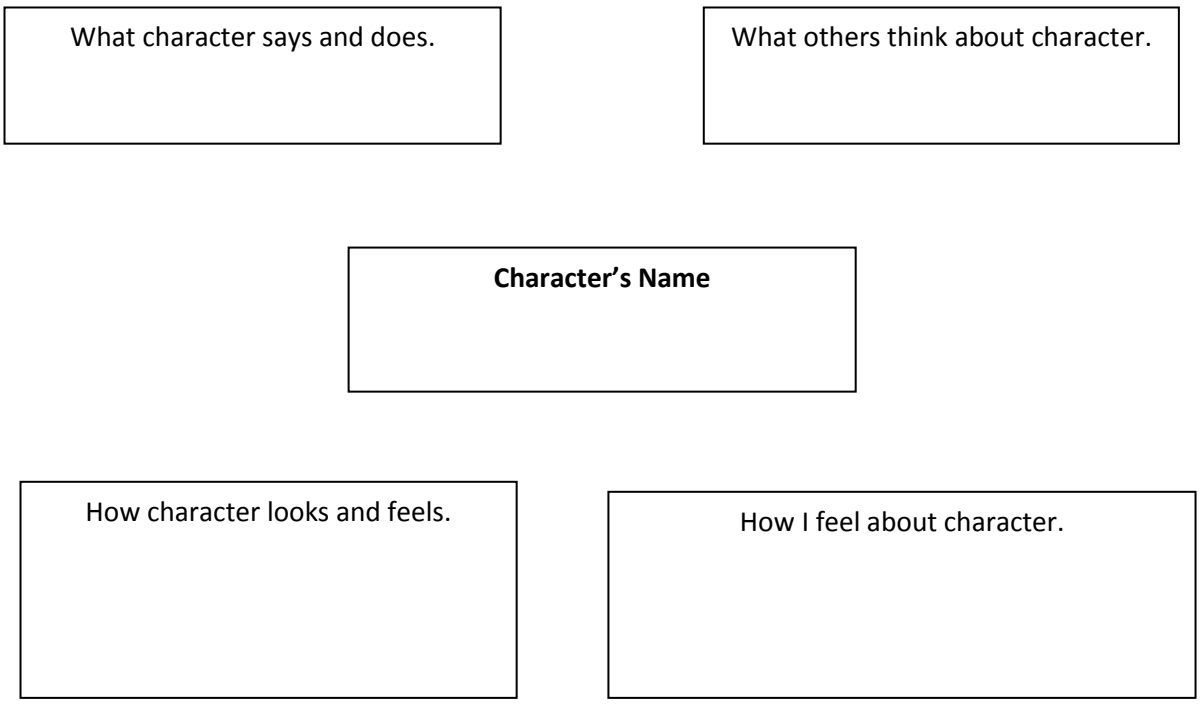
7. 

APPENDIX 5D

Name _____ Date _____

Class/Subject _____ Teacher_____

Character Map



APPENDIX 5E

WORKSHEET

1. Scanning questions

- What is the matter of the man?
- How many waiters are there inside the café?
- How old is the man?
- What drink does the man order?
- Who looks after the man?
- What time does the man leave the café?
- What do the waiters do after they close up the café?

2. Skimming questions

- The man is poor. T F
- The man tried to commit suicide, because he felt depressed. T F
- Both of the waiters are married. T F
- Both of the waiters feel so sad for the man. T F
- The man comes to the café every night. T F
- The man tried to kill himself with a knife. T F
- The man stayed at the café until daylight. T F
- The man was drunk. T F

3. Comprehension Questions

- Where does the story take place?
- Why does the man want to die?
- Why does the man's niece save him?
- Why is the younger waiter angry with the man?
- Why does the older waiter think that he is different from the younger one?
- What similarities are there between the man and the older waiter?
- Why does the older waiter prefer a clean well-lighted place to a bar?

APPENDIX 5F

Name _____ Date _____

Class/Subject _____ Teacher _____

Story Map

Title

Setting (Where, When, Time, Place)

Characters

Plot/Problem

Event	Event	Event

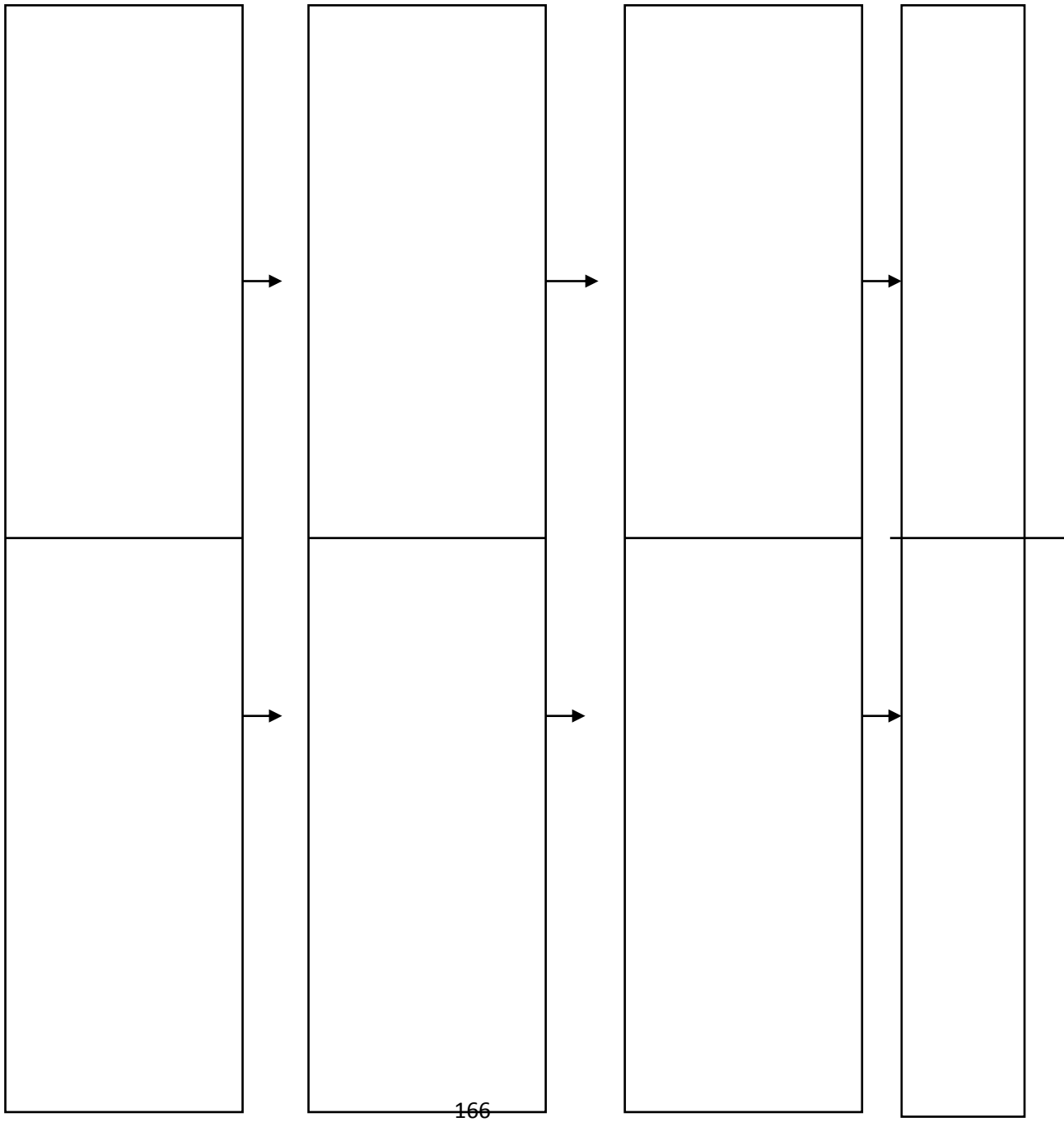
Solution

APPENDIX 5G

Name _____
Date_____

Class/Subject _____ Teacher _____

Sequence of Events Chart

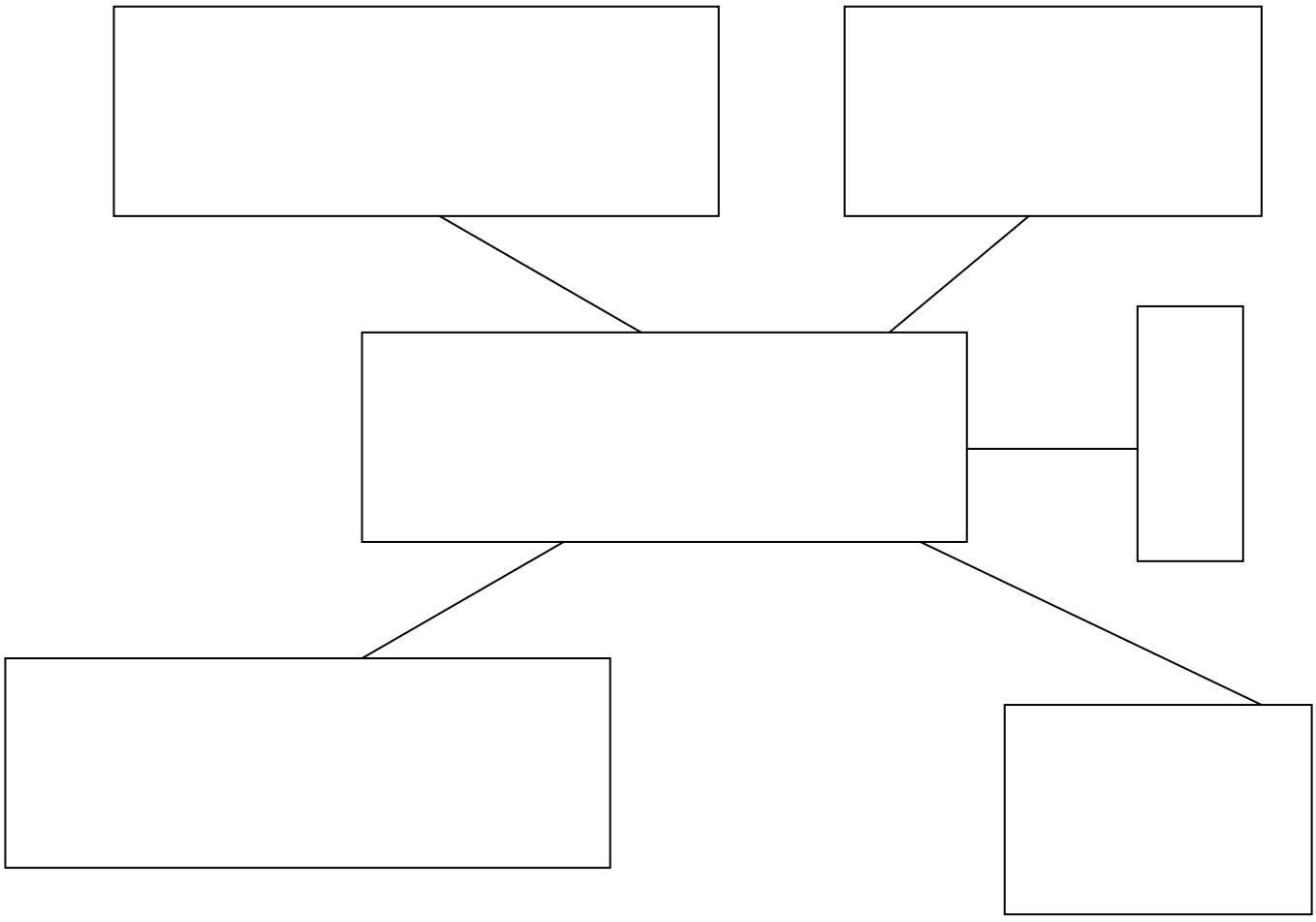


APPENDIX 5H

Name _____ Date _____

Class/Subject _____ Teacher _____

Concept Map



APPENDIX 6

LESSON PLAN

Teacher's name: Elif Can Akyıldız

Date: 02.04.2012

Time: 90 minutes (approximately)

Topic: Four types of speech acts in Ernest Hemingway's short story 'A Clean Well-Lighted Place'

Level of the students: Pre-intermediate

Materials: Board, Board markers, Papers, short story, handouts, work sheets, role cards.

Objectives:

1- To develop learners' communicative competence with the help of the given short story.
2- To teach appropriate linguistic forms that are likely to be encountered in performing speech acts.
3- To prove the pragmatic value of short stories in language teaching and learning.

Procedure

PRE

A) Warm-up and Motivation

- Good afternoon class; how are you today?

B) State the aim of the lesson

Today we are going to learn how to give an advice, to make a request, to warn someone about something, and to agree with someone or something.

- Asking some pre-questions about the subject to the students like;

- How do you give an advice?
- How do you make a request?
- How do you warn someone about something?
- How do you agree with someone or an idea?

} In your real life?

- After having discussed these questions with the students, 8 situations are written on the board and the students are asked what they would say in these situations.

1. When you notice that your father looks very tired and sleepless, because he has worked very late,
2. When your parents say that you don't study enough to pass your exams, and you know they're right,
3. When your brother says he is going to a party tonight although it is very snowy, and the roads are too icy to drive,
4. When someone asks you "Would you like to drink something?",
5. When one of your friends says she wants to buy a computer, but she has no idea about them,
6. When your ideas about a subject are similar to your friend's,
7. When one of your employees often comes to the job late,
8. When you call a Burger King restaurant,

WHAT WOULD YOU SAY?

- After the instructor listens to the students' responses, 8 appropriate responses for these situations are written in a mixed order on the board, and the students are asked to match responses with these situations.

a. A cup of tea, please.
b. Yes, you're right. I promise I'll work hard at my exams.
c. If I were you, I would ask Mark, because he is good at computers.

d. I advise you to take a short break and to have a rest.
e. I would like a Big Mac menu, please. If you hurry up, I'll be pleased, because I'm very hungry.
f. If you late again tomorrow, do not bother to come to work again next week. This is the first and the last warning for you.
g. Don't go there I think! It can be dangerous, because the ground is very icy.
h. That's very nice. I have the same opinion with you.

- The aim of this activity is to see what each learner can do with his/her present knowledge prior to any instruction dealing with linguistic expressions, and to raise students' awareness of the different possibilities available to give advices, to make requests, to warn somebody and to agree with somebody or something.

WHILE

- To recognize speech act behaviors better, the short story "A Clean Well-Lighted Place" read in the previous lesson is used.
- As a first step, four dialogues consisting of the speech act of advising, requesting, agreeing and warning in the given short story are chosen.
- In order to teach these speech act performances a worksheet (appendix 1) in which four situations having similar responses to the ones in the short story are presented are prepared.
- The students are separated into four groups. Each one of the four situations in the worksheet is given to each group, and they are asked to write what they would say in these given situations.
- By discussing the options with their own groups they are expected to find the most appropriate response for the given situation.
- After each of the groups has written their responses for the situation given to them, the representatives of each group read their own responses by turns, and these responses are discussed with the students in the other groups.
- After situations are given and responses are elicited, each group is asked to look at the short story, to find the situation similar to the one given to them in the

worksheet, and to underline characters' responses in the form of advising, requesting, agreeing and warning.

- After each group has found the similar situation in the short story, characters' speech act performances and students' responses to the given situations in the worksheet are compared on the board.

IN STORY **STUDENTS' RESPONSES**

1. The older waiter: The guard will pick him up. Students' responses to situation 1
   The younger waiter: What does it matter if he gets what he's after?
   The older waiter: He *had better get off the street now.* The guard will get him. They went by five minutes ago.

2. The younger waiter: What do you want? Students' responses to situation 2
   The old man: *Another brandy*

3. The younger waiter: You talk like an old man yourself. He can buy a bottle and drink at home. Students' responses to situation 3
   The older waiter: It's not the same.
   The younger waiter: *No, it is not*.

4. The old man: Another brandy Students' responses to situation 4
   The younger waiter: *You'll be drunk.*

- Each group is asked to compare their own responses to the given situation with characters' speech act performances in a similar situation.
- To teach that there are various ways of performing the speech act of advising, requesting, agreeing and warning, the instructor writes the selected dialogues of the characters with alternative responses on the board as follows;

DIALOGUES	ALTERNATIVE RESPONSES & LINGUISTIC FORMS
1. The older waiter: The guard will pick him up.	The older waiter: a. He should get off the street now. b. He ought to get off the street now. c. I advise that he should get off the street now. d. I advise him to get off the street now. e. Getting off the street now is better for him.
2. The younger waiter: What do you want?	The old man: a. I want another brandy. b. I would like to drink another brandy. c. Can/Could I take another brandy, please?
3. The older waiter: It's not the same.	The younger waiter: a. Yes, you're right. b. I agree with you. c. Yes, I think so. d. Yes, I have the same opinion with you.

4. The old man: Another brandy.	The younger waiter: a. Hey man, be careful, you'll be drunk. b. Don't drink anymore! You'll be drunk. c. You shouldn't drink anymore, or you'll be drunk. d. I'm worried about you. You are drinking very much. You'll be drunk.

POST

- Some writing ideas are given to the students, and as a role play activity they are expected to choose one of them and to create a dialogue with their partners in five minutes.

Writing

Read the writing ideas that follow, and choose one of them.

1. Create a conversation between the younger waiter and his wife when he gets home.
2. Create a conversation between the man and his niece when he gets home.
3. Imagine that the older waiter wants to visit the old man next day. Create a conversation between two characters.
4. Continue the story, assuming that after three weeks the waiters hear that the man commits suicide again and dies. Write a dialogue between these characters.

- The students are asked to use four types of speech acts they have learned in their conversations.

- In addition to this activity, four situations for each speech act type the students have learned are prepared as a role play activity.
- The students are asked to work in pairs and write down a dialogue in which each learner assumes a different role. An example of this type of activity is as follows;

Read the following situations and write down an appropriate dialogue with your partner.

Situation 1

Your parents are planning to give a party, at home, to celebrate their twentieth wedding anniversary. They are thinking of asking all of their friends, but you think this will make the house too crowded. What would you advise them?

Situation 2

It is your brother's birthday in a few days. You want to buy a detective novel for him, because he likes reading this kind of books. So, you go to a bookstore. What would you say to make a request?

Situation 3

Although you smoke, you never do it in your room, but your younger sister often smokes in your room, and so the room smells very bad. What would you say to warn your sister about this?

Situation 4

You are a shop assistant. Two women come to the shop and one of them tries a dress on. The other one says her friend looks very smart into this dress. You think in the same way. What would you say to agree with this idea?

APPENDIX 6A

WORKSHEET

Instructions: There are four situations. Read each situation carefully, imagine you are a participant in it, and then think about how you would perform the speech act of advising, requesting, agreeing and warning in each of them. You can add any details you like to your responses. You can make notes; however, try to perform the situations without looking at the paper. Your performance will be evaluated by the members of the other groups.

Situation 1:

During the lesson, one of your classmates says that he does not feel good, and so asks for permission to go to the toilet. At break you see him sitting in the garden. He looks ill, because he is shivering and his face is white. What would you advice him?

Situation 2:

Your colleague and you work very late in the evening. You are very hungry, but you cannot go out, because a project has to be finished. So, you call a restaurant and order something to eat. What would you say?

Situation 3:

One of your classmates dislikes the Math teacher, because he behaves the students very rudely. He always shouts at them although there is no reason. He never smiles. You agree with your friend. What would you say?

Situation 4:

When your parents are not at home, your brother wants to get your father's car to drive around, but he hasn't got a driving license. You know if your parents hear this, they will be very angry. Also, the police may catch him, and so he may get into trouble. You want to warn him about these subjects. What would you say?