T.C.

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PRAGMATIC AWARENESS IN UNDERSTANDING THE IMPLICATURES

Master's Thesis

Zaliha Sinem ESKİKÖY

071113204

Supervisor: Asst. Prof. Dr. Yıldıray ÇEVİK

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……

Yrd. Doç. Dr. Yıldıray ÇEVİK
(BAŞKAN)
(DANIŞMAN)

……

Yrd. Doç. Dr. Murat ÖZÜDOĞRU
(ÜYE)

……

Yrd. Doç. Dr. Hakan DİLMAN
(ÜYE)

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ÖZET

İMALARIN ANLAŞILABİLMESİNDE EDİMBİLİMSEL FARKINDALIK

Zaliha Sinem Eskiköy

Bu çalışma, ön-hazırlık aktivitelerinin uygulanmasıyla birlikte öğrencilerin konuşma dilindeki belirli özelliklere yoğunlaşmalarının, onların ders kitaplarından seçilmiş diyalog aktivitelerindeki bu özelliklere karşı farkındalıklarının artmasını sağladığı varsayımına dayanmaktadır. Bu çalışmada, öğrenmeyi arttırabilmek için diyalog aktivitelerinden önce ön-hazırlık aktiviteleriyle birlikte konuşma dilinin söylem belirteçleri, bağlayıcı kelime kullanımı gibi bazı konuşma dili özelliklerinin derslerde vurgulanması gerektiğine inanılmaktadır. Ayrıca, öğrencilerin diyaloglarda gizlenen, konuşmacı tarafından ima edilen veya örtük anlamı kavramasına yardım etmek için ön-hazırlık aktivitelerinin kullanılması öğrencinin çıkarım yapabilmesini sağlamak için teşvik edilmelidir. Farkındalık arttırma aktiviteleriyle birlikte, konuşma dilinin belirli özelliklerinin öğretilmesinin öğrencilerin kitaplarında sunulan diyalog aktivitelerinin anlaşılmasını kolaylaştırdığına inanılmaktadır. Bir kontrol ve bir deney grubuna uygulanan bu çalışma, ön-test ve son-test analizleri doğrultusunda önemli sonuçlar ortaya koymuştur.

Çalışma, Türkiye'deki bir vakıf üniversitesinin hazırlık okulunda yürütülmüştür. Katılımcılar, İngilizce yeterlilik sınavından kalan ve hazırlık okulunun yoğunlaştırılmış hazırlık kursuna yaz süresince devam eden orta seviye hazırlık öğrencileridir. Yazılı bir formatı olan ve araştırmacı (aynı zamanda dersin öğretmeni) tarafından hazırlanmış olan ön-test çalışmanın başında iki gruba da uygulanmıştır. Uygulama toplam sekiz hafta sürmüş ve dört modül veya ders bölümünden oluşmuştur. Uygulama sürecinden sonra, iki gruba da, yine yazılı formatta olan son-test uygulanmıştır. Kontrol grubuna kıyasla önemli ölçüde yüksek sonuçlar elde eden deney grubundan elde edilen bulgular, ön-hazırlık aktivitelerinin etkili oluşunu ortaya çıkaran önemli sonuçlar sunmuştur. Ayrıca, derslerdeki farkındalık arttırma süreçlerinin yorumlanması için uygulamanın ders içi konuşma süreci yazıya çevrilmiştir.

Bu çalışma, öğrencilerin, ders kitaplarında kullanılan diyalog materyallerinden önce, konuşma dilinin bazı özelliklerine karşı farkındalık arttırma aktiviteleriyle hazırlanmaları gerektiğini göstermektedir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: diyalog, edimbilim, farkındalık-arttırma aktiviteleri, konuşma dili, söylem.

ABSTRACT

PRAGMATIC AWARENESS IN UNDERSTANDING THE IMPLICATURES

Zaliha Sinem Eskiköy

The present study is based on the assumption that engaging EFL students in certain features of spoken language through the application of lead-in tasks raises students' awareness of those features in the dialogue activities selected from their coursebooks. In this study, it is believed that certain features of spoken language, such as the use of discourse markers (oh, well, I mean, you know, actually, right, and thanks) and cohesive devices (reference words; it, this and that, substitution, ellipsis, heads and tails) need to be highlighted in the lessons through lead-in tasks before the dialogue activities to enhance comprehension. Also, in order to help students to grasp the implied and/or speaker meanings hidden in the dialogues, lead-in tasks need to be promoted to help students infer the meaning.

The study was carried out at the preparatory school of a foundation university in Turkey. The participants were preparatory class intermediate-level students who failed the proficiency exam and continued their English language studies via an intensive course at the same preparatory school during the summer. The pre-test, a written test designed by the researcher (also the teacher) was conducted to a control and an experimental group at the beginning of the study in order to compare the levels of the students. The treatment process lasted eight weeks and was composed of four modules or lesson parts. After the treatment process, the post-test, which was also in written form, was applied to both groups. The findings indicated important outcomes since the students in the experimental group had significantly higher results than the control group, which revealed the effectiveness of the lead-in tasks. Moreover, the audio-recordings of the lessons were transcribed in order to interpret the awareness-raising process in the lessons.

The current study shows that students need to be prepared through awareness-raising tasks prior to the dialogue materials used in the coursebooks in terms of the certain features of spoken language.

Key Words: awareness-raising tasks, dialogue, discourse, spoken language, pragmatics.

CONTENTS

ABBREVIATIONS

App	Appendix
CA	Coursebook Activity
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ELT	English Language Teaching
FL	Foreign Language
HO	Hand-out
L1	First Language
L2	Second Language
MOD	Module
Q	Question
SD	Standard Deviation
SL	Second Language
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background of the Study

The difference between speech and writing, and the conditions under which they have been produced, have been given considerable attention (Chafe and Danielewicz, 1987). With the help of the corporas that demonstrate the most updated data about spoken language and applying this realistic spoken language to the coursebooks have brought about a need to differentiate the 'spoken language' from 'written language' (Brown and Yule, 2005).

In terms of being exposed to the realistic spoken language, second language learning in the classroom environment might have relatively more drawbacks compared to acquisition in natural surroundings. Due to this fact, exposure to realistic spoken language in language classrooms may be limited to the coursebook texts that provide "a realistic (though not authentic)" conversations (Harmer, 1998, p.98).

Nevertheless, the ultimate aim of the teachers of general English is to allow their learners to expose to the spoken language even in the classroom setting in order to help them acquire the features of spoken language. In the classroom environment, the basic tools that help teachers gradually overcome the language barrier are the coursebooks. Coursebooks are designed to let learners develop their language skills through the use of realistic language. The spoken language is presented to the learners

mainly through real-life situations illustrated as dialogues. Therefore, dialogues and dialogue activities play an essential role for the learners in grasping meaning through spoken language.

Recognizing the words in an utterance is not sufficient for grasping the meaning in conversations. There are a lot of factors to grasp the meaning in a 'discourse', which is simply defined as a text interpreted in context (Brown and Yule, 1983, p.57). According to Yule (1985), the analysis of discourse is "typically concerned with the study of language in text and conversation" (p.142). The key elements in the study of discourse analysis may be classified under the terms 'coherence', which is regarded generally as the reason why a text makes sense and **'**cohesion', which is the connectedness of a text; either spoken or written (Thornbury, 2006, p.32). It may be concluded that the ability of the learners to look 'beyond the sentence' in order to grasp a text's logical connections, and to understand the underlying meanings of certain features of the spoken language might support their awareness-raising process.

1.2. Purpose of the Study

The present study attempts to investigate the effectiveness of the lead-in tasks to raise students' awareness in grasping meaning through the analysis of certain features of spoken language: cohesive devices and discourse markers used in the dialogues of the coursebooks selected. The dialogues which include certain features of spoken language may be challenging for the learners. In order to minimize this challenge and let learners understand the discourse, lead-in tasks were presented to the experimental group to analyze the effectiveness of them.

The dialogue sections in the coursebooks selected include cohesive and coherent features, the use of cohesive devices, such as references, substitution, ellipsis, heads and tails and the use of discourse markers. In order to analyze the comprehensibility of the spoken language (spoken grammar), a pre-test and a post-test were conducted to a control and an experimental group which will be mentioned in detail in the following chapters.

As it was mentioned earlier, this current study aims to explain the necessity to raise learners' level of understanding of certain features of spoken language presented in the dialogues of the coursebooks selected. It also aims to draw some conclusions that before starting the dialogue activities, providing a basis for pragmatic awareness through lead-in tasks, discussions and model texts might create positive effects on helping learners grasp the implied or hidden meanings in contexts.

The coursebooks which adopt communicative approach, such as *Just Right* (Harmer, 2004), *NEF* (Oxenden and Latham-Koenig, 2006) and *Inside Out* (Kay, S. Jonas, V., Hird, J., Kerr, P., 2001) include dialogue activities to expose learners to a realistic spoken interaction. These dialogues include certain features of spoken language, such as discourse markers and cohesive devices. However, in their teachers' books there are not any guidelines to elaborate these features in the lessons or any lead-in tasks that evaluate them. Moreover, *Just Right Intermediate Student's Book* (Harmer, 2004) presents students dialogue activities to be fulfilled without listening. It is believed in this study that without being exposed to the listening of the dialogues, learners might find the tasks quite challenging since learners need to be cognitively aware of these features to fulfill the tasks. The question whether failure to understand the meanings and/or functions of certain features of spoken language might decrease learners' level of comprehensibility is investigated in this current study. Thus, the

study originates from the assumption that there could be observed deficiencies of understanding the dialogues without lead-in support in the pre-reading phase. It is, thus, believed that being unable to grasp the meanings and/or functions of these features may result in a lack of comprehension of the spoken discourse.

The different features of spoken discourse and written discourse lead to the perception that there is no absolute truth in terms of grammar. Moving away from sentence-based to discourse-based approaches helps learners to find meanings in realistic or authentic texts. Thus, the goal of instruction in pragmatics is not to insist on conformity to a particular target-language norm, but rather to help learners become familiar with the range of devices and practices in the target language. With discourse-based instruction, learners might be able to maintain autonomy, participate more fully in target language communication, and gain control of the force and outcome of their contributions. Training learners to look beyond the sentence and giving them a chance to infer meaning from the context develop them gradually to presuppose the underlying assumptions that can be driven from the spoken discourse.

From these standpoints, this study aimed to answer the following research questions:

1. Can learners identify the differences between certain features of spoken language and written language in the dialogue activities of the selected coursebooks after they are presented the lead-in tasks?

2. Can learners comprehend the meanings and/or functions of certain discourse markers in the dialogue activities after they are presented the lead-in tasks?

3. Can learners comprehend the meanings and/or functions of certain cohesive devices in the dialogue activities after they are presented the lead-in tasks?

4. Can learners infer the speaker meaning in the dialogue activities after they are presented the lead in tasks?

1.3. Significance of the Study

This study is believed to have been a significant endeavor in understanding the learners' level of 'discourse knowledge' and 'pragmatic knowledge' (Thornbury, 2005a) of different contexts and conversations. It is believed to have been beneficial to the students and instructors in creating realistic situations for effective learning in classroom settings. Raising awareness of the learners through exposing them to the spoken language in the dialogues of the coursebooks, getting them cognitively ready to the features of the spoken language, and helping them to grasp their meanings and/or functions may be efficient to facilitate the language learning process, design lesson plans and develop materials accordingly.

1.4. Definition of Terms

The major terms that are used in the present study are defined as follows:

awareness-raising: the process in which conscious attention needs to be applied to the learning of the individual stages by the students. It implies an explicit focus on the rules of the system. Awareness involves at least three processes; attention, noticing and understanding (Thornbury, 2005a).

awareness-raising tasks: tasks that allow the possibility of learners discovering or uncovering the gaps in their knowledge (Thornbury, 2005a).

cohesive devices: single words or phrases that basically make the text hang together such as referencing, ellipsis, substitution, lexical cohesion, conjunction, grammatical cohesion (Halliday and Hasan, 1976).

descriptive grammar: a grammar that tells you what people say (Thornbury, 1997a).

discourse analysis: the study of how stretches of language achieves both cohesion and coherence. It tries "to identify patterns and regularities of language 'beyond the sentence'" (Thornbury, 2006). It is the study of language viewed communicatively and/or of communication viewed linguistically. It is related to the concepts of language *in use*, language *above* or *beyond* the sentence, language as meaning *in interaction*, and language *in situational* and *cultural* context. (Trappes-Lomax, 2004)

discourse competence: knowledge of rules governing 'the combination of utterances and communicative functions' in discourse (Canale and Swain, 1980).

discourse markers: expressions like *well*, *but*, *oh* and *y'know* – are one set of linguistic items that function in cognitive, expressive, social, and textual domains (Schiffrin and Hamilton, 2001).

eliciting: a much-used technique for involving students more in lessons. Eliciting involves drawing language from the students (rather than giving it to them) (Scrivener, 2009).

guided-discovery: a teaching process that encourages learners to work out rules for themselves, with some teacher guidance (Thornbury and Watkins, 2007).

implicature: the extra meaning which goes beyond what the words literally say, the speaker meaning (Portner, 2006).

lead-in tasks: tasks that are used to get students' attention about the language focus and get them ready for the main activity.

pedagogical grammar: students' grammar (Thornbury, 1997a).

pragmatics: the study of the relationships among semantic meaning, context of use and speaker meaning (Portner, 2006).

pragmatic competence: the ability to identify that the same phrase may have different meanings on different occasions and the same intention may be expressed by different means, speaker meaning (Blum-Kulka, 1997).

prescriptive grammar: a grammar that tells you what you should say (Thornbury, 1997a).

spoken language: spoken grammar with less rules, informal language.

written language: written grammar based on rules, formal language.

1.5. Review of Literature

1.5.1. The Use of Spoken Language in the Coursebooks

Harmer (1998) states that one of the main reasons of listening texts in the coursebooks is to expose students to many varieties of spoken English. He claims that the listening extracts in the coursebooks present students a realistic discourse of spoken language which has a number of unique features especially when it is informal including the use of incomplete utterances, repetitions and hesitations. He emphasizes the importance of combining students' experience of informal spoken English and other spoken factors, such as "the tone of the voice, the intonation the speakers use, rhythm and background noise", which overall help learners to understand the meaning of such phenomena (p.99).

In *Just Right Intermediate Teacher's Book* Harmer states the listening principles of the coursebook as follows;

> Even though students find listening difficult, they need to be exposed to a wide range of speaking styles. These will help them to acquire not

> only language but also the skills necessary to understand what they hear in a variety of situations. At all times, the listening extracts should be comprehensible (even if challenging) to students at this level (2004, p.5).

However, not all listening tasks presented in the coursebooks ask learners to listen to the text firstly. The tasks used in this study ask them to complete the activity without listening and check their answers while listening. These tasks require certain skills since learners need to understand the discourse without being exposed to the tone of the voice of speakers, the intonation the speakers use, rhythm, background noise, etc. Therefore, it becomes mandatory for the learners to get support from the cohesive devices and discourse markers in order to complete the tasks and grasp the hidden meanings.

As Mishan puts forth (2005) "a core principle in 'grading' tasks is to make the task appropriate to the text", which is the basis of task appropriateness. It is suggested that if the task is appropriate, teachers may use any authentic text. There is also the necessity to train the learner, according to Mishan, in order to help learners develop useful learning strategies (p.62).

Certain strategies or awareness-raising activities, hence, need to be promoted to enhance comprehensibility of the texts. If not, experiencing the feeling of 'panic' during listening activities becomes a common attitude, which hinders the full comprehension, according to Harmer (1998, p.99). One of the reasons of this issue is due to the failure of students in recognizing a word, phrase or usage in the text. In order to get the students ready for these activities, awareness raising process needs to be prioritized, which will be discussed in detail in this study.

1.5.2. Spoken Language vs. Written Language

Mishan (2005) suggests that, in the recent past, coursebooks "relied on a long-standing tradition in language teaching to draw on written rather than spoken paradigms" adding that the absence of such language from pedagogical works can be "a source of frustration and puzzlement as learners struggle with the subtleties of appropriacy of language registers" (p.57). Nevertheless, she admits proudly that "this effective gap is gradually being narrowed" with the help of the corpus linguistics which informs pedagogical works, and claims that "even rules are being codified from the spoken rather than the written language, redressing the written-spoken balance". She emphasizes the trend that with the help of the cooperation of corporas and coursebook designers, "coursebooks, grammars and dictionaries which draw on authentic spoken samples are on the market" (p.58).

Even though listening texts in the coursebooks generally present a realistic picture of spoken language, it is a matter of debate whether the learners are able to distinguish the written from spoken grammar. This issue needs to be carefully analyzed in order to empathize with the learning process of the students. Thornbury (2005a) deals with this question and separates the features of both sides in the table below (p.21).

Written Grammar	Spoken Grammar
• Sentence is the basic unit of construction	• Clause is the basic unit of construction
• Clauses are often embedded (subordination)	• Clauses are usually added (co-ordination)
• Subject + Verb + Object construction	• Head + Body + Tail construction
• Reported speech favored	• Direct speech favored
• Precision favored	• Vagueness tolerated
• Little ellipsis	• A lot of ellipsis

• No question tags	• Many question tags
• No performance effects	• Performance effects including: - hesitations - repeats - false starts - incompletion - syntactic blends

Figure 1.1. Spoken grammar vs. Written grammar (Thornbury, 2005a, p.21)

Thornbury (2005a) adds another aspect between spoken and written grammar which is the use of personal pronouns and determiners that are more frequent in spoken language than written language (p.21). In this study, the reference words *it, this* and *that* have been analyzed to relate to this topic.

Researching the samples of language through spoken data, corpora, has led to the analyses of texts. According to Fox (1998), during the past thirty years, there has been a revolution in the way in which language can be studied. She clearly argues that "with the advent of corpora researchers can - indeed should - start afresh, where possible laying aside their intuitions and looking at what the data tells them" (p.25). Analyzing the accumulated data necessitates identifying "the relevant grammar patterns and vocabulary items that students would come across and would provide teachers materials that need to be taught" (p.26). Taking these ideas one step further, Fox (1998), in this whole teaching-learning process, states that identifying how these items should be built into a syllabus is another step to be taken into consideration (p.26).

Despite the research, it may still be argued that "common words are actually the ones which need less teaching as frequency of exposure will do the job" (Fox, 1998). However, after analyzing the work of quite advanced students or listening to

them speak, Fox (1998) puts forward that “their language is often stilted, too formal and too high level; when it is analyzed it is seen that the most common words are used less frequently, and in fewer contexts”(p.27). She argues that one of the reasons of this is due to “the lack of attention that has been drawn to them in the classroom” (p.27).

This point is also made by Thornbury (1997) who distinguishes grammar into three categories in terms of language standard and rules; prescriptive, descriptive and pedagogical grammar (p.144).

1.5.2.1. Prescriptive Grammar

Thornbury (1997) explains prescriptive grammar as “grammar that tells you what you should say” (p.144). However, the validity of “what you should say” might become invalid in time with the help of corpus linguistics, therefore exposure of students to the real spoken data gains importance as Liddicoat and Jurnow (2004) suggest “the theoretical insights of descriptive linguistics are different from the practical needs of language pedagogy” (p.25). Thus, the necessity to grasp a language which people actually use evoked a descriptive view of language. They explain why people have moved away from prescriptive view in these words;

Linguistics has increasingly separated itself from a prescriptive view of language, which formulates rules for what should be said or written, in favor of a descriptive view, which seeks to record the language which people actually use. Contemporary language description, therefore, takes a synchronic approach, that is, language is described as it is at a particular moment in time and does not incorporate the history of the language (diachrony), although languages do of course change over time (Liddicoat and Jurnow, 2004, p.25). Corpora researchers and linguists have been

in close contact in order to update the grammar that is in real use which gave rise to the descriptive grammar.

1.5.2.2. Descriptive Grammar

Thornbury (1997) defines descriptive grammar simply as "a grammar that tells you what people say" (p.144). He suggests that descriptive grammar may be based on some kind of corpus data, such as a data-base of actual utterances, which can be used to find out what is the most frequently occurring response. The descriptive view has led linguists to new insights about language and new ways of talking about and defining units of language.

In this respect, Liddicoat and Curnow (2004) mention the avoidance of applied linguistics linguists that has required a prescriptive grammar in most cases recognizing that language teaching is frequently a case of teaching what should be done (Odlin, 1994). In this respect, descriptivists have been attacked by prescriptivists in terms of deciding on what to teach, such as "the ain't vs. isn't problem" (Bloomfield, 1933 cited in MacKay, 1980, p.349). Therefore, the question of what to teach has been answered within the field of pedagogical grammar.

1.5.2.3. Pedagogical Grammar

According to Thornbury (1997), pedagogical grammar is simply "students' grammar" (p.144). However, Liddicoat and Curnow (2004) suggest that in the past "pedagogical grammar has been equated with prescriptive grammar" (p.25). They add that it has tended to adhere to the concepts and terminology of traditional grammar, nevertheless, with the introduction of corpus-based materials into language

classrooms, he claims that the route has been shifted to a more descriptive focus, with learners being required to deduce rules from linguistic data (p.25).

From this viewpoint, Liddicoat and Curnow (2004) do not hesitate to mention that "language standardization and vernacular language literacy have both faced the challenges involved in bridging the divide between description and prescription and the development of pedagogical grammars from language descriptions" (p.26). However, we need to ask ourselves what standard language is, or 'correct grammar' is. Carter, Hughes, and McCarthy (1998) equate correct grammar with the representation of written language (p.67). They criticize the theory that "many perfectly normal and regularly occurring utterances made by standard English speakers, including teachers of English, and therefore heard by learners of English have by omission come to be classified as 'ungrammatical'" (p.67). The situation of which is grammatical and which is not is changing with the help of corpora of spoken English "which will allow more precise description of the properties of spoken English and thus enable learners of English to become more aware of a wider range of forms and structures than hitherto" (p.67).

Differences between authentic and scripted dialogues play a crucial role in showing omission of certain features of textbook discourse according to Carter et al. (1998). They state that "the language of the coursebook represents a 'can-do' society in which interaction is generally smooth and trouble-free", everything is neat, tidy and predictable, utterances are almost as complete as sentences without any interruption, simultaneous speaking, or words like "oh I see, I see what you mean" (p.69). The omission of certain features of spoken English is represented by the use of "tails" in Carter et al. (1998) because "they are a prominent feature of the Nottingham spoken corpus and because they are not adequately treated in conventional descriptive

grammars of English" (p.70). Even though they are almost exclusive to the spoken language, such forms present a challenge to the material designers because they occur frequently in informal contexts of language use. They allow speakers "to express attitudes, add emphasis, evaluate and provide repetition for listeners" (p.70). Carter et al. (1998) suggest that if we are to allow language learners greater choice in the expression of feelings and attitudes, then tails will need to be appropriately embedded within language coursebook dialogues, and ideally, dealt within broader pedagogical framework (p.71).

Carter et al. (1998) draw conclusions about spoken grammar teaching and evaluating materials. They imply the necessity to abolish the expectations of students and teachers that grammar is a sentence-based phenomenon and states that "if a genuinely discourse grammar is to be taught then texts should displace sentences; for it is only in extended stretches of language, especially stretches of spoken language as in the case of tails" (p.78). They question the limit of tolerance both on teacher and learner expectations. What is an appropriate pedagogy for spoken grammar, how can emphasis be placed on student awareness and to what extent do material writers remain faithful to their corpus are questions that push the boundaries of pedagogical grammar recently.

One of the ultimate aims of this study is to raise students' awareness in terms of certain features of spoken language. Carter et al. (1998) point out content-based tasks to raise consciousness of the learners to notice the form and function of the target structure (p.79). These tasks are named as lead-in tasks in this study which attempt to fulfill a similar perspective to foster language awareness. Awareness-raising needs to be on the same agenda with a discourse-based view of grammar which "underlines the importance of grammatical choices, particularly in the domain

of spoken grammar, it is better therefore to work with the notion of regularities and patterns rather than with absolute and invariable rules", according to them (p.86). It is argued that stimulating an investigative approach to help learners to observe tendencies and probabilities within the language rather than teaching absolute truths.

1.5.3. The Act of Speaking

Speaking is a complex skill that firstly necessitates understanding spoken language. According to Thornbury (2005a), the act of speaking depends on two main knowledge types; extralinguistic knowledge which includes sociocultural knowledge, and linguistic knowledge. He categorizes linguistic knowledge into six subfields; genre knowledge, discourse knowledge, pragmatic knowledge, grammar, vocabulary and phonology. In this study, the significance of promoting discourse and pragmatic knowledge is emphasized.

Thornbury (2005a) explains discourse competence as "knowing how to organize and connect individual utterances, as well as how to map this knowledge on to the turn-taking structures of interactive talk". In this respect, he underlines "the importance of discourse markers in terms of fluid management of interactive talk". He suggests that discourse markers are necessary "to signal one's intentions, to hold the conversational turn, and to mark the boundaries in the talk" (p.15). In connection with this knowledge and as part of research questions, the meanings and functions of the discourse markers used in this study will be highlighted in the following part.

Another knowledge which is necessary for the speaker is the pragmatic knowledge, according to Thornbury. He explains it as "knowing how to do things with language, taking into account its contents of use" (2005a, p.16). That is, "knowing how to perform and interpret speech acts". Thornbury (2005a) explains 'speech acts'

(also called functions) are the basis for pragmatic competence since the same statement may be interpreted differently in certain contexts and may imply different functions, such as a compliment, a suggestion and a request. In this study, the functions that have been used in the dialogues are 'using gesture to express meaning', 'reacting to things you are told', 'paying compliments', 'going shopping', 'recommendations', and 'inviting someone' (Harmer, 2004). Within the light of these functions, 'the speaker meaning' gains importance in order to achieve pragmatic competence (Yule, 1985, p.127). Thus, the necessity of training learners for pragmatic competence will be highlighted in the following sections.

1.5.4. The Study of Discourse

The choices speakers make may not be reflected clearly according to McCarthy (2001) who states that "discourse analysis emerged in the climate of growing interest in the process of meaning creation in real situations, where texts were alone insufficient evidence for the linguist, and settings, participants and goals of interaction came to the fore" (p.99). It is stated that text linguists and discourse analysts distinguish from each other in terms of perspective on this matter. Discourse analysis is principally the study of how stretches of language achieves both cohesion and coherence (Thornbury, 2006). Thornbury distinguishes the perspective of discourse analysis from traditional grammar which is "only concerned with sentences and their components", whereas discourse analysis tries "to identify patterns and regularities of language 'beyond the sentence'" (p.67). In this respect, what discourse analysts do is that they "notice patternings of language in use and circumstances (participants, situations, purposes, outcomes) with which these are typically associated" (Trappes-Lomax, 2004, p.133). It involves reference to concepts of

"language *in use*, language *above or beyond the sentence*, language as meaning *in interaction*, and language in *situational and cultural context"* (p.134).

Discourse and pragmatic competence have sometimes overlapped in terms of meaning according to some linguists. Bachman (1990) defines pragmatic competence as dealing with the relationships between utterances and the acts performed through these utterances on the one hand, and as the features of the context that promote appropriate language use on the other (p.89). Relating discourse competence to pragmatic competence, Cameron (2001), who attempts to approach the field from various ways, mentions discourse analysis from the viewpoint of the linguist and says that discourse analysis dealing with language above the sentence means looking for patterns (structure, organization) in units which are larger, more extended, than one sentence" (p.11). It is stated that "discourse analysis takes a concern with the structure of language and the distribution of linguistic forms", highlighting the importance of the choices speakers make between "different ways of doing an interactional job, such as addressing someone respectfully, or marking something as a question rather than a statement" (p.49). Exposure to various choices speakers make in an interaction prepares learners gradually for different realistic language patterns and they probably get them closer to the target language since these choices destroy the boundaries between the first and second language.

In order to prepare learners for certain features of spoken discourse, teachers need to guide learners to make them notice certain discourse markers and cohesive devices so that learners can be more aware of them.

1.5.4.1. The Necessity of Noticing Discourse Markers

Shiffren (2006) distinguishes features of spoken discourse and written discourse by comparing two transcripts. It is claimed that spoken discourse consists of a variety of different units, such as clauses, sentences, turns and speech acts that tie together different strands of talk (p.185). In order to achieve their goals, speakers try some of the ways while speaking. They are listed as follows;

- introducing new information in relation to the anticipated needs of their hearers
- linking information through cohesive ties
- repairing errors
- initiating adjacency pairs with actions that have sequential consequences for listeners' next actions (2006, p.185).

It is highlighted that, not all of these processes appear in written discourse and the ones that appear work "somewhat differently because of complex differences between spoken and written discourse" (p.185).

In *The International Encyclopedia of Linguistics* discourse markers are defined as a set of linguistic items in the cognitive, social, expressive, and textual domains (Bright, 1992). Also, according to Bussman (1984), discourse markers aid communicators in linguistic or conversational consistency and coherence. He believes that the use of discourse markers is necessary for the speakers to develop language skills, feel more comfortable about their conversational skills, and allows speakers to collect their thoughts before officially speaking. In another definition (Schiffren, 2001), discourse markers are "expressions like *well*, *but*, *oh* and *y'know* – are one set of linguistic items that function in cognitive, expressive, social, and textual domains"

(p.54). Schiffrin (1987) promotes the study of discourse markers. By observing various types of conversation, or discourse, Schiffrin (1987) identifies how certain terms and/or phrases indicate understanding or coherence in conversation and adds that each single marker in the communal lexicon has various functions, depending upon the situation of the speaker.

The discourse markers selected to be used in this study have been gathered from high frequency words in corporas and mainstream books about discourse by Schiffrin (1987), Thornbury (2005a), Carter, Hughes and McCarthy (2000) and Bondi (2004). The markers are also used frequently in the dialogue sections of the coursebooks selected. The meanings and/or functions of the discourse markers in the study conducted are as follows;

- well: a very common way of initiating a turn and linking it to the preceding turn, often to mark the onset of a contrast, used as filler.

- oh: this is typically used either to launch an utterance or to respond to the previous speaker's utterance, often with implications of surprise or unexpectedness.

- right: marks the beginning or closing of a segment of talk.

- you know, I mean: serve to gain and maintain attention on the speaker; the first by appealing to the hearer's shared knowledge, the second by signaling that some kind of clarification (repair) is going to follow. (Thornbury, 2005a, p.15)

- actually: potential contrastive connector (marks a contrast or suggests a different opinion, or indicates a topic change). (Bondi, 2004., p.146)

- thanks (thank you): six functions: "(1) as gratitude for a major or minor favour, (2) for phatic function between two speakers, (3) for irony, sarcasm

and brusqueness in conversations, (4) for acceptance of service, (5) for dismissal of a person or service and (6) for rejection of service or offer" (Moji and Taofik, 2006)

In addition to these high frequency discourse markers, Moji and Taofik (2006, p.265) add *thanks* or *thank you* classifying it related to the discourse markers since meanings and/or functions of *thanks* have gradually become various. They examined in their study "various roles attributed to *thanks* (*thank you*) as a discourse marker in conversations" (p.265). In this study, also, *thanks* has been regarded as a discourse marker and used in the lessons to examine its various meanings and/or functions, especially with its function of "irony, sarcasm and brusqueness in conversations" (p.265).

Carter et al. suggest that teaching discourse markers are important to help learners "structure and monitor a stretch of spoken language" (2000, p.175). Discourse markers are one of the prominent features of spoken language, and thus, their significance is highlighted with this study.

1.5.4.2. The Necessity of Noticing Cohesive Devices

Thornbury (2006) puts forward that in the communication system process, texts that "stick together" are coherent ones that make the connections apparent (p.32). Coherent texts need cohesive devices to make the necessary connections. As it was mentioned earlier, cohesion is related to the connectedness of a text. There are two aspects of cohesion; grammatical and lexical cohesion. Grammatical cohesion is mainly composed of referencing, ellipsis, heads and tails, substitution, linkers etc. Lexical cohesion refers to the repetition of words, words from the same word family, synonyms etc.

Hatch (1992) underlines the importance of the use of references and deixis (p.209). It is stated that "deictic expressions are typically pronouns, demonstratives "this/that", "these/those", certain time and place adverbs (e.g. here and now), some verbs of motion and even tenses" (p.210), adding that "all languages have expressions that link an utterance to a time and space context and that help to determine reference". Listing cohesive devices according to Halliday and Hasan's (1976) system, Hatch (Halliday and Hasan, 1976, cited in Hatch 1992) distinguishes five major types of grammatical cohesive ties; reference, substitution, ellipsis, conjunction and lexical ties. In this study, in terms of reference, anaphoric reference and demonstratives have been analyzed in the empirical part of the study.

Substitution is another major form of cohesive tie that needs to be taken into consideration. Hatch (1992) states that "substitution refers not to a specific entity but to a class of items" (p.224). These items can also be made for nominals, verb groups and clauses. Substitution with the use of 'one/ones' have been used in the lesson part of this study.

Another feature students tend to ignore being aware of it is *ellipsis*. According to Hatch (1992), "ellipsis can be thought of a 'zero' tie because the tie is not actually said" (p.225). Comparing substitution and ellipsis, Hatch adds that just like substitution, ellipsis can be used to create ties to nominals, verbals and clauses. It is reminded that elliptical expressions are generally challenging for the students because almost all of them are cognitively unaware of their existence.

This study suggests the importance of raising learners' awareness in terms of cohesive devices so that learners can notice the linking devices and the gaps related to the linking devices in the dialogues. The cohesive devices used to be analyzed in this

study are; referencing through *it, this* and *that*, the use of ellipsis, substitution, heads and tails. Awareness-raising tasks will be applied to the learners in order to let them notice and understand their meaning and/or functions of these devices.

1.5.5. The concept of Pragmatics as an aspect of Discourse Analysis

The concept of pragmatics has been dealt with in different ways in history. One of the forerunners of the field, Grice (1975) focuses on meaning in context, and thus analyzes extensively "general features of discourse" (p.45). The core of pragmatics is defined by Grice under the term *co-operative principle* as the "sign-user relationship", which is elaborated in context. He explains the principle as to "make your conversational contribution such as is required, at the stage at which it occurs, by the accepted purpose or direction of the talk exchange in which you are engaged" (p.45). Portner (2006) defines that "pragmatics concerns both the relationship between context of use and sentence meaning, and the relationship among sentence meaning, context of use and speaker's meaning" (p.157). In order to help learners to grasp the meaning in the discourse, there are some relationships on which they need to be trained. First of all, they need to be educated for references so that they can grasp the relations between cohesive ties. Moreover, they need to presuppose in order to get the underlying assumptions. According to Portner (2006), presuppositions are often understood in terms of the notion of common ground, which is the set of propositions that the participants in a conversation mutually assume (p.159). However, the learners need to understand the presuppositions in a conversation; thus, they need to be trained about them.

Whether or not learners may be trained in accordance with Gricean maxims is a question that needs to be thought from various angles. Gricean maxims which were

once believed to function as the core of conversation analysis are now regarded as models that may be violated in any minute during conversation. The four maxims according to Grice are; quality, quantity, relevance and manner (1975, p.45).

Grice relates the maxim of quantity to "the quantity of information to be provided" (p.45). The second maxim, the maxim of quality is to "try to make your contribution one that is true" (p.46). The third maxim, the maxim of relation, is to "be relevant" during the conversation exchange and not to cause miscommunication. And, the last maxim is the maxim of manner which is explained as being perspicuous.

Grice (1975) adds that the conversational maxims, and the conversational implicatures need to be viewed with the purpose of 'a maximally effective exchange of information' so that the participants of the conversation can provide effective talk exchanges and avoid misunderstandings or communication failures (p.47). Gricean maxims may be regarded as the concrete analyses of typical conversations that have helped the linguists to outline some formulae for the exchange in dialogues. However, they do not necessarily mean that they can not be violated purposefully or accidentally. Thornbury (2005a) exemplifies from speakers that the use of hedges, which is a mitigating device used to lessen the impact of an utterance, in spoken interaction indicates a potential violation of the maxim of quality since the speakers are aware that their answers in a meaningful talk may not be accurate (p.18).

Another argument emphasizing the intentions of the speakers comes from Yule (1996) who provides different definitions of pragmatics that reflect the viewpoints of the contemporary scholars. Firstly, he defines pragmatics as 'the study of speaker meaning', in which conversation analysis needs to be done through the utterances of the participants (p.3).

Secondly, he views the field of study through "the interpretation of what people mean in a particular context and how the context influences what is said" (p.3). In this explanation, the perspective is wider and includes the participants, the setting, the time and generally the context. Yule (1996) defines this as "the study of contextual meaning" (p.3), 'speaker meaning', as he calls.

The last approach includes the social bonds and 'the notion of distance', as is indicated by Yule (1996). In conversation analysis, how close or distant the listeners are and how much needs to be said during the conversation should all be considered carefully. It is defined as 'the study of the expression of relative distance' (p.3).

Yule (1996) states that the advantage of studying language via pragmatics is to identify people's intended meanings, their assumptions, their purposes or goals, and the kinds of actions (for example, requests) that they are performing when they speak. However, he also mentions a big disadvantage. That is, "all these very human concepts are extremely difficult to analyze in a consistent objective way" (p.4). The occasions when someone says something but does not literally mean it leads language viewers to speaker meaning; as Portner calls (p.160). The speaker meaning which is also called 'implicature' is the extra meaning which goes beyond what the words literally say. Being aware of the significance of Gricean Maxims, Portner (2006) states that they are "not rules to be followed in the sense that traffic rules are" (p.160). They are simply assumptions which we use to try to make sense of what people say to figure out what they mean. Portner adds that "Gricean maxims are not rigid rules, like rules of law, but are rather flexible assumptions about how speakers behave…" to implicate further meaning (p.161). Therefore, it might be concluded that language teachers need to decide on how to prepare the learners for this type of skill because

helping learners to infer the most likely assumption from the discourse is a skill that language teachers need to train their students for.

In this respect, relevance theory proposed by Sperber and Wilson (2004) argues that the hearer, reader or audience will search for meaning in any given communication situation and having found meaning that fits their expectation of relevance, it stops processing. Sperber and Wilson (2004) state that "the hearer infers the speaker meaning on the basis of the evidence provided" (p.250). It is proposed that the relevance theory is "based on another of Grice's central claims that utterances automatically create expectations which guide the hearer towards the speaker meaning" (p.250). The expectations have been described by Grice in the maxims as mentioned before.

According to Hatch (1992) Gricean maxims may be violated but they are important for effective communication (p.35). To fully understand implicatures from the viewpoint of Grice, Hatch (1992) refers to the two types of implicatures; *conventional* and *conversational* (1975, cited in Hatch, 1992, p.261). Conventional implicatures generally occur in the utterances that speakers use paraphrasing words such as "what I mean is, to paraphrase, in other words", according to Hatch (1992). Conversational implicatures contrasts with the former one as it violates cooperative principle (p.262). Irony is a way of performing conversational implicature because it presupposes something beyond literal meaning. In this study, training the students to grasp the message beyond the literal meaning was a part of the process.

It may be concluded that Gricean maxims are very helpful to some extent, but one should also consider the exceptions and the individual differences while making

generalizations in conversation analysis. It is also difficult for the researcher to make correct inferences about the speakers' inferences that they make in their speech.

1.5.6. Pragmatics as part of Language Teaching Process

As one links pragmatics to language teaching, it is important to keep in mind that "speakers must have a lot of assumptions and expectations when they try to communicate", and "the investigation of those assumptions and expectations provides us with some insights into how more is always being communicated than is said" (Yule, 1985, p.128). Therefore, it might be concluded that providing students insights about speaker meaning and raising their awareness through detailed tasks might prepare learners for the real nature of spoken interaction.

Training the learners with the pragmatic theory Blum-Kulka (1997) provides that "simply knowing the words and grammar of a language does not ensure successful communication" which might be a very effective technique to enlarge learner perspective about the nature of the dialogues (p.38). This theory highlights the fact that the speaker meaning depending on the context defines the true nature and the underlying meaning of the discourse. It emphasizes one of the most important principles of pragmatics that "the same phrase may have different meanings on different occasions and the same intention may be expressed by different means" (p.38).

Within this perspective, Blum-Kulka (1997) states the differences between sentence meaning (processing the words on the basis of linguistic meaning alone) and speaker meaning (deciding whether the utterance was meant as an invitation, a request or something else), and explains that

> the pragmatic theory is concerned with explaining how interlocutors bridge the gap between sentence meanings and speaker meanings; hence its units of analysis are not sentences, which are verbal entities definable through linguistic theory, but rather utterances, which are verbal units of communication in specific contexts (p.39).

In accordance with this idea inferencing is another skill that helps learners to gain insights about the speaker meaning and training the learners accordingly is highly significant due to the reasons stated earlier.

Pragmatics has been viewed by various theoreticians in different ways. Even though there are some different perspectives about its content, it may be said that in order for the learners to convey speaker meaning and intention, it is vital to help them expand their pragmatic competence. In this respect, how researchers conducted studies to raise pragmatic awareness is discussed in the next section.

1.5.6.1. Studies conducted to raise Pragmatic Awareness

Classroom-based teaching of pragmatics has been applied in many second language and foreign language teaching contexts. Various forms of awareness-raising tasks have been implemented in classrooms to improve learners' comprehension of the targeted pragmatic features (Rose and Kasper, 2001, p.3). The effects of teaching pragmatics in a variety of pragmatic features and skills aim at different target languages, student populations and instructional approaches. Some of the notable classroom implementations will be discussed as follows.

In the study of House and Kasper (1981), the goal of the instruction was the discourse markers and strategies. Advanced level of German EFL students were exposed to explicit and implicit instruction types. After a pre-test and a post-test method of application through a role-play assessment, the study revealed that members of the explicit group had additional opportunities to raise their awareness of

preferred L2 pragmatic practices (p.42). In another study, which focused on beginner level students to raise awareness of pragmatic routines and strategies, questionnaires and role-play activities were used to reveal the teachability of the targeted features to elementary level students (Wildner-Bassett, 1994). The results of the empirical study in the German-English interlanguage pragmatics showed "a typology of deficits and characteristic pragmatic aspects of American learners' German interlanguage" (p.3). Another study in the field investigated the benefits of input enhancement and explicit instruction technique to teach mitigators (requests) (Fukuya and Clark, 2001). The tests presented in the study of Fukuya and Clark's were similar to the present study in terms of testing techniques as they were composed of listening comprehension tests with multiple choice questions. The study revealed that the classroom activities are more important than the teaching techniques in order to teach the targeted pragmatic features. Another study aimed at learners' comprehension of pragmatic features was based on implicatures (Kubota, 1995). The study was applied to intermediate level Japanese students in order to compare the effectiveness of consciousness-raising type of instruction and rule explanations (p.35). After students in both groups received a 20-minute treatment in implicatures, neither of the groups was able to understand the Gricean maxims and the systematic violations in the multiple choice and sentence composing tests. They could not apply the acquired knowledge to different contexts (p.35). Another researcher in the field, Blight (2002) presented a paper at an international conference about his study which was based on a classroom procedure for providing explicit instruction in native speaker use of conversational implicature. The objective of the study was "to raise learners' pragmatic awareness by studying the reasoning process through which implicatures are interpreted" (p.143). Similarly,

Takahashi (2001) supported the explicit instruction technique as a means of raising pragmatic awareness. In this respect, he stated that

> Target pragmatic features are most effectively learned when they are taught explicitly with some forms of consciousness-raising techniques. Explicit pedagogical intervention is thus considered one of the ways in which the learners can most efficiently develop their pragmatic competence. (p. 75)

Research and pragmatic studies have shown that teaching pragmatic competence in classroom can be a means of providing opportunities for learners to raise their awareness of pragmatic areas (Kasper, 1997)**,** but the testing techniques used by the researchers has shown a variety.

1.5.6.2. Testing Pragmatics

The question of how to assess pragmatic knowledge has been discussed by numerous theoreticians and linguists. According to Brown (2001), in practice, "researchers have tested pragmatics using at least six types of instruments: the written discourse completion tasks (WDCT), multiple-choice discourse completion tasks (MDCT), oral discourse completion tasks, discourse role-play tasks, discourse self-assessment tasks, role-play self-assessments" (p.301). The first two of the test types listed above (WDCT and MDCT) have been the tools used in the pre-test and post-test of the current study. They are based on the written descriptions of a dialogue asking learners to rewrite the situation or choose the best option for that context to complete the task. The other assessment types listed above are based on oral tests or performance activities for the targeted pragmatic feature.

Not only the assessment procedures, but also the instruction techniques, the activities and materials are important parts of the awareness-raising process, which will be discussed in the following parts.

1.5.7. Awareness-Raising Process

One of the ultimate reasons for this study conducted is to put forward the significance of awareness raising process which plays an important role to get students ready for the focus of the lessons and help them become more autonomous learners in terms of dealing with spoken language.

In the history of second language teaching, the concept of awareness-raising has been interpreted by many theoreticians and linguists. Different perspectives of cognitivist and behaviorist theories are reflected in this concept as well. Since behaviorist theory sees learners as empty vessels waiting to be filled, Thornbury (2005a) expresses the cognitivist viewpoint about this concept for classroom practice in which the learning of a complex skill, like speaking, is seen as a movement from controlled to automatic processing. He suggests that conscious attention which he identifies as awareness-raising needs to be applied to the learning of the individual stages. He, also, argues that "awareness-raising implies an explicit focus on the rules of the system" (p.38). Explicit focus has also been given in the implementation of the lessons of the current study in order to raise learners' awareness of the targeted pragmatic features. The activities that can be used to raise awareness are presented in the next section.

1.5.7.1. Awareness-Raising Activities in Language Classrooms

Thornbury (2005a) clarifies the distinction between awareness activities and presentation activities by giving priority to the awareness-raising tasks since they allow the possibility of learners discovering or uncovering the gaps in their knowledge (p.41). According to him, awareness involves at least three processes; attention, noticing and understanding. By the term attention, he refers to the learners who need

to be on alert, interested and curious which is also related to the term 'learner readiness' that will be highlighted in the following sections.

As Thornbury (2005a) puts forward one of the most important stages of awareness-raising is 'noticing', which involves the "conscious registering of the occurrence of some event or entity" (p.41). He suggests that people notice if they have encountered to it earlier. Noticing may also be probable with an absence of something, which he calls 'noticing the gap' (p.42) that prepares learners cognitively to be aware of the omission of words or phrases**.** The final step of this cognitivist learning process is 'understanding' which is related to "the recognition of a general rule, principle or pattern" (p.42).

Raising awareness of the students in terms of teaching spoken language has a number of ways according to Thornbury (2005b). According to him, "one way to raise learners' awareness of features of spoken language is to expose them to recordings of speaking and to study the transcripts of these recordings" (2005b, p.12). He gives example of a task to promote spoken language from discourse markers. He suggests that to get students' attention to the discourse markers, teachers might "script or improvise a conversation that includes some common discourse markers, such as *well, so, oh, I mean, right* and *anyway*. Leave these out of the script and ask the learners to restore them, checking with the recording if they were right" (p.12). The aim of the activity is to help learners to notice the difference between the two conversations; one without the discourse markers and one with them. Therefore, they can "'notice the gap', make comparisons between the current state of their developing system… and the target language system" (Thornbury, 1997b). In this study, students have been presented dialogues selected from their coursebooks, and they have been asked to complete the tasks. As suggested by Thornbury (2005a, 2005b), they have been asked

certain discourse markers in Module 2 of the lesson, and with the help of the lead-in tasks, the experimental group have been exposed to the awareness-raising activities that includes the targeted features. Due to these reasons, it is suggested in this study that teachers need to focus on a variety of language features; strategies and language forms to activate the awareness-raising process.

1.5.7.2. Pragmatic Awareness-Raising Tasks

According to Bardovi-Harlig and Mahan-Taylor (2003), the study of pragmatics explores the ability of language users to match utterances with the contexts in which they are appropriate; in Stalnaker's words, pragmatics is "the study of linguistic acts and the contexts in which they are performed"' (1972, cited in Bardovi-Harlig and Mahan-Taylor, 2003).Thus, it is the duty of a teacher to make the learners aware of these implied meanings beside the literal meanings. As Bardovi-Harlig and Mahan-Taylor (2003) state clearly,

> the teaching of pragmatics aims to facilitate the learners' ability to find socially appropriate language for the situations they encounter…Within second language studies and teaching, pragmatics encompasses speech acts, conversational structure, conversational implicature, conversational management, discourse organization, and sociolinguistic aspects of language use, such as choice of address forms (p.1).

Teaching pragmatics may help the language learners to fully comprehend the meaning designated in context and without it; otherwise, the learners may not understand the meaning in dialogues, which causes imperfect knowledge or miscomprehension. Learners may tend to cancel grasping these implicatures presented in context; they may ignore them, which may result in a lack of comprehension of the spoken interaction.

Another issue that needs to be taken into consideration is pragmatic errors. According to Bardovi-Harlig and Mahan-Taylor (2003), "the consequences of

pragmatic differences, unlike the case of grammatical errors, are often interpreted on a social or personal level rather than as a result of the language learning process" (p.3). Being outside the range of language use allowed in a language or making a pragmatic error may have various consequences. Therefore, to avoid pragmatic errors, exposing learners to pragmatics in their second or foreign language helps the learners to expand their perception of the target language and those who speak it. It may be concluded from previous studies that the classroom provides a safe place within which learners can try out new forms and patterns of communication in an accepting environment and learn new conversation strategies .

As a result of change in English language teaching in recent years with the help of corporas, the application of discourse competence and pragmatic competence has been widened with the need to focus on features of spoken language. This new perspective has led methodologists and coursebook writers to take language awareness approaches to language teaching. For this reason, it is highly possible to come across with this perspective as it is utilized in dialogue activities.

1.5.8 Promoting Language Awareness Approaches through Guided-Discovery

One of the most efficient and basic elements of a language awareness approach is that learners "discover language for themselves" (Hawkins, 1984: 4-5, cited in Bolitho et al., 2003). This approach aims to help learners make explicit what they know implicitly about a language. According to Hawkins, learners are challenged to ask questions about language and they develop "a growing insight into the way language works to convey meaning" (p.252).

The change in the attitudes towards learning a language raises consciousness about the universal principles of language use. According to Tomlinson (1994), the discoveries students make during exposure to the target language help them when participating in planned discourse; and these discovery activities in the pragmatic awareness lessons also help students develop cognitive skills (p.119), and therefore, he states the main principles of a pragmatic awareness approach as follows.

The first principle is that learners can profit from noticing the gaps between how they typically use the target language and how it is used by the native speakers (Tomlinson, 1994). Learners of all age groups starting from teenagers can "develop explicit awareness of aspects of language use which they do not have implicit knowledge" states Tomlinson (1994) in the light of his research and workshop. This awareness helps them formulate their own strategies and "leads to an immediate improvement in communicative competence" (p.120).

Secondly, in order to raise learners' awareness, language teachers need to pay attention to learner readiness which is one of the fundamental necessities of cognitive process because learner readiness is a prerequisite for the successful acquisition of pragmatic features of an L2 (p.121). In order to help students acquire authentic discourse features, the level of mental readiness needs to be promoted. Dulay, Burt and Krashen (1982, cited in Tomlinson, 1994) say, "certain structures are acquired only when learners are mentally ready for them" (p.121). It is stated that this readiness can be facilitated by language awareness activities which alert learners to ways in which features of these structures are used to achieve communication. They underline the importance of language awareness approaches stating that

> … they do not in themselves cause language acquisition to take place but those approaches which focus on learner investment and learner

> discovery (such as the Pragmatic Awareness Approach) do help learners to pay informed attention to features of their input and can create 'the curiosity, alertness and positive valuation' which are prerequisites for the development of the communicative competence (1994, p.121).

Thirdly, readiness is best achieved by helping learners to discover and develop generalizations for them. In this regard, Tomlinson (1994) explains the cause and effect relationship between the teaching materials and classroom environment, and its consequences for the learning process. He finds out that the energy and motivation generated by the learner (not by the teacher) lead to a desire to discover more, and, this curiosity stimulates more learner discoveries, with the help of the teaching materials, to guide the learner in the process.

Nevertheless, it is clear that the teaching materials and classroom environment aid the learner in making some self-discoveries during this expedition; but that they are not direct problem solvers. As it was mentioned earlier, learners need to have attention, notice the pattern, structure or the gap, and then understand target forms and lexis with the help of the language teacher (Thornbury, 2005a).

After depicting the general principles of a pragmatic awareness approach under the heading of language awareness, it might be necessary to detail the benefits of a pragmatic awareness approach for learners and how to adapt these insights into the classroom.

1.5.9. Classroom Implications and Applications

It is very important for the students to gain insights about the features of another spoken language in language classrooms. It is expected that they can gradually develop a sense of pragmatic awareness strategies and become independent users of the target language, in which they can be aware of certain features of spoken

language. The rationale behind pragmatic awareness approach and the techniques that might facilitate awareness process are discussed in this part.

First of all, pragmatic awareness helps learners to notice the way that proficient users of the L2 typically use pragmatic strategies. Tomlinson (1994) argues that learners of L2 find it very difficult to achieve communicative competence as they can not see the pragmatic features of the dialogues easily (p.122). What makes a language awareness lesson as effective as possible is that it brings attention to a dialogue to make it more apparent to the learner in the light of these strategies.

Secondly, pragmatic awareness helps learners to achieve deep, learner-driven analyses of language in use which can help them to note the gaps and to achieve learner readiness. Valid conclusions can be drawn about the specific distinction between the two approaches of teaching L2. The first one is driven with the help of pragmatics that gradually increases awareness in the mind of the learner helping him/her develop certain discourse features internally to develop a more meaningful learning experience. The second one is driven directly by the teacher to deliver the knowledge externally without giving any chance to the learner to make some self-discoveries or generalizations. Giving the input directly or leading the way to make some self-discoveries generally seems to be a challenging decision for the teacher. Teachers might tend to choose the former one to avoid ambiguity, to keep up with the curricula or to make the process easier. However, teaching is not only sharing knowledge, but also leading the way to knowledge. A technique that mediates both is 'eliciting', which helps learners to find out the answers by activating their schematic knowledge with the help of the teacher-led questions or clues. Eliciting involves the whole class by focusing students' attention and making them think (Doff, 1988, p.160). Scrivener (2009) explains eliciting as "a much-used technique for involving

students more in lessons", and adds that it "involves drawing language from the students (rather than giving it to them)" (p.422). It is a very encouraging technique that builds up confidence and in return, attitude towards autonomy.

In order to raise learners' awareness, another technique that might be useful is 'concept checking'. Scrivener (2009) defines concept questions simply as "questions that focus on the meaning of a language item" (p.421). According to Workman (2005), concept check questions (CCQs) may be used to check if all the learners have understood the meaning of a new piece of language. They can also be used as a correction technique, to get the learner to think about the concept of a piece of language (p.6). They are simple questions to let learners think and find out the answer easily, usually Yes/No questions or questions with short answers. In this study, these types of questions have been used to get the learners to think and raise their awareness about the language items (see the lesson plan in App.3 and the transcription of the lesson in App.5). Scrivener (2009) states that in order to make awareness-raising process effective, which he calls guided-discovery, first of all teachers should choose appropriate tasks that draw their attention to interesting language issues, secondly they should offer appropriate instructions, help, feedback and explanations, and thirdly, they need to manage and structure a lesson that involves all learners. He highlights that "the key technique is to ask good questions that encourage the learners to notice language and think about it" (p.268). He claims that the questioning technique also called "Socratic questioning" leads students to discover things that they didn't know they knew via a process of structured questions (p.268). In the lesson part of the present study, guided-discovery questions have been asked in order to allow the students benefit from the lead-in tasks.

In order to foster guided-discovery, how to correct student slips or errors and how to give feedback need to be carefully considered. Scrivener (2009) states that instead of correcting the error directly, the teacher can indicate that there is an error with a facial expression, a gesture or by using fingers, repeating the sentence or asking a question (p.300). He clarifies that these techniques "elicit the correction" from the students by giving them a chance to discover and correct the error. In the lesson part of the study, this technique has been applied to promote guided-discovery. On the other hand, when giving instructions of the tasks, the teacher/researcher used directives which are direct instructions or commands used in the instruction-giving process instead of using eliciting technique. However, in order to make sure that students understand the instruction, instruction check questions (ICQs) have been asked to clarify the meaning.

Thirdly, pragmatic awareness helps learners to develop cognitive skills. In terms of cognitive skills, according to Tomlinson (1994), a pragmatic awareness approach helps learners develop skills such as 'connecting, hypothesizing and evaluating', besides making them aware of the target language usage to achieve communicative competence (p.123).

Lastly, pragmatic awareness fosters autonomous learners. All things considered, in terms of facilitating learner autonomy, the more students become pragmatically independent, the less they will be dependent on the coursebooks, teachers and classroom environment. The aim is significant, especially in environments like Turkey, since students generally are not exposed to the target language use apart from the classroom environment. With the help of the pragmatic awareness strategies, they might become more efficient users of the target language, as they may continue analyzing the language on their own, the discovery process

continuing outside school. These objectives have led the applied linguists to design pragmatic awareness activities with the aim of raising language awareness of the students.

McCarthy (1998) discusses the reasons why teachers need to teach spoken discourse skills to learners, and finds that there are key descriptive areas in languages. These transaction units of languages may present the teachers and learners problems such as the problem of awareness and transaction signaling which can affect comprehensibility. Raising students' awareness entails drawing their attention to the features of conversation, as McCarthy suggests; in other words, helping them figure out how conversation is constructed. Therefore, teachers need to have some critical thinking on analysis of spoken interaction in the coursebooks so that they can create the foundations that help learners enhance their discourse and pragmatic knowledge (p.50).

The topic about how to get more familiarized with authentic conversations in a classroom environment has been emphasized by Abalı (2006), who aims to reveal the gap between conversations in the classroom and those of life itself by analyzing and evaluating the genuineness and effectiveness of the dialogues in the coursebooks chosen. The study of Abalı is based on interviews with instructors teaching *Headway, Cutting Edge* and *Opportunities*, which resulted negatively as the instructors did not feel positive about the genuineness of the coursebook dialogues. For instance, one question that is mostly disagreed by the teachers is that "the dialogues prepare learners for the realities of language use in the real world", which illustrates that "the instructors are not satisfied with the dialogues that aim to prepare the learners for the realities of language use in the "real world" (p.95). Therefore, it is highly important for teachers to consider material adaptation or create tasks that complement activities

in the coursebooks in order to prepare learners for the realities of language use in the real world.

The universality of certain principles which facilitate the communication process is emphasized by Cameron (2001), who refers to many pragmatists believing that "certain principles of utterance interpretation are universal, not specific to a particular culture, but characteristic of all linguistic communication" (p.48). It can be conveyed that, through teaching the discoursal mechanisms, teachers should help students awaken those inner mechanisms in order to grasp the hidden meanings and use them in context.

. 1.5.10 Enhancing Autonomy in Classroom Setting

Unlike viewing learners as empty vessels like behaviorists do, Thornbury (2005a) approaches the field cognitively and examines the knowledge and skills needed for learners to speak. He divides the process into three; awareness, appropriation and autonomy. According to him, awareness raising and autonomy are concepts that are linked together. It might be concluded that autonomy is a significant concept in language education as Benson (2001) says "the importance of helping students become more autonomous in their learning has become a more prominent theme" (p.1). Learner centered approaches have reshaped the roles of the teacher and the student in second language teaching process. More frequently used concepts like learner-centered curriculum, learner-based teaching and learner training, which occurred in 1980s and 1990s put learners as an individual into the core of the language learning process. Due to these reasons, the concept of autonomous learner has gained significance in language education.

Edge and Wharton (1998) assert that learner autonomy is "an ongoing process requiring both individual and collective effort in the classroom context" (p.295). It necessitates the process of acquisition both of study skills and certain attitudes towards study. They accept the importance of materials that are designed to help learners foster study skills, and, possibly, foster helpful attitudes. However, the place of coursebooks to foster autonomy is ambiguous for linguists. According to Richards (1993, cited in Edge and Wharton 1998), "many coursebooks attempt themselves to do the work of decision making and pedagogical reasoning, and therefore do not encourage teachers to use them in a creative and personal way" (p.298). This viewpoint reduces teacher's role in the teaching/learning process according to them. Approaching the book for practical guidance or interacting with the theoretical position of it more critically is a matter of question for teachers (1998, p.300). Adding, deleting and changing the tasks at the planning stage might build up a design that facilitate learning environment and can lead to development (p.300). "Materials can aspire to be facilitative", teachers say, with a desire to make this process autonomous and developmental (p.302), but materials are "not capable of making learners autonomous" on their own. They are just part of the awareness- raising process. The lead-in tasks prepared and adapted to be used in the lesson parts of the study are also designed to facilitate the learning process and prepare learners for the coursebook activities. The transcript of the lessons in chapter 2 reveals that the teacher uses techniques and materials that are designed to foster autonomy. The teacher/researcher gives importance to guided-discovery questions that help the students find out the answers by teacher-led questions, peer-checking in which students can learn from each other with less dependence on the teacher, and student feedback so that students can be decision-makers when compromising on the answers.

These techniques are all useful tools that attempt to promote awareness-raising of the lessons conducted.

CHAPTER 2

METHODOLOGY

This chapter presents information about the methodology which the data collection procedure was based upon, how data of the study were collected, the subjects and the institutional context around which the study was conducted together with the documentation analysis, which is mainly about the coursebooks, lesson plans and the lead-in tasks used in this study.

2.1. Research Design

Social sciences research methods have a tendency to choose either qualitative or quantitative research method. However, Jick (1979) states that "mixing these various notions shares the conception that qualitative and quantitative methods should be viewed as complementary rather than as rival camps" (p.602). According to Jick (1979), "most textbooks underscore the desirability of mixing methods given the strengths and weaknesses found in single method designs" (p.602). The term for mixing methods is *triangulation*, which was first defined by Denzin (1978 cited in Jick, 1979) as "the combination of methodologies in the study of the same phenomenon" (p.291). The purpose of triangulation is to increase the reliability and validity of the results. In this study, both qualitative and quantitative research methods were also applied to gather as many objective and interpretive findings as possible.

The present study aims to examine the effectiveness of the lead-in tasks in order to raise students' awareness in grasping meaning through the analysis of certain features of spoken language, cohesive devices, discourse markers and the hidden meanings in the dialogues. The study had a pre-test and post-test design for each module (see the lesson plan in 2.6.) which was conducted to one control and one experimental group. Unlike the control group, the experimental group was applied the lead-in tasks. The lead-in tasks were composed of awareness-raising activities related to the aims specified above. The treatment took about 160 hours intensive course in 8 weeks including the pre and post test designs (see Table 2.1.). In order to measure the effectiveness of the treatment through the lead-in tasks, the control group was merely exposed to the teaching technique specified in the teacher's books of the coursebook used in the study.

Table 2.1. Research Design of the Study

DATE	CONTROL GROUP (Class 1)	EXPERİMENTAL GROUP (Class 2)
WEEK 1 (21st June - 25th June, 2010)	Pre-test Module 1, Module 2	Pre-test Module 1, Module 2
WEEK 2 (28th June - 2nd July, 2010)	Pre-test Module 3, Module 4	Pre-test Module 3, Module 4
WEEK 3 (5th July - 9th July, 2010)		Treatment Module 1
WEEK 4 (12th July - 16th July, 2010)		Treatment Module 2
WEEK 5 (19th July - 23rd July, 2010)		Treatment Module 3
WEEK 6 (26th July - 30th July, 2010)		Treatment Module 4

WEEK 7 (2nd Aug. - 6th Aug., 2010)	Post-test Module 1, Module 2	Post-test Module 1, Module 2
WEEK 8 (9th Aug. - 13th Aug., 2010)	Post-test Module 3, Module 4	Post-test Module 3, Module 4

2.2. Research Questions

This study addresses the following research questions:

1. Can learners identify the differences between certain features of spoken language and written language in the dialogue activities of the selected coursebooks after they are presented the lead-in tasks?

2. Can learners comprehend the meanings and/or functions of certain discourse markers in the dialogue activities after they are presented the lead-in tasks?

3. Can learners comprehend the meanings and/or functions of certain cohesive devices in the dialogue activities after they are presented the lead-in tasks?

4. Can learners infer the speaker meaning in the dialogue activities after they are presented the lead in tasks?

2.3. Sampling

2.3.1 Subjects

The subjects of this study consisted of two groups; control and experimental groups. The students were selected through random convenience sampling methods. Students took the proficiency exam at the end of the academic year and they failed. Then, they attended a 160 hours intensive program that lasted 8 weeks to improve

their language skills. They were placed into different classes according to their proficiency scores. The two classes that were highest in rank were used as subjects. Each of the classes was composed of 25 students. Learners did not see the dialogues before, and the dialogues did not include any key unknown lexical item, and they were mainly gathered from their coursebook and the materials curriculum office used which were in accordance with their weekly schedule.

The students were taught by the same teacher, the researcher herself, for 8 weeks to conduct the study and gather the data. The experimental group was exposed to the lead-in tasks during the lessons but control group was subject to the way the activities flow in the coursebooks and the mere guidance of the teacher's book.

2.3.2. Institutional Context

The study was carried out at a preparatory school of a foundation university located in İstanbul. In each academic year, students are expected to follow a one-year schedule, at the end of which they are obliged to take the proficiency exam. If they fail, they attend the intensive course during summer which is mainly the overall repetition and summary of the academic year program. The number of students in each classroom is around 25. According to the syllabus designed at the beginning of the education year, each class has a main course, reading-writing and listening-speaking lessons with different class hours depending on the level. There are three levels designed in accordance with the CEF (Common European Framework) criteria; A, B and C (from bottom achievement to top).

2.4. Data Collection Instruments

The instruments used in this study included materials designed as pre-test and post-test to evaluate the effectiveness of the treatment, audio-recording of the lessons conducted to the experimental group, and the questionnaire presented to the students in both groups.

The materials used as pre-test and post-test were mainly gathered from the coursebooks of the students. Also, popular websites related to English Language Teaching were used as resources in the tests (see Appendices 1 and 2). The pre-test was handed out to the students at the beginning of the study to compare the level of students in both groups to let students identify certain features of spoken language in the dialogues (see App.1). The post-test was conducted to the students at the end of the study to compare whether there is a significant difference between the two groups in terms of their pragmatic awareness after the treatment process (see App.2).

The audio-recording of the treatment which was conducted to the experimental group presented the transcription of the treatment process. It provided a basis to reveal the atmosphere of the classroom environment, participation of the students, and the techniques used by the teacher/researcher during the lessons. The detailed interpretation of the lessons was transcribed to reveal the qualitative part of the study.

The questionnaire was presented to the students in both groups at the end of the study. The aim was to analyze students' attitudes and ideas in both groups about the dialogue activities, certain features of spoken language used in the dialogues and the techniques of the teacher during the lessons to prepare students for these activities. The questions were asked in L1 and L2 in order not to cause any difficulty for students to comprehend the questions. There were 12 questions asked in the

questionnaire. 12 questions were asked on a 4 type likert scale (1=strongly disagree 4=strongly agree). The statistical results gathered from the data revealed the differences of students' attitudes in both groups (see Table 3.19).

2.5. Data Collection Procedure

After the proficiency exam results gathered at the end of the academic year 2009-2010, students who failed at the exam joined the summer course which is a more intensive equivalent of the academic year program. Students were assigned to the classes according to their proficiency results randomly. Two classes randomly chosen by the administration of the preparatory division were assigned as control and experimental groups.

In terms of teaching, the control group was merely exposed to the methodology of the *Just Right* Teacher's Book and they completed the materials, dialogue activities of their coursebooks. On the other hand, the experimental group was exposed to the lead-in tasks as part of the treatment in which students' awareness of certain features of spoken language was attempted to be raised.

The pre-test and post-test were presented to both groups in order to reveal the effectiveness of the treatment. In four modules, the lessons designed to raise students' pragmatic awareness with the help of the lead-in tasks were conducted to the treatment group. At the end of the treatment both groups were given the post-tests to compare the statistical differences (see Table 2.1). The treatment was transcribed in order to reveal the awareness-raising process of the students in the experimental group.

Finally, at the end of the study, questionnaires were given to the students after the post-tests. They answered the 12 items in the questionnaire to reveal their attitudes and ideas about the dialogue activities.

2.6. Data Analysis Procedure

The quantitative data were obtained from the pre-test and post-test which were developed by the researcher. Pre-test and post-test scores for each student in control and experimental groups were calculated according to the true and false replies of those students. The scores were calculated in four parts (modules) and all the scores standardized on 100 point score scale in order to make comparison between the control and experimental groups.

All the data obtained from the students via the pre and post tests were entered into SPSS program. Mean and standard deviation of the control and experimental groups' test results were calculated. Independent samples t-test was conducted in order to see whether there were any significant differences between the pre-test and post-test scores of the control and experimental groups. The questionnaire which aimed to reveal the difference of students' attitudes in both groups in terms of dialogue activities was also compared with SPSS program. The statistical results revealed the significantly different items, which were analyzed by the researcher. Results were presented in tables and graphics with relevant explanations.

The qualitative data of the study was based upon the audio-recordings of the lessons conducted to the experimental group. The detailed interpretation of the lessons was analyzed by the teacher/researcher with their relations to the lesson plan and the lead-in tasks designed by the teacher/researcher.

2.6.1. Qualitative Data Analysis

Cohen, Manion and Morrison (2000) puts forth that "the aim of methodology is to help us to understand, in the broadest possible terms, not the products of scientific inquiry but the process itself" (p.45). The process of one part of this study was also carried out through qualitative method. In this study, the transcription of the lessons conducted in the treatment will be analyzed to provide information about the process.

The two methods are different in their nature and their designs as one (quantitative research) starts with a deductive and the other (qualitative) with an inductive approach. Cormack (1991) compares the two methods and states that

> whereas quantitative methodologies test theory deductively from existing knowledge, through developing hypothesized relationships and proposed outcomes for study, qualitative researchers are guided by certain ideas, perspectives regarding the subject to be investigated (Cormack, 1991).

Leach (1990) states that qualitative research differs from qualitative approaches as it develops theory inductively. He underlines the verbal nature of the design that there is no explicit intention to count or quantify the findings. A qualitative approach is used as a vehicle for studying the empirical world from the perspective of the subject, not the researcher (Duffy, 1987). Benoliel (1985) expanded on this aspect and described qualitative research as 'modes of systematic enquiry concerned with understanding human beings and the nature of their transactions with themselves and with their understandings'. The aim of qualitative research is to describe certain aspects of a phenomenon, with a view to explaining the subject of the study (Cormack, 1991).

The qualitative data of this study covers the analysis of the transcripts of the lesson. The purpose is to describe the awareness-raising process of the learners through the lead-in tasks. In order to uncover the lesson conducted to the experimental group, transcription of the lesson was put onto paper. The data gathered from the transcriptions were interpreted by the teacher/researcher in detail. Therefore, it can be conveyed that classroom recording is a major part of this study that helps to settle the qualitative findings. The classroom recordings are made by the teacher/researcher, thus, they are considered as raw data.

The transcription method of this study will follow the study and research of Pennington (1999), who, as part of an investigative process of an English lesson conducted in a Hong Kong secondary school, used different transcripts of the same segment of classroom discourse to demonstrate how the focus, the form and the level of transcription help to determine the analysis of the discourse (p.87). The elaboration of the study in Hong Kong emphasized the importance of the written representation of the classroom discourse, though which the researcher presented the phenomenon of the investigation accurately and thoroughly, with attention to the concerns of reliability and validity. In this study, the transcription of the lesson conducted covered the identities of the learners, and subjects were named as S1 (student1), S2 etc. without drawing the attention to the identities of the learners (see App.4)**.**

As it was mentioned before, there are different kinds of transcripts which might be used in a classroom environment with attention to different focuses or technicalities. Pennington (1999) explains the difficulties that researchers face, such as deciding what to include as data and how to encode it; and adds that different kinds of transcripts provide different focuses, and therefore, display a different picture of the participants and the classroom. She explains the types of transcriptions: ‘focused’ and

'inclusive' (p.86). She states that a 'focused transcript' demonstrates the talk exchange that is of primary importance to the researcher and ignores any "side noises or verbalizations made by the teacher or by the students who are not direct participants in the activity" (p.87). Thus, in this study, the design of transcription is 'focused' in its frame due to the fact that all the answers gathered in the classroom discourse are relevant to the answers of the activity, and there is not any irrelevant discourse that is audible in the recording.

2.6.2. Quantitative Data Analysis

Unlike qualitative methods, quantitative methods "focus attention on measurements and amounts" (Thomas, 2003). Quantitative research is described by the terms 'empiricism' (Leach, 1990) and 'positivism' (Duffy, 1985). Quantitative research approach is an objective, formal systematic process in which numerical data findings describe, test, and examine cause and effect relationships (Burns & Grove, 1987) using a deductive process of knowledge attainment (Duffy, 1985).

From the aspect of quantitative data analysis, firstly, this study conducted a pre-test and post-test design, the statistics of which were analyzed between one control and one experimental group. In order to evaluate these data, it is important to specify the variables of the study. The dependent variables of this study are; noticing and writing certain features of spoken language (in Module 1), comprehension of the meanings and/or functions of discourse markers (in Module 2), comprehension of the omission and use of certain cohesive devices (in Module 3), and inferencing speaker or hidden meaning in the dialogues (in Module 4). The independent variables of this study are the lead-in tasks conducted to the treatment group.

2.6.2.1. Pre-test and Post-test

All the subjects of the control and experimental group in the study were given the identical pre-test and identical post-test. Pre-test and post-test have four parts related to the four modules of the lesson (see the lesson plan below in Table 2.4.) which will be evaluated in the light of four research questions. Module 1 was formed of an open-ended question type in which students needed to identify certain features of spoken language though a dialogue presented in that section. Module 2 was formed of both multiple choice and open-ended question types related to their knowledge of certain discourse markers. Module 3 was formed of rewrite, ordering, open-ended and matching types of questions seeking to evaluate their knowledge of certain cohesive devices, and Module 4 is related to whether students can infer the speaker meaning in the dialogues and formed of multiple choice questions. The table that shows the item number in each module is presented below.

Table 2.2. Number of the items in the Pre/Post-tests

Pre-test Module 1: 11 items	Post-test Module 1: 11 items
Pre-test Module 2 : 21 items	Post-test Module 2 : 31 items
Pre-test Module 3: 22 items	Post-test Module 3: 49 items
Pre-test Module 4 : 4 items	Post-test Module 4 : 4 items

2.6.1.2. Questionnaire

According to Brown (1997), surveys (including interviews and questionnaires) are most often used in language education for research and various kinds of curriculum development projects. Furthermore, they can be used to obtain information about language teachers' or foreign language students' teaching or learning beliefs. In this study, the questionnaire was used as an instrument to gather information about the

students' beliefs and attitudes about the dialogue activities in their coursebooks and their opinions about learning and teaching techniques of these activities. There are 12 questions in the questionnaire that helps the researcher evaluate the awareness-raising process from the viewpoint of the subjects (see App.6).

2.6.1.3. Validity and Reliability

Cohen, Manion and Morrison. (2000) suggest that reliability is essentially a synonym for consistency and replicability over time, over instruments and over groups of respondents. It is concerned with precision and accuracy; for research to be reliable it must demonstrate that if it were to be carried out on a similar group of respondents in a similar context (however defined), then similar results would be found. He states that there are three principal types of reliability: stability, equivalence and internal consistency for a study to be reliable. In this term, reliability is a measure of consistency over time and over similar samples. In the experimental and survey models of research this would mean that if a test and then a re-test were undertaken within an appropriate time span, then similar results would be obtained (p.117). In this study, pre-test and post-test designs support this viewpoint.

In terms of reliability, quantitative research is considered more reliable than qualitative investigation. This is because a quantitative approach aims to control or eliminate extraneous variables within the internal structure of the study, and the data produced can also be assessed by standardized testing (Duffy, 1985). Therefore, it is concluded that the reliability of qualitative research is weakened by the fact that the process is under-standardized and relies on the insights and the abilities of the observer, thus making an assessment of reliability difficult (Duffy, 1985).

For validity, although qualitative methodologies may have greater problems with reliability than quantitative methodologies, the position is reversed when the issue is validity. The weakness in quantitative research is that the more tightly controlled the study, the more difficult it becomes to confirm that the research situation is like real life. The components of scientific research that demand control of variables can, therefore, be argued as operating against external validity and subsequent generalizability (Sandelowski, 1986). Campbell and Stanley (1963) maintain that the more similar the research experimental is to the natural setting the greater is the validity and thus generalizability of the findings. One reason that this can be claimed lies in the fact that the studies took place in a organizational environment, which increased validity.

The strength of qualitative research is proposed in the claim that there are fewer threats to external validity, because subjects are studied in their natural setting and encounter fewer controlling factors compared with quantitative research conditions (Sandelowski, 1986). However, the closeness of researchers might threaten the validity of the study if they become unable to maintain the distance required to describe or interpret experiences in a meaningful way, as discussed above (Hinton, 1993).

It may be concluded that, for every strength, there appears to be a corresponding weakness in both quantitative and qualitative research. In order to avoid this dilemma, researcher may ignore choosing just one methodology which narrows a researcher's perspective, and deprives him or her of the benefits of building on the strengths inherent in a variety of research methodology (Duffy, 1987) and tries to mix them both. This study mixes both methods to raise the level of reliability and validity.

In terms of triangulation, the main research areas that triangulation is concerned with are issues of data, investigator, theory and methodology. Morse (1991) argued that triangulation not only maximizes the strengths and minimizes those weaknesses of each approach, but strengthens research results and contributes to theory and knowledge development. The triangulation study conducted by Corner (1991) concerning newly registered employees' attitudes to and organizational preparation for working for customers, illustrates both the strengths and weaknesses of the approach. The study revealed a richer and deeper understanding of the subject matter than would otherwise be possible. Quantitative and qualitative approaches were found to complement each other while the inadequacies of each were actually offset. However, it also highlighted the time and cost implications the volume of data produced was immense and an extremely broad knowledge base was required to analyze it, which meant that other researchers were contracted in to work on different parts of the analysis. Therefore, it seems reasonable to suggest that triangulation is not the way forward for all organizational research but that it may help organization to remove itself from the bipolar debate and restrictions.

2.7. Materials

The coursebooks that aim to teach English as second language and adopt communicative approach were the main materials for this study. Coursebook selection is a vital process because they are sometimes regarded as the only resources necessary to teach English effectively. However, to what extent they are effective may be unclear. Thus, this study utilizes the effective dialogue activities in the coursebooks selected by comparing and contrasting two groups in terms of their awareness of certain features of spoken language. Coursebooks with a learner-based approach to

teaching is more significant rather than letting the material dictate the learning route. As Harmer says:

> Using a coursebook is a skill. It involves looking at the material on the page & deciding if, when & how to use that material. It may be, for example, that a particular exercise, activity or even, in some situations, a whole section is not quite appropriate for your class. In such circumstances you may decide to either omit that material or, if you have something better up your sleeve, replace it with your own activities. (2004)

In the intensive summer course, when this study was conducted, *Just Right Intermediate Student's Book* (Harmer, 2004) was continued to be used as the main coursebook series. Therefore, this book is the main material of the pre-test and post-test. The coursebook is based on communicative approach; therefore, there are various kinds of dialogues in which different functions are delivered so that there is no shortage of data looked for in this study. Harmer summarizes the principles of the functional language parts in the teacher's book (Harmer, 2004) as:

> Students benefit greatly from seeing and hearing how language is used in social situations, particularly since such language is frequently made up of language chunks and various lexical phrases. It is particularly important for students to be able to act empathetically in English… In JUST RIGHT, students study functional areas such as asking for permission and giving opinions, but they also study interpersonal or social language…Each unit in the JUST RIGHT has a section which revises functional language. (p.5)

The dialogues conducted in the study were gathered from the coursebook *Just Right Intermediate Student's Book* (Harmer, 2004), *NEF Elementary and Intermediate Student's Book* (Oxenden and Latham-Koenig, 2006) and *Inside Out Intermediate Student's Book* (Kay et al., 2001). The activities gathered from these coursebooks are as follows;

Table 2.3. Extracts of Pre/Post-Tests

Pre test - Part A	adapted from Just Right Int	Track 48	Using gesture to Express meaning: p.93

Pre test - Part B question 10	adapted from NEF Int.		
Pre test - Part B question 12	adapted from NEF Int.		
Pre test - Part C question 3	adapted from Just Right Int	Track 59	reacting to things you are told. p.115
Pre test - Part C question 4	Just Right Int	Track 34	Paying Compliments p.61
Pre test - Part D	NEF	exercise 4.5	
Post test - Part A	Just Right Int	Track 57	
Post test - Part B question 9	New Inside Out Int.		
Post test - Part B question 11	adapted from NEF-INT p.122		
Post test - Part B question 12	adapted from Just Right p.103		
Post test - Part B question 13	Just Right Int p.125	Track 65	
Post test - Part C question 3	Just Right Int		Going Shopping p.117
Post test - Part C question 4	Just Right Int	Track 21	Recommendations p.41

Post test - Part C question 5	Just Right Int	Track 76	Inviting someone. p.145
Post test - Part D	NEF	exercise 4.5	

2.8. Rationale behind the Lessons

The four modules were applied one after the other as it was mentioned earlier (see the research design in Table 2.1.). The treatment in which the lead-in tasks were applied lasted for a total of 45+45+35+30 minutes. They will be narrated in four sections below in accordance with the modules they are combined with. The lesson plan below gives a short summary of the lessons. The lessons were implemented around four modules, each of which includes a lead-in task, through which the teacher/researcher elicits the answers that helps learners to raise their consciousness about the topic.

The aim of the lead-in tasks was to focus on the discoursal features of the dialogues mentioned above so that students could grasp the hidden meanings. These awareness-raising tasks were applied before the teacher conducted the post-tests. In the dialogues, there are certain features of spoken language such as the use of discourse markers, elliptic clauses, clauses with heads and tails, substitution, references (it/this/that) and implicatures, which might hinder the pragmatic awareness of the student. In this study, lead-in tasks have been applied before coursebook activities so as to help the learners convey the implied meanings hidden behind spoken or informal language.

2.9. Overall Design of the Lesson

The lesson was conducted around four modules in accordance with the coursebook activities and other materials, which will be elaborated in the following section. In terms of the targeted features of spoken language, the lessons were mainly divided into four lessons.

2.9.1. The Lesson Plan and Transcription of Module 1

Table 2.4. The Lesson Plan of Module 1

MODULE 1 **45 mins**

Stage Aims	Procedure	Time	Materials
To let students brainstorm about the topic through a picture	T shows students the picture and introduces the character. T asks ss to guess the topic and discuss with their partners what they might be talking about.	2 mins 3 mins	http://www.cartoon-web.com
To expose learners to the spoken language that includes target forms	T presents some parts of the conversation and let learners complete the dialogue in their own way. T hands out the original text and asks learners to read the dialogue and compare it with theirs.	10 mins 2 mins	Just Right Int-Track 49
To elicit the differences between informal and formal language	T starts concept checking (CCQs). T asks ss if the text is formal or informal and how they	3 mins	

	understand it. T elicits the answer.	3 mins	
To let learners be aware of the discourse markers *oh, well, you know*	T asks ss if *oh, well, you know* are used in formal or informal texts. T elicits the answer.	3 mins	
To make ss aware of elliptic forms	T asks ss if "The one with the gun?" is a question, and if it is a standard form. T asks ss to make a full sentence of it. T elicits the answers.	3 mins 2 mins	
To let learners be aware of the use of substitution in the text	T asks the word "one" and what it refers to. T elicits the answer.	3 mins	
To let learners be aware of the use of head in the text	T asks ss the question "And the girl, what about the girl?" in the text, and why 'the girl' is repeated. T elicits the answers. T draws the attention to "The one with the gun, he opens the suitcase…" and asks CCQs to elicit answers about the use of heads in spoken language.	5 mins 5 mins	
To emphasize the use of question tags in informal speech	T draws the attention to the sentence; "I thought you said there were three men, didn't you?" and asks what kind of a question it is. T elicits the answers.		

The lesson starts by arousing students' interest through a picture in which students are guided to a discovery about the two characters in the picture. The pattern

of classroom discourse which is dominant in each module is 'eliciting'. With the help of this technique, the whole class is focused on the questions the teacher asks and is involved in brainstorming about the answers (Doff, 1988). The teacher guides students into the story of the characters by asking students questions to let them find out who the characters are and what they are doing (see lines 005 and 008 in Excerpt 1).

Excerpt 1

001 T: OK. Let's have a look at this picture. What do you see in it?

002 S1: A police and a man.

003 T: Right. What are they doing?

004 Ss: They are talking.

005 T: What do you think they are talking about?

006 S2: The man is explaining.

007 S3: Murder!

008 T: Maybe. OK. What do we say to a person who sees an event?

009 S1: Criminal?

010 T: No. That is the person who commits a crime.

011 S4: (checking dictionary) Witness!

012 T: That's right. Great. The man is a witness. His name is John Burney. Now, you will write the dialogue between Mr. Burney and the police. Some of the sentences you will use to complete the dialogue are here, on this paper. **Do it individually**. The first sentence is given. **What are we doing?**

013 S1: Writing a dialogue.

The teacher uses directives to give instructions to the students such as in line 012 "Do it individually." These directives help them to understand the instructions clearly since they are short and direct. Nevertheless, in order to make sure that students understand what the task is, the teacher checks the instruction (see line 012 in Excerpt 1).

The primary aim of Module 1 is to help students to differentiate certain features of spoken language and written language by focusing on spoken discourse

(see the lesson plan of Module 1). The students are expected to create a dialogue based on the picture and the prompts given (see App 3.). By engaging students in the lead-in task that presents the target language within prompts, the teacher asks them to use the target language and create their own dialogue.

The awareness-raising process is activated by concept-check questions the teacher asks to guide the learners to the correct answers, such as in line 024 in which the teacher checks the register of the dialogue (see Excerpt 2). Another concept-checking technique is used in order to elicit the use of 'discourse markers' in spoken language (see line 030 in Excerpt 2), and it is also applied in the use of 'head' in the dialogue (see lines 74, 76 and 80 in Excerpt 3). As it was mentioned in the introduction part of the study, concept checking technique is used to check the meaning of a new piece of language or as a correction technique to guide learners to the correct definition (Workman, 2005).

Excerpt 2

020 T: Now, this is the original dialogue. Read it and compare it with your dialogue.

021 S2: This is long.

022 T: That is right but no problem. Now look at the text and answer my questions.

023 Ss: OK.

024 **T: Is the language of the text formal or informal?**

025 Ss: Informal.

026 T: How do you understand?

027 S6: Speaking but not formally.

028 T: What else? Focus on vocabulary.

029 S2: Words like "yeah", "oh".

030 **T: Great. Do we use words like "Oh", "Well", "You know" in spoken language or in written language?**

031 Ss: Spoken language.

032 T: Can you underline these words in the text?

033 Ss: Yes…

034 Ss: Finished.

035 **T: All right. Now find "The one with the gun?". Underline it. Is it a full sentence?**

036 Ss: No.

Underlining is another technique that is used in Module 1 to make students cognitively aware of certain features of spoken language and help them recognize those features, which is used to raise students' awareness of the elliptical form (see line 035 in Excerpt 2).

Excerpt 3

072 T: Now look at "The one with the gun, he opens the suitcase…" Did you find it?

073 Ss: Yes.

074 **T: What is the subject of the sentence?**

075 S2: 'he'

076 **T: What about "the one with the gun"?**

077 S2: It's also the subject.

078 **T: Right. Can we say they refer to each other?**

079 Ss: Yes.

080 **T: Why do you think they are repeated?**

081 S6: To emphasize the word.

2.9.2. The Lesson Plan and Transcription of Module 2

Table 2.5. The Lesson Plan of Module 2

MODULE 2 **45 mins**

Stage Aims	Procedure	Time	Materials

To elicit the use of *well* in spoken language	T asks ss why we use *well* in spoken language. T lets learners guess the meanings/functions. T elicits/tells the answers; -To change the topic of the conversation: -To save thinking time -To respond unexpectedly T presents the task and asks ss to find out the functions of *well* in the dialogues. T asks ss to compare their answers with their pairs. T gives feedback	3 mins 3 mins 3 mins 1 min 2 mins	Adapted from Just Right Int- Track 43 -49
To get ss to brainstorm different meanings of *thanks*. To let ss practice different meanings of *thanks.* T emphasizes the importance of exclamation mark To let ss recognize the different meanings of *oh* expression	T changes the topic into different meanings of 'thanks' by eliciting the answers from the ss and gives HOs about different meanings of *thanks*. T asks ss to match the functions with the dialogues in the handout. T elicits the answers. T asks the meaning of the use of exclamation mark with *thanks* through a CCQ. T asks ss how they use *oh* expression, and whether it usually stands alone in a sentence. T writes on WB: poor you, excellent, well done, no, congratulations (congrats),	3 mins 3 mins 2 mins 2 mins 5 mins	Hand-out own material

	lucky you, that's terrible, and asks in which situations they can be used with *oh*. T elicits the answers.	4 mins	Kay (2001:56)
To check their understanding about the use of *oh*	T introduces the lead-in task and asks students what is missing in the dialogue. They guess and T elicits the problem. T underlines the words on the WB Congratulations! Excellent! That's terrible!		
To evaluate their pragmatic awareness	Ss match the incomplete expressions with the phrases from the board. Ss fill in the gaps. Whole class feedback. (WC FB)	3 mins 2 mins	
To get ss to brainstorm about the target discourse markers	T draws ss attention to the board. T writes; *you know* *actually* *right* *I mean*	2 mins	
To raise awareness about the target vocabulary	T asks students if they know the meanings and/or functions of these words. T tries to elicit the answers. T introduces the lead-in task and lets learners fill in the blanks with the words.	2 mins	Hand-out own material

As the lesson plan indicates, the primary aim of Module 2 is to expose learners to certain high frequency discourse markers that are used in the dialogues of the coursebooks selected. The techniques used in the previous module are applied in this

module as well. In order to raise students' awareness step by step, guidance of the teacher and the lead-in tasks are presented in an organized way.

Brainstorming is a technique used to activate learner schema about a certain topic. In this module, the teacher asks certain questions related to discourse markers to activate students' schema about them. The meanings and functions of certain discourse markers are asked to engage students into the features of spoken language (see lines 005, 009, 021 in Excerpt 4). After eliciting certain meanings and functions of the feature, the teacher guides students to differentiate its meaning in order to expand their knowledge and raise their awareness (see lines 026 and 028).

Drawing students' attention to punctuation is an important aspect of analysis of spoken discourse since punctuation marks might give clues about speakers and/or the context. For instance, the use of exclamation mark with "thanks" is analyzed in the dialogue activity of the *Just Right* (Harmer, 2004) which is presented in Module 2. In order to raise students' awareness of the use of exclamation mark with the discourse marker, the teacher asks questions to draw learners' attention to the meaning attached in that use (see lines 038 and 042 in Excerpt 4). With the help of the distinction between positive and negative connotation attached in that use, students can see the difference (see lines 044, 045, 046, 047, 048 and 049).

Excerpt 4

005 T: That's right. **Why do we say *well*?**

006 S2: To say 'good'.

007 T: Not always. There are some different functions of *well* in spoken language. For example, someone is talking about something but you do not talk about it and you change the topic.

008 S3: You don't want to talk about it?

009 T: Yes, it may be the reason. Another use of *well* may be more familiar to you. **Why do you say "hmmm" in Turkish?**

010 S4: To think…

011 T: Absolutely, you are saving thinking time when you say well. And lastly, if you don't want to say 'no' to the other person but your answer is not as the other person expects; you may use well.

012 S1: Difficult to understand!

013 T: Don't worry, I have some dialogues for you to help you understand better. OK. Look at these three dialogues and try to guess the meanings and/or functions of well.

014 S3: In dialogue c, is it similar to 'no'?

015 T: Yes, not as direct as 'no' but similar. Are there any other guesses?

016 S4: In dialogue b, he wants to change the topic.

017 T: Do you agree?

018 Ss: Yes.

019 T: Absolutely. So, dialogue a?

020 S5: He tries to think.

021 T: Great. We have talked about the meanings of well. Next, there is another word you all know thanks. **Why do you say 'thanks'?**

022 S4: To be polite.

023 S5: To say thank you.

024 T: OK. Look at these three short dialogues (lead-in task) and try to guess the meanings or functions of thanks.

025 S5: They mean 'thank you'.

026 **T: Yes, all of them is a form of thank you, but are they the same in meaning?**

027 Ss: No.

028 **T: Which one is much more different than the others?**

029 S4: Dialogue C.

030 T: Why?

031 S4: Different meaning.

032 T: Right. OK let's do together. "How are you? Fine thanks?" What is it?

033 S5: asking how someone is.

034 T: That's right. How about number 2? "You look absolutely beautiful today." "Oh, thanks."

035 Ss: Compliment.

036 T: Yes. That's a compliment. And number 3. "You are a mess." "Thanks!"… means…

037 Ss: discomfort

038 T: How about the exclamation mark? **Does exclamation mark give meaning to thanks? If so, how?**

039 S6: What is exclamation mark?

040 T: (drawing on board) This is exclamation mark.

041 Ss: OK.

042 **T: What's the meaning there?**

043 Ss: Meaning 'angry'?

044 T: Similar. OK. **Positive or negative?**

045 **Ss: Negative**.

046 **T: How about in number 1 and 2?**

047 **Ss: Positive.**

048 **T: Great. So, exclamation mark emphasizes the negativity.**

049 **Ss: Yes**

Correction is also significant in order to let student discover the language feature that the teacher would like to elicit. A direct "no" is generally avoided in these lessons not to cause any discouragement to the learner. Instead of giving harsh negative responses, giving clues through interjections or exclamations, such as "Hmm…" (see line 109 in Excerpt 5) and then encouraging the learner to make self-correction as in "…OK, let's give an example, and then you decide." (see line 109 in Excerpt 5) might be very helpful to the learner to proceed to the discovery process. Giving example to offer choices to the learner is a very useful technique as mentioned earlier (see line 103 in Excerpt 5). Also, not giving direct answers as "yes" or "no" might help the classroom environment as a whole. For instance in lines 105 and 119, the teacher asks the answer of one student to the rest of the class to motivate and involve the other students into the decision-giving process, which fosters autonomy in the long run as the students become less dependent on the teacher in time.

Excerpt 5

101 T: No problem. Let's start. We have talked about right. You have an idea about its meaning. We generally use it to agree with the other person. Where do you think it goes?

102 S3: 2?

103 **T: It says "not exactly", so do you think they agree?**

104 S4:1?

105 **T: What do you think?**

106 Ss: Yes.

107 T: That's right. How about I mean?

108 S5: Tells the meaning.

109 **T: Hmm, OK, let's give an example, and then you decide.** For instance, there is a dialogue between a mother and her daughter. The mother says; "Where have you been?". The daughter says; "What?. The mother replies "I mean you were supposed to be at home two hours ago". The daughter says, "Sorry, there was traffic." In this short dialogue, why does the mother use the expression I mean?

110 S6: Because she explains it.

111 T: That's right. She tries to explain what she said earlier "Where have you been?". So, she tries to repair, fix her sentence.

112 Ss: Yes.

113 T: If she is trying to explain or fix her sentence, do you think there will be a sentence after I mean or not?

114 S7: No sentence.

115 T: But think about what she said in the dialogue "I mean you were supposed to be at home two hours earlier".

116 S7: Sorry. There is a sentence after it.

117 T: Absolutely. So, which one do you think is I mean?

118 S4: 2?

119 T: Do you agree?

120 Ss: Yes.

2.9.3. The Lesson Plan and Transcription of Module 3

Table 2.6. The Lesson Plan of Module 3

MODULE 3 **35 mins**

Stage Aims	Procedure	Time	Materials

To let ss understand the meanings and/or functions of 'it/this/that'.	T asks ss if they know the meanings and/or functions of 'it/this/that'. T elicits some answers and concept checks.	5 mins	
To let ss recognize different usages with a model dialogue	T gives ss a model text and tells them to find out what it/this/that refer to in the text.	4 mins	Carter (2000:89)
To get ss activate their schema about the use of ellipsis in short dialogues	T presents some short dialogues to the ss to raise their consciousness about elliptical phrases in conversations. T asks ss to rewrite sentences to make them full. T concept checks and elicits the answers.	4 mins 5 mins 2 mins	Hand-out own material
To raise ss' awareness about the use of substitution, ellipsis, heads and tails.	T presents another dialogue and asks CCQs to help them understand certain types of informal usages in the dialogues. T elicits the answers.	5 mins 5 mins	(adapted from Discourse and Language Education, Hatch, 1992)

The lesson plan of Module 3 reveals that the primary aim of the lesson is to raise students' awareness in terms of certain cohesive devices used in spoken language, such as *ellipsis, heads/tails, substitution* and reference words *it/this* and *that*. The teacher uses a lot of techniques in order to make the lesson effective.

The lead-in task of Module 3 includes a text full of targeted features, thus, the teacher draws the attention firstly to the reference words *it, this* and *that*, and asks questions to raise students' awareness about those features (see lines 015, 017 and 019 in Excerpt 6).

Excerpt 6

009 T: Which one do you think is used for an important new topic?

010 S4: It?

011 **T: Be careful: "for an important new topic".**

012 S5: this

013 T: Yes. And if we simply continue what we are already talking/writing about without focusing on in a special way, which one do we choose?

014 S6: it

015 **T: Very good everybody. Now… can you look at this part (sets the students to look at the model dialogue, Carter, 2000) and find out what *it, this* and *that* refer to in this dialogue. What do they refer to; *it, this* and *that*? What do they mean? For example, (reading from the text) "…Can you tell me where it might be? ... We have got *it* on stock." What does *it* refer to?**

016 S3: Organization?

017 T: **But, what is *it*?**

018 S5: the book?

019 T: **Good… It's the book, right? We're talking about the book. OK. And it's referring back to something.**

020 Ss: Yes.

In order to make the students less dependent on the teacher, the teacher promotes peer-checking which is a useful technique to foster motivation and confidence in class (see line 030 in Excerpt 7). The teacher asks the feedback of the whole class in order to encourage them to decide on the answer, which also fosters autonomy (see lines 036 and 052 in Excerpt 7). Asking questions to guide students into the right answers is a technique used in this task, as well. The teacher asks questions to help students to find out the correct answers about the elliptical forms used in the lead-in task (see App.3). For instance, when the students have trouble in

finding out the correct answer, the teacher asks some questions to draw their attention to the necessary parts that can be clues for them. In line 031, the student answers the question incorrectly; however, the teacher takes her attention to the question form of the elliptical phrase and asks the student if the phrase is a yes/no question (see line 032). Also, in line 040, the teacher draws the attention of the student to the main verb by asking "come or coming" in order to help the student find out the full form of the question.

Excerpt 7

029 S2: I am not sure if it is true.

030 **T: Check your answers with your partners. OK… Let's check! Question a; "Did what?".**

031 S4: "Did you do it?"

032 **T: Is it a yes/no question?**

033 S4: No.

034 **T: Look at the answer "I studied".**

035 S7: "What did you do?"

036 **T: Do you agree?**

037 Ss: Yes.

038 T: Absolutely. How about question b?

039 S1: "When do you come?"

040 **T: Look is the word in the clause 'come' or 'coming'?**

041 S1: Coming.

042 T: So…

043 S1: When are you coming?

044 T: It can also be something else.

045 S7: "Are you coming?"

046 T: Great. The other one, question c?

047 S8: "I was absolutely terrified".

048 T: Look at the question. Is it in the past or the present?

049 S8: Present.

050 T: So…

051 S8: “I am absolutely terrified”.

052 *T:* **What do you think?**

053 Ss: Agree.

Another feature of spoken language targeted at this lesson is substitution, which is mostly used with the word “one” in the dialogues of the coursebooks. As the transcription of the lesson reveals, the students can not answer it correctly at the beginning; however, with the help of the teacher’s questions, students become more aware of the language focus (see line 060 and 062 in Excerpt 8). Also, in order to let students be aware of the use of heads/tails in the text, the teacher asks students to find out the words that can be omitted in the text. The teacher helps students to find out how and why they can omit these words (see lines 068, 074 and 076 in Excerpt 8).

Excerpt 8

058 T: OK check your answers with your partners. Now… Question a?

059 S5: cookies.

060 **T: The question is ‘one’ or ‘ones’?**

061 S5: one

062 **T: So, do you think it should be singular or plural?**

063 S5: singular… “cookie”

064 T: Yes. That’s right. Question b?

065 S8: cookies

066 T: Do you agree?

067 Ss: Yes.

068 **T: Right. Question c? Which word or words can we omit?**

069 S7: “The chocolate cookie”

070 T: We shouldn’t change the meaning or make it unclear.

071 S7: “That”?

072 T: What do you think?

073 Ss: Agree.

074 T: That’s right. We can omit it. How about question d? **Which one will you omit?**

075 S4: “it”

076 **T: Why?**

077 S4: Because it refers to "the brown one".

078 T: Absolutely. Well done everybody.

2.9.4. The Lesson Plan and Transcription of Module 4

Table 2.7. The Lesson Plan of Module 4

MODULE 4 **30 mins**

Stage Aims	Procedure	Time	Materials
To understand the nature of 'speaking'	T tries to elicit the word "message" and elicits the difference between 'direct' and 'indirect' messages.	5 mins	
To raise ss' awareness about the speaker meaning / implicatures in the dialogues	T presents short dialogues.	5 mins	
	T asks ss to answer the YES/NO questions related to the dialogues	5 mins	
To let them discuss the reasons	T asks ss to check their answers with their partners and discuss the answers.	5 mins	
	T elicits the answers and gives FB	7 mins	

The lesson plan of Module 4 reveals that the primary aim of the module is to expose students to dialogues that have implied meanings or messages, and thus the speaker meaning becomes more important than the sentence meaning. First of all, the

lesson starts with a brainstorming about the messages that speakers carry, and how people can understand those intended messages in conversations (see Excerpt 9). Then, the lead-in task is given to the students in which they try to guess the intended meanings and answer the questions (see App.3).

Excerpt 9

001 T: Why do we speak?

002 S1: To communicate.

003 T: That's right. When we communicate what do we deliver to each other?

004 S2: Messages.

005 T: Great. Do we always tell our messages directly?

006 Ss: No.

007 T: How do we tell them?

008 S3: Indirectly.

009 T: Exactly. How do we understand the indirect messages?

010 S4: We guess.

011 T: Right. We try to guess or infer the speaker meaning from the dialogue. Now look at the short dialogues and try to answer the Yes/No questions below. You have 5 mins.

The excerpt related to the transcription of Module 4 reveals how the teacher helps the students to find out the intended messages in the dialogues and how the students grasp the intended meanings in them. After students complete the questions, in the feedback process, the teacher asks students how they understand the intended meaning in order to let other students grasp the meaning such as in lines 019 and 025. Students who answered the questions explain the reasons of their answers and the teacher asks the rest of the class for confirmation (see lines 020, 021, 026 and 029). If the other students do not agree with the answer, they also need to explain it (see lines 033, 034, 035 and 036). It might be stated that the teacher is the authority of the class,

however, in order to make the awareness-raising process effective; students need to be ready and prepared to be active in the process.

Excerpt 10

017 T: All right. Question 1, did the first speaker get the eggs?

018 S3: No he didn't.

019 T: How do you understand?

020 S3: Because if he had got them, he would'say"Yes I did".

021 T: Do you agree?

022 Ss: Yes.

023 T: OK. What about Question 2, did the second speaker fix the leak?

024 S5: No he didn't.

025 T: How do you understand?

026 S5: Because he said "I tried to". He means I tried to but I couldn't.

027 T: Well done. What about Question 3, did the second speaker invite Chris?

028 S6: Yes he did. He didn't invite Mat but he invited Chris.

029 T: Do you all agree?

030 Ss: Yes.

031 T: That's right. And the last question, did the dog belong to the second speaker?

032 S7: Yes it did.

033 T: Do you agree?

034 Ss: No!

035 T: Why not?

036 S5: Because it says "a dog got into the garden", not "my dog"!

The techniques and materials used in the lessons of the present study have attempted to raise students' awareness of certain features of spoken language. The tasks presented to the learners, the lead-in tasks, attempted to allow learners to generate their own discoveries and explanations. Guided-discovery questions have been used in the lesson parts of the study in order to make the awareness-raising process as effective as possible.

CHAPTER 3

FINDINGS

This chapter deals with analysis of the data coming from the experimental and control groups in order to investigate the effectiveness of the lead-in tasks to raise students' awareness in grasping meaning through the analysis of cohesive devices and discourse markers used in the dialogues of the coursebooks selected.

In this chapter, the findings with tables and graphs gathered in the pre-test of the study, the statistical outcomes of the post-tests of the present study in relation with the research questions, and also the findings gathered from the student questionnaire will be revealed.

3.1. Findings for the Pre-Tests of Control and Experimental Groups

3.1.1. Pre-test Scores of Module 1

In the pre-test of Module 1, students were asked to write down the words, phrases, certain language features used in the dialogues selected from their coursebook that are not common in written/formal language but common in spoken/informal language (see App.1). It was an open-ended question testing technique. The certain features they were expected to answer were under the headings of discourse markers and cohesive devices. The discourse markers they could notice from the dialogue were *oh, well, I mean, actually, you know* and *right*. The cohesive devices they could notice and give examples were *ellipsis* ("What now? in line 10, "no

need" in line 12, "Doesn't he?" in line 32, "It does?" in line 35) , *question tags* ("can you?" in line 41), *repeats* ("That one" in lines 18, 26, 30, "which one?" in lines 19,27, "The one…"in lines 20,28), *substitution* ("one" in lines 18,19,20,23,26,27,28), *heads; tails* ("At them, the men" in line 8). While collecting the answers, the students were not expected to write the metalanguage of the language features, but notice the features and write the examples related to the topics.

Statistics for the items of Module 1 are given below in Table 3.1. In pre-test stage, none of students from the control group were able to write down the four language features used in the given dialogue (actually, right, question tags and the heads/tails). Similarly, none of the students from the experimental group were able to write down the three language features used in the given dialogue (right, substitution and the head tails). Since for each correct language feature written down by the students was given one point; it is clear in Table 3.1 that the arithmetic mean ($\overline{X}$) score of the students in both groups had low scores ranging between (0,00 to 0.24).

Table 3.1. Difference between pre-test scores of the control and experimental groups for the items of Module 1

Variable	Group	*N*	$\overline{X}$	*SD*	t-test		
					t	*df*	*p*
Oh	Control Group	25	0,16	0,37	0,00	48	1,000
	Experimental Group	25	0,16	0,37			
Well	Control Group	25	0,12	0,33	-0,40	48	0,691
	Experimental Group	25	0,16	0,37			
I mean	Control Group	25	0,08	0,28	0,00	48	1,000
	Experimental Group	25	0,08	0,28			
Actually	Control Group	25	0,00	0,00	-1,00	48	0,322
	Experimental Group	25	0,04	0,20			
You know	Control Group	25	0,16	0,37	-0,70	48	0,490
	Experimental Group	25	0,24	0,44			
Right	Control Group	25	0,00	,000**	-	-	-
	Experimental Group	25	0,00	,000**			
Ellipsis	Control Group	25	0,12	0,33	0,46	48	0,646
	Experimental Group	25	0,08	0,28			
Question Tags	Control Group	25	0,00	0,00	-1,00	48	0,322
	Experimental Group	25	0,04	0,20			
Repeats	Control Group	25	0,12	0,33	-0,40	48	0,691
	Experimental Group	25	0,16	0,37			
Substitution	Control Group	25	0,04	0,20	1,00	48	0,322
	Experimental Group	25	0,00	0,00			

Heads Tails	Control Group	25	0,00	,000**	-	-	-
	Experimental Group	25	0,00	,000**			

**Difference is significant at p<.05 level.*
***T cannot be computed because the standard deviations of both groups are 0.*

When two groups' scores are compared item by item for Module 1 using t-test technique, it is found that there were no significant differences between the groups (*p>.05*). Students' previous and background knowledge about the certain language features used in the dialogue found to be not statistically different. Modular based comparison of the scores of the groups is given below (Table 3.2.).

Table 3.2. Difference between pre-test scores of the control and experimental groups (Module 1)

Variable		*N*	$\overline{X}$	*SD*	t-test		
					t	*df*	*p*
Module 1	Control Group	25	7.27	10.16	0.47	48	0.639
	Experimental Group	25	8.73	11.58			

**Difference is significant at p<.05 level.*

The students, both in control and experimental groups, replied questions given in Module 1 and their mean scores of the correct answers compared with an independent samples t-test. As can be seen from the Table 3.1., there is not statistically significant difference between the groups (*p>.05*), which means that both groups' awareness of certain features of spoken language (asked in Module 1) were statistically not different in the pre-test ($\overline{X}_{Control\ G.} = 7.27$ and $\overline{X}_{Experimental\ G.} = 8.73$). Therefore, it could safely be assumed that students of both groups had similar knowledge of the targeted spoken language prior to the implementation of the lead-in tasks to the experimental group.

3.1.2. Pre-test Scores of Module 2

In Module 2, there were various question types of activities, such as multiple choice, open-ended, matching, ordering and Yes/No. In the total, there were 21 items/questions to be answered in accordance with the dialogues (see App.1). The aim

of Module 2 was to measure students' knowledge of meanings and/or functions of certain discourse markers in the dialogues selected. Thus, the independent samples t-test conducted for the items is given below (Table 3.3.).

Table 3.3. Difference between pre-test scores of the control and experimental groups for the items of Module 2

Variable (Q= Question)	Group	*N*	$\overline{X}$	*SD*	t-test		
					t	*df*	*p*
Q1: Well 1	Control Group	25	0,12	0,33	-1,10	48	0,279
	Experimental Group	25	0,24	0,44			
Q2: Well 2	Control Group	25	0,32	0,48	-0,29	48	0,771
	Experimental Group	25	0,36	0,49			
Q3: Well 3	Control Group	25	0,08	0,28	-1,55	48	0,128
	Experimental Group	25	0,24	0,44			
Q4a: Well function 3	Control Group	25	0,16	0,37	-0,36	48	0,720
	Experimental Group	25	0,20	0,41			
Q4b: Well function 2	Control Group	25	0,36	0,49	0,60	48	0,554
	Experimental Group	25	0,28	0,46			
Q4c: Well function 1	Control Group	25	0,08	0,28	-0,86	48	0,394
	Experimental Group	25	0,16	0,37			
Q5: Oh 1	Control Group	25	0,64	0,49	0,85	48	0,400
	Experimental Group	25	0,52	0,51			
Q6: Oh 2	Control Group	25	0,20	0,41	-0,34	48	0,739
	Experimental Group	25	0,24	0,44			
Q7: Oh 3	Control Group	25	0,56	0,51	-0,28	48	0,780
	Experimental Group	25	0,60	0,50			
Q8: Oh usage	Control Group	25	0,28	0,46	-0,30	48	0,763
	Experimental Group	25	0,32	0,48			
Q9: I mean	Control Group	25	0,20	0,41	0,76	48	0,451
	Experimental Group	25	0,12	0,33			
Q10: Actually	Control Group	25	0,20	0,41	-0,65	48	0,518
	Experimental Group	25	0,28	0,46			
Q11: You know	Control Group	25	0,20	0,41	0,76	48	0,451
	Experimental Group	25	0,12	0,33			
Q12a: Dialogue a.	Control Group	25	0,60	0,50	-0,29	48	0,776
	Experimental Group	25	0,64	0,49			
Q12b: Dialogue b.	Control Group	25	0,68	0,48	-0,30	48	0,763
	Experimental Group	25	0,72	0,46			
Q12c: Dialogue c.	Control Group	25	0,16	0,37	0,40	48	0,691
	Experimental Group	25	0,12	0,33			
Q12d: Dialogue d.	Control Group	25	0,16	0,37	0,40	48	0,691
	Experimental Group	25	0,12	0,33			
Q12.2a: Thanks a.	Control Group	25	0,48	0,51	-1,13	48	0,264
	Experimental Group	25	0,64	0,49			
Q12.2b: Thanks b.	Control Group	25	0,28	0,46	-0,30	48	0,763
	Experimental Group	25	0,32	0,48			
Q12.2c:Thanks ex	Control Group	25	0,68	0,48	0,00	48	1,000
	Experimental Group	25	0,68	0,48			
Q12.2d: Thanks. ex. function	Control Group	25	0,20	0,41	0,36	48	0,720
	Experimental Group	25	0,16	0,37			

**Difference is significant at p<.05 level.*

Students' mean scores compared item by item show that there were no significant differences between the students' prior knowledge about the items ($p>.05$). As it is seen in Table 3.3 students had had a similar level of knowledge about the words and phrases asked in Module 2. Beside the item by item comparison, students' total score of Module 2 was also compared and the result is given below (Table 3.4.).

Table 3.4. Difference between pre-test scores of the control and experimental groups (Module 2)

Variable		*N*	$\overline{X}$	*SD*	t-test		
					t	*df*	*p*
Module 2	Control Group	25	31.62	21.55	0.34	48	0.739
	Experimental Group	25	33.71	22.71			

**Difference is significant at p<.05 level.*

It is found that there is no significant difference between the mean scores of the control and experimental groups for the pre-test of Module 2 ($p>.05$). Both groups' knowledge about the selected discourse markers was statistically not different in the pre-test ($\overline{X}_{Control\ G.} = 31.62$ and $\overline{X}_{Experimental\ G.} = 33.71$). As mean scores of the groups indicate, both groups scored very similarly. Therefore, it could safely be assumed that students of both groups had similar knowledge of the targeted spoken language asked in Module 2 prior to the implementation of the lead-in tasks to the experimental group.

3.1.3. Pre-test Scores of Module 3

In Module 3, there were 22 items/questions, which overall aimed to measure whether students were able to comprehend the meanings and/or functions of certain cohesive devices in the dialogue activities (see App.1). The question types in Module 3 were rewrite, multiple choice, ordering, open-ended and matching. To give a better

picture, students' mean and total scores for the items of the Module 3 (22 items) are given in Table 3.5 below.

Table 3.5. Difference between pre-test scores of the control and experimental groups for the items of Module 3

Variable (Q= Question)	Group	*N*	$\overline{X}$	*SD*	t-test		
					t	*df*	*p*
Q1a: Ellipsis a.	Control Group	25	0,20	0,41	0,00	48	1,000
	Experimental Group	25	0,20	0,41			
Q1b: Ellipsis b.	Control Group	25	0,68	0,48	-0,62	48	0,538
	Experimental Group	25	0,76	0,44			
Q1c: Ellipsis c.	Control Group	25	0,48	0,51	0,56	48	0,578
	Experimental Group	25	0,40	0,50			
Q1d: Ellipsis d.	Control Group	25	0,08	0,28	-0,46	48	0,646
	Experimental Group	25	0,12	0,33			
Q1.2: Ellipsis e.	Control Group	25	0,60	0,50	0,28	48	0,780
	Experimental Group	25	0,56	0,51			
Q2a: Tail	Control Group	25	0,16	0,37	0,00	48	1,000
	Experimental Group	25	0,16	0,37			
Q2b: Head	Control Group	25	0,24	0,44	-0,62	48	0,538
	Experimental Group	25	0,32	0,48			
Q3.1b: Dialogue b.	Control Group	25	0,16	0,37	-0,70	48	0,490
	Experimental Group	25	0,24	0,44			
Q3.1c: Dialogue c.	Control Group	25	0,16	0,37	-0,70	48	0,490
	Experimental Group	25	0,24	0,44			
Q3.1d: Dialogue d.	Control Group	25	0,40	0,50	0,00	48	1,000
	Experimental Group	25	0,40	0,50			
Q3.1e: Dialogue e.	Control Group	25	0,76	0,44	1,21	48	0,234
	Experimental Group	25	0,60	0,50			
Q3.1f: Dialogue f.	Control Group	25	0,68	0,48	0,86	48	0,392
	Experimental Group	25	0,56	0,51			
Q3.1g: Dialogue g.	Control Group	25	0,16	0,37	-0,70	48	0,490
	Experimental Group	25	0,24	0,44			
Q3.1h: Dialogue h.	Control Group	25	0,16	0,37	-0,70	48	0,490
	Experimental Group	25	0,24	0,44			
Q3.2a: it/that refer a.	Control Group	25	0,12	0,33	0,46	48	0,646
	Experimental Group	25	0,08	0,28			
Q3.2b: it/that refer b.	Control Group	25	0,08	0,28	0,59	48	0,561
	Experimental Group	25	0,04	0,20			
Q3.3a: that	Control Group	25	0,16	0,37	-0,70	48	0,490
	Experimental Group	25	0,24	0,44			
Q3.3b: it	Control Group	25	0,16	0,37	-0,70	48	0,490
	Experimental Group	25	0,24	0,44			
Q3.3c: this	Control Group	25	0,28	0,46	-0,89	48	0,381
	Experimental Group	25	0,40	0,50			
Q4a: Dialogue 2a	Control Group	25	0,52	0,51	-0,85	48	0,400
	Experimental Group	25	0,64	0,49			
Q4b: Dialogue 2b	Control Group	25	0,32	0,48	-0,86	48	0,392
	Experimental Group	25	0,44	0,51			
Q4c: Dialogue 2c	Control Group	25	0,28	0,46	-1,17	48	0,247
	Experimental Group	25	0,44	0,51			

**Difference is significant at p<.05 level.*

It is seen from the table that the highest score of the students from the control group is 0.76 (Q3.1e: Dialogue e. $_{Control\ G.}$ *=0.76*) and the lowest one is 0.08 (Q3.2b: it/that refer b. $_{Control\ G.}$ =0.08). The highest score of the students from the experimental group is 0.76 (Q1b: Ellipsis b. $_{Experimental\ G.}$ *=0.76*) and the lowest one is 0.04 (Q3.2b: it/that refer b. $_{Experimental\ G.}$ =0.04). The results of the dialogue in question 3 of the test reveal that students were able to find the connection between "How was the film?" and "It was a disaster.", however they were not able to connect the rest of the dialogue correctly. Also, they could rewrite the elliptical expression "Fine" into "I'm fine" in question 1b, but they could not identify the reasons for using *it* and *that* for the same reference from different speakers in question 3.2b.

As it can be seen from Table 3.6., which reveals the comparison of the groups as a whole, there were no significant differences between the groups' answers for the questions asked in Module 3 in pre-test stage (*p>.05*).

Table 3.6. Difference between pre-test scores of the control and experimental Groups (Module 3)

Variable		*N*	$\overline{X}$	*SD*	t-test		
					t	*df*	*p*
Module 3	Control Group	25	31.09	28.80	0.39	48	0.697
	Experimental Group	25	34.36	30.21			

**Difference is significant at p<.05 level.*

Calculated mean scores of the groups for the Module 3 were very close ($\overline{X}_{Control\ G.}$ *=31.09* and $\overline{X}_{Experimental\ G.}$ *=34.36*). Since the groups' scores on Module 3 were not significantly different, their prior knowledge of the meanings and/or functions of the cohesive devices asked in Module 3 could be assumed similar.

3.1.4. Pre-test Scores of Module 4

In Module 4, students were asked 4 questions related to a dialogue (see App.1). The aim of the module was to measure whether students could infer speaker meaning in the dialogue selected. The questions were multiple choice. In the first question, they were asked to identify the topic, in the second and third ones, students tried to understand the conditions of the speakers and the last question was related to grasping the implied meaning in the conversation.

The statistics in Table 3.7. below shows that while students' total scores for question 1 were high and of question 2 moderate, their scores were low for questions 3 and 4. Especially the last question which is related to grasping the hidden meaning was very low.

Table 3.7. Difference between pre-test scores of the control and experimental groups for the items of Module 4

Variable (Q= Question)	Group	*N*	$\overline{X}$	*SD*	t-test		
					t	*df*	*p*
Implicatures a.	Control Group	25	0,72	0,46	0,30	48	0,763
	Experimental Group	25	0,68	0,48			
Implicatures b.	Control Group	25	0,48	0,51	0,28	48	0,782
	Experimental Group	25	0,44	0,51			
Implicatures c.	Control Group	25	0,24	0,44	-0,92	48	0,365
	Experimental Group	25	0,36	0,49			
Implicatures d.	Control Group	25	0,24	0,44	0,00	48	1,000
	Experimental Group	25	0,24	0,44			

**Difference is significant at p<.05 level.*

The four items of Module 4 were found to be answered similarly by the students of the two groups (see Table 3.7). There were no significant differences between the two groups scores on Module 4 ($p>.05$). As a whole for Module 4, it was found that there was no significant difference between the mean scores of the control and experimental groups ($p>.05$). Calculated mean scores of the groups for the

Module 4 were very close ($\overline{X}_{Control\ G.} = 42.00$ and $\overline{X}_{Experimental\ G.} = 43.00$) as it can be seen in Table 3.8 below. Since the groups' scores on Module 4 were not significantly different, their prior knowledge of the hidden meanings asked in Module 4 could be assumed similar.

Table 3.8. Difference between pre-test scores of the control and experimental Groups (Module 4)

Variable		*N*	$\overline{X}$	*SD*	t-test		
					t	*df*	*p*
Module 4	Control Group	25	42.00	37.31	0.09	48	0.926
	Experimental Group	25	43.00	38.54			

**Difference is significant at p<.05 level.*

Overall scores of the pre-tests of control and experimental groups indicate that both groups had scored similarly. There was no significant differences between the two groups' mean scores on complete pre-test ($p>.05$). Thus it could be assumed that both groups' prior knowledge on targeted features of spoken language were similar ($\overline{X}_{Control\ G.} = 27.52$ and $\overline{X}_{Experimental\ G.} = 29.86$) as it is seen in Table 3.9. below.

Table 3.9. Difference between total pre-test scores of the control and experimental Groups

Variable		*N*	$\overline{X}$	*SD*	t-test		
					t	*df*	*p*
General	Control Group	25	27.52	17.53	0.43	48	0.667
	Experimental Group	25	29.86	20.65			

**Difference is significant at p<.05 level.*

3.2. Findings for the Post-Tests of Control and Experimental Groups

After implementing the lead-in tasks to the experimental group, a post-test was applied to both groups. The control and experimental groups' mean test scores were compared to see whether there were statistically significant differences between the

answers of the groups or not. The scores were compared first item by item, then as a whole module. The findings of the post-test will be explained in relation to the research questions.

3.2.1. Findings for Research Question 1

Research Question 1: Can learners identify the differences between certain features of spoken language and written language in the dialogue activities of the selected coursebooks after they are presented the lead-in tasks?

The treatment which was conducted to the experimental group by attempting to raise students' awareness through the lead-in tasks had a very positive effect on students in the experimental group for Module 1 according to Table 10 below. The post-test for Module 1 was very similar to the pre-test of Module 1 (see App.2). It is seen that students from the experimental group were able to answer far more questions correctly than the students from the control group, as their total scores in the 'SUM' column present. The results are given below to compare whether or not the scores indicate significant differences.

Table 3.10. Difference between post-test scores of the control and experimental groups for the items of Module 1

						t-test		
Variable	**Group**	***N***	$\overline{X}$	***SUM***	***SD***	***t***	***df***	***p***
Oh	Control Group	25	0,32	8,00	0,48	4,83	48	0,000**
	Experimental Group	25	0,88	22,00	0,33			
Well	Control Group	25	0,24	6,00	0,44	4,69	48	0,000**
	Experimental Group	25	0,8	20,00	0,41			
I mean	Control Group	25	0,2	5,00	0,41	4,69	48	0,000**
	Experimental Group	25	0,76	19,00	0,44			
Actually	Control Group	25	0,2	5,00	0,41	3,45	48	0,001*
	Experimental Group	25	0,64	16,00	0,49			
You know	Control Group	25	0,4	10,00	0,5	3,52	48	0,001*
	Experimental Group	25	0,84	21,00	0,37			
Right	Control Group	25	0,12	3,00	0,33	2,64	48	0,011*
	Experimental Group	25	0,44	11,00	0,51			

Ellipsis	Control Group	25	0,12	3,00	0,33	7,2	48	0,000**
	Experimental Group	25	0,84	21,00	0,37			
Question Tags	Control Group	25	0,16	4,00	0,37	4,73	48	0,000**
	Experimental Group	25	0,72	18,00	0,46			
Repeats	Control Group	25	0,28	7,00	0,46	1,75	48	0,086
	Experimental Group	25	0,52	13,00	0,51			
Substitution	Control Group	25	0,12	3,00	0,33	3,63	48	0,001*
	Experimental Group	25	0,56	14,00	0,51			
Heads Tails	Control Group	25	0,12	3,00	0,33	4,4	48	0,000**
	Experimental Group	25	0,64	16,00	0,49			

**Difference is significant at p<.05 level.*

***Difference is significant at p<.001 level*

When the mean scores of the two groups compared on item base, it was found that the scores were significantly different for 10 items out of 11. The lead-in task given to the experimental group led to a higher score than the control group (see App.3). After the implementation of the lead-in task for Module 1, students were able to identify certain features of spoken language in the dialogue selected. The only item which was related to "repeats" needs to be reconsidered for the treatment since the difference between the groups is not in the level of significance for that item, and both groups were not able to write the sentences in the dialogue related to that feature down.

The Table 3.11 and Figure 3.1. show that post-test scores of the students in the experimental group were significantly different from post-test scores of the students in the control group on Module 1 as a whole (*t=6.09 and p<.001*). Inspection of the two groups' means indicate that the average post-test score of the Module 1 for the students in experimental group was significantly higher than the scores of the students in the control group ($\overline{X}_{Control\ G.} = 20.73$ and $\overline{X}_{Experimental\ G.} = 69.46$). The difference between the mean scores is 48.73 points on a 100 point scale test. Since there was no significant difference between the mean scores of the groups in pre-test for Module 1,

the post-test scores' significant difference display that the lead-in tasks given to the experimental group caused to raise learners' level of awareness of certain features of spoken language asked in Module 1.

Table 3.11. Difference between post-test scores of the control and experimental Groups (Module 1)

Variable		*N*	$\overline{X}$	*SD*	t-test		
					t	*df*	*p*
Module 1	Control Group	25	20.73	30.66	6.09	48	0.000**
	Experimental Group	25	69.46	25.70			

***Difference is significant at p<.001 level.*

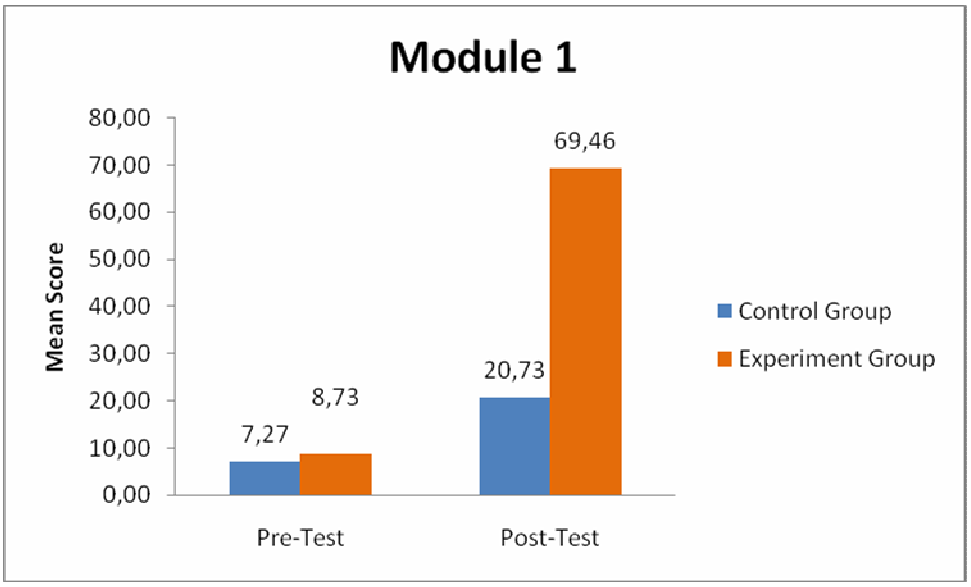

Figure 3. 2. Mean Scores of the Groups (Module 1)

3.2.2. Findings for Research Question 2

Research Question 2: Can learners comprehend the meanings and/or functions of certain discourse markers in the dialogue activities after they are presented the lead-in tasks?

In Module 2, similar to the pre-test, students were asked to identify the meanings and/or functions of certain discourse markers in the dialogues selected from the coursebooks (see App.2). The highest score for an item can be 25 (1 point for a correct answer per student) and it can be easily seen in the 'SUM' section of Table 3.12. It is obvious in the table that the students from the experimental group scored much better for the items of Module 2 as compared to the control group.

Table 3.12. Difference between post-test scores of the control and experimental groups for the items of Module 2

Variable						t-test		
(Q= Question)	Group	*N*	$\overline{X}$	*SUM*	*SD*	*t*	*df*	*p*
Q1: Well 1	Control Group	25	0,40	10,00	0,5	3,1	48	0,003*
	Experimental Group	25	0,80	20,00	0,41			
Q2: Well 2	Control Group	25	0,80	20,00	0,41	1,22	48	0,23
	Experimental Group	25	0,92	23,00	0,28			
Q3: Well 3	Control Group	25	0,08	2,00	0,28	7,3	48	0,000**
	Experimental Group	25	0,80	20,00	0,41			
Q4a: Well function 3	Control Group	25	0,16	4,00	0,37	6,43	48	0,000*
	Experimental Group	25	0,84	21,00	0,37			
Q4b: Well function 2	Control Group	25	0,52	13,00	0,51	3,45	48	0,001*
	Experimental Group	25	0,92	23,00	0,28			
Q4c: Well function 1	Control Group	25	0,16	4,00	0,37	6,43	48	0,000**
	Experimental Group	25	0,84	21,00	0,37			
Q5: Oh 1	Control Group	25	0,76	19,00	0,44	1,55	48	0,128
	Experimental Group	25	0,92	23,00	0,28			
Q6: Oh 2	Control Group	25	0,40	10,00	0,5	4	48	0,000**
	Experimental Group	25	0,88	22,00	0,33			
Q7: Oh 3	Control Group	25	0,32	8,00	0,48	3,83	48	0,000**
	Experimental Group	25	0,80	20,00	0,41			
Q8: Oh usage	Control Group	25	0,20	5,00	0,41	3,45	48	0,001*
	Experimental Group	25	0,64	16,00	0,49			
Q9a.1: Dialogue 1	Control Group	25	0,40	10,00	0,5	3,52	48	0,001*
	Experimental Group	25	0,84	21,00	0,37			
Q9a.2: Dialogue 2	Control Group	25	0,72	18,00	0,46	0,65	48	0,518

	Experimental Group	25	0,80	20,00	0,41			
Q9a.1: Dialogue 3	Control Group	25	0,36	9,00	0,49	3,45	48	0,001*
	Experimental Group	25	0,80	20,00	0,41			
Q9b.1: Dialogue 1	Control Group	25	0,40	10,00	0,5	3,52	48	0,001*
	Experimental Group	25	0,84	21,00	0,37			
Q9b.2: Dialogue 2	Control Group	25	0,88	22,00	0,33	0,46	48	0,646
	Experimental Group	25	0,92	23,00	0,28			
Q9b.3: Dialogue 3	Control Group	25	0,36	9,00	0,49	3,45	48	0,001*
	Experimental Group	25	0,80	20,00	0,41			
Q10a: I mean	Control Group	25	0,36	9,00	0,49	2,68	48	0,010*
	Experimental Group	25	0,72	18,00	0,46			
Q10b: I mean function	Control Group	25	0,24	6,00	0,44	4,69	48	0,000**
	Experimental Group	25	0,80	20,00	0,41			
Q11a: Actually	Control Group	25	0,24	6,00	0,44	5,22	48	0,000**
	Experimental Group	25	0,84	21,00	0,37			
Q11b: Actually	Control Group	25	0,12	3,00	0,33	2,64	48	0,011*
	Experimental Group	25	0,44	11,00	0,51			
Q12: You know	Control Group	25	0,40	10,00	0,5	3,52	48	0,001*
	Experimental Group	25	0,84	21,00	0,37			
Q13.1a: Dialogue a.	Control Group	25	0,88	22,00	0,33	0,46	48	0,646
	Experimental Group	25	0,92	23,00	0,28			
Q13.1b: Dialogue b.	Control Group	25	0,80	20,00	0,41	1,22	48	0,23
	Experimental Group	25	0,92	23,00	0,28			
Q13.1c: Dialogue c.	Control Group	25	0,40	10,00	0,5	3,52	48	0,001*
	Experimental Group	25	0,84	21,00	0,37			
Q13.1d: Dialogue d.	Control Group	25	0,36	9,00	0,49	3,45	48	0,001*
	Experimental Group	25	0,80	20,00	0,41			
Q13.1e: Dialogue e.	Control Group	25	0,36	9,00	0,49	2,68	48	0,010*
	Experimental Group	25	0,72	18,00	0,46			
Q13.1f: Dialogue f.	Control Group	25	0,24	6,00	0,44	4,69	48	0,000**
	Experimental Group	25	0,80	20,00	0,41			
Q13.2a: Thanks a	Control Group	25	0,80	20,00	0,41	0,36	48	0,72
	Experimental Group	25	0,84	21,00	0,37			
Q13.2b: Thanks b.	Control Group	25	0,76	19,00	0,44	2,09	48	0,042*
	Experimental Group	25	0,96	24,00	0,2			
Q13.2c: Thanks ex	Control Group	25	0,72	18,00	0,46	0,65	48	0,518
	Experimental Group	25	0,80	20,00	0,41			
Q13.2d: Thanks. ex.	Control Group	25	0,48	12,00	0,51	2,45	48	0,018*
	Experimental Group	25	0,80	20,00	0,41			

**Difference is significant at p<.05 level.*

***Difference is significant at p<.001 level.*

Students from the experimental group significantly scored higher than the students from the control group for 23 items out of 31 asked in Module 2. For only 8 items, students from both groups scored similarly.

The results for Module 2 present remarkable findings for learners' knowledge about discourse markers. Students in both groups were able to identify "well" used as a filler, as it is seen in 'Q2' (question 2) in Table 3.12 with 20 and 23 correct answers. However, students in the control group could not relate "well" to its function of "changing the topic" and "responding unexpectedly" as the results are presented in Q1, Q3, Q4a and Q4b. In these questions, the significance level is rather high.

In the case of "oh", students in both groups could use the marker with the follow-up word "congratulations" which has a positive connotation (see Q5 in Table 3.12.); however, the control group could not differentiate the follow-up words "no!" and "poor you", which have negative connotation as the statistics reveal in Q6 and Q7. The similar results are also valid for the dialogue section, in which the control group was able to answer the item Q9a.2 since the answer is related to a positive connotation with the use of "congratulations". In these items, the scores are relatively similar and there is no significant difference, whereas in negative connotation of "oh", there is significant difference between the results (see Q9a.1, Q9a.3, Q9b.1, and Q9b.3).

In the questions related to the discourse markers "I mean", "actually" and "you know", students in the control group have rather lower scores that the students in the experimental group as Table 3.12 displays. It seems that students in the control group had difficulty in differentiating "I mean" and "I see", and most of them did not know the functions of these markers as Q10b, Q11b and Q12 present whereas, in the experimental group they appear to have mastered the meanings and/or functions as it should be. Control group also have statistically lower grades in the dialogue part of question 13. In Q13, most of the students in the control group were able to answer Q13.1a and Q13.1b since these questions are the first adjacency pairs of the dialogue

and the discourse marker “Thanks.” was used in a usual/positive way in the utterance. On the other hand, most of the students in the control group were not able to answer the item Q13.1c of the dialogue as they could not grasp the meaning of “Thanks!” in the way it is used with an exclamation mark and with a negative connotation. Therefore, their scores were much lower than those of the students in the experimental group. When more detailed questions were asked to the students in the second part of the question, students in both groups could understand that there was a striking difference in meaning between Vicky’s “Thanks.” and Jane’s “Thanks!” (see Q13.2a) and the exclamation mark helped the change in meaning (see Q13.2c). Nevertheless, students in the control group could not specify which one implied something else (see Q13.2b) and how the exclamation mark changed the meaning (see Q13.2d).

The Table 3.13 and Figure 3.2. below show that post-test scores of the students in the experimental group were significantly different from post-test scores of the students in the control group on Module 2 as a whole (*t=6.45 and p<.001*). Inspection of the two groups’ means indicate that the average post-test score of the Module 2 for the students in experimental group is significantly higher than the scores of the students in the control group ($\overline{X}_{Control\ G.} = 44.00$ and $\overline{X}_{Experimental\ G.} = 83.48$). The difference between the mean scores is 39.48 points on a 100 point scale test. Since there was no significant difference between the mean scores of the groups in pre-test for Module 2, the significant difference in the post-test scores indicate that the lead-in tasks given to the experimental group caused to raise learners’ awareness of certain discourse markers in Module 2.

Table 3.13. Difference between post-test scores of the control and experimental Groups (Module 2)

Variable		*N*	$\overline{X}$	*SD*	t-test		
					t	*df*	*p*
Module 2	Control Group	25	44.00	23.46	6.45	48	0.000**
	Experimental Group	25	83.48	19.63			

***Difference is significant at p<.001 level.*

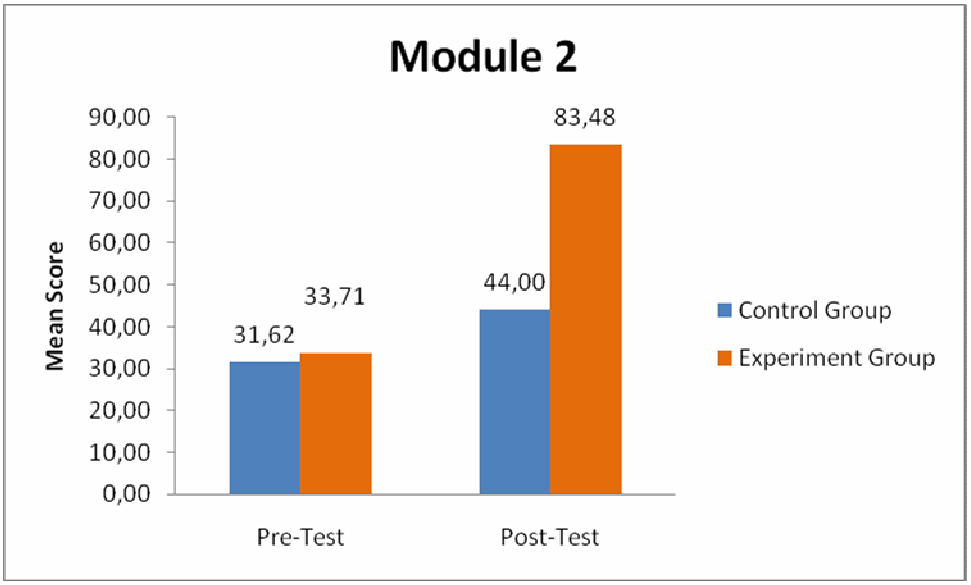

Figure 3.2. Mean Scores of the groups (Module 2)

3.2.3. Findings for Research Question 3

Research Question 3: Can learners comprehend the meanings and/or functions of certain cohesive devices in the dialogue activities after they are presented the lead-in tasks?

In Module 3, students were asked to identify the meanings and/or functions of cohesive devices in the dialogues selected from the coursebooks (see App.2). It was found that the students from the experimental group scored significantly higher for 35 (out of 49) items of the Module 3 than the students of control group. For 14 items in this section, both groups had similar results.

Table 3.14. Difference between post-test scores of the control and experimental groups for the items of Module 3

Variable			$\overline{X}$			t-test		
(Q= Question)	**Group**	***N***		***SUM***	***SD***	***t***	***df***	***p***
Q1a: Ellipsis a.	Control Group	25	0,28	7	0,46	4,24	48	0,000**
	Experimental Group	25	0,8	20	0,41			
Q1b: Ellipsis b.	Control Group	25	0,68	17	0,48	1,72	48	0,091
	Experimental Group	25	0,88	22	0,33			
Q1c: Ellipsis c.	Control Group	25	0,48	12	0,51	2,85	48	0,006*
	Experimental Group	25	0,84	21	0,37			
Q1d: Ellipsis d.	Control Group	25	0,2	5	0,41	4,24	48	0,000*
	Experimental Group	25	0,72	18	0,46			
Q1.2: Ellipsis e.	Control Group	25	0,76	19	0,44	1,1	48	0,279
	Experimental Group	25	0,88	22	0,33			
Q2a: Tail	Control Group	25	0,6	15	0,5	2,33	48	0,024*
	Experimental Group	25	0,88	22	0,33			
Q2b: Head	Control Group	25	0,68	17	0,48	2,18	48	0,034*
	Experimental Group	25	0,92	23	0,28			
Q3.1a: Dialogue a	Control Group	25	0,4	10	0,5	2,36	48	0,022*
	Experimental Group	25	0,72	18	0,46			
Q3.1c: Dialogue c.	Control Group	25	0,4	10	0,5	1,71	48	0,093
	Experimental Group	25	0,64	16	0,49			
Q3.1d: Dialogue d.	Control Group	25	0,32	8	0,48	2,03	48	0,048*
	Experimental Group	25	0,6	15	0,5			
Q3.1e: Dialogue e.	Control Group	25	0,2	5	0,41	3,1	48	0,003*
	Experimental Group	25	0,6	15	0,5			
Q3.1f: Dialogue f.	Control Group	25	0,2	5	0,41	4,24	48	0,000**
	Experimental Group	25	0,72	18	0,46			
Q3.1g: Dialogue g.	Control Group	25	0,2	5	0,41	4,24	48	0,000**
	Experimental Group	25	0,72	18	0,46			
Q3.1h: Dialogue h.	Control Group	25	0,16	4	0,37	4,73	48	0,000**
	Experimental Group	25	0,72	18	0,46			
Q3.1i: Dialogue i	Control Group	25	0,2	5	0,41	4,24	48	0,000**
	Experimental Group	25	0,72	18	0,46			
Q3.1j: Dialogue j	Control Group	25	0,16	4	0,37	4,73	48	0,000**
	Experimental Group	25	0,72	18	0,46			
Q3.2a: it/that refer a.	Control Group	25	0,32	8	0,48	3,03	48	0,004*
	Experimental Group	25	0,72	18	0,46			
Q3.2b: it/that refer b.	Control Group	25	0,6	15	0,5	2,33	48	0,024*
	Experimental Group	25	0,88	22	0,33			

Q3.3a: that	Control Group	25	0,28	7	0,46	2,68	48	0,010*
	Experimental Group	25	0,64	16	0,49			
Q3.3b: it	Control Group	25	0,24	6	0,44	2,71	48	0,009*
	Experimental Group	25	0,6	15	0,5			
Q3.3c: this	Control Group	25	0,36	9	0,49	2,68	48	0,010*
	Experimental Group	25	0,72	18	0,46			
Q4.1a: Dialogue a	Control Group	25	0,72	18	0,46	0,65	48	0,518
	Experimental Group	25	0,8	20	0,41			
Q4.1b: Dialogue b	Control Group	25	0,32	8	0,48	3,03	48	0,004*
	Experimental Group	25	0,72	18	0,46			
Q4.1c: Dialogue c	Control Group	25	0,88	22	0,33	0,46	48	0,646
	Experimental Group	25	0,92	23	0,28			
Q4.1d: Dialogue d	Control Group	25	0,76	19	0,44	1,55	48	0,128
	Experimental Group	25	0,92	23	0,28			
Q4.1e: Dialogue e	Control Group	25	0,36	9	0,49	2,68	48	0,010*
	Experimental Group	25	0,72	18	0,46			
Q4.1f: Dialogue f	Control Group	25	0,68	17	0,48	2,18	48	0,034*
	Experimental Group	25	0,92	23	0,28			
Q4.1g: Dialogue g	Control Group	25	0,4	10	0,5	2,36	48	0,022*
	Experimental Group	25	0,72	18	0,46			
Q4.1h: Dialogue h	Control Group	25	0,48	12	0,51	2,85	48	0,006*
	Experimental Group	25	0,84	21	0,37			
Q4.2a: it/that	Control Group	25	0,2	5	0,41	3,45	48	0,001*
	Experimental Group	25	0,64	16	0,49			
Q4.2b: it/that refer	Control Group	25	0,12	3	0,33	3,63	48	0,001*
	Experimental Group	25	0,56	14	0,51			
Q4.2c: head/tail	Control Group	25	0,2	5	0,41	3,45	48	0,001*
	Experimental Group	25	0,64	16	0,49			
Q4.2d: ellipsis	Control Group	25	0,12	3	0,33	3,63	48	0,001*
	Experimental Group	25	0,56	14	0,51			
Q4.2e: substitution	Control Group	25	0,72	18	0,46	0,65	48	0,518
	Experimental Group	25	0,8	20	0,41			
Q5a: Dialogue a	Control Group	25	0,72	18	0,46	0,65	48	0,518
	Experimental Group	25	0,8	20	0,41			
Q5b: Dialogue b	Control Group	25	0,88	22	0,33	0,46	48	0,646
	Experimental Group	25	0,92	23	0,28			
Q5c: Dialogue c	Control Group	25	0,48	12	0,51	2,85	48	0,006*
	Experimental Group	25	0,84	21	0,37			
Q5d: Dialogue d	Control Group	25	0,76	19	0,44	1,55	48	0,128
	Experimental Group	25	0,92	23	0,28			
Q5e: Dialogue e	Control Group	25	0,68	17	0,48	1,72	48	0,091

	Experimental Group	25	0,88	22	0,33			
Q5f: Dialogue f	Control Group	25	0,12	3	0,33	3,63	48	0,001*
	Experimental Group	25	0,56	14	0,51			
Q5g: Dialogue g	Control Group	25	0,48	12	0,51	2,85	48	0,006*
	Experimental Group	25	0,84	21	0,37			
Q5h: Dialogue h	Control Group	25	0,4	10	0,5	3,52	48	0,001*
	Experimental Group	25	0,84	21	0,37			
Q5i: Dialogue i	Control Group	25	0,12	3	0,33	3,63	48	0,001*
	Experimental Group	25	0,56	14	0,51			
Q5j: Dialogue j	Control Group	25	0,2	5	0,41	3,45	48	0,001*
	Experimental Group	25	0,64	16	0,49			
Q5k: Dialogue k	Control Group	25	0,72	18	0,46	1,01	48	0,316
	Experimental Group	25	0,84	21	0,37			
Q5l: Dialogue l	Control Group	25	0,28	7	0,46	4,24	48	0,000**
	Experimental Group	25	0,8	20	0,41			
Q5.1: this/that	Control Group	25	0,72	18	0,46	1,01	48	0,316
	Experimental Group	25	0,84	21	0,37			
Q5.2: this	Control Group	25	0,72	18	0,46	1,41	48	0,164
	Experimental Group	25	0,88	22	0,33			
Q5.3: that	Control Group	25	0,12	3	0,33	3,63	48	0,001*
	Experimental Group	25	0,56	14	0,51			

**Difference is significant at p<.05 level.*

***Difference is significant at p<.001 level.*

In the ellipsis section, which is mainly related to the first five items of this part, students were able to answer mainly to Q1b and Q1.2. The reason may be that the elliptical phrase in Q1b was a very typical question and for the item Q1.2; and it seems they could notice that the short clauses are rather informal compared to the long ones. The other ellipsis questions were mostly answered incorrectly by the control group, and they could not write the full forms of the elliptical phrases unlike the experimental group. Therefore, the significance level is high for those questions. Also, for the questions related to heads and tails, students in the control group had relatively lower scores than the students in the experimental group, which led to a significant difference.

The dialogue in question 3 gave important outcomes indicating the use of cohesive devices in the text. At the very beginning of the dialogue in question 3 after the question "How was last night's show?", most of the students in the control group were not able to link it to the answer "Hard work…" in Q3.1a, since "Hard work" is an elliptical phrase meaning "it was hard work". The results show that the students in the control group had much lower performance on that item compared to experimental group. The dialogue in Q3 included a lot of demonstrative pronouns "it" and "that", which made the text difficult for the students to link. Statistically it is clear that students in the control group found it more difficult than the experimental group as the items from Q3.1a to Q3.1j display. The difference of perspective for referencing between the speakers in terms of "it" and "that" might make the text easier to relate to one another; however, since the control group lacks this perspective as the results in the items Q3.2a, Q3.2b, Q3.3a, Q3.3b and Q3.3c presented, they could not connect the text as the other group did. Thus, the significance level for these items is high.

The other dialogue of this section starting in question 4 include lots of cohesive devices and discourse markers in which students are asked to complete the dialogue with the given utterances. For items Q4.1a, Q4.1c and Q4.1d, students in both groups were able to link the text with the help of the repeated words like "Italy", "Spain". However, the use of demonstratives for the items Q4.1e "that", Q4.1f "it" made the text much more difficult to link, thus, led to a significant difference between two groups. These results are also checked in items Q4.2a and Q4.2b in which these reference words are asked in detail. Moreover, the uses of heads/tails and elliptical phrases are asked in items Q4.2c and Q4.2d, which displayed a significant difference between the groups.

Question 5 is also related to the use and functions of "it", "this" and "that" within a dialogue. It is clear that the students in the control group were able to connect the beginning of the dialogue more easily than the rest, in which utterances have more complex elliptical phrases, reference words and discourse markers. Therefore, students in the control group find it difficult to complete this dialogue with such clauses as "You know what? That would be great." in Q5h and "Would I like to what?" in Q5l. Furthermore, it is clear from the items Q5.1, Q5.2 and Q5.3 that most of the students in the control group do not know the meaning of "that" with "distancing".

The Table 3.15 and Figure 3.3. below show that post-test scores of the students in the experimental group were significantly different from post-test scores of the students in the control group on Module 3 as a whole (*t=4.98 and p<.001*). Analysis of the two groups' means indicate that the average post-test score of the Module 3 for the students in experimental group is significantly higher than those of the students in the control group ($\overline{X}_{Control\ G.}$ *=41.31* and $\overline{X}_{Experimental\ G.}$ *=77.88*). The difference between the mean scores is 36.57 points on a 100 point scale test. Since there was no significant difference between the mean scores of the groups in pre-test for Module 3, the post-test scores' significant difference indicate that the lead-in tasks given to the experimental group caused to raise learners' level of understanding of certain features of spoken language presented asked in Module 3.

Table 3.15. Difference between post-test scores of the control and experimental Groups (Module 3)

Variable		***N***	$\overline{X}$	***SD***	**t-test**		
					t	***df***	***p***
Module 3	Control Group	25	41.31	30.26	4.98	48	0.000**
	Experimental Group	25	77.88	20.78			

***Difference is significant at p<.001 level.*

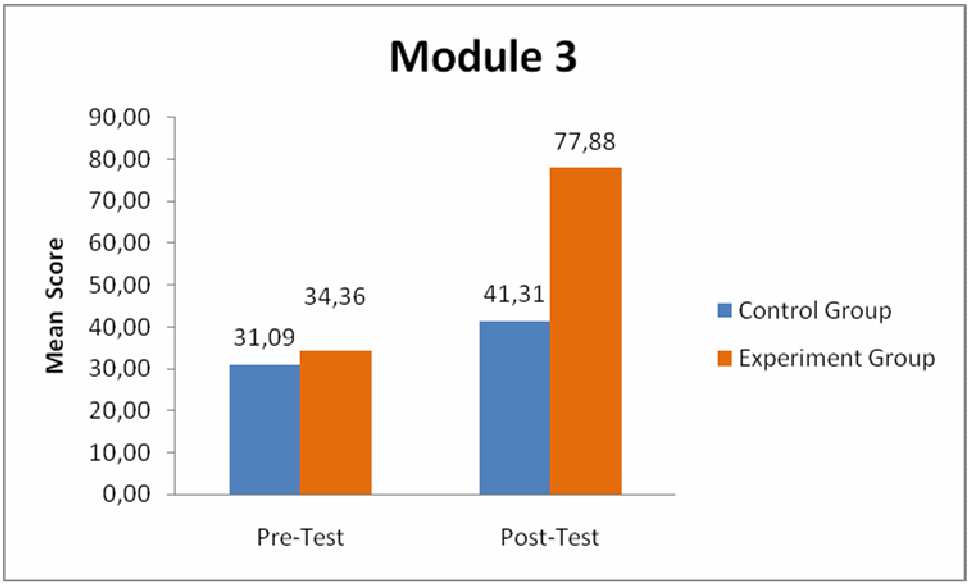

Figure 3.3. Mean Scores of the groups (Module 3)

3.2.4. Findings for Research Question 4

Research Question 4: Can learners infer the speaker meaning in the dialogue activities after they are presented the lead in tasks?

In Module 4, students were asked to infer the speaker meaning in the dialogues (see App.2). The questions were multiple choice. In the first question, they were asked to identify the topic, in the second and third ones, students tried to understand the conditions of the speakers and the last question was related to grasping the implied meaning in the conversation. Control and experimental groups' (total) scores for the items of Module 4 were not much different except for the last item. But, still, experimental groups scores were higher for all the four items (see Table 3.16).

For the first three questions of this section, most of the students in both groups were able to answer the questions correctly, which are related to the topic and characters. However, the last sentence of the dialogue "It helps if you turn it on!" is

expected to give students an idea about the speaker meaning and action in the conversation. The man (TONY) ironically criticizes the woman and it's a high possibility that he turns it on. Whether students were able to grasp the meaning of this phrase and could answer the last question is given statistically below. Only 9 students from the control group could answer the question correctly unlike the 21 in the experimental group. Therefore, it is indicated that there is a significant difference between the groups about this item.

Table 3.16. Difference between post-test scores of the control and experimental groups for the items of Module 4

Variable						t-test		
(Q= Question)	Group	*N*	$\overline{X}$	*SUM*	*SD*	*t*	*df*	*p*
Q1: Implicatures.a	Control Group	25	0,56	14,00	0,51	1,84	48	0,071
	Experimental Group	25	0,80	20,00	0,41			
Q2: Implicatures.b	Control Group	25	0,68	17,00	0,48	0,3	48	0,763
	Experimental Group	25	0,72	18,00	0,46			
Q3: Implicatures.c	Control Group	25	0,44	11,00	0,51	1,12	48	0,267
	Experimental Group	25	0,60	15,00	0,50			
Q4: Implicatures.d	Control Group	25	0,36	9,00	0,49	3,89	48	0,000*
	Experimental Group	25	0,84	21,00	0,37			

**Difference is significant at p<.05 level.*

***Difference is significant at p<.001 level.*

The Table 3.17 and Figure 3.4. show that post-test scores of the students in the experimental group were significantly different from post-test scores of the students in the control group on Module 4 as a whole (*t=2.23 and p<.05*). Analysis of the two groups' means indicate that the average post-test score of the Module 4 for the students in experimental group is significantly higher than the scores of the students in the control group ($\overline{X}_{Control\ G.} = 51.00$ and $\overline{X}_{Experimental\ G.} = 74.00$). The difference between the mean scores is 23.00 points on a 100 point scale test. Since there was no significant difference between the mean scores of the groups in pre-test for Module 4, the post-test scores' significant difference indicate that the lead-in tasks given to the

experimental group caused to raise learners' level of awareness of certain features of spoken language presented asked in Module 4.

Table 3.17. Difference between post-test scores of the control and experimental Groups (Module 4)

Variable		*N*	$\overline{X}$	*SD*	t-test		
					t	*df*	*p*
Module 4	Control Group	25	51.00	40.49	2.23	48	0.030*
	Experimental Group	25	74.00	31.85			

**Difference is significant at p<.05 level.*

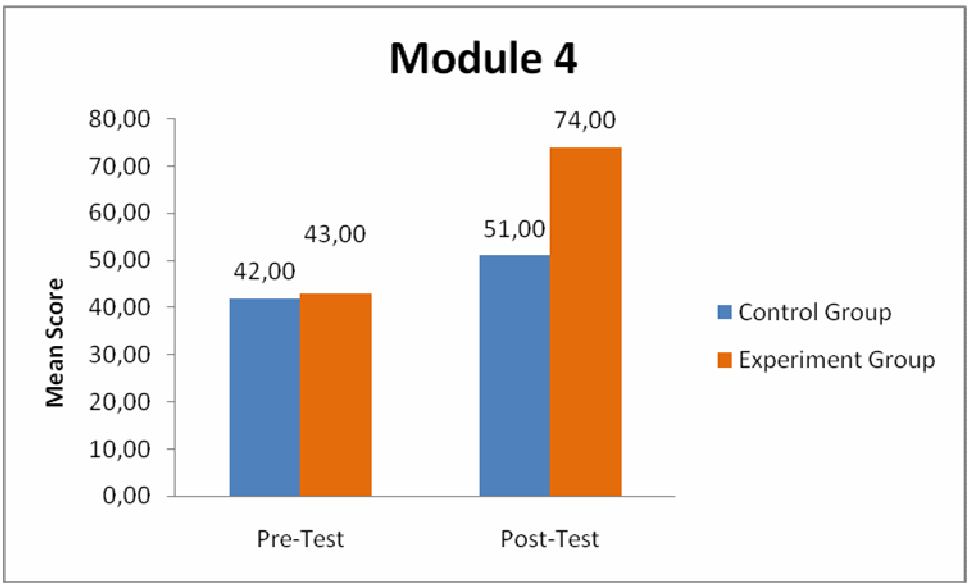

Figure 3.4. Mean Scores of the groups (Module 4)

Table 3.18. Difference between total post-test scores of the control and experimental groups

Variable		*N*	$\overline{X}$	*SD*	t-test		
					t	*df*	*p*
General	Control Group	25	40,21	21,84	7,18	48	0,000**
	Experimental Group	25	78,57	15,41			

***Difference is significant at p<.001 level.*

The Table 3.18 above shows that post-test scores of the students in the experimental group were significantly different from post-test scores of the students in the control group on general (*t=7.18 and p<.05*). Inspection of the two groups' means indicate that the average post-test score of the students in experimental group is significantly higher than the scores of the students in the control group ($\overline{X}_{Control\ G.}$ *=40.21* and $\overline{X}_{Experimental\ G.}$ *=78.57*). The difference between the mean scores is 38.36 points on a 100 point scale test.

As the chart below displays, the general mean scores of the tests revealed that there was no significant difference between the mean scores of the groups in the pre-test. Moreover, the significant difference in the post-test scores of the two groups indicates that the lead-in tasks given to the experimental group caused to raise learners' awareness of the targeted features of spoken language generally.

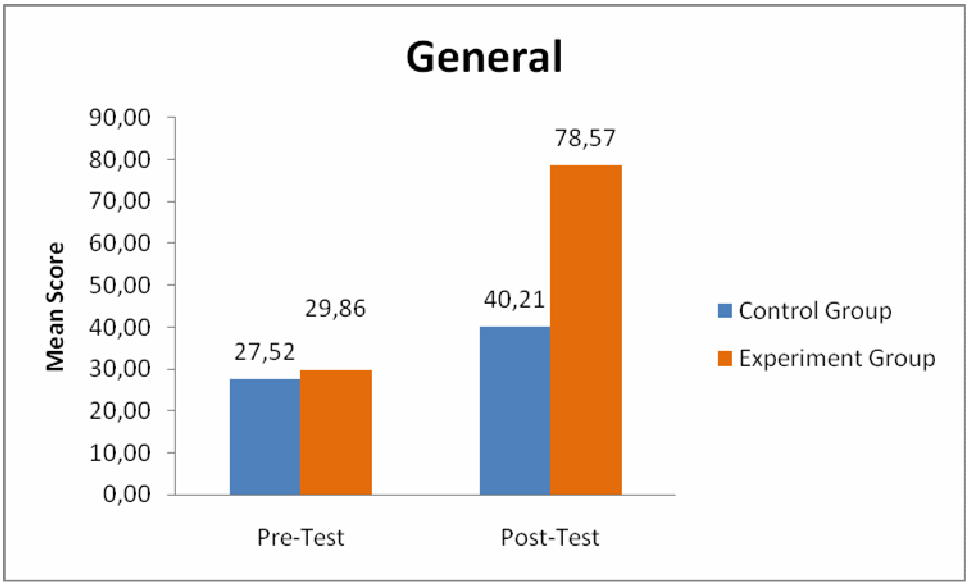

Figure 3.5. Mean Scores of the groups (General)

3.3. Students' Attitudes Toward Dialogue Activities

The questionnaire was presented to the students in both groups after the post-test process in order to identify their approach to the dialogue activities, lead-in tasks and the teachers' instruction techniques. The answers of the groups revealed similar viewpoints to the findings gathered in the post-tests, which overall emphasized the significance of the lead-in tasks to prepare students to the spoken discourse presented in the coursebooks. The table below shows the descriptive analyses of both groups.

Table 3.19. Descriptive statistics about students' attitudes toward dialogue activities

VARIABLE	CONTROL GROUP (*N=25*)			EXPERIMENTAL GROUP (*N=25*)		
	$\overline{X}$	***SD***	***SUM***	$\overline{X}$	***SD***	***SUM***
Statement 01	3,60	0,58	90,00	3,48	0,65	87,00
Statement 02	3,68	0,48	92,00	3,56	0,51	89,00
Statement 03	2,96	0,79	74,00	3,04	0,74	76,00
Statement 04	2,20	0,87	55,00	3,48	0,59	87,00
Statement 05	2,76	0,72	69,00	3,08	0,57	77,00
Statement 06	3,64	0,49	91,00	3,64	0,49	91,00
Statement 07	3,60	0,50	90,00	2,72	0,61	68,00
Statement 08	3,56	0,51	89,00	2,28	0,61	57,00
Statement 09	3,52	0,59	88,00	3,48	0,51	87,00
Statement 10	3,52	0,51	88,00	3,52	0,59	88,00
Statement 11	3,60	0,50	90,00	3,32	0,63	83,00
Statement 12	3,60	0,50	90,00	3,52	0,51	88,00

The students participated in this study were given 12 statements in order to understand their attitudes toward dialogue activities as Table 3.19 displays above. The statements were scaled from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (4) (see App.6).

The highest score was given to "*02. I think that those sections are very useful.*" ($\overline{X}_{Statement\ 02}$ *=3.68* and $Sum_{Statement\ 02}$ *=92.00*) and the lowest to "*04. I believe that the dialogue activities in our coursebook are easy.*" ($\overline{X}_{Statement\ 04}$ *=2.20* and $Sum_{Statement\ 02}$ *=55*) by the control group. This outcome reveals the fact that the students in the

control group do not find the dialogue activities in the course book easy but find them useful.

On the other hand, the highest score was given to "*06. If I cannot understand certain features of spoken language, I find it hard to do the activities.*" ($\overline{X}_{Statement\ 06}$ *=3.64* and $Sum_{Statement\ 06}$ *=91.00*) and the lowest to "*08. I think it is difficult to do these activities without the help of the teacher.*" ($\overline{X}_{Statement\ 08}$ *=2.28* and $Sum_{Statement\ 08}$ *=57*) by the experimental group. The students in the experimental group think that they have to understand certain features of spoken languages before doing activities and they do not think the dialogue activities in coursebooks are difficult to do without the help of their teacher. It might be inferred from the result that students in the experimental group are less dependent on the teacher than the students in the control group.

Table 3.20. Differences between the control and experimental groups' attitudes toward dialogue activities

Statement	Group	*N*	$\overline{X}$	*SD*	t-test		
					t	*df*	*p*
Statement 01	Control Group	25	3,60	0,58	0,69	48	0,495
	Experimental Group	25	3,48	0,65			
Statement 02	Control Group	25	3,68	0,48	0,86	48	0,392
	Experimental Group	25	3,56	0,51			
Statement 03	Control Group	25	2,96	0,79	0,37	48	0,712
	Experimental Group	25	3,04	0,74			
Statement 04	Control Group	25	2,20	0,87	6,12	48	0,000**
	Experimental Group	25	3,48	0,59			
Statement 05	Control Group	25	2,76	0,72	1,74	48	0,089
	Experimental Group	25	3,08	0,57			
Statement 06	Control Group	25	3,64	0,49	0,00	48	1,000
	Experimental Group	25	3,64	0,49			
Statement 07	Control Group	25	3,60	0,50	5,56	48	0,000**
	Experimental Group	25	2,72	0,61			
Statement 08	Control Group	25	3,56	0,51	8,04	48	0,000**
	Experimental Group	25	2,28	0,61			
Statement 09	Control Group	25	3,52	0,59	0,26	48	0,798
	Experimental Group	25	3,48	0,51			
Statement 10	Control Group	25	3,52	0,51	0,00	48	1,000
	Experimental Group	25	3,52	0,59			
Statement 11	Control Group	25	3,60	0,50	1,75	48	0,087
	Experimental Group	25	3,32	0,63			
Statement 12	Control Group	25	3,60	0,50	0,56	48	0,578
	Experimental Group	25	3,52	0,51			

***Difference is significant at p<.001 level.*

As can be seen from the Table 28, three statements were significantly perceived differently by the students in the groups (Statement 04, Statement 07 and Statement 08). "*04. I believe that the dialogue activities in our coursebook are easy.*" This statement was perceived significantly by the students from control and experimental groups (*t=6.12* and *p<.001*). The students from the experimental group believe the dialogue activities in their coursebook are easier ($\overline{X}_{Control\ G.}$ *=2.20* and $\overline{X}_{Experimental\ G.}$ *=3.48*).

"*07. I think the dialogue activities in our coursebooks include certain features of spoken language that make them difficult to understand.*" was the second statement that was perceived significantly by the students from control and experimental groups (*t=5.56* and *p<.001*). The students in the control group believe more than the students in the experimental group that the dialogue activities in their coursebooks that include certain features of spoken language make the activities difficult to understand ($\overline{X}_{Control\ G.}$ *=3,60* and $\overline{X}_{Experimental\ G.}$ *=2,72*).

"*08. I think it is difficult to do these activities without the help of the teacher.*" was the third statement that was perceived differently by the students in the control and experimental groups (*t=8.04* and *p<.001*). The students in the control group think more than the students in the experimental group that it is difficult to do those activities without the help of the teacher ($\overline{X}_{Control\ G.}$ *=3.56* and $\overline{X}_{Experimental\ G.}$ *=2.28*). This may indicate that in order to foster learner autonomy, awareness-raising tasks are useful tools so that learners can grasp the implied meanings hidden in the spoken language.

CHAPTER 4

DISCUSSION

The present study was carried out in order to investigate the effectiveness of the lead-in tasks to raise students' awareness of certain features of spoken language. The outline of this chapter is the following. From section 4.1 to section 4.4, the findings derived from pre and post tests are elaborated in detail under the headings of the research questions and with reference to the literature presented earlier. Sections 4.5, 4.6 and 4.7 present limitations of the current study, suggestions for further studies, and suggestions for classroom practice.

Due to the fact that there is a significant difference between the performances of the two groups in the post-test despite the similar results gathered in the pre-test, the probable reasons of these performance differences are discussed by giving reference to the historical background of the field.

4.1. Discussion about Research Question 1

Research Question 1: Can learners identify the differences between certain features of spoken language and written language in the dialogue activities of the selected coursebooks after they are presented the lead-in tasks?

The effectiveness of the lead-in task applied to the experimental group had positive outcomes as the results displayed, thus, at this point it could be interpreted

that learners could identify certain features of spoken language of the dialogue after they were presented the lead-in task of Module 1.

In order to carry out a reliable research, the two groups; namely the control and experimental groups, were given a pre-test at the beginning of the study. The results of the pre-test of Module 1 which was related to the research question 1 indicated that both groups' awareness of certain features of spoken language were statistically not different in the pre-test as the results $\overline{X}_{Control\ G.} = 7.27$ and $\overline{X}_{Experimental\ G.} = 8.73$ revealed (see Table 3.2.).

None of the groups could achieve high scores of mean "$\overline{X}$" by identifying the certain discourse markers (*oh, well, I mean, actually, you know* and *right*) and cohesive devices (*ellipsis, question tags, repeats, substitution* and *heads/tails)* used in the dialogue of the coursebook, *Just Right Intermediate* (Harmer, 2004). None of the students in the control group could identify *actually, right, question tags* and *heads/tails* in the text (see Table 3.1.). In the experimental group, none of the students could identify *right, substitution* and *heads/tails*. These scores in the pre-test indicated that performance of the learners in both groups were similar and comparable since there were no significant differences in their knowledge of certain features of spoken language ($p > .05$).

After the implementation of the treatment, the post test of Module 1 was applied to both groups to see the changes in their performances of certain features of spoken language within the dialogue selected from their coursebook. The results of the post-test showed that the performance of the two groups in Module 1 had significant differences since their scores were $\overline{X}_{Control\ G.} = 20.73$ and $\overline{X}_{Experimental\ G.} = 69.46$ (see Table 3.11.). The post-test of Module 1 revealed that learners in the

control group increased their scores from $\overline{X}$ 7.27 to 20.73; however, this rise is not significant when it is compared to the rise of the experimental group, which increased from $\overline{X}$ *8.73* to 69.46 (see Figure 3.1.), which reveals that the lead-in task applied to the experimental group had positive effects and the learners could identify certain features of spoken language of the dialogue after they were presented the lead-in task of Module 1.

This result is consistent with the idea of Fox (1998) who stated the necessity of identifying the relevant grammar patterns and vocabulary items that students would come across in real life and the necessity of teaching these materials in the classroom environment (p.26). This result, on the other hand, clashed with the idea that "pedagogical grammar equates prescriptive grammar" Liddicoat and Curnow (2004) presented. In terms of the use of certain features of spoken language such as discourse markers and cohesive devices in the dialogues selected from *Just Right Intermediate* (Harmer, 2004), it is clear that the coursebooks used in this study attempt to present a realistic picture of real life spoken language; by using "some of the most frequent discourse markers" and cohesive devices in their dialogues (Carter et al., 2000).

The results also revealed that the students in the control group which were merely exposed to the *Just Right Intermediate Teacher's Book* (Harmer, 2004) could not identify the certain features of spoken English as compared to the statistics of the experimental group. Therefore, it might be inferred that teachers and material designers need to deal with these features of descriptive language in broader pedagogical framework as Carter et al. (1998) suggest. Due to this reason, the "can-do society" the coursebooks create in which conversations are "not realistic" needs to be reshaped according to Carter et al. (1998) and they need to present "a realistic, if not

authentic" picture to prepare learners to the tasks as it is confirmed with the results of this study.

This study also seems to contradict with the idea that proposes a rift between prescriptive and descriptive grammarians (MacKay, 1980). Viewing descriptive grammar as irrelevant to the goal of teaching language use is not supported in this study since it is believed in this study that prescriptive and descriptive grammar should be in cooperation in order to build up pedagogical framework as realistically as possible. If the descriptive part is neglected, the classroom environment may not be an effective tool to reflect the real world language use. Therefore, in this part of the study, it is emphasized that students need to be aware of the certain features of spoken grammar. As Thornbury (2005a) suggests students should be able to identify those features with the help of the awareness-raising tasks that teachers present, which is supported with the findings of this study.

This section has shown that with the help of the awareness-raising tasks learners could identify the certain features of spoken language in written dialogues. Next section will discuss the effectiveness of the lead-in tasks to raise awareness of the targeted discourse markers.

4.2. Discussion about Research Question 2

Research Question 2: Can learners comprehend the meanings and/or functions of certain discourse markers in the dialogue activities after they are presented the lead-in tasks?

The findings of the study in Module 2 revealed that the lead-in tasks were significantly effective to raise learners' awareness of the targeted discourse markers.

The statistics gathered from the pre-test of the groups showed that there were no significant differences between the students' prior knowledge about the targeted discourse markers used in the dialogues. As Table 3.4. displayed, the scores of the control and experimental group were $\overline{X}_{Control\ G.} = 31.62$ and $\overline{X}_{Experimental\ G.} = 33.71$ in the pre-test of Module 2. Due to the similar knowledge groups had, after the treatment, the post-test was conducted to the groups and their results were compared.

The results of the post-test of Module 2 showed a significant difference between the two groups since the scores of the two groups were; $\overline{X}_{Control\ G.} = 44.00$ and $\overline{X}_{Experimental\ G.} = 83.48$ (see Table 3.13.). Due to these statistical outcomes, it might be inferred that the effectiveness of the lead-in task conducted in Module 2 is clear. The performance of the control group increased from $\overline{X}$ 31.62 to 44.00, whereas the performance of the experimental group increased from $\overline{X}$ 33.71 to 83.48 (see Figure 3.2.). The data obtained from the pre and post tests support the research question saying that the lead-in tasks had a positive effect on students' grasping the hidden meanings and/or functions of certain discourse markers in the dialogues.

The difference between the post-test scores of Module 2 reveals significant outcomes (see Table 3.12.). As the table indicates, students in the experimental group scored significantly higher than the students in the control group for 23 items/questions. For only 8 items, both groups had similar results. In terms of discourse marker *well*, the control group could not identify its functions of "changing the topic" and "responding unexpectedly" (see Q1, Q3, Q4a and Q4c in Table 3.12). They could only identify its function as a filler (see Q2). On the other hand, students in the experimental group could notice and identify its functions in each part (see Q1, Q2, Q3, Q4a, Q4b and Q4c). The other discourse marker was *oh* which was used with

follow-up words to complete its meaning in the dialogues. The control group could only identify it with positive connotation (see Q5), and failed to grasp its meaning with negative connotation with the follow up words “no”, “poor you” (see Q6 and Q7). On the other hand, most of the students in the experimental group could answer these questions correctly, which meant that they could identify the meaning and/or function of the discourse marker.

Also, for the other discourse markers *I mean, actually, you know* and *thanks*, there is a striking difference between the scores of the two groups. Therefore, it can be inferred that learners in the experimental group raised their awareness of certain discourse markers, whereas the control group, which was exposed to the mere methodology of the teacher’s book, was not able to complete the tasks and raise their awareness in terms of the certain features (see Table 3.12.).

The statistical results gathered from the tests reveal the necessity to teach discourse markers in order to increase students’ awareness in terms of the certain features of spoken language as it is suggested by Thornbury (2005a). He underlines the importance of discourse markers in terms of “knowing how to organize and connect individual utterances” (p.14). In a similar viewpoint, in this study, it is obviously confirmed that most of the students in the control group could not order or match the dialogue activities due to the lack of knowing the meanings and or functions of discourse markers (see Q13.1c, Q13.1d, Q13.1e and Q13.1f. in Table 3.12.). Thus, they were not able to match the dialogue activity because of the massive use of discourse markers that block their comprehension.

It might be inferred that the lead-in task of Module 2 designed for this study helped students in the experimental group to understand the meanings and/or

functions of certain discourse markers used frequently in the dialogues of the coursebooks. Therefore, with the help of the lead-in task of Module 2, learners had a chance to raise their awareness of certain high frequency discourse markers, and they had a better understanding of the dialogues selected.

As mentioned in the literature earlier, Bussman (1984) and Schiffrin (1987) promoted the study of discourse markers in order "to develop language skills" and "feel more comfortable about their conversational skills". Moreover, the grammar book written by Carter et al. (2000) in which a whole section is divided to the activities to teach discourse markers confirms the viewpoint of this study. The findings in the study of House and Kasper (1981) have similar outcomes to the present study. Even though the level of the students in this study is intermediate, the instruction types in both studies are similar, and therefore it is shown that raising pragmatic awareness in terms of the targeted discourse markers is beneficial for learners in classroom environment.

With the help of the lead-in task of Module 2 in which some of the most frequent discourse markers used in English are highlighted, students in the experimental group could grasp the meanings and/or functions of certain discourse markers used in the dialogues since they performed better than the control group in the post-test of Module 2. Next section will discuss the outcomes gathered in Module 3 by referring to the research question 3.

4.3. Discussion about Research Question 3

Research Question 3: Can learners comprehend the meanings and/or functions of certain cohesive devices in the dialogue activities after they are presented the lead-in tasks?

The findings in Module 3 revealed that the awareness-raising tasks were effective for the students and students could comprehend the meanings and/or functions of the targeted cohesive devices in the post-test. In order to compare the knowledge of the two groups in terms of the topic at the beginning of the study, the pre-test of Module 3 was conducted to both groups. The results of the pre-test revealed that the two groups had similar knowledge in terms of certain cohesive devices; *ellipsis*, *substitution*, *heads/tails* and *it/this* and *that* used in the dialogues.

The statistical outcomes of the pre-test of Module 3 in Table 3.5. reveal that both groups had very low scores in identifying certain features of cohesive devices, such as *heads/tails* ($\overline{X}_{Control\ G\ Experimental\ G.}$ *=0.16 in Q2a,* $\overline{X}_{Control\ G.}$ *=0.24 in Q2b,* $\overline{X}_{Experimental\ G.}$ *=0.32in Q2b)*. Also, the use of *ellipsis*, especially with the question "Left what?" in Q1d had statistically very low scores ($\overline{X}_{Control\ G.}$ *=0.08,* $\overline{X}_{Experimental\ G.}$ *=0.12)*. Moreover, the elliptical clauses used in the dialogue activity of Q3 seems to have affected the scores negatively (see Q3 in Table 3.5.). The students are expected to put the dialogue into correct order by paying attention to the cohesive devices, which are generally the reference words *it, that* and the *elliptical* forms. As Table 3.5. indicates, students in both groups could order the first item, Q3.1e, after the example given in the dialogue due to the fact that they could make the connection between "How was the film" in the example and the "It was a disaster" in Q3.1e ($\overline{X}_{Control\ G.}$ *=0.76,* $\overline{X}_{Experimental\ G.}$ *=0.60).* However, for the rest of the dialogue most of the students in both groups failed to link the text by using the cohesive devices. The reason might be due to the use of elliptical clauses and reference words that block their comprehension.

Overall findings of the two groups for the pre-test of Module 3 were $\overline{X}_{Control\ G.}$ *=31.09* and $\overline{X}_{Experimental\ G.}$ *=34.36* which provided a statistically comparable basis for the post-test of Module 3(see Table 3.6.). Statistical outcomes of the post-test of Module 3 revealed significant results. The students in the experimental group scored significantly higher than the students in the control group since their scores were $\overline{X}_{Control\ G.}$ *=41.31* and $\overline{X}_{Experimental\ G.}$ *=77.88* (see Table 3.15.). It clearly demonstrated that students in the control group increased their performance from $\overline{X}$ 31.09 to 41.31, whereas the students in the experimental group increased their performance from $\overline{X}$ 34.36 to 77.88 (see Figure 3.3.).

The dialogues gathered from the coursebooks of the students put forward significant results in terms of student awareness of certain cohesive devices in the post-test of Module 3. The students in the control group scored significantly lower than the students in the experimental group for 35 items (out of 49) in the post-test of Module 3. 14 items in the test led to similar results in both groups. Elliptical clause "Fine" in Q1b which is a relatively less complex question compared to the other elliptical clause asked in the section and *substitution* "one" in Q4.2e were answered correctly by most of the students in both groups. Nevertheless, the other elliptical clauses asked in Q1a, Q1c and Q1d were answered mostly by the students in the experimental group, similar results occurred for the *heads/tails* (in Q2a, Q2b and Q4.2c) and *it/this* and *that* (in Q3.2a, Q3.2b, Q3.3a, Q3.3b, Q3.3c, Q4.2a, Q4.2b, Q5.3). At this point it can be interpreted that "the notion of distance" put forward by Yule (1996) suggests the importance of social bonds during communication. The outcomes of Q5.3 confirm this idea that students find it difficult to associate *that* with

the concept of distancing in conversations ($\overline{X}_{Control\ G.} = 12.00$ and $\overline{X}_{Experimental\ G.} = 56.00$).

From the findings of the present study it can be interpreted that the lead-in task conducted to help learners to raise their awareness of certain cohesive devices used in the dialogues had positive effects on the students since most of the learners in the experimental group could comprehend the meanings and/or functions of cohesive devices used in the dialogues. This finding is consistent with the theories of Hatch (1992) who put emphasis on cohesive devices as important elements that tie a text together. The idea is also put forward by Carter et al. (2000) who presented activities to teach spoken grammar (heads/tails, ellipsis, etc.). The studies of Fukuya and Clark (2001) presented similar findings to the present study in terms of displaying the importance of classroom activities to enhance pragmatic awareness. Next section will discuss the results based on the findings about whether students could infer the speaker meaning in the dialogue activities with the help of the lead-in tasks.

4.4. Discussion about Research Question 4

Research Question 4: Can learners infer the speaker meaning in the dialogue activities after they are presented the lead in tasks?

Most of the students could infer the speaker meaning in the dialogue activities in Module 4 after they were presented the lead-in tasks. Module 4, which aimed to help learners to infer the speaker meaning had similar outcomes after the pre-test of the module. The pre-test scores of Module 4 revealed that students in both groups had high scores in the first question which was related to the theme of the dialogue (see Table 3.7.). Both groups had similar results for the second and third questions which

were related to the characters and conditions of the speakers. However, for the last and the most important question of the dialogue, both groups had low scores, which meant that students in both groups could not grasp the hidden meaning of the conversation.

The results of the pre-test of Module 4 indicated that further analysis could be applied since the scores of the two groups were statistically comparable and very close; $\overline{X}_{Control\ G.} = 42.00$ and $\overline{X}_{Experimental\ G.} = 43.00$ (see Table 3.8.). After the implementation of the lead-in task to the experimental group, there was a significant difference in the performances of the two groups. The post-test scores of Module 4 were $\overline{X}_{Control\ G.} = 51.00$ and $\overline{X}_{Experimental\ G.} = 74.00$ (see Table 3.17.). The control group increased their scores from $\overline{X}$ 42.00 to 51.00, whereas the experimental group increased their scores from $\overline{X}$ 43.00 to 74.00 (see Figure 3.4.). The major rise in scores was in the last item/question, which indicates that students in the experimental group could grasp the hidden meaning of the conversation.

This finding complies with what Yule (1996) suggests by highlighting the importance of what people mean in a particular context and underlining the significance of speaker meaning in a context. Moreover, it is consistent with the theories of Cameron (2001) who stresses the importance of the choices speakers in an interactional job, which gradually prepare learners for different choices speakers make. Yule (1996) emphasizes the importance of helping learners to discover how to identify the intended meanings of the speakers in a conversation, which is one of the ultimate goals of this study. The last utterance in the dialogue "It helps if you turn it on!" hides an irony, and it may be regarded as a conversational implicature according to Hatch (1992). Students in the control group had difficulty in finding out the answer

inferred from that utterance, therefore, it may be concluded that teaching the Gricean maxims together with its violations may help learners to get insights about the speaker meaning.

The findings gathered from the tests are consistent with the theory of Bardovi-Harlig and Mahan-Taylor (2003) who state that "the teaching of pragmatics aims to facilitate the learners' ability to find socially appropriate language…" (p.1). In this study, the limits of the students in the experimental group were pushed to help learners practice 'pragmatic transfer' as Zegarac and Penington (2000) suggest. The general scores in Figure 3.5. reveal that there is a significant difference in the scores of the two groups; $\overline{X}_{Control\ G.} = 40.21$ and $\overline{X}_{Experimental\ G.} = 78.57$.

The significant difference between the control and experimental group supports the idea of Tomlinson (1994) that discovery activities in the pragmatic awareness lessons help students to develop cognitive skills (p.119). The awareness-raising process is facilitated by helping learners to notice how conversation is constructed (McCarthy, 1998), and students gradually develop explicit awareness of the aspects of language which they do not have implicit knowledge (Tomlinson, 1994). The findings demonstrate that mere guidance of the teachers' book might not be enough to prepare learners cognitively for certain features of spoken language. The use of awareness raising activities needs to be promoted according to the statistics of this study. If teachers would like to foster learner autonomy which is "an ongoing process requiring both individual and collective effort in the classroom context" (Edge and Wharton, 1998), these kinds of activities need to be promoted to make the learner more aware of certain features of spoken language and less dependent on the teacher.

The present study attempted to build up awareness-raising activities to help learners grasp the meanings and/or functions of certain features of spoken language in the dialogues of the coursebooks selected. After implementing the awareness-raising activities, namely lead-in tasks, to the students in the experimental group in accordance with the lesson plan prepared by the teacher/researcher, a significant difference was seen between the achievements of the two groups. The control group, which was merely exposed to the methodology and syllabus of *Just Right Teacher's Book* (Harmer, 2004), had significantly lower grades than the experimental group according to the statistical results.

The studies related to the field had similar outcomes as mentioned in the literature earlier. In the study of Blight (2002), the outcomes revealed the importance of raising learners' pragmatic awareness in terms of implicatures. Also, the study of Takahashi (2001) is in line with this current study since it supported the view of teaching pragmatics through explicit instruction type. However, the current study contradicts with the findings of Kubota (1995) due to the fact that the treatment applied in the study did not reveal positive outcomes in terms of teaching implicatures. Students could not notice the Gricean maxims or the violations of the rules in that study. The clash between the study of Kubota and the current one might be due to the different contexts; Japan and Turkey. Kubota's Japanese EFL learners were able to understand the exact implicatures that were repeated from the training materials but were unable to generalize inferencing strategies to new instances of implicature. The materials used in this study were not presented to the students before the tests; therefore it is possible to have different outcomes in the studies.

It might be concluded that the awareness-raising activities conducted to the students have been beneficial to raise students' awareness in terms of certain features of spoken language appearing in the dialogues of the coursebooks selected.

4.5. Limitations of the Study

Due to the following reasons, the present study may have some pitfalls. The first limitation of the study may be in terms of the small sample size. However, the limited numbers of students in each class in the foundation university are aimed to create a more convenient atmosphere for students. The number of students who formed two groups, namely the control and experimental group, was 50 students in total, which is a reasonable number to implement the study.

Secondly, the study was limited in duration due to the intensive course which overall lasted 8 weeks in a module-based lesson design. Nevertheless, the pacing did not affect the syllabus and the materials. The lesson plans were used effectively without skipping any part or objective.

Thirdly, the study was conducted by the researcher who was also the teacher. It might be inferred that it is possible to have observer's paradox during the study; however, in order to demonstrate the objectivity of the lessons, lessons have been recorded and the transcripts of the lessons have been included in the study.

Lastly, the study was conducted at preparatory classes of a foundation university. Therefore, the findings may not be generalized to preparatory classes of other state or foundation universities. Based on the findings revealed in this study, further studies could be applied to other foundation or state universities.

Despite the limitations of the study which may be a basis for further studies, the study answered the research questions proposed at the beginning of the study and fulfilled its aims accordingly.

4.6. Suggestions for Further Studies

In this study, the materials, tasks and the lesson plan have been used to facilitate the learning of the certain features of spoken language which would be useful firstly in the classroom environment and then in real world. For further studies, observations could be done in various classroom contexts where the dialogue activities of the coursebooks are used to explore the lead-in of the instructors to these activities.

In this study, questionnaires were presented to the participants of this study in order to learn students' perceptions about the dialogue activities and certain features of spoken language. For further studies, interviews can be done with the instructors of preparatory schools about the effectiveness of the lead-in tasks to raise students' awareness in terms of these features, which might provide additional supporting evidence to the current study.

Moreover, assessment procedures can be increased in variety for further studies. In this study, written tests were presented to the students to assess their awareness about the targeted pragmatic features. For further studies, students can be expected to use these features in dialogue activities that they create in order to reinforce the use of these spoken language. Oral tests and role-play activities could be applied in the assessment procedure to diversify the production phase. The awareness-raising process, which is more related to the cognitive part of the field, has been

researched empirically in this current study. Oral production is beyond the scope of this study, which may be dealt in future studies and classroom practices.

4.7. Suggestions for Classroom Practice

The present study attempted to provide a basis for helping learners grasp the meanings and/or functions of certain features of spoken language presented in the dialogues of the coursebooks selected. The activities, the lesson plan, the findings, and the underlying assumptions have been designed and processed to present curriculum designers, material designers, and teachers to take these features of spoken language into consideration when designing a lesson or a material. When exploiting certain activities in a coursebook, especially dialogue activities, teachers will presumably make the necessary changes in the tasks and evaluate the materials in relation to the objectives proposed in this study. The awareness-raising activities have been used to "emphasize the importance of learners gradually developing their own awareness of how the language is used" in realistic dialogue activities (Tomlinson, 1998). Certain features of spoken language have been selected from high frequency words that appear in corporas in order to make the language selected as realistic as possible.

In classroom practice, the tasks and materials can be exploited to raise students' awareness of spoken language, which overall motivate learners for real world tasks. In contexts like Turkey, where English is a FL, students are not exposed to the real world spoken language, and therefore, they may not have the chance to improve their pragmatic competence as much as it is needed. Due to the fact, classroom applications, material designs and instruction techniques, as suggested in this study, may be very effective in terms of introducing and exploiting spoken English in classroom environment.

CHAPTER 5

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Appendix 1

PRE-TEST OF THE STUDY

Name Surname:
Class:

MODULE 1

Read the dialogue between a police and a woman below. Write down the words, phrases, certain language features used in this dialogue that are not common in written/formal language but common in spoken/informal language.

Policeman: Good morning, Madam.
Woman: Morning.
Policeman: I hope you didn't have trouble getting here.
Woman: No. My son brought me, thank you very much.
Policeman: Oh, good.
Woman: So what do you want me to do?
Policeman: Look through this window if you don't mind.
Woman: Ah yes. At them, the men.
Policeman: That's right, Madam.
Woman: All right. I'm looking. What now?
Policeman: Well, I want you to take your time. Study the men very carefully.
Woman: Oh, no need.
Policeman: Sorry?
Woman: You know there's no need.
Policeman: What, you mean you can see the man who took your dog?
Woman: Right.
Policeman: Well, who is it?
Woman: That one.
Policeman: Which one?
Woman: The one with the beard.
Policeman: There are three men with beards.
Woman: Yes.
Policeman: So which one is it? Please.
Woman: The men in a green jacket.
Policeman: Yes, but there are three men with green…
Woman: Look! That one.
Policeman: Which one?
Woman: The one scratching his ear.
Policeman: Sorry, which green jacket?
Woman: That one.
Policeman: But, I mean, he doesn't have a green jacket.

Woman: Doesn't he?
Policeman: Actually, it's red.
Woman: Oh, well that explains it.
Policeman: It does?
Woman: Yes. My eyes aren't what they used to be, you see.
Policeman: But can you still be sure that number five is the man you saw?
Woman: Oh yes.
Policeman: Good.
Woman: At least, I think so.
Policeman: You think so! You can't be sure, can you?
Woman: Well you see, I only saw him from behind!

adapted from *Just Right Intermediate*, Harmer, 2004

MODULE 2

Choose the most suitable word or phrase to complete the dialogues below.

1. A: So you're a doctor?
   B: _____, I finish my training next year. So, not yet.

   a) I mean
   b) Right
   c) Listen
   d) Well

2. A: Hey, Susan. How are you?
   B: Hi, Kevin. I'm fine. How about you?
   A: Fine. Nice to see you back in town.
   B: Oh, thank you.
   A: Would you like to go to cinema with me tonight if you have time?
   B: _____ … Yeah, sure.
   A: Great! I'll call you.
   B: OK. See you.

a) Sorry
b) Come on
c) Well
d) You know

3. A: I have so many things to tell you!
B: About what?
A: About Jenny and his new boyfriend.
B: _____, we'd better leave now or we'll miss the train.

a) Well
b) Excellent
c) Congratulations.
d) I mean

4. Match the meanings of the answers of questions 1, 2 and 3 above in section B with the options below.

a) To change the topic of the conversation: _Question_____
b) To save thinking time _Question_____
c) To respond unexpectedly _Question_____

5. A: Hi, Jane. How are you?
B: Great… I passed my driving test.
A: Oh! _____

a) No!
b) Congratulations!
c) Poor you!
d) Lucky you!

6. A: Oh, _____
B: What happened?
A: The keys, I left them at home!
B: Don't worry, we have time.

a) excellent!
b) no!
c) yeah!
d) poor you!

7. A: Hi, David.
B: Hi, Simon.
A: It's been a long time. Where were you?
B: You remember the website I and Martin bought.
A: Yeah…
B: We are rich now… We earned half a million!
A: Oh, _____

a) poor you!
b) how terrible!
c) lucky you!
d) yeah!

8. How do you understand the meaning of 'oh' when you read a dialogue?

_____

___

9. What phrase do the speakers use when they wish to explain what they have said?

a) So b) All right c) Oh d) I mean

10. A: You are so red! How long have you been sunbathing? All morning?
B: *Actually*, I have been reading all day.
A: Yes but in the sun! Didn't you put any suncream on?
B: No.
A: You'd better go now. You are going to feel terrible tonight!

Is *actually* used in the dialogue for
a) agreeing
or
b) disagreeing ?

11. Look at the phrase *you know* in the dialogue below. Are they the same in meaning? If not, what is the difference in meaning and/or function?

A: Hey Stephen, do *you know* where I could find some second hand clothes?
B: Sure I do. Go to the Kane Street, *you know*, the one that John lives. There is a store at the end of that street.

_____

_____

12.
I. Fill in the conversation with the following lines.

1. Wonderful! Your skin looks fantastic.
2. Thanks!
3. Well… I don't think so.
4. Well, I must admit my face feels different now, as well.

JOANNA: Wow! The facial treatment made me feel great!
STEPHEN: (a) ……
JOANNA: How do I look?
STEPHEN: (b)……
JOANNA: Thanks. Well, maybe if you come to this spa center one more time, yours will be great as well.

STEPHEN: (c)……
JOANNA: Come on. We can come together, don't worry!
STEPHEN: (d)……

II. Answer the questions according to the dialogue above.

a. Is there a difference in meaning between Joanna's "Thanks" and Stephen's "Thanks!"?

a) Yes b) No

b. Which one is implying something else?

a) Joanna's b) Stephen's

c. Does the exclamation mark (!) change the meaning in the dialogue?

a) Yes b) No

If yes, how?

_____

http://www.teachingenglish.co.uk
adapted from *New English File Intermediate,* Oxenden C., & Latham-Koenig C., 2006

MODULE 3

1. I. Rewrite the underlined phrases below to make them full sentences.

a) A: Finished?
B: Not yet.

_____

b) A: How do you feel?
B: Fine.

_____

c) A: I came by bike, along the river.
B: Bit dangerous there, isn't it?

_____

d) A: I bought a brand new laptop when I was in town today, and I left it at my mother's?
B: Left what?

_____

II. Which ones are more informal in 1a, 1b, 1c and 1d?

a) the short clauses
b) the full sentences

2. Rewrite the sentences below by omitting the unnecessary words or phrases without changing the meaning.

a) "It'll melt, won't it, the ice-cream?"

_____

b) "Most places in Ireland, they are really quite cheap"

_____

3. Answer the questions according to the dialogue.

I. Put the following lines in order to make a conversation between two friends. The first one is done for you. (Coursebook Activity: Functional Language: Reacting to things you are told)

a. How was the film? [1]
b. That can't have been much fun. [ ]
c. No, it certainly wasn't. I got soaked. But then, when we were allowed back, they started the film again and offered all of us free tickets to any film for the next month. [ ]
d. Well, yes. We, all, had to go out into the street, even though it was raining. [ ]
e. It was a disaster. Halfway through they stopped it and told us we had to leave. [ ]
f. Leave? You must have been really fed up. [ ]
g. You must have been pleased. [ ]
h. I certainly was. Would you like to come to the next film with me? [ ]

II. Look at the quotations from the dialogue and answer the questions.

A: *That* can't have been much fun.
B: No, *it* certainly wasn't.

a) What do *it* and *that* refer to in the dialogue?

_____

b) Why do the speakers use different determiners *it* and *that* for the same thing?

_____

III. Why do we use *it*, *this* or *that*? Fill in the blanks with *it*, *this* or *that* to complete the general rules to use these pronouns.

a)_____ is used to distance ourselves from the aspects of the topic.
b)_____ simply continues what we are already talking/writing about without focusing in any special way.
c)_____ is used to focus or highlight new, important topics in the text, making them immediate.

4. Answer the questions according to the dialogue.

a) Before you listen to Track 34, choose the most appropriate line to fill in the correct conversation. (Functional language: Paying Compliments (pp 61)

1. I was given them by my aunt. 2. From that shop opposite the bank. 3. It was a present from my girlfriend.

JASON: I like your shirt.
LEO: Do you?
JASON: Yes.
LEO: _a)_____
JASON: Well, it looks good on you. What is it made of?
LEO: I don't know. Cotton, I think.

b) Rewrite the incomplete question "Do you?" to make it a full sentence.

_____

c) Rewrite the clause "Cotton, I think." to make it a full sentence.

_____

Just Right Intermediate, Harmer, 2004
Exploring Grammar in Context Carter, R., Hughes, R., & McCarthy, M., 2000

MODULE 4

Answer the questions according to the dialogue.

A (the man): Mandy, where is the sugar?
B (the woman): In the cupboard, on the right.
A: I can't see it. It isn't there.
B: Yes it is. Look for it.
A: I can't find it. It's definitely not there.
B: I *know* it's there. It's on the second shelf.
A: Well, I'm sorry but it isn't there.
B: The sugar?
A: Oh.

1) The text is about _____.
   a. cooking
   b. asking for money
   c. trying to find something
   d. losing the keys

2) The man is very _____.
   a. impatient
   b. careful
   c. smart
   d. helpful

3) The woman is _____.
   a. indecisive
   b. sure of herself
   c. considerate
   d. didactic

4) Does the man find the sugar at the end?

   a) Yes he does. b) No he doesn't.

adapted from *New English File,* Oxenden C., & Latham-Koenig C., 2006

Appendix 2

POST-TEST OF THE STUDY

Name Surname:
Class:

MODULE 1

1. Read the dialogue between two friends below. Write down the words, phrases, certain language features used in this dialogue that are not common in written/formal language but common in spoken/informal language.

ANNABELLE: I saw George recently.
KEITH: Oh yes.
ANNABELLE: You haven't been in touch?
KEITH: Oh well, on and off, you know.
ANNABELLE: Right.
KEITH: He's all right, then?
ANNABELLE: Yes. Actually he's doing rather well.
KEITH: He is?
ANNABELLE: Yes. In fact, do you now he has just had the house redecorated.
KEITH: He has?
ANNABELLE: Yes.
KEITH: Well, that's interesting.
ANNABELLE: Yes, well, but it's quite interesting you see.
KEITH: It is?
ANNABELLE: Yes, because he's had new wallpaper put in.
KEITH: New one?
ANNABELLE: Yes.
KEITH: And?
ANNABELLE: And, well it's rather special wallpaper.
KEITH: In what way?
ANNABELLE: Well, it's black.
KEITH: Black?
ANNABELLE: Black.
KEITH: Just black?
ANNABELLE: Well, not just black. It's got black lines on it, diagonal lines, you know from the bottom left to the top right at about 45 degrees.
KEITH: And you can see them?
ANNABELLE: See what?
KEITH: The lines.
ANNABELLE: Why shouldn't you?

KEITH: Because, well, black on black. They must be invisible - the lines I mean.

ANNABELLE: Well they aren't. The lines are a bit lighter than the background. I think that was it. Or vice versa.

KEITH: Isn't it very dark?

ANNABELLE: What?

KEITH: His house. I mean, if you put black one all over his house, it'll be pretty dark, won't it?

ANNABELLE: Perhaps.

KEITH: No, not perhaps. Dark wallpaper makes dark rooms. I mean even you must see that.

ANNABELLE: Hey it's all right. No need to get upset.

KEITH: I'm not upset.

ANNABELLE: Well it sounds as if you are.

KEITH: Well I'm not, OK?

ANNABELLE: OK. It's a bit dark I suppose.

KEITH: Yes. Well.

ANNABELLE: Guess how much this new wallpaper cost him?

KEITH: Why should I? I don't know anything about wallpaper. I'm not interested in wallpaper. It's not something I ever think unless I have to.

ANNABELLE: Oh go on. Guess.

KEITH: He's done the whole downstairs?

ANNABELLE: Yes.

KEITH: Well, I suppose a few hundred, no maybe, let's see, about twelve hundred pounds.

ANNABELLE: Uh uh.

KEITH: Fifteen hundred?

ANNABELLE: Uh uh.

KEITH: Two thousand?

ANNABELLE: Go on.

KEITH: Three thousand? Four thousand?

ANNABELLE: More than that.

KEITH: Five thousand? Ten thousand?

ANNABELLE: Don't stop.

KEITH: Fifteen thousand? Twenty thousand?

ANNABELLE: Twenty thousand quid.

KEITH: That's not possible.

ANNABELLE: Oh yes it is.

KEITH: For wallpaper.

ANNABELLE: For wallpaper.

KEITH: Twenty thousand quid. For wallpaper

ANNABELLE: Well, he's always had expensive tastes.

Just Right Intermediate, Harmer, 2004

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

_____

MODULE 2

Choose the most suitable word or phrase to complete the dialogues below.

1. A: Are you new here?
   B: _____, it's been 5 months.

   a) Really
   b) Well
   c) I mean
   d) OK

2. A: Hey, Michael. How are you?
   B: _____ … not so fine.
   A: Why? What happened?
   B: My girlfriend… She wants a break.
   A: Really? I'm so sorry.

   a) Excellent
   b) Right
   c) I mean
   d) Well

3. A: Hey Carla. Where have you been? You haven't returned to my calls!
   B: Sorry. I was so busy.
   A: Shall we go out some time later, maybe tomorrow?
   B: Maybe later. _____ I must go now, I need to catch the bus.
   A: Sure. Call me!

   a) Well
   b) Come on
   c) You know
   d) I see

4. Match the meanings of the answers of questions 1, 2 and 3 above in section B with the options below.

a) To change the topic of the conversation: _Question_____
b) To save thinking time _Question_____
c) To respond unexpectedly _Question_____

5. A: Hi Daniel!
   B: Hi Jack!
   A: You seem very happy.
   B: That's right. I passed the proficiency exam.
   A: Oh, _____

   e) No!
   f) Congratulations!
   g) Poor you!
   h) Lucky you!

6. A: What happened? What was that noise?
   B: I broke the vase!
   A: The antique one that my great grand mother left me before she died?
   B: Sorry!
   A: Oh, _____

   a) poor you!
   b) yeah!
   c) lucky you!
   d) no!

7. A: Rick! Hey, Rick! How are you?
   B: Hi Lisa! Fine I suppose, and you?
   A: Fine. Is it true that you've started your own business?
   B: That's right! But we're having hard times… Things are not so great.
   A: Oh, _____ . I'm sure everything will get better soon.
   B: Thanks, hope so.

   e) poor you!
   f) congratulations!
   g) lucky you!
   h) yeah!

8. How do you understand the meaning of ‘oh’ when you read a dialogue?

_____

9. a) Read the dialogues. In each case, choose an appropriate response from the box. More than one answer is possible in some cases.

Congratulations! Well done! I'm sorry to hear that. Oh, no!

Lucky you! That's terrible! Excellent! You idiot!

A A: Have you heard about Chris and Shirley?

B: No… what about them?

A: They’ve split up.

B: 1) ----------

B E: Guess what. I’ve won a holiday to Florida.

F: 2) ----------. Is it a holiday for two?

E: Yes, I’m taking my mum.

F: Oh.

C I: Oh, no!

J: What’s the matter?

I: I’ve left my bag on the bus.

J: 3) ----------. What are you going to do?

I: I suppose I’d better ring the bus company.

b) In the dialogues, ‘oh’ expression is used in …

1. Dialogue A
a) a positive way b) a negative way

2. Dialogue C
a) a positive way b) a negative way

3. Dialogue E
a) a positive way b) a negative way

10. a) Fill in the blank with the most suitable word or phrase and write the function of the word or phrase.

A: Hey, Susan! Hi! I haven't seen you for a long time.
B: Hi, John. That's right! It's been a while.
A: I wanted to call you but I couldn't.
B: Did you?
A: _____, I tried but I didn't know what to say.
B: Well. Maybe, we don't have anything to say to each other.
A: Really?
B: Yes. Take care.

a) So b) I see c) Poor you d) I mean

b) Function: _____

11. Fill in the blank with the most suitable word or phrase and write the function of the word or phrase.

A: Can I use your car tonight?
B: The last time you took it was a disaster!
A: _____ no! The other driver was drunk!
B: Whatever! You'll crash it again.
A: I won't. I'll really be careful. I'll drive slowly. I promise.
B: OK. Here you are. But be careful.
A: Thanks. See you later.

a) I mean b).you know c) actually d) right

Function: _____

12. Look at the phrase *you know* in the dialogue. Are they the same in meaning? If not, what is the difference in meaning and/or function?

A: Umm, well, I know this is silly but do *you know* how to connect up to the Internet?
B: Sure I do. It's about the system you are using, *you know*, Microsoft or Apple.

_____

_____

13. I. Before you listen to Track 65, put Jane's questions and answers in the right gaps.

VICKY: Hi Jane, how are you?
JANE: (a) ……
VICKY: Oh, fine, I suppose. You're looking well, by the way.
JANE: (b) .....
VICKY: Good.
JANE: (c) .....
VICKY: Thanks!
JANE: (d).....
VICKY: It's all right. It's true; I have been a bit under the weather recently. Work, that kind of thing.
JANE: (e)…….
VICKY: 'Oh, I don't really think I'm up to it. Do you mind?
JANE: (f)……..

1 But what about you? You look terrible.
2 I'm fine. How about you?
3 No sorry, I mean…
4 Oh, poor you. Listen, why not come round after the practice and I'll try and cheer you up.
5 No, not at all. Get well soon.
6 Thanks. I had an infection. I was off work, but I'm better now.

II. Answer the questions according to the dialogue above.

a. Is there a difference in meaning between Vicky's "Thanks" and Jane's "Thanks!"?

a) Yes b) No

b. Which one is implying something

else?

a) Vicky's b) Jane's

c. Does the exclamation mark (!) change the meaning of the dialogue?

a) Yes b) No

If so, how?

_____

Inside Out Intermediate, Kay et al., 2001
Just Right Intermediate, Harmer, 2004
New English File Intermediate, Oxenden C., & Latham-Koenig C., 2006

MODULE 3

1. I. Rewrite the underlined phrases below to make them full sentences.

a) A: Thought about my question?
B: Not really.

_____

b) A: How do you feel?
B: Terrible.

_____

c) A: When I was 18, I went to Europe by interrail all by myself.
B: Bit scary, wasn't it?

_____

d) A: I asked him if he could join us for dinner?
B: Asked what?

_____

II. Which ones are more informal in 1a, 1b, 1c and 1d; the short clauses or the full sentences?

_____

2. Rewrite the sentences below by omitting the unnecessary words or phrases without changing the meaning.

a) "He'll pay it, the money he owes you, don't worry."

_____

b) "The teacher with glasses, he seems very nice."

_____

3. Answer the questions according to the dialogue.

I. Put the following lines in order to make a conversation between two singers. The first one is done for you. (Coursebook Activity: Functional Language: Going Shopping)

i. Hard work. We had to do three scores. [ ]
j. How was last night's show? [**1**]
k. Great. That must have been a nice feeling. [ ]
l. I was. Still am. But the audience loved us. [ ]
m. That couldn't have been very pleasant - especially since you got home late. [ ]
n. The taxi broke down! That can't have been much fun. [ ]
o. Well, no, it wasn't. And then my baby son woke me up at six o'clock this morning. [ ]
p. So you see why I'm so tired. And now I have to go back and do the show all over again. [ ]
q. Yes. It was great. But then the taxi broke down on the way home. [ ]
r. Three? You must have been exhausted. [ ]

II. Look at the quotations from the dialogue and answer the questions.

a) A: Great. That must have been a nice feeling.
B: Yes. It was great. But then the taxi broke down on the way home.

b) A: The taxi broke down! That can't have been much fun.
B: Well, no, it wasn't.

a) What do *it* and *that* refer to in dialogues a and b?

a -_____ b-_____

b) Why do the speakers use different determiners *it* and *that* for the same reference?

_____

III. Why do we use *it*, *this* or *that*? Fill in the blanks with *it*, *this* or *that* to complete the general rules to use these pronouns.
a)_____ is used to distance ourselves from the aspects of the topic.
b)_____ simply continues what we are already talking/writing about without focusing in any special way.
c)_____ is used to focus or highlight new, important topics in the text, making them immediate.

4. Answer the questions according to the dialogue.

I. Before you listen to Track 21, put the travel agent's questions and recommendations (in the box) into the correct gaps to complete the conversation. (Coursebook Activity: Functional Language: Recommendations)

TRAVEL AGENT: (a) ……
BEN: We'd like to book a holiday.
DUNCAN: Yes, can you recommend anything?
TRAVEL AGENT: (b) ……
DUNCAN: Oh you know, sun, sea, sand, the usual.
TRAVEL AGENT: (c) ……
BEN: Well, we've been to Spain once already.
TRAVEL AGENT: (d) ……
DUNCAN: Italy? That's a great idea, but actually we'd prefer somewhere a bit more, well, exotic.
TRAVEL AGENT: (e) ……
BEN: I don't think we could afford that.
TRAVEL AGENT: (f) ……
DUNCAN: Yes, but is it worth it?
TRAVEL AGENT: (g) ……
BEN: Can I have a look at the brochure, that one?
TRAVEL AGENT: (h) ……
BEN: Thanks.

1. Actually, it's probably not as expensive as you think.
2. All right then, can I suggest Rio de Janeiro?
3. OK, what about somewhere in Spain, say Sitges near Barcelona?
4. Sure. Take your time.
5. Well, it's definitely worth considering.
6. Well, what kind of holiday do you want?
7. Well then, how about Sorrento in Italy?
8. Yes, can I help you?

II. Look at the quotations from the dialogue and answer the questions.

a) What do *it* and *that* refer to in the dialogue?
BEN: I don't think we could afford *that*.
TRAVEL AGENT: Actually, *it*'s probably not as expensive as you think.

_____

b) Why do the speakers use different determiners *it* and *that* for the same reference in the dialogue above?

_____

c) Rewrite the question of the travel agent below by omitting unnecessary or repeated words.
TRAVEL AGENT: OK, what about somewhere in Spain, say Sitges near Barcelona?

_____

d)Look at the text again to complete the omitted clause *the usual* ...
DUNCAN: Oh you know, sun, sea, sand, the usual.

_____

e)What does "one" in the text refer to?

_____

5. Answer the questions according to the dialogue.

Before you listen to Track 76, put the following conversation in the correct order. The first one is done for you. (Coursebook Activity: Functional language: inviting someone)

[1] Hi Carol.
a) [ ] Ainsley, what are you talking about?
b) [ ]Hello Ainsley.
c) [ ]Fantastic!
d) [ ]Is it? Well yes, I suppose it is.
e) [ ]It's a nice day.
f) [ ] Look, I was wondering, well that is I had this idea and I thought perhaps, but perhaps not, I don't know.
g) [ ]Come to the cinema. With me.

h) [ ]You know what? That would be great.
i) [ ]That would be great.
j) [ ]Oh well, all right ... What did you say?
k) [ ] Would you like to come to the cinema
tonight?
l) [ ] Would I like to what?

1. Is there a difference between *this* and *that* in the dialogue?

   a) Yes b) No

2. In the dialogue *this* is used…

   a) to refer to the place where the speakers are at the moment

   b) for an important new topic

3. In the dialogue *that* is used by the girl because she…

   a) wants to distance herself.

   b) believes the idea is not important.

Exploring Grammar in Context Carter, R., Hughes, R., & McCarthy, M., 2000
Just Right Intermediate, Harmer, 2004

MODULE 4

Answer the questions according to the dialogue.

A (the woman): Tony. Can you come here a minute?
B (the man): What?
A: Can you help me?
B: What is is?
A: It's the computer. The printer doesn't work.
B: Can you wait a minute?
A: TONY!
B: Coming. What's the problem?
A: It's the printer. It doesn't work.
B: It helps if you turn it on!

1) The text is about _____.
   a. trying to find a present.
   b. asking for help.
   c. waiting for the bus.
   d. calling a mechanic.

2) The man is _____.
   a. hardworking.
   b. tired.
   c. busy.
   d. smart.

3) The woman is _____.
   a. careless.
   b. intelligent.
   c. patient.
   d. lovable.

4) “It helps if you turn it on!”

   Does the printer work at the end?
   a) Yes it does. b) No it doesn’t.

adapted from *New English File,* Oxenden C., & Latham-Koenig C., 2006

Appendix 3

LEAD-IN TASKS

MODULE 1

Look at the picture on the right. What do you think they are talking about? Write a conversation between John Burney; the witness, who is describing the scene, and the police officer. The phrases and the sentences below are given to help you to write the conversation. You need to add more phrases and sentences to write the dialogue. The first sentence is given below.

"The one with the gun?"

"And the girl, what about the girl?"

"Oh, yeah, well, she just stands there keeping a lockout, I suppose, for the police - for you."

"Can you describe these people?"

"No, there were two men and a girl. It's the other man I'm talking about, the one carrying the suitcase, well, he goes up to the other guy…"

"I thought you said there were three men, didn't you?"

BURNEY: There were two men, I think. No, three…

Now read the conversation below between Burney and the police officer. Compare it with your conversation.

BURNEY: There were two men, I think. No, three. They ran into the bank and the one with the gun, the tall one, he runs up to the what-do-you-call-it, you know, where the cashier is, well, the window anyway, and starts shouting something. I don't know, 'Give me the money', or something, no, that was it, 'Give me all your money', and the other one…
POLICE OFFICER: I thought you said there were three men, didn't you?
BURNEY: No, there were two men and a girl. It's the other man I'm talking about, the one carrying the suitcase, well, he goes up to the other guy…
POLICE OFFICER: The one with the gun?
BURNEY: The one with the gun, he opens the suitcase and the cashier, well, she - well, all the other people behind the window - they hand over piles of money and the two men put it into the suitcase and then they run out. It was 1.35. They'd been in there for about five minutes.
POLICE OFFICER: And the girl, what about the girl?
BURNEY: Oh yeah, well, she just stands there keeping a lockout, I suppose, for the police - for you.
POLICE OFFICER: Can you describe these people?
BURNEY: Oh, yeah. The man with the gun was quite tall with long grey hair and dark glasses. The other one, the one with the suitcase, was a black guy, about one meter seventy, one seventy-five, probably about, you know, thirty years old, something like that. He was really skinny with jeans and a blue T-shirt.
POLICE OFFICER: What about the girl?
BURNEY: She had long blonde hair, you know probably about twenty-five and really slim, with bright red trousers and a white shirt.

adapted from *Just Right Intermediate*, Harmer, 2004

Answer the questions below according to the dialogue.

1. Is the language of the text above formal or informal?

2. Do we use words like "Oh", "Well", "You know" in spoken language or in written language?

3. a) Is "The one with the gun?" a full sentence?

   b) Is it a question?

   c) How can you make it a whole sentence?

   d) What does 'one' refer to in "The one with the gun?"?

4. a) Is the question “And the girl, what about the girl?” a standard question form?

   b) Why do you think ‘the girl’ is repeated?

   c) What is the subject of the sentence below? Can you rewrite the sentence by omitting unnecessary words without changing the meaning?
   “The one with the gun, he opens the suitcase…”

5. a) What kind of a question is “I thought you said there were three men, didn’t you?”?

   b) Can we see this type of question in formal dialogues?

MODULE 2

1) What are the meanings and/or functions of “well” in the dialogues below?

a)_____ b)_____
c)_____
_____ _____
_____

A: Let’s dance! B: The tango? Me? Oh, no! A: You should try it. Come on! B: **Well** I don’t know…	A: David, you should do your homework. B: Later. A: David! B: **Well**, I need some sleep now.	A: Can I sit here, please? B: **Well**, my friend is coming right away.

2) Match the different usages of "Thanks" with the conversations.

a) A: How are you?
   B: Fine, thanks.

b) A: You look absolutely beautiful today.

B: Oh, thanks.

c) A: Sometimes I believe that you are a mess!
B: Thanks!

Which dialogue is

- asking how someone is
  _Dialogue_____(___)
- implying discomfort with the statement
  _Dialogue_____(___)
- complimenting
  _Dialogue_____(___)

Does the exclamation mark give meaning to *thanks*?

How?

3) Read this dialogue and think about how it could be improved.

Ken: Hi, Steve. How are you?
Steve: Oh, not too bad. Actually, it's my wedding anniversary today.
Ken: Oh.
Steve: But, I forgot and my wife was really upset.
Ken: Oh.
Steve: But I just rang Le Petit Blanc and they actually had a table free, so we're going
out for dinner.
Ken: Oh.
Steve: Anyway, I must go.
Ken: Er, yeah, me too. See you!

4) Fill in the blanks with the words below. Think about their function.

you know actually right I mean

A: Oh, hi Jason!
B: Hi Christine!
A: It's been a long time since I last saw you.
B:_____(1) .
A: Where do you live now, Jason?
B: I live in Birmingham.

A: Birmigham?
B: _____(2), not exactly, but in a town close to Birmingham.
A: I used to live there two years ago, _____(3)_.
B: Really! _____(4)_, I thought you were in Spain.
A: No, I couldn't go there.
B: I see. Call me later?
A: I will. See you.
B: See you.

adapted from *Inside Out Intermediate*, Kay et al., 2001 and
Just Right Intermediate, Harmer, 2004

MODULE 3

1) What does *it/this* and *that* refer to in the text below?

[A customer asks for help in a bookshop.]
Customer: I wonder if you could help me.
Assistant: Yeah. Customer: I'm looking for two books, one's a book on organisation. *Schools* as *organisations,* by Charles Handy. (Assistant: Oh, yes] Can you tell me where it might be?
Assistant: Yes, there would be one or two places we've, got it in stock. [Customer: Yes] It might be in the business section, because all his books are generally in the business section. (Customer: Yes] But I doubt...
Customer: That's on this floor, is it?
Assistant: Yeah, It's downstairs.

2) Rewrite the underlined clauses below to make them full sentences without changing the meaning.
a)

A: Last night, I studied all night long.
B: Did what?
A: I studied.
B: Hope you can pass the exam tomorrow.
A: Hope so.

b)

A: Coming?
B: In a minute.

c)

A: How are you?
B: Absolutely terrified.
A: Why?
B: The exam is getting closer.

3) Answer the questions according to the dialogue.

A: Would you like to taste these cookies?
B: Well, thanks. I'll take that one.
A: They're rather small, take two (_____).
B: Hmm, the chocolate cookie, that is delicious.
A: You can take it, the brown one as well.
B: You're so kind. Thank you.

a) What does 'one' refer to?

b) Fill in the blank to complete the sentence "…take two (_____)."

c) Is there any extra word in the sentence "the chocolate cookie, that is delicious"? If so, what is it?

d) Is there any extra word in the sentence "You can take it, the brown one as well."? If so, what is it?

adapted from *Discourse and Language Education,* Hatch, 1992
adapted from *Exploring Grammar in Context* Carter, R., Hughes, R., & McCarthy, M., 2000

MODULE 4

Answer the questions below.

1) A: Did you get the milk and the eggs?
B: I got the milk.

The Question: Did the second speaker get the eggs?

a) YES b) NO

2) A: Did you manage to fix that leak?
B: I tried to.

The Question: Did the second speaker fix the leak?

a) YES b) NO

3) A: I hear you've invited Mat and Chris.
B: I didn't invite Mat.

The Question: Did the second speaker invite Chris?

a) YES b) NO

4) A: What happened to your flowers?
B: A dog got into the garden.

The Question: Did the dog belong to the second speaker?

a) YES b) NO

adapted from *New English File,* Oxenden C., & Latham-Koenig C., 2006

Appendix 4

TRANSCRIPTION CONVENTIONS

Transcription conventions are adapted from Pennington (1999) and Jefferson (1984) which is shown in the table below:

Symbol	Function
001	Line number
	Current Speaker
T	Teacher
Ss	Several students at once or the whole class
S1	Identified Student
[ ]	overlap
…	pause

Appendix 5

TRANSCRIPTIONS OF THE LESSONS

Module 1

001 T: OK. Let's have a look at this picture. What do you see in it?
002 S1: A police and a man.
003 T: Right. What are they doing?
004 Ss: They are talking.
005 T: What do you think they are talking about?
006 S2: The man is explaining.
007 S3: Murder!
008 T: Maybe. OK. What do we say to a person who sees an event?
009 S1: Criminal?
010 T: No. That is the person who commits a crime.
011 S4: (checking dictionary) Witness!
012 T: That's right. Great. The man is a witness. His name is John Burney. Now, you will write the dialogue between Mr. Burney and the police. Some of the sentences you will use to complete the dialogue are here, on this paper. Do it individually. The first sentence is given. What are we doing?
013 S1: Writing a dialogue.
014 T: OK. You can start now. You have 10 mins.
(10 mins later)
015 T: Have you finished?
016 S5: Not yet.
017 T: OK. You have one more minute.
(1 min later)
018 T: OK everybody. Check your dialogue with your pairs.
019 Ss: OK.
020 T: Now, this is the original dialogue. Read it and compare it with your dialogue.
021 S2: This is long.
022 T: That is right but no problem. Now look at the text and answer my questions.
023 Ss: OK.
024 T: Is the language of the text formal or informal?
025 Ss: Informal.
026 T: How do you understand?
027 S6: Speaking but not formally.
028 T: What else? Focus on vocabulary.
029 S2: Words like "yeah", "oh".
030 T: Great. Do we use words like "Oh", "Well", "You know" in spoken language or in written language?
031 Ss: Spoken language.

032 T: Can you underline these words in the text?
033 Ss: Yes…
034 Ss: Finished.
035 T: All right. Now find "The one with the gun?". Underline it. Is it a full sentence?
036 Ss: No.
037 T: How do you understand?
038 S7: No verb.
039 T: That's right. Is it a question?
040 S4: Yes.
041 T: But there is no verb.
042 S4: There is a question mark.
043 T: Good point. So, some of the words are omitted in the sentence.
044 S7: Omitted?
045 T: Missing. Can you make it a whole sentence?
046 S3: "Where is the one with the gone?"
047 T: But look at the text. There is a "yes" answer after it.
048 S3: Sorry.
049 S2: "Is he the one with the gun?"
050 T: Great. So we understand that some words can be omitted in the sentences.
051 Ss: Yes.
052 T: In spoken or written language?
053 Ss: Spoken language.
054 T: It means, in formal or informal language?
055 Ss: Informal language.
056 T: Well done. Look at the question again. What does 'one' refer to in the text?
057 S6: 'the man'.
058 T: Great. OK, now look at another question "And the girl, what about the girl?". Did you find it?
059 Ss: Yes.
060 T: Is it a standard question form?
061 Ss: No.
062 T: Why do you think 'the girl' is repeated?
063 S6: To talk about it.
064 T: Sure, but why twice?
065 S2: It is important.
066 T: Right. So we can say, to emphasize the word.
067 Ss: Yes.
068 T: OK. Is it a standard question form?
069 Ss: No.
070 T: So can they be used in formal conversations?
071 Ss: No.
072 T: Now look at "The one with the gun, he opens the suitcase…" Did you find it?
073 Ss: Yes.
074 T: What is the subject of the sentence?
075 S2: 'he'
076 T: What about "the one with the gun"?
077 S2: It's also the subject.
078 T: Right. Can we say they refer to each other?

079 Ss: Yes.
080 T: Why do you think they are repeated?
081 S6: To emphasize the word.
082 T: Well done. Now, can you rewrite the sentence by omitting unnecessary words without changing the meaning?
083 S5: "The one with the gun opens the suitcase…"
084 T: That's right. Finally, I'd like you to look at the underlined sentence.
085 S5: "I thought you said there were three men, didn't you?"
086 T: Yes. What kind of a sentence is it?
087 S3: A question.
088 T: Right. What kind of a question?
089 S6: A tag question.
090 T: Absolutely. Can we see them often in formal conversations?
091 Ss: No.
092 T: In informal conversations?
093 Ss: Yes.
094 T: Very good everybody.

Module 2

001 T: Where do we use well?
002 S1: In dialogues.
003 T: Does it make the sentence more formal or informal?
004 Ss: Informal.
005 T: That's right. Why do we say well?
006 S2: To say 'good'.
007 T: Not always. There are some different functions of well in spoken language. For example, someone is talking about something but you do not talk about it and you change the topic.
008 S3: You don't want to talk about it?
009 T: Yes, it may be the reason. Another use of well may be more familiar to you. Why do you say "hmmm" in Turkish?
010 S4: To think…
011 T: Absolutely, you are saving thinking time when you say well. And lastly, if you don't want to say 'no' to the other person but your answer is not as the other person expects; you may use well.
012 S1: Difficult to understand!
013 T: Don't worry, I have some dialogues for you to help you understand better. OK. Look at these three dialogues and try to guess the meanings and/or functions of well.
014 S3: In dialogue c, is it similar to 'no'?
015 T: Yes, not as direct as 'no' but similar. Are there any other guesses?
016 S4: In dialogue b, he wants to change the topic.
017 T: Do you agree?
018 Ss: Yes.

019 T: Absolutely. So, dialogue a?
020 S5: He tries to think.
021 T: Great. We have talked about the meanings of well. Next, there is another word you all know thanks. Why do you say 'thanks'?
022 S4: To be polite.
023 S5: To say thank you.
024 T: OK. Look at these three short dialogues (lead-in task) and try to guess the meanings or functions of thanks.
025 S5: They mean 'thank you'.
026 T: Yes, all of them is a form of thank you, but are they the same in meaning?
027 Ss: No.
028 T: Which one is much more different than the others?
029 S4: Dialogue C.
030 T: Why?
031 S4: Different meaning.
032 T: Right. OK let's do together. "How are you? Fine thanks?" What is it?
033 S5: asking how someone is.
034 T: That's right. How about number 2? "You look absolutely beautiful today." "Oh, thanks."
035 Ss: Compliment.
036 T: Yes. That's a compliment. And number 3. "You are a mess." "Thanks!"… means…
037 Ss: discomfort
038 T: How about the exclamation mark? Does exclamation mark give meaning to thanks? If so, how?
039 S6: What is exclamation mark?
040 T: (drawing on board) This is exclamation mark.
041 Ss: OK.
042 T: What's the meaning there? It says something else.
043 Ss: Meaning 'angry'?
044 T: Similar. OK. Positive or negative?
045 Ss: Negative.
046 T: How about in number 1 and 2?
047 Ss: Positive.
048 T: Great. So, exclamation mark emphasizes the negativity.
049 Ss: Yes
050 T: Now, there is another word which is used frequently in dialogues; 'oh'. How do people use it in dialogues?
051 S4: "Oh my God!"
052 S1: "Oh great."
053 T: Right. So, is it usually used alone or with other words?
054 Ss: With other words.
055 T: That's right. How do you understand its meaning in a sentence?
056 S3: From other words.
057 T: OK. (on the WB) For example; poor you, excellent, well done, no, congratulations (congrats), lucky you, that's terrible. In which situations can they be used with oh?
058 S6: Negative and positive.
059 T: All right. Which of them do we use in negative and which in positive?
060 S6: 'that's terrible' and 'no' in negative.

061 T: Is it all?
062 Ss: Yes.
063 T: How about ‘poor you’?
064 S7: Also, in a bad situation.
065 T: Right. And the others are used in positive ones. Do they have difference in meaning?
066 Ss: Yes.
067 T: How do you understand it?
068 S6: From the dialogue.
069 T: Absolutely. Now, look at this dialogue (lead-in task - question 3). Read it and tell me what the problem is.
070 S7: “oh”.
071 T: What is wrong with “oh”?
072 S7: There are no other words with it.
073 T: Fantastic. So, can you understand their meanings?
074 Ss: No.
075 T: Look at the board. I’ll underline some of the words on the board. (underlining ‘that’s terrible!’, ‘congratulations!’, ‘excellent!’ on the WB)
076 Ss: OK
077 T: Try to match the ‘oh’ expressions in the dialogue with those words. You have 3 minutes.
(3 mins later)
078 T: Have you finished?
079 Ss: Yes.
080 T: The first one…
081 S8: “Congratulations”.
082 T: Do you agree?
083 Ss: Yes
084 T: The second one…
085 Ss: “That’s terrible”.
086 T: Great and the last one is…
087 Ss: “Excellent!”
088 T: Well done. So far, which words have we talked about?
089 Ss: Thanks
090 T: What else?
091 Ss: Oh
092 T: And?
093 S3: Well.
094 T: That’s right. There are a few more words related to this topic I’d like you to pay attention. Look at the board. (Writes on the board; you know,
095 S2: Right means agree.
096 T: OK. What else?
097 Ss: …
098 T: Let’s try to compare and contrast them though an activity. Look at the dialogue (lead-in task) and try to guess which one goes where. You have 2 minutes.
(2 minutes later)
099 T: Have you finished?
100 S2: Yes but not sure.

101 T: No problem. Let's start. We have talked about right. You have an idea about its meaning. We generally use it to agree with the other person. Where do you think it goes?
102 S3: 2?
103 T: But it says "not exactly", so do you think they agree?
104 S4:1?
105 T: What do you think?
106 Ss: Yes.
107 T: That's right. How about I mean?
108 S5: Tells the meaning.
109 T: Hmm, not exactly. For instance, there is a dialogue between a mother and her daughter. The mother says; "Where have you been?". The daughter says; "What?. The mother replies "I mean you were supposed to be at home two hours ago". The daughter says, "Sorry, there was traffic." In this short dialogue, why does the mother use the expression I mean?
110 S6: Because she explains it.
111 T: That's right. She tries to explain what she said earlier "Where have you been?". So, she tries to repair, fix her sentence.
112 Ss: Yes.
113 T: If she is trying to explain or fix her sentence, do you think there will be a sentence after I mean or not?
114 S7: No sentence.
115 T: But think about what she said in the dialogue "I mean you were supposed to be at home two hours earlier".
116 S7: Sorry. There is a sentence after it.
117 T: Absolutely. So, which one do you think is I mean?
118 S4: 2?
119 T: Do you agree?
120 Ss: Yes.
121 T: That's right. How about actually? Do you know its meaning?
122 S8: In fact?
123 T: Well done. And, generally, where do we use it in a sentence?
124 S7: At the beginning?
125 T: Yes. Does the speaker generally agree or disagree when she/he uses it?
126 Ss: Disagree.
127 T: All right. Which one is actually in the activity?
128 Ss: 4.
129 T: Well done. Let's talk about the use and meaning of you know. In the activity, which one is you know?
130 S3: 3?
131 T: Do you agree?
132 Ss: Yes.
133 T: Why do you think the speaker uses that phrase in the dialogue?
134 S5: The other speaker knows the situation.
135 T: That's right. So we can say that they have a shared knowledge.
136 Ss: Yes.
137 T: How about if I use it as "do you know…"? Is it the same or different?
138 S3: Different.
139 T: Absolutely. Very good everybody. Thank you.

Module 3

001 T: OK everybody. Now we will study some dialogues. Firstly, I would like to take your attention to it, this and that (writes on whiteboard). Why do we use it, this and that in dialogues?
002 S1: To refer.
003 T: That's right. To refer to other things. Yes… Are there any differences between them?
004 Ss: Yes.
005 T: We will talk about the differences between them and why the speakers use them. Let's start with that. Why do we use that in conversations?
006 S2: Because it is far away.
007 T: Right. So, we can say if a speaker uses that he/she wants to distance himself/herself from the conversation.
008 Ss: Yes.
009 T: Which one do you think is used for an important new topic?
010 S4: It?
011 T: Be careful: "for an important new topic".
012 S5: this
013 T: Yes. And if we simply continue what we are already talking/writing about without focusing on in a special way, which one do we choose?
014 S6: it
015 T: Very good everybody. Now… can you look at this part (sets the students to look at the model dialogue, Carter, 2000) and find out what it, this and that refer to in this dialogue. What do they refer to; it, this and that? What do they mean? For example, (reading from the text) "…Can you tell me where it might be? ... We have got it on stock." What does it refer to?
016 S3: Organization?
017 T: But, what is it?
018 S5: the book?
019 T: Good… It's the book, right? We're talking about the book. OK. And it's referring back to something.
020 Ss: Yes.
021 T: (reading parts of the dialogue)… "That is on this floor, is it?" What is that? … (reading again).
022 S7: The business section.
023 T: Well done. And this? "…on this floor?" What does this refer to?
024 S5: the place.
025 T: Very good, everybody. Now, look at these short conversations. Can you rewrite the underlined clauses in the dialogues to make them full sentences? But, do not change the meaning.
026 Ss: OK.
027 T: You have 5 minutes.
(5 mins later)
028 T: Finished?
029 S2: I am not sure if it is true.
030 T: Check your answers with your partners. OK… Let's check! Question a; "Did what?".
031 S4: Did you do it?
032 T: Is it a yes/no question?

033 S4: No.
034 T: Look at the answer “I studied”.
035 S7: “What did you do?”
036 T: Do you agree?
037 Ss: Yes.
038 T: Absolutely. How about question b?
039 S1: “When do you come?”
040 T: Look is the word in the clause ‘come’ or ‘coming’?
041 S1: Coming.
042 T: So…
043 S1: When are you coming?
044 T: It can also be something else.
045 S7: "Are you coming?"
046 T: Great. The other one, question c?
047 S8: “I was absolutely terrified”.
048 T: Look at the question. Is it in the past or the present?
049 S8: Present.
050 T: So…
051 S8: “I am absolutely terrified”.
052 T: What do you think?
053 Ss: Agree.
054 T: Great. Well done. Now look at this dialogue and answer the questions below. You have 5 mins.
(5 mins later)
055 T: Finished?
056 S5: Yes.
057 S3: Almost.
058 T: OK check your answers with your partners. Now… Question a?
059 S5: cookies.
060 T: The question is ‘one’ or ‘ones’?
061 S5: one
062 T: So, do you think it should be singular or plural?
063 S5: singular… “cookie”
064 T: Yes. That’s right. Question b?
065 S8: cookies
066 T: Do you agree?
067 Ss: Yes.
068 T: Right. Question c? Which word or words can we omit?
069 S7: “The chocolate cookie”
070 T: We shouldn’t change the meaning or make it unclear.
071 S7: “That”?
072 T: What do you think?
073 Ss: Agree.
074 T: That’s right. We can omit it. How about question d? Which one will you omit?
075 S4: “it”
076 T: Why?
077 S4: Because it refers to “the brown one”.
078 T: Absolutely. Well done everybody.

Module 4

001 T: Why do we speak?
002 S1: To communicate.
003 T: That's right. When we communicate what do we deliver to each other?
004 S2: Messages.
005 T: Great. Do we always tell our messages directly?
006 Ss: No.
007 T: How do we tell them?
008 S3: Indirectly.
009 T: Exactly. How do we understand the indirect messages?
010 S4: We guess.
011 T: Right. We try to guess or infer the speaker meaning from the dialogue. Now look at the short dialogues and try to answer the Yes/No questions below. You have 5 mins.

(5 mins later)

012 T: Finished?
013 Ss: Not yet.
014 T: OK. Check your answers with your partners and discuss. You have 5 more minutes.

(5 mins later)

015 T: Finished?
016 Ss: Yes.
017 T: All right. Question 1, did the first speaker get the eggs?
018 S3: No he didn't.
019 T: How do you understand?
020 S3: Because if he had got them, he would say "Yes I did".
021 T: Do you agree?
022 Ss: Yes.
023 T: OK. What about Question 2, did the second speaker fix the leak?
024 S5: No he didn't.
025 T: How do you understand?
026 S5: Because he said "I tried to". He means I tried to but I couldn't.
027 T: Well done. What about Question 3, did the second speaker invite Chris?
028 S6: Yes he did. He didn't invite Mat but he invited Chris.
029 T: Do you all agree?
030 Ss: Yes.
031 T: That's right. And the last question, did the dog belong to the second speaker?
032 S7: Yes it did.
033 T: Do you agree?
034 Ss: No!
035 T: Why not?
036 S5: Because it says "a dog got into the garden", not "my dog"!
037 T: Do you understand?
038 S7: Yes.
039 T: Well done everybody. Thank you.

Appendix 6

QUESTIONNAIRE

Please, read the statements below numbered from 1 to 12, which are related to dialogue activities, and for each statement give your opinion, circling one of the options.

Question	Strongly Agree	Agree	Disagree	Strongly Disagree
1. I always do the dialogue activities in our coursebook. (Ders kitabımızdaki diyalog aktivitesi bölümlerini sürekli yapıyorum.)	4	3	2	1
2. I think that those sections are very useful. (Bu bölümlerin çok faydalı olduğunu düşünüyorum.	4	3	2	1
3. I think that the dialogues in our coursebook are realistic. (Ders kitabımızdaki diyalogların gerçekçi olduğunu düşünüyorum.)	4	3	2	1
4. I believe that the dialogue activities in our coursebook are easy. (Ders kitabımızdaki diyalog alıştırmalarının kolay olduğuna inanıyorum.)	4	3	2	1
5. In dialogues, when I see some expressions I do not come across in written language, I can infer their meanings and/or functions. (Yazı dilinde karşılaşmadığım ifadeleri, kullanımları diyalog içinde gördüğümde anlamlarını ve/veya işlevlerini çıkarabiliyorum.)	4	3	2	1
6. If I can not understand certain features of spoken language, I find it hard to do the activities. (Ders kitabımızdaki diyaloglarda geçen bazı konuşma dili ifadelerini anlayamadığım zaman aktiviteleri yapmakta zorlanıyorum.)	4	3	2	1

7. I think the dialogue activities in our coursebooks include certain features of spoken language that make them difficult to understand. (Ders kitabımızdaki diyalog aktivitelerinin, konuşma dili ifadeleri içerdiği için anlaşılmalarının zor olduğuna inanıyorum.)	4	3	2	1
8. I think it is difficult to do these activities without the help of the teacher. (Bu alıştırmaları öğretmen yardımı olmadan yapmanın zor olduğuna inanıyorum.)	4	3	2	1
9. In our coursebook, we do not have enough lead-in tasks before dialogue activities. (Ders kitabımızda yeteri kadar diyalog öncesi ön hazırlık aktivitesi verilmiyor.)	4	3	2	1
10. I think there should be lead-in tasks before the dialogue activities in the coursebooks to prepare us for the certain features of spoken language. (Kitaplarda diyalog aktivitesi öncesi, bizi konuşma dili özelliklerine hazırlamak için ön hazırlık alıştırması verilmesi gerektiğini düşünüyorum.)	4	3	2	1
11. I think we need to be explained and informed about non-standard forms of language use in the dialogues. (Diyaloglarda geçen standart cümle dışı yapıların önceden açıklanması ve kullanılış biçimleriyle ilgili bilgilendirilmemiz gerektiğini düşünüyorum.)	4	3	2	1
12. I think it is useful that our teacher presents us some lead-in tasks before the dialogue activities to help us understand certain features of spoken language. (Öğretmenimizin diyalog aktivitesi öncesi konuşma dilini anlamamızı sağlayacak ön hazırlık alıştırmaları yapmasının bize faydalı olduğunu düşünüyorum.)	4	3	2	1

Appendix 7

ZALİHA SİNEM ESKİKÖY

sinemeskikoy@yahoo.com

EDUCATION:

- 2008 – 2010, MALTEPE UNIVERSITY, ELT Department, M.A. in English Language Teaching. GPA 3.77
- 1999 – 2003, HACETTEPE UNIVERSITY, Faculty of Letters, B.A. in American Culture and Literature
- 1995 – 1999 Ahmet Şimşek College, (with scholarship).

EXPERIENCE:

- 2007 - … Okan University, Istanbul. Instructor, Level Co-ordinator, Curriculum Office employee.
- 2007 - 2009 Time Language Course, Instructor, Istanbul. (adult education, UDS/ KPDS all levels - at the weekends)
- 2006 – 2007, Private Yakacık Balkanlar Primary School, Istanbul. Head of English Department
- 2005 – 2006, Siirt Science School, English Teacher
- 2004 – 2005, Siirt Anatolian Teacher's High School, English Teacher
- 2003 – 2004, Royal Carribean International, Customer Relations Specialist, Miami / USA

PROFESSIONAL QUALIFICATIONS:

- International Training Institute, University of Cambridge ESOL Diploma in English Language Teaching to Adults, DELTA Module 1 Certificate (August 2010)
- International Training Institute, 'How to be a good workshop presenter' Teacher Trainer Course (December 2009 – January 2010)

- International Training Institute, University of Cambridge ESOL Examinations, Level 4 Certificate in Teaching English to Speakers of Other Languages CELTA (February – April 2009)
- British Side, Drama for English Teachers Certificate (from Laura Woodward) (January - February 2007)
- NLP Education, Bill Bowler (September 2006)
- Hacettepe University, Faculty of Education, English Language Teaching Certificate (September 2001 – June 2002)
- Hacettepe University, HÜFAM, Public Relations Certificate Programme (October – December 2001)
- Goethe Institute, German Course (1997- 1999)

WORKSHOP PRESENTATIONS:

- Workshop presentation at ITI, Istanbul on *Error Correction and Feedback* (December 2009)
- Workshop presentation at *British Council* on *Error Correction* and *Concept Check Questions* (November 2009)
- Workshop presentation at Okan University on *Error Correction* and *Concept Check Questions* (September 2009)

SEMINARS:

- ISTEK Schools, 1st ELT Conference: "A Mixture of Inspiration, Excitement and Hard Work" (March, 2009)
- TED Istanbul Private School; MLT (Modern Language Teaching) Conference "Changing the Trends to Meet the Ends" (April 2007)
- Çevre Private Primary School, ELT Conference "Management is nothing more than motivating other people" (February 2007)
- Ulusal Ajans, Comenius Contact Seminar "Environmental Consciousness" (15-19 November 2006)

PROJECTS:

- European Union, Comenius Programme project: “Back to Mother Earth, A Garden of Eden in Anatolia” (2007)
- Work Camp Organization, environmental development project (France, 2001)

Foreign Language:

- English (advanced)
- German (pre-intermediate)

Computer Skills:

- Microsoft , WORD, EXCEL, POWERPOINT advanced

Personal Information:

- Date of Birth : Jan. 9, 1982
- Place of Birth : Istanbul
- Marital Status: Single
- Gender: Female

Interests:

- Drama, psychology and philosophy
- Computer skills, web-design
- Tennis, swimming
- International cinema fests, theatre and jazz concerts
- Cultural travels (France and Switzerland – workcamp and festival organization in 2001, Italy and Greece - Interrail in 2000)