A QUASI-EXPERIMENTAL STUDY OF IMPLICATURES IN COURSE BOOKS USED AT UNIVERSITY PREPARATORY SCHOOLS IN ANKARA

AREZOO BABAEI AJABSHIR

M.A. THESIS
DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEACHING

GAZI UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTE OF EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES

JANUARY, 2016

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TELİF HAKKI VE TEZ FOTOKOPİ İZİN FORMU

YAZARIN

Adı	:	**Arezoo**
Soyadı	:	**Babaei Ajabshir**
Bölümü	:	**İngilizce Öğretmenliği**
İmza	:	
Teslim Tarihi	:	

TEZİN

Türkçe Adı	:	ANKARA'DAKİ ÜNİVERSİTE HAZIRLIK OKULLARINDA KULLANILAN İNGİLİZCE DERS KİTAPLARINDAKİ SEZDİRİMLER ÜZERİNE YARI-DENEYSEL BİR ÇALIŞMA
İngilizce Adı	:	A QUASI-EXPERIMENTAL STUDY OF IMPLICATURES IN COURSE BOOKS USED AT UNIVERSITY PREPARATORY SCHOOLS IN ANKARA

ETİK İLKELERE UYGUNLUK BEYANI

Tez yazma sürecinde bilimsel ve etik ilkelere uyduğumu, yararlandığım tüm kaynakları kaynak gösterme ilkelerine uygun olarak kaynakçada belirttiğimi ve bu bölümler dışındaki tüm ifadelerin şahsıma ait olduğunu beyan ederim.

Yazar Adı Soyadı :   Arezoo BABAEI AJABSHIR

İmza:

To My Family

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ANKARA'DAKI ÜNİVERSİTE HAZIRLIK OKULLARINDA KULLANILAN İNGİLİZCE DERS KİTAPLARINDAKİ SEZDİRİMLER ÜZERİNDE YARI-DENEYSEL BİR ÇALIŞMA

(Yüksek Lisans Tezi)

AREZOO BABAEI AJABSHIR

GAZİ ÜNIVERSİTESİ

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ÖZ

Genel olarak, bağlamda sözlerin anlamının incelenmesi bilimi olarak tanımlanan edimbilim, artan bir şekilde dilciler ve dil eğitimcilerin ilgisini çekmektedir. Edimbilim, iletişimi mümkün kılan, dil kullanımının toplumsal ve kültürel yönlerini araştırmayı amaçlamaktadır. Yapılan araştırmalara göre; edimbilim öğretimi, özellikle açık öğretme yöntemi ile, çok daha verimli sonuçlar vermektedir. Sezdirim ise edimbilimin bir alt dalı olarak, bu araştırmanın odak noktasıdır. Grice (1967) tarafından alanyazına giren sezdirim kavramı, söylenenin sözlük anlamının ötesindeki anlam(lar)ına karşılık gelir. İroni ve deyimler sezdirimlerin örneklerindendir. Genelde edimbilimin özelde sezdirimlerin, açık öğretme yöntemiyle öğretmek başta olmak üzere, öğretilebilir olduğu ortaya konmuştur. Ancak bu güncel konu ile ilgili alanyazında halihazırda yeteri kadar araştırma bulunmamaktadır. Bilhassa, genel İngilizce ders kitaplarının sezdirim öğretiminde yeterlikleri konusunda alanyazında büyük bir boşluk bulunmaktadır. Edimbilim ve sezdirim öğretiminde bazı araştırmalar bulunmasına rağmen, açık ve örtük öğretme yöntemlerinin sezdirimler öğretimindeki etkileri çok ayrıntılı olarak ele alınmamaktadır. Bu araştırma yukarıda değindiğimiz alanyazın boşluklarının bir kısmını doldurmayı amaçlamaktadır. Araştırma, yalnızca Cümle Düzeyindeki Geleneksel Sezdirimleri (CDGS) ve Özelleştirilmiş Konuşma Sezdirimlerini (ÖKS) kapsamaktadır. Araştırma, söz konusu sezdirimlerin kitaplardaki durumu hakkında bir içerik analizi ile başlamaktadır. Sonraki adımlarda bu kitapları kullanan öğretmenlerin edimbilim ve sezdirim konusunda bilgilerini ve firkirlerini ele almaktadır. Son olarak, Gazi Üniversitesi İngilizce Hazırlık Okulunda ileri düzey öğrencileri ile yapılan yarı-deneysel uygulamada elde edilen açık ve örtük sezdirim öğretiminin sonuçları kıyaslanmaktadır.

İçerik analizinin sonuçları kitapların sezdirim öğretiminde yeterli olmadıklarını göstermektedir. 14 kitabın içinden ancak 5 kitapta az sayıda da olsa sezdirim öğretimi bulunmaktadır. Anketlerin incelemesi ise öğretmenlerin edimbilim ve sezdirimler, ve onların öğretimi konusunda yeteri kadar bilgi ve beceriye sahip olmadıklarını göstermektedir. Yarı-deneysel uygulama ise bu çalışmadan önce yapılan araştırmaları destekler şekilde açık öğretmenin sezdirimlerde daha etkili olduğunu ispatlamaktadır. Açık öğretme yöntemi uygulanan grup örtük öğretme uygulanan gruptan daha etkili performans sergilemiş olup, bu hem sezdirimlerin anlaşılmasına hem de üretilmesine yansımıştır. Açık öğretme uygulanan öğrenciler doğrudan cevaplar üretme konusunda daha etkili bir performans göstermişlerdir.

Bütün olarak araştırmanın sonuçlarını değerlendirdiğimizde, sezdirim öğretiminde hala yapılacak çok şeyin olduğu sonucuna varabiliriz. Araştırmanın ortaya koyduğu diğer önemli bir sonuç ise, açık öğretmenin örtük öğretmeye göre daha etkili olduğudur. Bu bulgular, malzeme geliştiricilere, İngilizce öğretmeni yetiştiren eğitimcilere, halen görev yapmakta olan İngilizce öğretmenlerine, ve İngilizce öğretmeni adaylarına öğretim süreçlerinde sezdirim öğretimi konusunda katkı sunabilir.

Bilim Kodu :
Anahtar Kelimeler : edimbilim, sezdirim, sezdirim öğretimi, ders kitapları, içerik analizi, açık ve örtük öğretme
Sayfa Adedi: i-xx, 199 sayfa

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(MA Thesis)

AREZOO BABAEİ AJABSHİR

GAZI UNIVERSITY

INSTITUTE OF EDUCATIONAL SCIENCES

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ABSTRACT

Pragmatics, which is generally defined as the study of meaning in context, has been gaining increasing attention in linguistics and language teaching. It is what accounts for the social and cultural aspects of language use, without which language users would not be able to produce and interpret utterances properly and communication would fail. Previous research indicates that teaching pragmatics, explicit teaching in particular, proves to be effective. As a subtopic of pragmatics, implicature is the central concern of the current study. A term introduced by Grice (1967), implicature refers to what is meant but not said literally. Irony and idioms are examples of implicatures. Following the research about teaching pragmatics, research in teaching implicatures proves their teachability; explicit teaching specifically. Yet, there is scant research on these rather new subjects in teaching. There is specifically a large gap in the research on the sufficiency of course books in terms of implicatures. There is not enough research about teachers' approach to teaching implicatures as well. Although there is already research in teaching pragmatics and implicature, a detailed research on how explicit and implicit teaching approaches can affect implicature understanding and production of students is too few. The current research aims to shed a light on the just-mentioned gaps. Limiting the scope of the research to only Particularized Conversational Implicatures (PCIs) and Sentence-Level Conventional Implicatures (SLCIs), the study initially starts with a content analysis of 14 course books, aimed at finding activities teaching these types of implicatures, or dialogues which expose learners to them. It then goes on to report on the views and knowledge about implicatures of the general English upper-intermediate instructors of 5 different universities in Ankara. Finally, the effects of explicit and implicit teaching on teaching implicatures is tested on about 50 students.

The results of the content analysis indicated that the course books hardly consider teaching implicatures. Only five out of fourteen course books yielded results, and these results were not remarkable. The results of the questionnaires unfortunately prove that teachers do not have a satisfactory level of knowledge about implicatures, and much less they teach them.

The results of the experiment, on the other hand, verify previous research by proving that explicit teaching is more effective than implicit teaching in teaching implicatures. The explicit group outperformed the implicit group in total score which included both reception and production, and particularly in production of implicatures. SLCIs are particularly learned more effectively by explicit instruction. The explicit group learners also produced more correct direct answers in the post-test.

The results all indicate that the teaching of implicatures seems to be rather neglected and not given the attention it deserves, whether by the course books, or by teachers. It also suggests that implicature teaching needs to be done more by explicit methods than by implicit ones. These findings might illuminate the way for material developers, teacher trainers, pre-service teachers, and in-service teachers to reconsider their teaching objectives to accommodate teaching implicatures and how to do it.

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

PCI	Particularized Conversational Implicature
SLCI	Sentence-Level Conventional Implicature
CP	The Cooperative Principle
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
DCT	Discourse Completion Task
ANCOVA	Analysis of Covariance
Sig	Significance
NS	Native Speaker
NNS	Non-Native Speaker
L1	First Language

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background to the Study

Pragmatics is defined as the study of how utterances have meanings in situations and how this is used in communication (Leech, 1983). It is a relatively new field of study in linguistics, and it has been neglected as a major topic in linguistics for a long period (Bouton, 1994; Bublitz and Norrick, 2011; Kubota, 1995; Tuan and Hsu, 1999). Yet, now not only is its role, as a linguistic branch, established, but also the necessity of its instruction has been proved by a number of studies (Billmyer, 1990; Bouton and Kachru, 1990; Kubota, 1995). One cannot be considered to have a good command of a language without being familiar enough with the cultural rules of the language; since language and culture are inseparable (Tzotzou and Kotsiou, 2015). The fact that pragmatics is where language and culture meet makes the importance of pragmatics even more emphasized. There is no doubt that communication with the least contingency of miscommunication is one of the most important goals of learning a language; therefore, pragmatics must receive plenty of attention.

Implicature, a term suggested by Grice (1967), is one of the relevant subjects of pragmatics. The term denotes the directly unstated meaning extracted from an utterance according to the contextual indications. As we will discuss in more detail in the later sections, explicit instruction of implicatures saves plenty of time for students; hence, it is usually preferred over inductive learning (Bouton, 1994). In English as a Foreign Language (EFL) learning environments, the issue of teaching pragmatics and implicatures is even more problematic (Kubota, 1995). Therefore, a substantial part of foreign language teaching curriculum must cover this aspect. In the current study, we are interested in two specific types of implicatures; Particularized Conversational Implicatures (PCIs), and Sentence-Level Conventional Implicatures (SLCIs); the definitions of which will be discussed in detail in literature review.

On the other hand, there is no doubt that materials and books studied in the language courses play a major role in incorporating any kind of instruction into the curriculum (Vellenga, 2004). This is why one of the foci of the current study is going to be course books; if they provide tasks and activities to teach implicatures, and if they do, to what extent.

Secondly, teachers are unquestionably other major influencing factor in any curriculum. In order to provide their learners with knowledge and skills, they must be familiar with and capable of doing them at a certain level. In this study, we will also collect data from a group of teachers in terms of their role in teaching implicatures to the learners.

As already mentioned, a number of studies have proved the efficiency of teaching pragmatics in general, and implicatures in particular (Alcón Soler, 2005; Blight, 2002; Bouton, 1994; Ifantidou, 2013; Kubota, 1995; Olshtain and Cohen, 1990; Tuan and Hsu, 1999). They have also unanimously concluded that explicit instruction is more effective. The current study will also check the validity of this conclusion through a quasi-experimental study with a Turkish group of upper-intermediate EFL learners.

1.2. Purpose of the Study

Books comprise one of the most central of materials used in the classroom, and essentially have an important role in learners' learning process (Richards, 2001). Researchers conduct content analysis to find out to what extent they have accomplished their aims, researchers conduct content analysis. This is also one of the data collection methods of the current study; with the purpose of discovering the degree to which English course books are effective in teaching implicatures, specifically in conversational discourse. The research scope is confined to upper-intermediate course books studied at preparatory schools of language from five universities in Ankara. English preparatory schools of universities are where hundreds of students attain their language proficiency before they start to take their courses in the university. Below are the first set of research questions to be answered in this research. The answer for these questions will be provided by content analysis.

1. Do the course books studied at upper-intermediate level of university English preparatory schools in Ankara, Turkey, contain tasks, and activities to teach implicatures, and how? Do these books present examples of them to learners in conversations?

a) Do the course books contain any purposeful instructions on PCIs, or SLCIs? If they do, are these instructions implicit or explicit?

b) Do the dialogues expose learners to PCIs, or SLCIs? If they do, to what extent?

c) What kind of implicatures are more prevailing? PCIs, or SLCIs?

Given that the necessity of a specific attention to pragmatics and implicatures is established, how can we evaluate the teachers' knowledge and views towards these notions? Are they aware of such aspects of language and the ways with which they can teach them to their learners? What are their suggestions for improving learners' knowledge of implicatures? The second set of research questions is as below:

2. What is the awareness level of teachers about implicatures and of the ways to teach them?

a) Are the upper-intermediate level teachers of the five participating universities aware of what pragmatics and implicatures are?

b) Have they already received training on teaching these aspects of language to their students?

c) What are their opinions regarding teaching pragmatics and implicatures?

d) Do they teach pragmatics and implicatures to their students? If they do, do they teach them implicitly, or explicitly?

e) How do they evaluate their students' knowledge of and interest in implicatures?

f) How do they evaluate the course books and materials in terms of teaching pragmatics and implicatures?

g) Do the teachers who have a part in material development for the upper-intermediate students, consider incorporating teaching pragmatics and implicatures into the materials they design for supplementing the main book? Do they have any criteria for incorporating pragmatics in general and implicatures in particular into the materials?

h) What are their ways and suggestions to improve teaching implicatures?

As mentioned above, the current study also aims to test the effectiveness of two approaches of teaching on teaching implicatures to groups of upper-intermediate Turkish EFL students;

teaching explicitly, and teaching implicitly. The third, and last set of research questions, given below, are related to this issue.

3. Which approach to teaching implicatures yields better results; implicit, or explicit?
    a) Does teaching implicatures help learners improve their pragmatic competence of implicatures (reception and production)?
    b) Which teaching approach to teaching implicatures does prove to be more effective? Explicit teaching, or implicit teaching?
    c) In what ways do students show variability in the post-test?

1.3. Importance of the Study

Grammar and vocabulary are still at the center of attention in most courses. For students to be considered successful, they are expected to make correct sentences by the sentence abiding by the structural rules. How about being appropriate?

Comprehension and production, especially in the more advanced levels, depend not solely on the grammatical competence, but also on the speakers' knowledge of the cultural rules and context-awareness (Tzotzou and Kotsiou, 2015).

While the role and significance of teaching pragmatics, and implicatures as part of it is acknowledged by a number of studies, not all language curricula and books pay enough attention to this aspect of language teaching (Vellenga, 2004). However, there are too few studies in content analyses of the course books and materials in terms of pragmatics, and a complete gap in content analyses of course books in terms of implicatures. The current study aims to fill this gap by a detailed content analysis of course books studied at the upper-intermediate level of English Preparatory Schools of five major universities in Ankara. As the first step for eliminating any problem is detecting it. Hence, relying on the results of this content analysis, we can shed a light on a possible pragmatic lack in course books, and thereupon, present curriculum developers extra criteria which they might consider for future language curricula.

Another extremely important element in the curriculum is the teacher. Accordingly, one other question this study seeks an answer for is regarding the teachers' roles in teaching pragmatics and implicatures. In this research, we aim to find out to what extent they are familiar with pragmatics and implicatures, and what their ideas are related to teaching them.

This is also another research gap in the literature; finding out how a tertiary level general English teacher is informed about implicatures, and what her perspective is towards them. This may influence the teacher trainers to reconsider the major subjects, and gear the teacher training syllabi, with which they nourish the apprentice teachers towards pragmatic skills.

The last stage of the study is concerned with finding out the more effective of the two ways to teach implicatures: implicit or explicit. As mentioned earlier, a number of studies supported the idea of explicit instruction of pragmatics and implicatures. This study will test the same idea by experimenting the idea on groups of Turkish EFL learners, with more details. This experiment will verify other studies, or be in disagreement with the previous studies. In any case, we will discuss the possible reasons and indications of each.

Therefore, a thorough investigation will be conducted on a triangular model, representing three leading roles of the curriculum; the materials, the instructors, and the methods employed. As the general result, this study might shed a light on the ways curriculum must be improved in such a neglected area as pragmatics in general, and implicatures in particular, to make EFL teaching more effective.

1.4. Assumptions

We assume that the learners involved in the experimental part of this study collaborated mentally, besides collaborating physically, by getting engaged in the learning process. We assume they tried their best at the exams.

Since this research is for the most part a qualitative research, some amount of error and subjectivity is inevitable. However, the results of the content analysis are assumed to be objective. We assume that the questionnaires have been filled carefully and honestly by the participant teachers.

1.5. Limitations of the Study

Considering the limitations in time and financial resources, the content analysis section of this study could not go farther than five universities in Ankara: Gazi, Ankara, Hacettepe, METU, and Bilkent.

The experimental section of the study is limited to the upper-intermediate level students of Gazi English Preparatory School due to time limitation and the implementation difficulties in more universities.

Due to the limitations in scheduling, we had to do the teaching in a single day for each group. Additionally, we could not get more than 5 hours for each group; thus, some activities and more practice was skipped according to the teacher's choice.

Unfortunately, because of the absence of some students at either of the exams, the useable data dropped by half, from about 100 to less than 50.

The universities were unwilling to share their institutionally prepared materials. This lack was attempted to be compensated by two open-ended questions in the questionnaire; however, they were unfortunately answered by only 2 participants. Thus, we could not make any significant evaluations regarding these materials.

1.6. Definition of Terms

Pragmatics: A branch of linguistics studying the language in use (Crystal, 2004; Leech, 1983). One acknowledged definition views pragmatics as the study of the relation between context and structure (Levinson, 1983). Pragmatics is the branch of linguistics which studies topics such as deixis, presupposition, implicature, etc.

Implicatures: The meaning behind what is said (Grice, 1991). Grice (1975) divided implicatures into two groups of conventional and conversational implicatures. Conversational implicatures are highly based on the context, while conventional implicatures are attached to some particular structures, words, and phrases.

Competence: The knowledge within the mind, in contrast to performance which is in fact the knowledge in action (Chomsky, 1965).

English Preparatory Schools: The courses held in universities to improve students' English language proficiency in order to help them fulfill the language prerequisites for starting their specific field of study. At the end of these courses and after assessment, learners receive a certificate that verifies their sufficient language proficiency.

Quasi-Experimental Study: Experimental studies are aimed at establishing the cause and effect relationship by isolating the matter under study and controlling all the major

influencing factors. the quasi-experimental study is an experimental study in which the selection of subjects is not random (Walliman, 2006).

Explicit Teaching: An attempt by the teacher to change learning from outside (Sanz and Leow, 2012) by conscious and declarative knowledge (DeKeyser, 2003).

Implicit Teaching: The process of teaching in order to make learners acquire unconscious, automatic knowledge (DeKeyser, 2003).

Content Analysis: A methodology used in social sciences. It is the act of analyzing texts in an objective way in order to systematically investigate the elements inside. Babbie (1998) defines content analysis as the investigation of the written communication.

Task: A piece of work or an activity, which is aimed at a particular result and ranges between more communicative and less communicative tasks (Littlewood, 2004).

Activity: An organized set of tasks aimed at a set of results or learning outcomes.

Questionnaire: "A written set of questions that are given to people in order to collect facts or opinions about a subject" ("Merriam Webster Online Dictionary," 2015).

Particularized Conversational Implicature (PCI): A highly context dependent type of implicature introduced by Grice (1975), which is cancellable, and not dependent on certain words.

Sentence Level Conventional Implicature (SLCI): The sentence-level types of conventional implicatures. Conventional implicatures are defined by Grice (1975) as loosely dependent on context, and associated with certain words; such as idioms.

The Cooperative Principle (CP): "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. One might label this the Cooperative Principle." (Grice, 1991, p. 26)

Backwash Effect: "… the direct or indirect effect of examinations on teaching methods." (Prodromou, 1995, p. 13)

CHAPTER 2

REVIEW OF LITERATURE

2.1. Pragmatics

2.1.1 Defining Pragmatics

A definition of pragmatics must inevitably be the starting point of the current study. Pragmatics did not appear as an independent branch of linguistics until 1960s and 1970s. Since the second half of the twentieth century, there has been an increasing interest in pragmatics and it is not looked down on as the linguistic waste basket any more (Mey, 2001). However, the diverse attempts of many linguists in giving a single inclusive definition prove that it is not an easy and straightforward task. Perhaps, as Bublitz and Norrick (2011) put it, this difficulty is why linguists prefer to answer the questions about the boundaries of pragmatics by concentrating on what pragmatics is not, rather than what it really is.

The word pragmatics is usually associated with the Greek word 'prăgma', which is translated as "practical" or "just right at that stage" (Bublitz, 1981). It is not a linguistics-only field; pragmatic research is also a subject of interest in technology, social sciences such as economics, politics, and education. The most important studies in pragmatics will be reviewed in this section.

We shall begin reviewing the literature associated with pragmatics by mentioning the name and contributions of one of the first pragmatists, philosopher Charles W. Morris (1901-1979). In his *Foundations of the Theory of Signs (1938)*, he discusses semiotics and language as a system of signs. He defines semantics, syntax and pragmatics from a semiotic point of view. To him, semantics is the study of the relation of signs to the objects; syntax is the study of the relation of the signs to each other; and pragmatics is the study of the relation of the signs and the interpreter. Morris views pragmatics as the biotic aspect of semiotics, dealing

with psychological, biological, and sociological phenomena (Levinson, 2005). According to Kecskes (2014), all other definitions of pragmatics have been inspired by this definition.

With the emergence of such a trichotomy, Chomsky's syntax-only view of language became obsolete (Mey, 2001). However, were pragmatics to be fit into Chomsky's competence-performance model, pragmatics would be in the performance side. Morris adds that since the interpreter of the language is a human, pragmatics deals with psychological, biological, and sociological aspects of communication.

Leech (1983) defines pragmatics as the study of how utterances have meanings in situations and how this is used in communication. He believes that although pragmatics is usually treated as a non-linguistic property of language, it must not be defined as what does not fit into the linguistic boundary. He also distinguishes pragmatics from grammar by the feature of goal directedness of pragmatics. Leech uses the term 'communicative grammar' to describe the relation between linguistic forms and their pragmatic uses.

Yule (1996) views pragmatics as the study of the mutually communicated messages, between the producer of the message and the interpreter. In other words, he believes pragmatics studies the language beyond the literal meanings that words and phrases carry.

He summarizes his definition of pragmatics in a couple of key sentences: Pragmatics is the study of speaker meaning, contextual meaning, how more gets communicated than is said, and the study of the expression of relative distance.

Yule mentions that the advantage of studying pragmatics is that it allows us to study the intended meanings of speakers. The main disadvantage of pragmatics, on the other hand, is the almost inherent subjectivity it has. In spite of this subjectivity, however, there are also regularities in language use among the members of any particular society.

Bublitz and Norrick (2011) introduce pragmatics as what pertains to the felicity or appropriateness in context; it is the knowledge of language use and the speaker-intended meaning. Pragmatics, according to them, is concerned with context dependent meaning in other words.

Kecskes (2014) states that pragmatics is about how language varies in different social situations. He emphasizes on the relationship between language and language user. It is what accounts for our choice of the utterances; whether in word-level, or discourse-level.

Levinson (2005) presents a review of the definitions of pragmatics. According to him, fitting the concept of pragmatics into a comprehensive definition and establishing its borders is indeed not an easy task. He finds the definition of pragmatics as simply 'the study of language usage' just like defining syntax as 'the study of structure' and semantics as 'the study of meaning' very insufficient.

He reviews some definitions which he evaluates as being weak and others which are rather stronger. One of the weak definitions considers pragmatics as what accounts for the anomalous utterances. Another assumes it as the study of language from a functional perspective, being merely about performance while Levinson criticizes this view by arguing that pragmatics is not always about non-linguistic factors.

A better definition, according to Levinson, views pragmatics as the study of the relationship between context and structure; in more simple words, the study of context encoded in the structure. Levinson does not find this definition adequately satisfying either, since it does not encompass the contextual factors that are not conspicuous in the structure, such as the conversational implicatures. Another definition views pragmatics as what accounts for anything that semantics does not. Yet, another definition views it as the study of appropriateness. Finally, a definition which Levinson calls ostensive, simply lists the subfields of pragmatics. All of these views focus on one or some specific aspects without managing to stay within the appropriate scope; yet all have some points.

All the different definitions also have a few elements in common. According to Kecskes (2014), different definitions of pragmatics have some elements in common: the linguistic code, the producer-interpreters, and the socio-cultural context. Context seems to be the very core of all.

It is worth mentioning a distinction made between general and linguistic pragmatics. Leech (1983) uses the term general pragmatics to refer to the study of the general conditions of the communicative use of language and the more specific local conditions. It is concerned with actions, while linguistic pragmatics is concerned with the form and function of speech acts although they usually share the same aims. Both are interested in context and action; however, linguistic pragmatics pertains to the realization of intentionality, rationality, and action theory in language (Bublitz and Norrick, 2011).

2.1.2 The Pragmatics-Semantics Distinction

The borders between the syntax with semantics and syntax with pragmatics has not been a matter of much controversy. Syntax is defined as the way that words relate to each other, without taking into account the world outside; semantics, as the study of what the words mean by themselves, out of context as they are in a dictionary, while pragmatics studies the relation of language to the context (Cutting, 2002). However, there have been debates over the borders between semantics and pragmatics.

Clearing the line between pragmatics and semantics has been a topic of interest for linguists. Demirezen (1991) believes that pragmatics is a step ahead of semantics, stating that pragmatics is semantics plus the contextual considerations, and that these two are complementary. Leech (1983) suggests that a good way to distinguish pragmatics from semantics is to understand the difference between these two questions: 'What does X mean?' and 'What does the speaker mean by X?'. The latter is the concern of pragmatics, while the first one is studied by semantics. Despite this, he admits that drawing an objective discriminating line between these two fields is not simple; since he views them as being interrelated and complementary. According to Leech (1983) semantics studies a dyadic relationship; the relationship between the language and meaning. While pragmatics is concerned with a triadic relationship; a relationship between the speaker, language and meaning. Situation is a key factor in defining pragmatics and semantics; it is what pragmatics relies on and does not concern semantics much.

Bublitz and Norrick (2011) state that the semantic-pragmatic distinction becomes important at the interpretation level, where the interpretation of an utterance is first done by the literal interpretation, following by pragmatic inferring. The semantic operation is a unidirectional one, while the pragmatic operation is interactive.

Some linguists believe that the definition of pragmatics and semantics do not interfere with each other (Recanati, 2010). These linguists believe that semantic knowledge is a part of linguistic knowledge, while pragmatic knowledge has more to do with theory of mind. However, this sharp distinction is losing its proponents since now it is almost accepted that the semantic value of expressions cannot be determined without taking into account the pragmatic factors; what semantics gives as an output, and pragmatics receives as an input (Recanati, 2010). Despite all, pragmatics is subordinated to the semantics because it comes to play after semantics.

2.1.3 Context

Context is the common point around which all the different definitions of pragmatics gather. Although it is probably the most important factor in defining pragmatics, it is quite ambiguous.

As is pragmatics the subject of a variety of fields, context is of relevance to fields ranging from philosophy and computer-mediated communication to cognitive science, such as artificial intelligence (Bublitz and Norrick, 2011). The considerable variety in the definitions of context is due to the different perspectives that authors have towards its nature.

What we are mainly concerned with in this research is no doubt what context is in relation to linguistics and language. Linguists believe that language has meaning only in the context. Context is the accumulation of linguistic, epistemic, physical, social, etc. factors that influence the messages received (Kecskes, 2014). The content and the message of an utterance must be understood in relation to the sender and the receiver of the message. It is the determining factor in the lexical choices we make (Kecskes, 2014) since it frames the content while being influenced by other frames in turn (Bublitz and Norrick, 2011). Mey (2001) states that the advantage of context in language use is that language users do not have to get involved in all the tedious details in each situation. With the help of context, interpreters not only figure out what words mean, but also deal with ambiguities (Mey, 2001). It is also the background knowledge that the speaker assumes the hearer shares with her and plays a role in the interpretation of the utterance (Leech, 1983).

An example given by Mey (2001) helps to clarify how crucial the context is. He draws attention to how the sentence: "It's a long time since we visited your mother" can mean dramatically different in two different contexts. This sentence, when uttered at the coffee table in a couple's living room, has a totally different meaning than the same utterance uttered by a husband to his wife while they are at the zoo in front of an animal cage. This demonstrates how the same utterance can create different effects to the degree of being opposite.

Most linguists argue that context is a dynamic phenomenon (Bublitz and Norrick, 2011; Kecskes, 2014; Mey, 2001). The context in which communicators assign meanings to utterances is in a consistent transition and change during the process of communication. The socio-cognitive approach, according to Kecskes (2014), views context as a dynamic concept. He states that context represents declarative and procedural knowledge at the same time. It

has both a selective and a constitutive role. The context decides largely upon what the people involved see and how they interpret their receptions.

According to Bublitz and Norrick (2011), in addition to an interactive view of context, some linguists perceive context as a static concept. Based on this view, context is mainly the background knowledge that the participants have.

The classification of context is also an issue often mentioned in discussions about context. One classification divides context into linguistic, cognitive, and social context (Bublitz and Norrick, 2011). Linguistic context is which is limited and shaped by the genre. Cognitive context, on the other hand, is what the derivation of meaning is based on. Cognitive context is comprised of mental representations, propositions, contextual assumptions and factual assumptions. Finally, social context is constituted by factors such as users, the physical context, including time and location, etc. As Mey (2001) puts it, social context is also dependent on the groups from which the participants come. Thus, it depends on the culture, nature, and community (Allwood, 1990). Allwood (1990) emphasizes on the salience of the role of culture as a constituent part of context, and accordingly the role of the importance of social context.

Another classification of the context types puts it in three types: Situational context, background knowledge, and co-textual context (Cutting, 2002). The situational context is related to the speakers' knowledge about the world around. As the name suggests, it is about the situation where the communication takes place. The background knowledge is concerned with the cultural and interpersonal knowledge. Finally, the co-textual context is "what they [language users] know about what they have been saying" (Cutting, 2002).

2.1.4 Pragmalinguistics and Sociopragmatics

An important categorization within pragmatics was introduced by Leech (1983) which breaks general pragmatics into two main branches: Sociopragmatics and pragmalinguistics. He introduces sociopragmatics as the branch of pragmatics which deals with the sociological aspects of the language use. It is what connects the speakers' social distance, the social roles, proper behaviors and social norms with language (Bublitz and Norrick, 2011). Sociopragmatics is language and culture specific (Leech, 1983). Pragmalinguistics, however, is defined as the study of the forms and linguistic tools and the resources, namely, that a particular language puts at disposal of the users for achieving their pragmatic goals

and realizing speech acts (Bublitz and Norrick, 2011; Hassall, 2011; Kasper, 1997; Leech, 1983). Leech (1983) depicts the sociopragmatic-pragmalinguistic distinction by Figure 1:
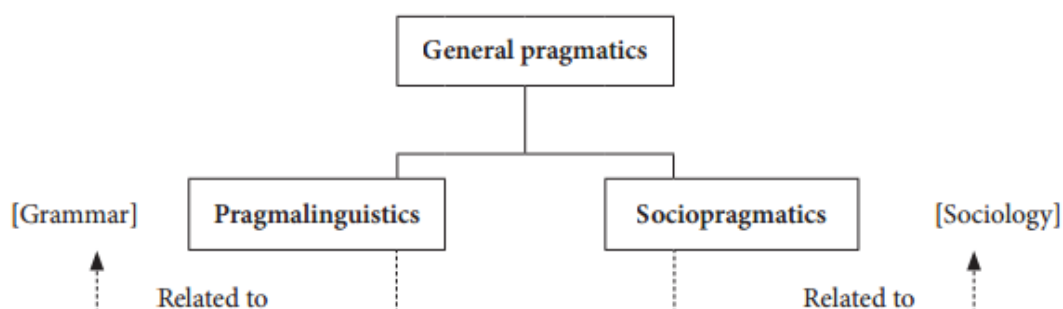
Figure 1.The soicopragmatic- pragmalinguistic distinction (Leech, 1983, p. 11)

To build up their pragmalinguistic knowledge, learners of a language build it along with their sociopragmatic knowledge (Roever, 2009). That is, as they notice the social rules which have to be attended in a language, they notice the linguistic tools which are used to perform a particular speech act in a particular situation. This knowledge is then associated with the sociopragmatic knowledge.

It is worth mentioning that parallel to the sociopragmatic-pragmalinguistic distinction, pragmatists are grouped into two, based on the significance they find in the relationship between pragmatics and linguistic forms (Kecskes, 2014). The view which emphasizes substantially on the linguistic side of pragmatics, is called the component view. Chomsky and his followers support the component view, which views language as consisted of separate parts which function as a unit. In contrast, a perspective view of human language activity perspectivizes, and focuses on language as a whole (Mey, 2001).

2.1.5 Culture as an Important Element in Pragmatics

As context is the key factor in any view of pragmatics, culture in turn is a central element in constituting and recognizing context. What is culture basically? Culture is a type of ever evolving knowledge acquired through interaction with people (Reeves-Ellington, 2010). Allwood (1990) sees culture as the conventionalization of nature. He elaborates the definition by stating that culture is a collection of features that a community shares. These features are common to the individuals and not compelled by natural necessity. From a social point of view, culture is the system through which communities develop a conformity of

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language, law, behavior, dress, etc. (Flynn, 2015). Flynn adds that culture is the window through which nations perceive the world.

Each language, according to Szende (2014), carries the world view of its speakers. Knowing the culture of the community a language belongs to is a part of the knowledge of that language (Szende, 2014). The reason is that to communicate with the speakers of a language, you also have to know the social rules (Trosborg, 2010). Language and culture are so firmly intertwined that translating and interpreting the utterances in a particular language is almost impossible without being aware of the cultural particularities of the associated language (Armstrong, 2005). Therefore, linguistic and cultural competence, according to Allwood (1990), are inseparable; as language and culture mutually influence each other (Tzotzou and Kotsiou, 2015).

An important characteristic of culture is that it can be taught (Shi, 2014). Relying on what mentioned about the relationship between language and culture it can be inferred without effort that integrating the teaching of culture into the language instruction is useful and necessary. Allwood (1990) maintains that teaching of culture can consist of teaching information about the geographical, physical, and religious specifics of the speakers of the language. Another aspect of culture which learners of a certain language have to be made familiar with, according to him, is the knowledge about how different speech acts are realized in various social situations.

2.1.6 Pragmatic Competence

Pragmatic competence is broadly introduced as the skill of using language according to the requirements and limitations of context (Taguchi, 2009). It has more to do with the 'Theory of Mind', the faculty according to which we are able to explain other people's behavior (Recanati, 2010). Pragmatic competence is vital for a sufficient overall language proficiency (Tuan and Hsu, 1999).

One of the definitions of pragmatic competence is given by Crystal (2003, p. 379):

> … the study of LANGUAGE from the point of view of the users, especially of the choices they
> make, the CONSTRAINTS they encounter in using language in social interaction, and the effects
> their use of language has on the other participants in an act of communication.

Tuan and Hsu (1999) outline the components of pragmatic competence as the learners' ability to interpret non-literal meanings, to use the suitable speech act in a particular speech

event, and to select the suitable language to realize those appropriate speech acts. According to Koran (2015), pragmatic competence has two components: discourse, and functional competence. Discourse competence deals with the speakers' knowledge of patterns which determine the orders in sentences. Functional competence, on the other hand, refers to the ability of the speakers to use this knowledge to put through communicative functions.

Achieving pragmatic competence is a long-term purpose since it calls on the abilities to manage a complicated interaction between language, context, and language users (Taguchi, 2012). It draws on both sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic knowledge according to Taguchi (2012). He holds that this competence grows with the learners' understanding of what it means to be appropriate and using the right linguistic tools to achieve this appropriateness. It has to be born in mind that pragmatic competence is not something to develop with grammatical competence alone.

2.1.7 Teaching Pragmatics

A number of studies have attempted to answer the question of whether pragmatics is teachable, and if it is, how it should be taught. As one of the pioneer studies, Olshtain and Cohen (1990) studied the education of apology speech act with an experimental study on 18 advanced level EFL learners. A three-session treatment between a pre- and a post-test, was given to students, aimed at teaching apology strategies. The instructions were based upon the students' weak points diagnosed in the pre-test. The type of the instruction was explicit, followed by various activities such as role play, and exposure to authentic performances of the speech act of apology. Olshtain and Cohen (1990) observe that although the results show a remarkable qualitative development, quantitative development is not very significant. This leads the authors to conclude that teaching the speech acts is beneficial and worth including in the language curriculum although it might take more time than the pragmalinguistic aspects.

Billmyer (1990) also conducted a study regarding the influence of instructions upon Non-Native Speakers' (NNS) use of compliment speech act. Production and answers to compliments were compared between two Japanese ESL groups of learners. One of these groups received formal instruction, while the other group, the control group, received no instruction. Subjects of the experimental group outperformed the other group, proving the benefits of formal instruction.

Alcón Soler (2005) examined the effectiveness of teaching requests, a pragmatic aspect of language, on a group of learners. She also sought an answer for the question of whether they should be taught explicitly or implicitly. To come up with an answer for her research questions, she gave students two types of tasks: implicit and explicit. The results showed that both implicit and explicit groups showed improvement; however, the explicit group outperformed the implicit group. Alcón Soler (2005) suggests planning the syllabi considering teaching pragmatics and enriching it with authentic materials specifically for EFL learners who are deprived of exposure to target language in natural environment.

Another study pertaining to the influence of teaching pragmatics is by Ifantidou (2013) who conducted a longitudinal study on teaching pragmatics. In her study, three groups were involved. Their pragmatic and meta-pragmatic awareness was measured prior to and after explicit instructions. The instructions were based on activities related to inter-genre distinctions. The results of the study proved the efficiency of the instruction on the majority of the students. Ifantidou (2013) also observes that the type of context has an effect on the students' pragmatic performance; they perform much better in authentic contexts. She also concludes that the pragmatic instruction would yield better results with higher level students.

All these studies support the need for teaching pragmatics and verify its teachability. Demirezen (1991) discusses pragmatics and its teaching in three components: pragmalinguistics, sociopragmatics, and psychopragmatics. He believes that the most teachable component is pragmalinguistics. Teaching sociopragmatics in his view makes the learning more long-lasting, and easier. Pragmatics, according to Demirezen (1991), facilitates the decision about which exercises are better to be used as drills, and which grammar to teach when.

Now that the necessity of teaching pragmatics, besides the fact of its teachability is established, another question may arise: How much are the learners and instructors aware of this importance? Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnyei (1998) conducted a study to explore how much learners find pragmatic mistakes serious across Native Speakers (NS), and NNSs. This study conducted a test on over 500 learners and teachers from Hungary and the US. A group of about 100 subjects from Italy was the secondary sample group of the study. These subjects were tested by a videotape and scenarios, and were asked to mark the mistakes they found. The results of the study proved a very interesting fact: EFL subjects marked the grammatical error as more serious, rather than the pragmatic errors. In contrast, ESL subjects marked

pragmatic errors more serious and as communication hindering. It should be noted that grammatical development is distinct from pragmatic development.

Looking for the indications of this issue, Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnyei (1998) suggest a few ideas. They point to the abound exposure to language use in real-world environment which ESL learners can benefit from. The second important reason they think might cause this difference between what ESL learners and EFL learners find more important is the washback effect; since students are usually tested on their grammatical competence. Therefore, this study indicates that EFL learners should be made aware of the importance of the pragmatic competence and awareness raising activities should be added to supplement the syllabus.

After an introduction to the pragmatics and its teaching, we shall come to our main topic, implicatures. Starting with its definition, we will move to its underlying rules, followed by implicature teaching.

2.2. Implicatures

2.2.1 Introducing Implicature

A brief summary of Grice's (1975) seminal work, from which all other works on the topic started, seems to be the right departure point in a discussion of implicatures. Later, we will discuss further points, developments, criticisms, etc. around Grice's work and definitions. Grice starts defining implicatures by giving the following example. Considering that A, B, and C are friends, and that C has recently got a new job at a bank, read the conversation below:

"A: How is C getting on in his job?

B: Oh, quite well, I think; he likes his colleagues, and he hasn't been to prison yet." (Grice, 1975, p. 43)

B intends to say that C is the kind of person easily tempted to do illegal things. After giving this example, Grice introduces the terms implicature and implicatum, derived from the word, implicate. He calls the utterance which carries a hidden message, an implicature, and the message, the implicatum. Speakers use implicatures for a variety of rhetoric purposes, such as eloquence, politeness, etc. (Wang, 2011).

Grice (1975) introduces two main types of implicatures: conventional and conversational. According to him, we normally need 3 types of information, such as who the speakers are, when the utterance occurs, and the particular meanings, to interpret a message. However, some words and utterances are rather context-independently tied with conventional meanings which are beyond the lexical meanings of the comprising words. Grice calls these context-independent fixed utterances conventional implicatures.

On the other hand, conversational implicature, is explained based on a set of rules which, according to Grice (1975), govern our daily conversational interactions. He calls the set of these rules, the Cooperative Principle (CP). He names it cooperative, since he states that for the interactions to be comprehensible, the participants engaged in the interaction need to cooperate by observing these criteria. The conversational implicature arises when a maxim(s) is/are not observed normally by the speaker (the CP is to be discussed further with details and debates later). Grice (1975) also proposes that conversational implicatures possess a set of features which the conventional implicatures do not. These features can be used as tests to discern conversational implicatures from conventional ones.

In the following sections we will discuss these main elements of Grice's theory in more detail, also discussing other works and views.

2.2.2 Defining Implicature

Making inferences beyond the available data is a 'computational miracle' done by the interlocutors (Bublitz and Norrick, 2011). This is a unique characteristic of human language to convey more than what is uttered (Benz, Jasinskaja, and Salfner, 2013). As human interaction is a matter of intentionality (Bublitz and Norrick, 2011), in some situations the speaker might intend to deliver a meaning beyond the literal meaning; or in other words, mean something by saying something else (Dahlman, 2012; Grice, 1975; Wang, 2011). Although what is said has a particular semantic meaning, sometimes what she intends to give is not exactly part of what is literally said; but much more (Cruse, 2006). The speaker occasionally and intentionally wants the other to recover an extra message than the sentence meaning (Recanati, 2010). This generally context-dependent inference is called implicature, that denotes suggesting a certain thing by uttering something else (Grice, 1975; Leah, 2010). Inference, in turn, is defined as: "…the process by which an assumption is accepted as true or probably true on the strength of the truth or probable truth or other assumptions. It is thus

a form of fixation of belief" (Sperber and Wilson, 1986, p. 68). One feature of the implicatures is that unlike explicit utterances, implicatures are not truth-conditional (Meibauer, 2006). In accordance with the same idea, Grice makes a distinction between natural, and non-natural meaning (Grice, 1991). He defines natural meaning as the meaning which can be received by the other participant straightforwardly. Davis (2007) asserts that the study of implicatures is important because understanding what a speaker has said without knowing how to interpret implicatures is not possible.

The distinction between what is said and what is meant, put forward by Grice, is called into question by some other pragmatists. Doran, Ward, Larson, McNabb, and Baker (2012) studied the same issue by conducting a study to determine whether the subjects can systematically distinguish between what is said and what is implicated. The results of the study indicated that, when provided with the sufficient amount of contextual information and criteria, the subjects could better discern implicatures from the truth-conditional sentences. Additionally, they found that there was not a consistence in inclusion or exclusion of what is implicated from what is said by the participants, which is a contradictory result to the classic Gricean theory.

Heck (2006) is another opponent of the sharp distinction between what is said and what is implicated. He argues that there are cases which do contain conversational implicatures, however, there is no proposition other than what is said, from which the implicature can be derived.

After the introduction about the concept and definitions of implicatures, it is now time to explain in more detail the set of maxims mentioned above, which are called Cooperative Principle (CP).

2.2.3 The CP

According to Grice (1975), people learn to employ a set of rules in interpreting and producing the interactions in their childhood and carry this ability ever since. We do rely on them in our everyday and academic conversations (Forman and Larreamendy-Joerns, 1998). It is not only something which everyone does, but something rational for everyone to follow. The CP is in fact a theory explaining how speakers use language (Wang, 2011). This principle is aimed at describing how the mind works in uncovering what a speaker means (Verschueren and Östman, 2009). It is stated as follows: "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. One might label this the Cooperative Principle." (Grice, 1991, p. 26)

The CP consists of 4 maxims according to Grice; quantity, quality, relation (or relevance), and manner.

"Quantity: relates to the quantity of information to be provided, and it contains the following maxims:

1. Make your contribution as informative as is required (for the current purpose of the exchange).

2. Do not make your contribution more informative than is required."

The second maxim Grice mentions is the maxim of quality:

"Under the category of *Quality* falls a supermaxim- **"**try to make your contribution one that is true", and two more specific maxims:

1. Do not say what you believe to be false.

2. Do not say that for which you lack adequate evidence."

Grice explains his third maxim of the CP as follows:

"Under the category of *Relation* I place a single maxim, namely, "Be relevant." Though the maxim itself is terse, its formulation conceals a number of problems that exercise me a good deal: questions about what different kinds of a talk exchange, how to allow for the fact that subjects of conversation are legitimately changed, and so on."

And finally, the last of the four maxims is the maxim of manner:

"Finally, under the category of *Manner*, which I understand as relating not (like the previous categories) to what is said but, rather, to *how* what is to be said, is said. I include the supermaxim *be perspicuous* and various maxims such as:

1. Avoid obscurity of expression.

2. Avoid ambiguity.

3. Be brief (avoid unnecessary prolixity).

4. be orderly."

Grice states that these maxims do have priority among them. Quantity is a matter of less urgency compared to the maxim of quality. However, as we will later see in more details, not all pragmatists agree with this priority. Relevance theorists for example, give this priority to the maxim of relation (Sperber and Wilson, 1986). Grice also adds that there are other sorts of maxims than what discussed; the maxim of politeness for instance.

A speaker may fail to observe the maxims of the CP in certain ways according to Grice (1975, p. 49):

1. "He may quietly and unostentatiously violate a maxim…"

2. "He may opt out from the operation both of the maxim and of the CP…"

3. "He may be faced by a clash…"

4. "He may flout a maxim…"

The connection between the CP and implicatures is discussed in the following section.

2.2.4 Conversational Implicatures and CP

In this part, we will elaborate more on the relation between the CP and the conversational implicatures. After explaining the role of the CP, Grice (1975) uses this principle as one of the major cornerstones of the conversational implicatures to explain how they function. He believes working out a conversational implicature needs (1) the semantic meanings of the words, (2) the CP, (3) the contextual factors, (4) background knowledge, and (5) the fact that the items discussed are shared by both sides of the conversation, and they consider these factors.

Grice (1991, p. 31) completes the definition of conversational implicatures as:

> A general pattern for the working out of a conversational implicature might be given as follows: 'He has said that p; there is no reason to suppose that he is not observing the maxims, or at least the CP; he could not be doing this unless he thought that q; he knows (and knows that I know that he knows) that I can see that the supposition that he thinks that q is required; he has done nothing to stop me thinking that q; he intends me to think, or is at least willing to allow me to think, that q; and so he has implicated that q.'

Grice (1991, pp. 32-33), states that the conversational implicatures can be grouped into three categories in relation to their use of the maxims. Group A encompasses: "examples in which no maxim is violated, or at which it is not clear that any maxim is violated." Group B is

characterized as: "examples in which a maxim is violated, but its violation is to be explained by the supposition of a clash with another maxim." And finally Group C covers "examples that involve exploitation, that is, a procedure by which a maxim is flouted for the purpose of getting in a conversational implicature by means of something of the nature of a figure of speech." Therefore, implicatures arise either from strictly observing, or ostentatiously flouting the maxims of CP (Dahlman, 2012).

Consider the following example as a conversational implicature, given by Grice (1975, p. 51):

Imagine two people are standing beside an immobilized car and the following dialogue occurs.

"A: I am out of petrol.

B: There is a garage round the corner."

In this conversation, B is obviously irrelevant; therefore, seems to be flouting the maxim of relevance. Thus, we can logically conclude that he is trying to give a message by his irrelevant message, which is: There is a garage near here where you can refill your gas tank.

Another example of the conversational implicatures is given by Wang (2011, p. 1163):

"A: Do you know when John left the pub last night?

B: Eleven o'clock. And he went to Mary's apartment instead of his own."

B is not following the maxim of quantity since he is giving more information than is required. B intentionally makes his answer long to implicate that Mary might have a special relationship with John.

Ariel (2008) states that conversational implicatures are universal. However, this universality is merely about the inferential mechanism and not related to the culture-specific aspects of implicatures (Bublitz and Norrick, 2011). Many figures of speech such as metaphor, irony, exaggeration, etc. are cases of conversational implicatures (Leah, 2010).

2.2.5 Types of Implicatures

As already mentioned, implicatures are divided by Grice (1975) mainly into two types as conversational and conventional implicatures. Conversational implicatures were concisely

introduced in relation to the CP. I would now like to get into more details of Grice's taxonomy of implicatures.

Conversational implicatures fall into two categories themselves in Gricean categorization: particularized conversational implicatures, and generalized conversational implicatures. The examples of implicatures given so far are all instances of particularized conversational implicatures. The generalized and particularized conversational implicatures differ in the degree of their context dependency. This distinction is not perfectly defined and clear; as Blome-Tillmann (2013) puts it, the differentiation between the generalized and particularized implicatures is more a matter of degree, rather than distinct categorization. Particularized conversational implicatures are highly dependent on context and are not a default part of the message (Cruse, 2006) while the generalized ones are loosely dependent on context, inasmuch as Bach (2006) calls them the default implicatures or pragmatic regularities since they are produced automatically and they arise unless they are cancelled intentionally (Carston, 1995). Generalized conversational implicatures remarkably resemble the conventional implicatures to the extent that sometimes one might find it difficult to distinguish between them (Grice, 1975). That is because they look very much like part of the semantic content of the utterance (Levinson, 2000) and are consistently created by particular linguistic forms, in addition to their being relatively context-independent like conventional implicatures (Meibauer, 2006). However, as we will discuss later, there are some tests to distinguish both types of conversational implicatures from the conventional implicatures.

One particular type of generalized conversational implicatures is called scalar implicature. These implicatures are quantity-maxim implicatures. They occur where an informationally weaker statement is used instead of a stronger one, implicating that the stronger one does not hold true (Blome-Tillmann, 2013; Leahy, 2014). One can infer that "not all of her friends bought her a gift", by hearing "Some of her friends bought her a gift." That is because we automatically conclude that if the speaker meant that all her friends bought her a gift, he would say so. That means he would have chosen the stronger statement if he was in the position to do so; thus, he is violating the maxim of quantity and creating an implicature (Verschueren and Östman, 2009). However, regarding their relation to the maxim of quantity, Carston (1995) believes these implicatures result by strictly observing the maxim of quantity since the speaker would be violating the maxim of quantity if he believed in the stronger one yet, used the weaker one. In any case, like all other implicatures, scalar

implicatures are not part of what is said (Verschueren and Östman, 2009), and they carry all the features of conversational implicatures, which will be mentioned later.

All the conversational implicatures have particular features according to Grice (1975):

1. *Cancellability* of conversational implicatures tells us that they can be cancelled without creating contradiction. For example, consider someone who is far from the window in a room while a friend is sitting beside it. The person who is away from the window says to the other: "It is hot". We would normally expect the hearer to take it as "Close the window.". However, if the speaker continues: "But I love hot weather you know", he cancels the initially created implicature. Cancellation can be either explicit, or contextual. An explicit cancellation occurs where the speaker adds a further statement which cancels the implicature, and contextual cancellability occurs by taking an utterance into a context where the implicature does not arise.

2. *Non-detachability* is another feature conversational implicatures possess. Conversational implicatures are not strictly associated with certain words. This means that the same implicature can still arise with different words conveying the same meaning. For instance, in the previous example, the implicature would be the same if the speaker said "It is very warm".

3. *Calculability* is related to the feature of conversational implicatures, which says they have to be worked out by the hearer, and there is not a straightforward connection between the literal and implicated meaning. The hearer uses the Gricean maxims to work it out (Blome-Tillmann, 2013). Potts (2003) perceives it as the failure of the context to support implicature.

4. *Non-conventionality* is another feature Grice mentions about conversational implicatures. Conversational implicatures depend neither on a fixed vocabulary nor a fixed structure. There is not a particular resource from which we can find a list of conversational implicatures to use.

5. *Indeterminacy* feature explains the uncertainty existing in implicature interpretation. Conversational implicatures are to a considerable extent context dependent and with a slight change in context, the implicature might give a very different meaning or be cancelled.

We have so far dealt with the Gricean theory of the conversational implicatures and its features. Among these features, cancellability is a major feature based on which conversational implicatures are tested and distinguished from conventional ones. Mayol and

Castroviejo (2013) even call it one of the defining characteristics of conversational implicatures. It is also one of the somewhat controversial features. I would like to mention some other views towards this feature here.

Mayol and Castroviejo (2013) argue that cancellation is conditionally legitimate. They assert that only if the implicated point was not the main point that the speaker wanted to make, the cancellation would be logical; thus, cancellation of conversational implicatures does not hold in all conditions.

Some other linguists question the cancellability of the conversational implicatures too. Weiner (2006), for example, tries to argue against the Gricean cancellability by reasoning that an implicature is only cancelled when the speaker adds something to purposefully cancel the implicature. Dahlman (2012) in response to this, however, states that as implicating is in fact a matter of intentionality, so is its cancellation.

At the beginning of our discussion of Gricean categorization of implicatures we mentioned another major type of implicatures, called conventional implicatures. These implicatures are associated with the same fixed words and expressions (Grice, 1975). They do not carry the features of conversational implicatures, and therefore, they are not cancellable without anomaly, nor do they possess other features of the conversational implicatures (Cruse, 2006; Verschueren and Östman, 2009). They are in some cases at word level, such as the implicature carried by "but", as in Grice's example: "He is poor, but happy". The conjunction "but" implicates that the two propositions are in fact contradictory. Another example, given by Cruse (2006), demonstrates the difference between two propositions with, and without the use of "yet". "Peter hasn't registered", and "Peter hasn't registered yet" carry different meanings. The use of the word "yet" implicates that Peter is yet to register and probably will. One cannot cancel this implicature without creating a contradiction. Unlike conversational implicatures, these implicatures are not context dependent (Leah, 2010). While conversational implicatures are based on the cooperative principle and its maxims, conventional implicatures are idiosyncratic parts of the grammar. Even generalized conversational implicatures, as the most conventional conversational implicatures and which seem to be associated with certain expressions, are not dependent on the words; as Potts (2003) demonstrates in his example: "Can you pass me the salt?", "Could you send the salt my way?" are both carrying the same implicature.

To wrap up our discussion of Gricean taxonomy of implicatures, the following diagram in Figure 2 is given below. In later parts we will also mention modifications of Gricean taxonomy.
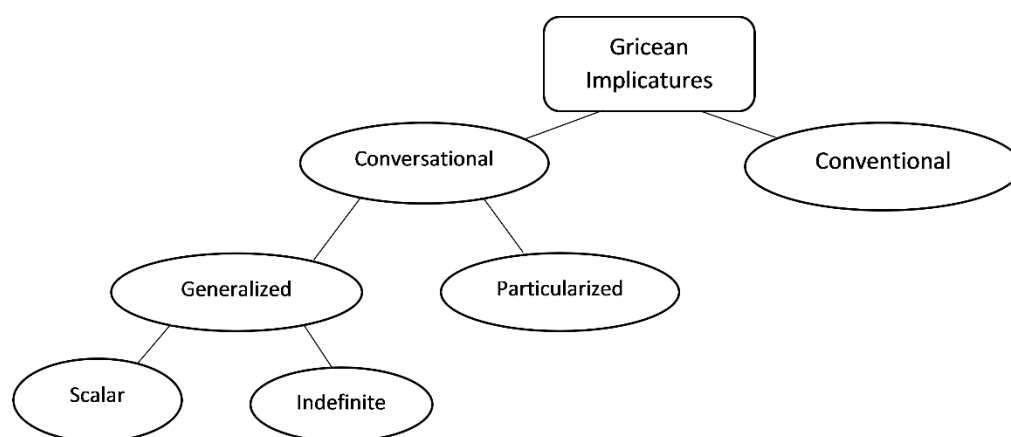
Figure 2: Gricean Implicature Types

2.2.6 Politeness Implicatures

Grice (1975) states that social, moral, and other principles might give birth to implicatures. One of the most important and prevalent implicature-creating principles is "Be polite". Brown and Levinson's (1987) work on politeness implicatures are among the best. They base their model on the CP, also considering the politeness principle. (Leech, 1983) even tried to complete the CP with a politeness maxim. They claim that every individual has a public personality which they call face, and for which people try to be polite and tactful. Politeness implicatures are those which arise politeness by implying a message (Haugh, 2007).

These implicatures arise both as particularized, and generalized implicatures (Terkourafi, 2005); thus, they are not tied to a certain Gricean type of implicatures. A classic example of a politeness implicature is "Can you pass me the salt?" in which the speaker does not mean to question the addressee's ability to pass the salt, but perform a speech act of request.

2.2.7 Other Types of Implicatures

So far, we have only focused on the Gricean view of implicatures and his taxonomy with little reference to other different works. I would like to mention a few other categories introduced in the literature although they are rarely discussed in more than one or two works.

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One of these post-Gricean implicature types is the short-circuited implicature proposed by Morgan (1977). In this categorization examples such as: "Can you pass me the salt?" are instances of short-circuited implicatures (Horn and Bayer, 1984). These implicatures are somewhere between implicatures and direct speech (Groefsema, 1992). At first glance, they seem to be carrying literal meanings; however, they are not so (Horn and Bayer, 1984). In other words, they are a type of conversational implicatures by principle, but they do not manifest the features of conversational implicatures as others; they are not in fact calculated by the speakers involved, for instance (Horn and Bayer, 1984).

Another categorization is proposed by Jary (2013), which divides implicatures into two categories of behavioral and material implicatures, according to the speaker's intentions and other mental elements which interfere in the interpretation of implicatures by the hearer. In what he names the material implicatures, the hearer can retrieve the implicature only by attending to the explicit content of the utterance. On the other hand, behavioral implicatures are those which cannot be reconstructed without considering premises about the speaker's verbal behavior, her intentions, beliefs, desires, etc. He asserts that this distinction exists latently in relevance theory (which is to be discussed) as well. Despite all, these categorizations have not entered the literature to change the classic Gricean ideas and theories of implicatures in literature.

2.2.8 Presuppositions, Entailments, and Implicatures

All of the notions of presuppositions, entailments, and implicatures are based on interpreting meanings from an utterance. It sometimes seems difficult to distinguish between them intuitionally. Thus, I would like to discuss these differences according to the literature.

Presuppositions are defined as ideas which are deemed almost incontrovertible by both sides of the interaction, or at least the speaker hopes so although they may not be true (Verschueren and Östman, 2009). Even though some suppose them as what express common knowledge, they may not always do so either (Green, 1996). An example of a presupposition given by Abbott (2013) is "It is significant that he has been found guilty", presupposes that "he has been found guilty".

According to Verschueren and Östman (2009), implicatures and presuppositions share the non-truth-conditionality property. They also add that even though implicatures and presuppositions are different, some might defend that they are not. However, this does not

seem to be right. According to Tonhauser, Beaver, Roberts, and Simons (2013), conventional implicatures and presuppositions have the property of staying constant, but presuppositions are not strictly dependent on specific words. Some theorists maintain that presuppositions and implicatures come closest at scalar implicatures (Bill, Romoli, Schwarz, and Crain, 2014). To determine the difference between scalar implicatures and presuppositions, Bill et al. (2014) conducted an experimental study on groups of children and adults which showed that they treated presuppositions and implicatures differently.

Another similar confusing concept is the phenomenon of entailments. Entailments are defined as valid inferences (Verschueren and Östman, 2009). They are inferred logically from the utterance, the cancellation of which leads to contradiction; they are not detachable either (Blome-Tillmann, 2013; Cruse, 2006; Verschueren and Östman, 2009). Thus, the points mentioned can be used as benchmarks for distinguishing entailments from implicatures. In the example given by the same author, it is clear that one cannot cancel the fact that "Pete's father is not an only child" inferred from "Pete has a cousin".

2.2.9 Post-Gricean Theories

The acceptance of the Gricean theory has always been with attempts to propose a more systematic version of the maxims, with a tendency to reduce the number of the maxims (Meibauer, 2006), as Levinson (2000, P 29) says: ''inference is cheap, articulation expensive''. A number of theorists have tried to refresh and add new ideas or change Gricean theories of implicatures. Among these, the most prominent ones are the theories proposed by neo-Griceans, and the relevance theorists. Among the post-Griceans Horn (1984) proposed a bi-partite model, Levinson (2000) proposed a tri-partite model, Sperber and Wilson (1986), and Carston (2008) proposed a mono-principled approach (Meibauer, 2006). Developed in the 80's, these theories and ideas are discussed in what follows.

2.2.10 Neo-Griceans

Neo-Griceans, such as Horn (1984) and Levinson (2000), attempted to reduce the Gricean maxims, and presented their own interpretation of the CP (Blome-Tillmann, 2013). According to Horn (1984), all the other maxims of Gricean CP can be reduced to two principles: Q-Principle, and R-Principle. Q-Principle, a lower bounding sufficiency guarantee, is summarized in "say as much as you can", and is a combination of the first

maxim of quantity, along with the first and second submaxims of manner. The R-Principle, the upper-bounding principle, which is briefly "say no more than you must", is a combination of the relation, and second submaxim of quantity, with the third and the fourth submaxims of manner. This maxim minimizes the speaker's effort (Meibauer, 2006). However, neo-Griceans do not give a similar part to the quality maxim. Horn (1984) believes that this maxim is not reducible, and it is already a prerequisite for others. As a result, these theories do not account for quality-based cases of implicatures such as irony, metaphor, etc. Briefly, according to the Hornian neo-Griceans, it can be said that implicatures created by Q-Principle are those in which something should have been said but has not, while implicatures based on R-Principle are more related to social considerations (Verschueren and Östman, 2009). Horn (2005) defends his ideas by saying that two sides of an interaction are both aware of each other's desires, and this awareness has different results based on things that are mentioned, and things than are not.

Levinson (2000), another neo-Gricean, modifies Horn's hypothesis to make a better model of Horn's ideas since he believed that Horn's model could not distinguish between semantic and expression minimization (Levinson, 2000). He adds one more principle which he calls the M-Principle, to the Hornian principles. Thus, Levinson's theory has three maxims: Q-Principle, I-Principle, and M-Principle. Q-Principle is composed of the first submaxim of quantity, the I-Principle is composed of the second submaxim of Gricean quantity, and the M-Principle is peered with the Gricean maxim of manner. The Q-Principle basically tells us not to state an information which is less than what we actually know, unless stating the stronger information would interfere with the I-Principle. The speaker interprets the speaker accordingly. The I-Principle bounds the speaker to saying what gives as little information as is necessary to reach the goal of communication. Levinson's M-Principle keeps the first and the third submaxims of Gricean maxim of manner. He also asserts that among these principles there is a priority; Q>M>I. Despite all, many pragmaticians do not find the neo-Gricean ideas sufficient in accounting for social aspect of pragmatics (Attardo, 1998).

2.2.11 The Relevance Theory

The relevance theory was put forward by Sperber and Wilson (1986). According to this cognitive theory, participants of an interaction automatically assign semantic loads to the utterances in case they meet some initial requirements of comprehensibility. The relevance

theory is defined as follows: "According to relevance theory, the correct interpretation of an ostensive stimulus is the first accessible interpretation consistent with the principle of relevance. " (Sperber and Wilson, 1986, p. 178). The single major maxim of this theory, the relevance maxim, has two principles; a cognitive maxim, which aims the minimization of effort, and a communicative maxim which aims at maximization of relevance of the utterance (Carston, 1995). In lay terms, it interprets meaning according to its optimal relevance (Blome-Tillmann, 2013). Below we will introduce the relevance theory of Sperber and Wilson (1986).

Sperber and Wilson criticize Griceans for their characterization of the explicit. They believed that pragmatic inferences played a part in the explicit meaning; much more than what was assumed. Relevance theorists introduced the term "explicature", as what stands against implicatures. Explicature is defined as "An assumption communicated by an utterance U is explicit if and only if it is a development of a logical form encoded by U" (Sperber and Wilson, 1986, p. 182). An explicature has two features: first, it is a proposition in an utterance; second, it is logically derived from the utterance (Carston, 2000). Implicature is simply defined as what is not explicitly expressed. In other words, implicatures are those which are all based on pragmatic inferencing (Carston, 2000). Explicature, according to the relevance theorists, is constituted of what is linguistically encoded, and contextually inferred. The more loosely the utterance is dependent on the explicit content, the more explicit it is deemed. Therefore, it is not a basic classification; it is also comparative. Although any utterance falls into one of these groups, each has to some degree features of the other.

The relevance theory restricts the territory of implicatures in Gricean theory, and it does so in two ways: by giving a mono-principled theory to account for all implicatures, and by putting a variety of implicatures into two wide groups of implicatures and explicatures.

Carston (2000, p. 10) is another relevance theorist. She defines implicatures as:

> "…a propositional form communicated by an utterance which is pragmatically constructed on the basis of the propositional schema or template (logical form) that the utterance encodes; its content is an amalgam of linguistically decoded material and pragmatically inferred material…"

In other words, implicature is what is not explicature (Haugh, 2002). Based on all these theories, only particularized conversational implicatures are accepted as implicatures; all the other types fall into the category of explicatures. Therefore, the conventional implicatures,

the short-circuited implicatures, metaphor, etc. are all cases of explicatures in the relevance theory (Haugh, 2002). Figure 3 below summarizes this categorization:
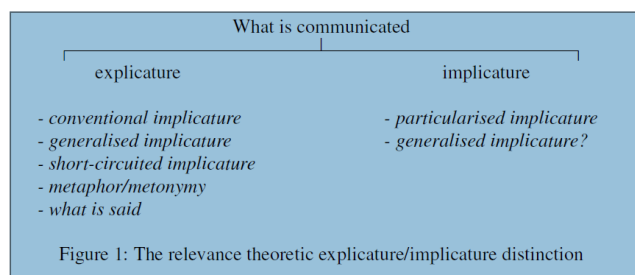
Figure 3: The relevance theoretic explicature/ implicature distinction
(Haugh, 2002, p. 121)

Although some research shows that hearers intuitively characterize some of the Gricean implicatures as explicatures (Hamblin, 1999), Haugh (2002) believes intuition cannot be the only source to base a theory upon; thus, he calls the relevance theorists' work a renaming.

The difference between the Neo-Gricean theories and relevance theory is that while neo-Griceans view the meaning and inference from the speaker's point of view, the relevance theorists set their perspective on the hearer's view and how the hearer decodes the message she receives (Horn, 2005). The relevance theory does not explain how and why the utterer says what she says.

Haugh (2002) criticizes the Griceans and neo-Griceans for presenting an elaborated taxonomy of implicatures to the extent that it almost equals to pragmatic input, and the relevance theorists for over simplifying the notion. He states that the debate on what to consider implicature and what not is still ongoing. However, despite the criticisms, He finds the Gricean account more logical. Cooren and Sanders (2002) find Gricean implicatures as the most precious and valuable in conversational logic in spite of all the critiques.

2.2.12 Implicatures and Teaching

A number of studies have attempted to answer the question whether the implicatures are teachable (for example Blight, 2002; Broersma, 1994). We will review what these studies did to address the question, and what their results indicated. In the Teaching Pragmatics section we mentioned some studies which supported the effectiveness of instruction in

learning pragmatics; specifically the explicit instruction. Teaching implicatures is expected to essentially follow the same rule.

A research which sought an answer to the question of teachability of implicatures is Bouton's (1994) study in which he reports two longitudinal studies on NNSs of English. The first longitudinal study was conducted on a group who arrived to America as international students. These students took a pretest when they arrived, and a post-test four and a half years later. At the end of this period, they showed a significant improvement although they had yet not reached the NS level. Thus, given enough time in the target language environment, learners can develop their pragmatic skills of interpreting implicatures.

The second longitudinal study (Bouton, 1994) reports in this paper is a study on two groups of NNSs arriving at America. These students took the pretest short after their arrival. However, one of these groups took the posttest after17 months, and the other after 33 months. What this study aimed at finding was the effect of duration on students' pragmatic skills.

The results showed an improvement in both groups. However, although the 33-month group outperformed the other by a small difference, this difference was not significant. Interestingly, the difference between the 17-month group and 4-7-year groups was not significant either, indicating that students in fact absorbed most of their pragmatic knowledge in a bit more than a year.

A pilot study is the last study reported in this paper. Bouton contends that instruction is indeed very effective in students' knowledge of implicatures although certain types of implicatures are more resistant to instruction than others. Another indication of this study was that certain types of implicatures proved difficult for both NSs and NNSs. Scalar implicatures, for instance, were difficult for both groups. Formulaic or conventional implicatures, and irony resisted time and duration, which proves they absolutely need to be taught. Others needed more intensive instruction, such as relevance-based implicatures. As a general conclusion, it can be said that conversational implicatures are learned very slowly without instruction.

Kubota (1995) investigates the teaching of conversational implicatures to Japanese EFL learners. Three groups were involved in the experimental process. One group received explicit instruction, the other received awareness raising instruction, and the third group received no instruction. The results of this study confirmed the effectiveness of explicit instruction. The group which received implicit instruction also outperformed its own pretest,

and the control group; proving that an implicit instruction is much more effective than no instruction. Kubota (1995) also emphasizes the role of amount of time of exposure to the instructions.

Blight (2002) reported on the procedure of awareness-raising, explicit instructions on conversational implicatures to EFL students; who according to him, have more problems in pragmatics than ESL students. This was achieved by providing students with demonstrations and practices of how interpretations of implicatures were made. The instruction was given in 4 main stages: presentation of the theory, analyzing a model conversation based on Gricean theory, interpretation of the conversation, and finally, interpreting a variety of implicatures within conversations in groups. Blight (2002) indicates that such procedures and instruction work better on high proficiency students and emphasizes on the benefits of explicit instruction.

Tuan and Hsu (1999) are others who investigated the effect of explicit teaching on the EFL students' knowledge of conversational implicatures. The subject students of this study took a pretest, and the posttest was given after a 10-week instruction. Similar to Blight's study, they describe the procedure with which improving learners' pragmatic awareness is aimed improving.

Tuan and Hsu (1999) observe that regardless of the degree of explicitness, instruction has a remarkable positive effect on learners' understanding of implicatures. They assert that despite the noticeable initial difference between NSs and NNSs in the interpretation of implicatures, instructions, and specifically, explicit instruction, bridges this gap to a considerable extent. Another point found was the special difficulty of formulaic implicatures.

Wang (2011) presents a different study in which she aims emphasizing the role of students' pragmatic competence in general, and implicatures in particular on their listening skill. She argues that grammar and vocabulary can never be enough for listening comprehension. She goes ahead to assert that it is vital for students to master Gricean theory of conversational implicatures. Despite all these, Wang (2011) states that people still do not perceive pragmatic principles as an essential part of curriculum.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

3.1. Design of the Study

Research is basically categorized into qualitative, and quantitative, based on the type of data it collects and analyzes. Qualitative research designs differ mainly in the type of data they feed from. Quantitative research uses numeric data while qualitative research does not use numerical data to explain the facts and findings (Zhu, 2011). In quantitative research, the researcher collects data which can be turned into statistical findings while a quantitative research is basically non-numerical and results in themes rather than statistical data (Creswell, 2013). A qualitative approach is sought when the purpose is to capture a holistic view of the issue under study, and also when the content of ideas, rather than the number of the ideas, are of significance. Quantitative research, on the other hand, is usually aimed at answering questions such as *how much*, *how well*, etc. (Fraenkel and Wallen, 1993).

There is, however, a third approach called mixed methods. Being the less prevalent and less known type of study, a study with mixed methods involves both types of data, hoping to minimize the effects of the shortcomings associated with each method (Creswell, 2013).

In the current research both qualitative and quantitative methods are used, which means it adopts a mixed method. Creswell (2013) writes that mixed method is getting popular over an only-qualitative, or only-quantitative research which do not suffice for reliable results. A concurrent mixed methods design in which the researcher brings qualitative and quantitative data analyses together (Creswell, 2013) is used in this study.

This study adopts a content analysis research method at the first stage. Content analysis is an objective, fundamentally qualitative, but also sometimes quantitative method for systematic investigation of written form of human communication. It enables the researchers to analyze the data which are not numerical by nature (Berg, 2001). Content analysis is used to make conceptual descriptions of data (Elo and Kyngäs, 2008). Elo and Kyngas add that

content analysis can be conducted either in an inductive or a deductive way. If there are previous studies which have studied the phenomenon under study, the content analysis will preferably take a deductive approach; if there are no previous studies found, the inductive approach is taken. According to Elo and Kyngäs (2008), the result of content analysis is a categorization or concepts which describe the phenomenon under study. In a content analysis, an important issue that should be considered is the reproducibility of the results (Krippendorff, 2013). This will be tested in the content analysis results of our study by calculation of inter-coder reliability.

Elo and Kyngäs (2008) summarize the advantages of content analysis. Content analysis can be a very advantageous research method in that it is context-sensitive, flexible in research design, and results in in-depth view of the phenomenon under study.

At the second stage, teachers' knowledge of pragmatics in general and implicatures in particular was measured through a questionnaire. A questionnaire is a type of survey which is aimed at collecting information by means of asking questions from a sample of a number of people representing a population (Fraenkel and Wallen, 1993). The questionnaire in this study was also aimed at gaining an idea of the teachers' approaches to teaching pragmatics and implicatures to their students. The data gathered by this means gave us both numerical and descriptive data.

Finally, a quasi-experimental study of the implicit-explicit teaching methods of implicatures was conducted on the upper-intermediate general English learners at Preparatory School of Gazi University. Sometimes entitled the most powerful research method, experimental studies are the best tools for establishing a relation of cause and effect between the variables (Fraenkel and Wallen, 1993). In an experimental research design, the response variable, or dependent variable, plays a decisive role in the results of the study (Adams, Khan, Raeside, and White, 2007). The variables on which the response variable is dependent on are called independent or explanatory variables. An experimental study gives the researcher the possibility to isolate the matter under study and concentrate on it by controlling the surrounding world (Walliman, 2006).

Bryman (2008), Adams et al. (2007), Neuman (2006), and Walliman (2006) generally define an experimental study in social sciences as a model which basically involves two groups; one experimental, and one control group. According to these authors, what distinguishes

these two groups is that the experiment group receives a treatment whose effect is under study while the control group does not.

Experimental studies can be conducted in different ways. The experimental study in this research is quasi-experimental. Quasi-experimental differs from the experimental study in that there is no random selection of subjects in the quasi-experimental study.

The model of the quasi-experimental section of the current study can be associated with the matching-only Pre-test-Post-test group design; a model in which two groups are involved and the effect of the variations in the independent variable of interest on the studied dependent variable is measured (Fraenkel and Wallen, 1993). The experiment model used in this study is summarized in the following scheme:

Group 1   O1 X1 O2

Group 2   O1 X2 O2

This study engaged two types of groups, both of which received instructions; one explicit (X1), and the other implicit (X2). Learners took a pre- (O1) and a post-test (O2) in which the results of the instructions were reflected. The pre-test is aimed at both determining the inter-group homogeneity, and giving us a benchmark against which we could measure the progress learners made using the results of the post-test.

3.2. Materials and Participants

In this study, as materials, the upper-intermediate level books which are studied at the English Preparatory Schools of Ankara were chosen for content analysis. As the first group of participants, a group of students studying at the Gazi English Preparatory School at the upper-intermediate level were involved in the study. The second group of participants were instructors teaching at the upper-intermediate level at 5 universities in Ankara.

A total number of 14 books, studied at the upper-intermediate level of the language schools of five universities, were analyzed in terms of the PCIs (Particularized Conversational Implicatures) or SLCIs (Sentence-Level Conventional Implicatures) they taught or included in conversations. The list of the books of each of the five universities was acquired by interviews with the heads of the language school departments. Due to the reluctance of the universities to share the institutionally prepared materials, the gaps in the content analysis of these supplementary materials were attempted to be filled with some questions in the

questionnaires given to the instructors, by including specific questions for those who had a part in preparing the institutionally prepared materials.

Of the EFL upper-intermediate level students who studied at Gazi University, 6 groups of approximately 16 Upper-intermediate ELT students participated in this study. 3 groups received implicit instruction and 3 groups received explicit instruction. Although there were almost 100 students in these groups in total, due to the large number of absence in either of the pre- or post-tests, the usable data reduced to 47. The subject students were between 18 and 19 years of age in average. They were all students admitted to Gazi University ELT Program.

The second group of participants consisted of the upper-intermediate level English instructors at Gazi, METU, Bilkent, Ankara, and Hacettepe Universities. The number of the questionnaires collected from each of the aforementioned universities is shown in the table below:

Table 1: Collected Questionnaires Based on University

Gazi	METU	Bilkent	Hacettepe	Ankara	Total
7	8	3	12	6	36

3.3. Data Collection Instruments

In accordance with the data collection methods, the data collection instruments could be fit into three groups, the content analysis criteria, the questionnaire, and the pre- and post-test.

3.3.1 Content Analysis Criteria

The content analysis procedure in this study was conducted deductively (Elo and Kyngäs, 2008). That is, based on a criterion list (Appendix 3), the activities and conversations of the books were analyzed. This list was composed pursuant to an extensive review of literature of the nature and types of implicatures along with the characteristic features of explicit and implicit instructions. The mentioned list consists of three major sections: the criteria for analyzing activities, activity explicitness evaluation, and implicature analysis. The analysis starts with the question of whether the activity under question teaches any kinds of PCIs, or

SLCIs. If it does, the analyst should refer to the Explicit-Implicit list of criteria to determine the degree of explicitness. Also the implicatures taught in the activity are analyzed according to the implicature analysis criteria. All the dialogues in the books, regardless of the activity they belong to, must be analyzed in terms of the PCIs or SLCIs, referring to the implicature analysis criteria.

The criteria in the categorization of implicatures relied on Grice's definitions (Grice, 1975). In spite of criticisms and manipulations in Grice's definitions and taxonomy (Doran et al., 2012; Haugh, 2002; Jary, 2013; Thomas, 2012), all new studies about implicatures continue to build their ideas on the ground Grice set in his influential work, Logic and Conversation-(Grice, 1967). That is why I took his definitions and findings as the basis of my criteria.

The Explicit-Implicit list of criteria is an excerpt of the characteristics which define implicit and explicit instruction, relying on several resources (Chen, Ross, and Murphy, 2014; Glaser, 2014; Ifantidou, 2013; Kim, 2013; Lingli and Wannaruk, 2010; Sánchez, Pérez, and Gómez, 2010; Sanz and Leow, 2012; Weinert, 2009). This section encompasses 10 items which the analyst is supposed to take into account in determining the degree of implicitness or explicitness of the activity.

3.3.2 Questionnaire

The third and the last data collection instrument in this study is the questionnaire given to the upper-intermediate level instructors at the Preparatory Schools of English of Gazi, Hacettepe, METU, Ankara, and Bilkent universities (Appendix 5). This questionnaire was designed to evaluate teachers' understandings and views towards pragmatics and implicatures. It starts with 12 multiple choice questions which generally ask the instructors how much they are familiar with pragmatics and implicatures and also how they prefer to teach them to their learners if they do at all. These items are in the Likert-type scale form. Likert-type scale items are used to measure attitudes (Likert, 1932). These items are comprised of a statement about opinions, preferences, judgement, etc. and a number of choices which represent the degree of agreement to the statement (Warmbrod, 2014). The choices are usually 5 in number, and range from "strongly agree" to "strongly disagree". A number is assigned to each choice for analysis usually as follows: Strongly Agree=5, Agree=4, Neutral=3, Disagree=2, and Strongly Disagree=1 (Warmbrod, 2014). The

numbers assigned to each choice in the questionnaire analysis of this study follows the same pattern.

Following the 12 multiple choice questions, comes the second section. The second part of the questionnaire is more focused on the teaching of implicatures. These items ask instructors for their opinions about how teaching implicatures could be improved. The last section of the questionnaire is only for those instructors who have a part in the material development team in their university. They answered questions about how much they considered teaching pragmatics and implicatures in designing their materials.

The reliability of the questionnaire was established by a pilot application of the questionnaire on 8 teachers at the upper-intermediate level at a private institute. Using the SPSS program, the Cronbach's Alpha Test was calculated for the questionnaire, which yielded a reliability coefficient of 86%.

3.3.3 Pre- and post-test

The last type of data collection instruments in this study is the pre- and post-tests given to the upper-intermediate level students (Appendix 2). These tests were aimed at measuring both the comprehension and production abilities of the learners in terms of PCIs and SLCIs which would help us establish the degree of the effectiveness of the instructions.

Following a literature review of testing pragmatics, DCTs (Discourse Completion Tasks) were decided to be used. There are a few methods which researchers use to assess pragmatic competence; for instance, multiple choice interview tasks, DCTs, role plays, and observation of authentic discourse (Kasper and Dahl, 1991). Kasper and Dahl (1991) see all these methods on a continuum of data elicitation with multiple choice interview tasks at one end and observation of authentic data at the other; DCTs are closer to the less elicited tasks on this continuum. Starting to be used in pragmatic research since 1989, DCTs are actually very similar to the other pragmatic data collection methods, such as role plays (Yuan, 2001). In a typical DCT, there is a scenario to which the participant has to respond. They might differ in the type of response they expect from the participants; however, they chiefly differ in length (Fukuya and Martínez-Flor, 2008).

DCTs have been criticized for not being reliable since they are not natural (Fukuya and Martínez-Flor, 2008; Yuan, 2001). In spite of the criticism they receive, DCTs are still the

most widely used type of pragmatic data collection method (Fukuya and Martínez-Flor, 2008). They were chosen for this study because they do not leave students much to do and that is a major issue to consider; especially with the large number of students and considering their ages; more elicitation would definitely mean more reluctance in active participation.

Since the pre- and the post-tests were used for gauging the progress students were expected to make after the instruction period, they had to be identical in structure. There were 10 multiple choice questions, and 5 production questions in each test. 5 out of 10 multiple choice questions and 2 out of 5 of the essay questions assessed students' knowledge of conventional implicatures. Other half of the multiple choice questions and 3 out of 5 of the essay items, assessed students' competence in comprehending conversational implicatures

In the DCTs of the current study, each item contained a given situation. The multiple choice items all contained short conversations in which the test taker had to interpret the second speaker's response to the first speaker and choose the best choice which describes the second speaker's intention. In the essay DCTs, however, participants were expected to write a sentence or two saying how they would react to the given situation.

For measuring the reliability of the pre- and post-tests they were administered to 10 students at a private language school. Each test was administered twice with a two-week interval. The reliability test was applied on the results of both, using the Cronbach's Alpha in SPSS. The results showed a reliability of 89% for the pre- and 88% for the post-tests.

3.4. Data Collection Procedure

The data of the current study were collected in three independent stages: through content analysis, the questionnaires given to the upper-intermediate instructors, and the administered pre- and post-tests.

As already mentioned, the content analysis was conducted deductively. After defining the analysis criteria, the books studied at the upper-intermediate level were analyzed based on these criteria. The criteria were based on how Grice defined implicatures and their types, and what the characteristic features of explicit and implicit tasks and activities are.

The scope of interest for this study is the interactive spoken language, or everyday conversations in other words. Therefore, the monologues and the reading passages were all ignored. Additionally, only the particularized conversational implicatures (PCIs) and the

sentence-level conventional implicatures (SLCIs) were counted in. This decision was mainly due to the pervasiveness of the generalized conversational implicatures and word level conventional implicatures. Considering that an implicature as subtle as being carried by *but*, or the article *a* would be counted if we considered generalized conversational and all conventional implicatures as significant implicatures in our study, it is easy to estimate how much unnecessarily detailed the study would be.

The second data collection procedure was the administration of the pre- and post-tests. The pre-test was given almost two weeks prior to the instruction. This pre-test was administered by the instructors of each of the six groups and the test duration was 30 minutes. Students' names were required for future comparison between the results of the pre-test and the posttest. In the scoring process the correct answers for the multiple choice questions scored 1 each; while each correct answer for essay questions scored 2.

The last data collection procedure was applying questionnaire to the upper-intermediate level instructors. After acquiring the necessary permissions, based on the conventions and rules of each university, questionnaires were given in different ways, which was determined by each university. For Hacettepe University the questionnaires were distributed directly to the instructors personally. The questionnaires at Ankara, Gazi and METU Universities were given to the heads of the teaching units to distribute to instructors. The authorities of Bilkent University Preparatory School preferred online forms. Therefore, the questionnaires at Bilkent University were given and filled out completely online. The given questionnaires were for the most part collected one or two days after their distribution.

3.5. Teaching Implementation Process

Bearing the goals in mind, the teaching process was designed and implemented at Gazi English Preparatory School. Briefly said, these goals are: which teaching approach is more effective for teaching implicatures, the implicit approach, or the explicit one? Which gives better outcomes if one does?

As already mentioned, to come up with an answer for these questions, a two-group pretest-posttest quasi-experimental research was carried out. To prepare the materials needed for the teaching process, at the first stage, a review of literature was done regarding material development in general, and pragmatic activities and tasks in particular. Four lessons were

designed in total, 3 of which were aimed at teaching PCIs (Appendix 1). The last lesson targeted teaching SLCIs, or idioms in other words.

The explicitness or implicitness of instructions was only trivially reflected in the tasks and activities. The tasks and activities were chiefly the same with subtle differences in the way some questions were asked. The primary difference between the two groups was in the type of the oral instructions they received from the instructor. Therefore, different lesson plans were designed for them. All of the lessons and the activities were designed by the researcher.

Accompanying the materials, a video was chosen to be displayed through the lessons. A 50-minute video of an animation of Sherlock Holmes, *A Study in Scarlet*, was chosen for this purpose. The video was trimmed and one 12-minute section was omitted to shrink the video into a 30-minute video. The video was displayed in three sections to the students. Attention was given to the unity of the story in spite of the divisions and intervals. The students watched the video in three parts; for about 10 minutes each lesson. The video was over by the end of the third lesson.

This video is an animation made in 1983. The episode used in the lessons is, as mentioned, *A Study in Scarlet*, which is the first story of Sherlock Holmes created by Sir Arthur Canon Doyle published in 1887. In the story, Holmes tries to solve the mystery of an American tourist's murder in London. The subtitles were written by the researcher with a NS colleague's help. For awareness raising, the implicatures were marked in the subtitles for students.

The video was specifically chosen for the abundance of implicatures and indirectness in the conversations which can be partly attributed to the complex and enigmatic character of Sherlock Holmes, who prefers being ironic, sarcastic and indirect.

After the official permissions were acquired, a request was made to the Gazi University Preparatory School to give this study some hours in their schedule. Due to the limitations in scheduling the instructions in a broader time range, the Preparatory School board decided to allocate six whole days of instruction to this study, one group a day. In other words, each group had a five-hour instruction of implicatures in a single day. Thus 6 upper-intermediate groups needed five days for teaching implementation. All the sessions were carried out by the researcher.

It is now turn to explain the process of teaching. The teaching process started with an introduction of myself as the instructor of that day, and continued with preparing the students for what they had to expect for the coming few hours. They were reminded of the pre-test they had taken two weeks prior to the teaching and that the teaching they were supposed to receive that day was related to that test.

As already mentioned, the teaching procedure was different for the explicit and implicit groups. Groups 1; 2; and 5 received implicit instruction, while groups 3; 4; and 6 received explicit instruction. There was no particular intention in choosing this sequence. I shall continue elaborating on the process by starting from the implicit group, explaining the process at each lesson.

The implicit group started with watching the first part of the video. The students received a handout on which Sherlock Holmes and the story they were going to watch were introduced. After introducing the story of Sherlock Holmes, the difficult vocabulary was pre-taught, using Power Point slides, merely for the purpose of making the comprehension of the video and the subtitles easier. Then, they were told that they had to pay attention to the marked subtitles, and try to find a pattern for these utterances. They were told that the pattern they had to watch was an extra lexical and extra structural pattern. The students then watched the video with subtitles and tried to find a common point in the marked utterances. After the video was finished, a brief summary was given by the students. They were right after asked to share their ideas about the while-activity question. On the given handouts they could also see excerpts of the PCI. They discussed the messages in groups and shared their interpretations with the class. I, as the instructor, tried to encourage peer feedback.

After watching the video, an implicit introduction to implicatures, as messages conveyed indirectly was given. Then, exercise worksheets were distributed. Containing seven main questions, the activities aimed at guiding students to interpret implicatures, why they are sometimes used, and how they can be used as rhetorical devices for more emphasis, politeness, etc. Learners encountered both PCIs and SLCIs in the activities. In groups of two to three, they discussed their answers followed by peer and teacher feedback.

The second lesson began with a review of what was seen on the video in the first section of Sherlock Holmes's story. On the second set of worksheets, students read a summary of what they were going to see in the second video. After reading the summary, the difficult vocabulary of the second section of the video was displayed on Power Point slides and

introduced to the learners. After watching the video with subtitles and marked implicatures, they discussed the meanings they could infer from the implicatures in groups, peer checked, and received teacher feedback. In the second set of worksheets, activities contained examples of implicatures created by the non-observance of different maxims of the CP. The questions posed about the given situations and the dialogues in each item aimed at raising student awareness about the way these maxims create implicatures. This set of activities ended with production questions in which learners were supposed to create their own implicatures, or produce direct responses and justify their choice.

The third lesson followed a procedure to a wide extent resembling the procedures of the first and the second lessons. Similar to the previous lesson, the story of Sherlock Holmes was reviewed. To shorten the video in order to make it fit into the schedule, the third section of the complete video of Sherlock Holmes was omitted. This omission was carefully done so that the students would not feel something was missing; especially that this part contained a background story which was almost independent from the other three sections. The omitted section was compensated by a paragraph relating the story of the missing section. After students read this paragraph and some summarized it, the difficult vocabulary was briefly introduced. Similar to the previous sections, the video was watched with subtitles marked in implicatures and then discussed briefly. Students now discussed the excerpts of implicatures extracted from the video in groups. It was followed by a peer and teacher feedback.

The worksheets of the third lesson were distributed. The activities of the third lesson latently drew learners' attention to the features of conversational implicatures. Learners tried the following tests on each of the PCIs:

1. cancellability,

2. non-detachability, and

3. calculability

These features were given to the students with explanations of them, in lieu of these terms. Students answered the questions of each item in groups of two to three, and shared their answers with the whole class. Just like other lessons, students received feedback from other students and then the instructor.

In the second section of the 3rd lesson worksheet, students were asked to create their own PCIs; however, this time the question specified that the answers had to be given indirectly.

Five situations to which students wrote their indirect verbal reaction, were followed by a question which asked the learners to discuss the effect of their indirect answer on their interlocutors.

By the end of the third lesson, the video was over and students did not watch any videos in the fourth lesson. This lesson was aimed at teaching SLCIs. Learners were told that this lesson was different from the previous ones since the previous ones focused on PCIs. The students started the fourth lesson by receiving the worksheets and encountering some of the SLCIs in a conversation. They were asked to underline the utterances which carried messages beyond the literal meanings, and which were idiomatic, then guess their meanings. It was already made sure that the students had internet access on their smart phones, at least one in a group. Thus, after guess making, learners could check their guesses by searching the web.

In the following questions, they were supposed to perform the tests of conversational implicatures, which they had already tried on the conversational implicatures, and on the conventional implicatures of the initial dialogue. The goal of this activity was to draw attention to the distinctions between the conversational and conventional implicatures.

In the next activity, they were asked to discuss in groups what they thought each of the idioms meant. Not much situational and contextual information was presented. It only consisted of short conversations in which the second speaker used an idiom. Similar to the previous activity, they checked their guesses by looking the idioms up on the internet prior to a check with the whole class.

In the third activity, learners saw more examples of idioms, and were expected to check their meanings on the internet first. There were 10 situations and conversations which were to be completed by these idioms. After completing the conversations, learners tried the features of conversational implicatures on two of them. The final activity presented some idioms and asked the learners to create a situation and a conversation for each, in groups.

As already noted, the activities of the explicit group were all almost identical with those of the implicit group. The major discrepancy was in the teaching process and how the lessons and materials were presented to the students. We will now turn to the teaching process in the explicit classroom.

The explicit lesson began with an introduction of what the students were supposed to encounter in the five hours of the instruction. The general teaching process was explained. The learners were made aware of the kind of subject they were about to deal with. This included a simple and concise introduction to pragmatics.

The first lesson began with the Sherlock Holmes video. The general information about the story was given and students read a short introduction about it. Then, the difficult vocabulary of the video was pre-taught. Students were already told that the marked sections of the subtitles were implicatures. After watching the video, with the instructor's guidance, students discussed some of the selected implicatures from the video in groups. They shared their opinions with the whole class and received feedback from peers and the teacher. I, as the teacher, then gave explicit and detailed explanations of what implicatures are. They were introduced to the concept of context, pragmatics, conventional and conversational implicatures with simplified meta-pragmatic explanations. Although the distinction between the generalized and particularized implicatures were mentioned, it was clarified that our concern was only PCIs and SLCIs.

Following the initial stage of presentation of the subject, the worksheets were distributed to the students. Since the components of the activities were almost identical, I see no need for iteration of the details of the contents of the worksheets. One of the exercises of the worksheet was demonstrated to the students and then students worked in groups to discuss answers for the questions in these worksheets. The feedback included meta-pragmatic explanations.

The process of the second lesson followed the procedure of the previous lesson; varying only in the subject students were taught. After learning the types of implicatures, the purpose of the second lesson was to teach the Cooperative Principle and its maxims. Following the meta-pragmatic teaching, students analyzed the implicatures selected from the video and the implicatures in the worksheets in terms of the maxims they refused to follow.

The procedure of the third lesson highly resembled that of the first and the second lessons'. In this lesson however, the features of conversational implicatures were explicitly taught to students and practiced with implicatures from the video and other implicatures in the worksheets handed out to students.

Finally, in the last lesson, SLCIs were given. It was clarified and practiced that these implicatures did not follow the rules that the conversational implicatures did. Unlike the

implicit group, the explicit group students were not supposed to search for the implications of the implicatures themselves. They were given a list of the implicatures and the messages they conveyed and were supposed to use them in the exercises given in the worksheets.

All the instructions ended with asking learners what they learned, and their opinions towards the newly learnt materials. They usually found the instructions useful and interesting.

3.6. Data Analysis

3.6.1 Content Analysis

As mentioned before, considering the first research question, which was to investigate whether the books studied at the English Preparatory Schools at five universities of Ankara include teaching implicatures or not, a content analysis was carried out.

Content analysis is a data analysis method primarily used for the analysis of written or transcribed data (Berg, 2001). However, it is broadly introduced as a method for inducing information using a systematic and objective way (Holsti, 1968). The construct of content analysis has now evolved into a research method that can be used for making inferences from a variety of data types (Krippendorff, 2013). Krippendorff (2013, p. 18) defines it as: "… a research technique for making replicable and valid inferences from texts (or other meaningful matter) to the contexts of their use." It is primarily used to analyze qualitative data and it may be conducted qualitatively or quantitatively; deductively, or inductively (Elo and Kyngäs, 2008).

The quantitative content analysis is, as the name suggests, a way of mapping the qualitative data into numerical interpretations (Auer-Srnka and Koeszegi, 2007). As Krippendorff (2013) puts it, respect for numbers has long existed. He is in fact not a proponent of drawing a sharp line between qualitative and quantitative approaches.

Qualitative approach to content analysis, sometimes called interpretive, although believed by some to lack all the features of a scientific research, is now accepted as a successful approach (Krippendorff, 2013). It is defined by Berg (2001, p. 3) in the following statements: "Qualitative research thus refers to the meanings, concepts, definitions, characteristics, metaphors, symbols, and descriptions of things."

Although there has been a debate over the credibility of qualitative content analysis in the literature, it is now widely accepted that not all features of communication can be degraded to numerical interpretations (Berg, 2001).

The modality of content analysis is the feature which deals with the inductivity or deductivity of the content analysis (Vaismoradi, Turunen, and Bondas, 2013). Inductive content analysis is used where there is an absence in the literature for the phenomena under study (Hsieh and Shannon, 2005). Deductive content analysis on the other hand, is used where the researcher intends to test a theory or compare different categories (Elo and Kyngäs, 2008).

Our research adopted both a qualitative and quantitative content analysis and a deductive approach. To come up with answers for the research questions, centered around the main question of "Do the course books studied at the upper-intermediate level of the English Preparatory Schools of Ankara contain instructions of implicatures and how?", the study began with a qualitative deductive approach which analyzed all the sentences in dialogues individually to detect the sought implicatures. In this stage, the existence and the types of implicatures were determined and listed. Additionally, the existence of any activities aimed at teaching implicatures was investigated. The implicatures were analyzed based on Grice's taxonomy of implicature types while the explicitness or implicitness of the activities was determined by a list of criteria arranged according to a wider literature. In other words, data was coded. The analysis process is in fact the coding process; codes in turn, are the labels which we assign to the chunks of information from different sizes (Miles and Huberman, 1994). Finally, the number of each implicature type, the total numbers, and a few other simple numbers and calculations were displayed in tables for each book.

Measurement in qualitative study is a problematic issue (Ruggeri, Gizelis, and Dorussen, 2011), which makes the issue of intercoder reliability very important. It determines the quality of the qualitative analysis (Krippendorff, 1970). The necessity of checking the results obtained by a coder by at least one other coder independently is treated as an established fact (Feng, 2012). This double check by two different coders, coding independent of each other, tells us how reliable the results are, and a reliability of 70% and over is usually deemed acceptable (Miles and Huberman, 1994).

A variety of methods and formulas have been suggested in the literature for estimating the intercoder reliability (Cohen, 1960; Holsti, 1969; Krippendorff, 1970; Miles and Huberman, 1994; Scott, 1955). The suggested different formulas have slight differences in the factors

they take into account. In our reliability calculation, we used the formula suggested by Miles and Huberman (1994). This formula is as follows:

$$Reliability = \frac{number\ of\ agreements}{total\ number\ of\ agreements + disagreements}$$

In the calculation of intercoder reliability, the second coder recodes only a part of the notes; namely, the initial 5-10 pages of the data (Miles and Huberman, 1994). In our case, the first three units of the fives course books which yielded interpretable results were recoded. In a training session with the second coder, the notion of implicature, its types, the purpose of this study, and other necessary details were explained and elucidated for her. The other coder coded the data independently, and the reliability was calculated upon it.

The results of the reliability calculation will be presented for the books which yielded results in the content analysis process. We will start with the reliability of the results for the Life course book. The second coder searched the first two units for the activities she assessed as teaching implicatures. She then evaluated these activities based on the implicit-explicit criteria. Finally, she scrutinized the implicatures she found in these activities in terms of their types. The reliability for implicature teaching activities in upper-intermediate Life is displayed in Table 2. The first column indicates the consensus on the activities the two coders believed taught implicatures. The second column represents the agreement between the two coders in terms of their evaluation of the implicit-explicitness of the activities they labeled as activities teaching implicatures. In the third column, the agreement between coders in the implicatures they found is displayed. Finally, the degree of agreement between the two coders in the type of the implicatures is displayed in the last column of Table 2. As these results display, there is an acceptable degree of agreement between the two coders in all the columns.

Table 2:The Implicature Teaching Exercise Reliability of Upper-intermediate Life

	Implicature Teaching Activities	Implicit-Explicit Evaluation	Implicatures Found	Implicature Types
Reliability	100%	100%	86%	80%

In the second stage, the second coder recoded the implicatures of the dialogues of the first two units. Afterwards, she determined the types of these implicatures. The reliability in this aspect was at an acceptable degree, too.

Table 3: Dialogue Implicatures Reliability of Upper-intermediate Life

	Implicatures Found	**Implicature Types**
Reliability	75%	75%

In general, the results of the intercoder reliability for this book showed an acceptable degree of agreement between coders from the first stage, eliminating the necessity of a third check.

The next book in the list is Language Leader Upper-intermediate. Following exactly the same process, the reliability results are given in Table 4. There was initially only a 33% agreement on the implicature teaching activities of the first three units which was later discussed between the two coders and an agreement was made between some activities. The reliability was recalculated afterwards which yielded an improved reliability of 83%.

Table 4: The Implicature Teaching Exercise Reliability of Upper-intermediate Language Leader

	Implicature Teaching Activities	**Implicit-Explicit Evaluation**	**Implicatures Found**	**Implicature Types**
Reliability	83%	83%	88%	80%

The next table shows the reliability results for dialogue implicatures of the first three units of Upper-intermediate Language Leader. All the results are at an acceptable degree; meaning there was no need for further control.

Table 5: Dialogue Implicatures Reliability of Upper-intermediate Language Leader

	The Implicature	**Implicature Type**
Reliability	85%	75%

The third book for which the intercoder reliability was calculated is the advanced level of Language Leader. The results are displayed in Table 6. The initial results of the implicatures teaching activities was 65%. After a discussion with the second coder, this reliability was improved to 75%.

Table 6: The Implicature Teaching Exercise Reliability of Advanced Language Leader

	Implicature Teaching Activities	Implicit-Explicit Evaluation	Implicatures Found	Implicature Types
Reliability	75%	100%	87%	90%

The results of the implicatures found in the dialogues are shown in Table 7.

Table 7: Dialogue Implicatures Reliability of Advanced Language Leader

	The Implicature	Implicature Type
Reliability	96%	100%

Fortunately, the reliability results showed a high degree of agreement between the coders. There was, hence, no need for further check.

The fourth book for which the reliability was calculated was Strategic Reading 3. This book did not contain any dialogues; however, there were implicature teaching activities in this book. The reliability results were all acceptable from the initial calculation. The results are displayed below.

Table 8: The Implicature Teaching Exercise Reliability of Strategic Reading 3

	Implicature Teaching Activities	Implicit-Explicit Evaluation	Implicatures Found	Implicature Types
Reliability	83%	80%	100%	100%

And finally, the last book which was recoded was Upper-intermediate English File. Only one implicature teaching activity was found by both coders. There was only one

disagreement in the implicatures found, which affected the reliability highly, dragging it down to 66%. Therefore, a third check was necessary. It was done with both the coders and the disagreement was changed to an agreement; making the reliability of the results 100%.

Table 9: The Implicature Teaching Exercise Reliability of Upper-intermediate English File

	Implicature Teaching Activities	Implicit-Explicit Evaluation	Implicatures Found	Implicature Types
Reliability	100%	100%	100%	100%

And finally, the reliability of the results extracted from the dialogues of the English File course book was calculated. These results all showed reliabilities higher than 70%, eliminating the necessity of a third examine.

Table 10: Dialogue Implicatures Reliability of Upper-intermediate English File

	The Implicature	Implicature Type
Reliability	75%	83%

3.6.2 Questionnaire Analysis

The questionnaires given to the English instructors of upper-intermediate level at English Preparatory Schools consisted of two main types of questions: multiple choice questions, and open-ended questions.

The results of the multiple choice questions were analyzed in order to make manifest the number of the instructors who were familiar with pragmatics and implicatures, how much they teach pragmatics and implicatures to their students, and what their views were towards teaching implicatures. Each item of the questionnaire was analyzed individually to find what percent of the instructors agreed with the statements in the items, and to what extent. The results were tabulated and statistical analyses were conducted using SPSS program.

As mentioned before, Likert items were used in the multiple choice section of the questionnaire. There is a need to clarify the distinction between summated Likert scales, and individual items which are referred to as Likert-type items, because of the difference in their

analysis. Likert-type items are independent questions; each question inquires about a particular matter while Likert scale items need to be combined together to measure a variable altogether (Clason and Dormody, 1994). Since the multiple choice items of our questionnaire are of Likert-type, the analysis process followed the methods in accordance with this type of data. The data collected from Likert-type scales is ordinal, thus, non-parametric statistical tests had to be used for data analysis (Robertson, 2012). The analysis procedures that Likert-type data go through are predominantly the calculation of median or mode, frequencies, Kendall Tau B or C, and Chi-square (Boone and Boone, 2012).

For the analysis of the questionnaire in this study, the median and mode for each question was calculated for central tendency. The number of the respondents who selected a particular choice and the percentage to all were tabulated. The research questions were answered based on these data.

The questions of the second and third sections of the questionnaire were open-ended questions. The participants were asked to write short answers to these questions. The replies of this section were approached by qualitative data analysis methods. This process follows the same process as inductive content analysis; we have to extract categories and key indications from the responses provided. This analysis procedure is presented in three stages: preparation, organizing, and reporting (Elo and Kyngäs, 2008). In the first stage, we decide upon how detailed we want our analysis to be. In the second stage, we must read the material over and over again for several times, to the degree of being immersed in our data (Burnard, 1991). The third stage, which is the core of this analysis process, is where we code the data, create our categories and abstract (Elo and Kyngäs, 2008). To decode, labels, which must describe our data as comprehensively as possible, are given to the units (Burnard, 1991; Hsieh and Shannon, 2005). It is after this stage that the categories start to form (Elo and Kyngäs, 2008). In the next stage, which is abstraction, categories are reviewed and revised (Downe-Wamboldt, 1992).

To analyze the essay questions in the questionnaire, the provided answers were read as a whole for several times carefully. In the second stage, coding was carried out. In this stage the relevant words and phrases were labeled. These words and phrases were aimed at developing categories which could describe the responses. The categorization was based on the repeated words, expressions, and ideas. Additionally those points which were explicitly emphasized by the participant or seemed to have a point in any other way were coded. After

the initial coding process, some labels and categories were dropped by occasionally combining some codes together. Finally, the connection between these categories and ideas were clarified. The detailed descriptions of the categories and any possible indications, are given in the Results and Discussion section.

3.6.3 Quasi-Experimental Result Analysis

As stated before, in the quasi-experimental section of the study the students took two tests; a pre-test, and a post-test. The results of both these tests were transferred to a Microsoft Office Excel file. In order to do a more detailed analysis of our data, the results of the tests were divided into a number of variables. The results of the multiple choice sections of the tests were represented in two columns in the results file, displaying the number of correct answers for PCIs, and correct answers for SLCIs (each out of 5). The essay questions were recorded in the Excel Program in multiple columns. One column was for the score of correct essay answers (out of 10), and there were seven other columns each representing a certain type of the mistakes students made in their answers (whether in implicature production or using direct utterance). To be able to make a comparison between the students' reception of PCIs and SCLIs in total, a column represented the number of correct answers to multiple-choice questions only (out of 10). Finally, a column was given to total score (out of 20). All the mentioned columns were identical for the results of the pre- and post-tests. By comparing the results of these tests in the two groups, we will try to find any significant indications which could lead us to conclude a certain type of instruction worked better for teaching implicatures (PCIs and SLCIs more specifically).

The analysis process was all conducted in the SPSS program. Therefore, the data was transferred into the SPSS program for administering the analytic calculations. It started with a descriptive analysis of the data to attain a general overview of our data. The purpose of descriptive analysis is to give the researcher useful numbers about the population under study (Singh, 2007). The descriptive analysis in the current study included average, and standard deviation calculations of the results of pre- and post-tests.

The core of the analysis of the quasi-experiment results are in the inferential statistical methods we will use. Inferential statistics contains calculations which enable the researchers to draw conclusions about a whole population by only a sample of population (Singh, 2007). It is possible to gauge any significant differences between two sets of samples using

inferential statistics (Singh, 2007). The ANCOVA (Analysis of Covariance) test is a method from inferential statistics used to calculate the effect of treatments on the dependent variable when it is dependent on one or more covariates (Sadooghi-Alvandi and Jafari, 2013). Why do we use ANCOVA analysis? Using this analysis enables us to assess the effects of the independent variables on the dependent variables, eliminating the effects of the control variables, and covariates. It enables us to do an intergroup comparison as well, while releasing us from the possible effects of other interfering variables. Using this analysis, in fact, we uncover the effect of independent variable on each of the dependent variables independently.

The ANCOVA test has some prerequisites. For the ANCOVA test to be implemented, the prerequisites such as having normal data, and homogeneity of variance of the experiment groups should be met.

To start with testing the normality of the data, Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test is implemented on the data. It is a test for determining the normality of the data, by calculating the deviations of a distribution from normal distribution (Singh, 2007). The homogeneity of the data is determined by Levene's test. It is a test for testing variance differences, enabling the researcher to test whether variance is homogeneous between sets of samples (Singh, 2007).

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

In this chapter the results of the data analyses will be presented in three sections respectively; results of the content analysis, results of the questionnaire analysis, and results of the analysis of the quasi-experimental study. Each of these sections immediately follow a discussion section in which what these results indicate is discussed. It should also be noted that for the sake of simplification, the term implicature in the discussion sections will refer to the implicatures we are interested in this study; namely, PCIs and SLCIs.

4.1. Results of the Content Analysis

As explained in the methodology section, the content analysis was conducted on 14 course books and materials to evaluate, in terms of teaching PCI and SLCI, the contents of the course books studied at English Preparatory Schools of the five universities. The list of the analyzed course books and materials are shown in Table 11.

Table 11: The Analyzed Course Books

No.	Title	Publication	Level/ Series No.	University
1	Life	National Geographic Learning	Upper-intermediate	Ankara University
2	Making Connections	Cambridge University Press	Third book	Bilkent University
3	Grammar and Beyond	Cambridge University Press	Third book	Bilkent University
4	Lecture Ready	Oxford University Press	Third book	Bilkent University
5	Language Leader	Pearson Longman	Upper-intermediate	Gazi University

6	Contemporary Topics	Pearson Longman	Second & third book	Gazi University
7	Introduction to Academic Writing	Pearson Longman	Third book	Gazi University
8	Strategic Reading	Cambridge University Press	Third book	Gazi University
9	English File	Oxford University Press	Upper-intermediate	Hacettepe University
10	Contemporary Topics	Pearson Longman	Second book	Hacettepe University
11	Language Leader	Pearson Longman	Advanced	METU
12	Offline Readings	METU Press	Second book	METU
13	More to Read	METU Press	Second book	METU
14	Advanced Learner's Grammar	Longman	Advanced	METU

The course books and materials which were scrutinized for implicature teaching did not constitute the whole materials taught at each university. Unfortunately, the authorities of the universities were unwilling to share their institutionally-prepared materials with members of other universities, due to their solicitude regarding the issues of copy right. In order to partially compensate for this lack, a question pertaining to the evaluation of supplementary materials (Question 12) was included in the questionnaire; additionally, one separate section was allotted to questions directed at the instructors who took part in developing supplementary material development, which was unfortunately answered by only two of the participants. Although two answers are too few to be decisive, it should be mentioned that these two participants claim they do not really consider teaching implicatures, and there is no criterion for incorporating them into institutionally-prepared materials.

Herein, the results of the Questions 11 and 12 of the questionnaire and what they indicate are presented. The detailed analysis, however, is given in the Questionnaire Analysis section. Questions 11 and 12 in the multiple choice section of the questionnaire inquire about the instructors' opinions regarding the sufficiency of course books for teaching implicatures, and if the instructors themselves use supplementary activities and tasks to enhance students' awareness of their learners. The results indicate that nearly half of the teachers do not think that course books are sufficient in teaching implicatures while more than a quarter are hesitated. As few as only one participant agreed with the sufficiency of the course books in implicature instruction. Regarding the materials that teachers use for supplementing the course books, almost half of the subjects admit they do not use supplementary materials aimed at teaching implicatures. A quarter of the participants gave a neutral response while less than a quarter felt confident enough about the sufficiency of their complementary materials to claim so.

An important indication of these results is that according to the statements of the instructors who are involved with these course books, we probably have to not expect to detect much information and instructions about implicatures in the course books. Also, the overview of these results leads us to accept that institutions and teachers are not so much considering teaching implicatures by using appropriate materials.

At the end of this section, I will turn back to the questionnaire for a discussion about an open-ended question which asked the instructors for their opinions and suggestions about how course books could be supplemented to teach implicatures. At this stage, however, I come back to the results of the content analysis of the course books.

After capturing a general overview of the contents, the aforementioned books were analyzed based on the criteria in Appendix 3. In more simple terms, the following process was followed. Each activity in the course books was first analyzed to find the main purpose of the activity. If the activity aimed teaching PCIs or SLCIs, the next questions to be answered were if the activity taught them implicitly or explicitly, and which type of implicatures it aimed teaching. The results of this investigation were summarized and organized in a table with the following columns:

Page No.	Activity Name	Value Based on Criteria	Total Value	Final Result	The Implicatures	Implicature Explanation	Implicature Type

In the first column the page number where the activity is, and in the second column the title of the activity is given. The third column is where the explicit-implicitness of the activities is evaluated based on the content analysis criteria. In the third column the questions regarding the degree of explicitness or implicitness of the activity (Criteria in Appendix 3) are answered. A 'Y' stands for a 'yes' answer to the corresponding question; while an 'N' stands for a 'no' to the corresponding question. Each positive answer moves the activity on a continuum of explicitness towards the more explicit end. The numerical result of this rating is given in the fourth column, and a verbal evaluation of the result is given in the next column. The verbal evaluation is based on this range:

1. 0/10-2/10   Highly implicit

2. 3/10-4/10   Implicit

3. 5/10   Equally explicit and implicit

4. 6/10-7/10   Explicit

5. 8/10-10/10   Highly explicit

 In the last three columns the analysis of the implicatures found in each activity are displayed.

The activities which did not aim teaching implicatures in any way, yet which did expose learners to dialogues containing implicatures were displayed in another table. They were analyzed to find examples of PCIs and SLCIs in dialogical spoken language since the interest of this study is everyday spoken language. Therefore, monologues in which no real two-way interaction occurred were ignored. This was done to gauge the degree of exposure of the learners to the implicatures under study in conversational interactions.

The following headings belong to the table in which the results of the dialogue analysis were summarized. This table highly resembles the previous one, with the only difference of not having the activity explicitness-implicitness evaluation columns.

Page No.	Activity Name	The PCI or SLCI	Implicature Explanation	Implicature Type

In the coming subsections, the details of the content analysis of each book will be presented in the order of the number of the implicatures found, from the most to the least. The books which did not contain implicature teaching activities, or implicatures in dialogues, appear according to their order in the list of books in Table 11.

4.1.1 Life

Starting from the beginner's level and ending with advanced, the general theme of this six-book series is, as one would expect from a product of national geographic, mainly the planet and diversity of life on it. This series provides learners with lessons encompassing instructions of grammar, vocabulary, pronunciation and communicative skills.

The upper-intermediate level of this series is comprised of 12 units. Each unit is around a particular topic and consists mainly of readings, listening passages and grammar exercises. Each unit has an average number of 68 activities. Each exercise and activity was analyzed and the results were tabulated. Only four exercises were found, which taught implicatures in some way. The results of the analysis of one of these four is given in Table 12:

Table 12: A Sample of Implicature Teaching Activities in Life

Page No.	Activity Name	Value Based on Criteria	Total Value	Final Result	The Implicatures	Implicature Explanation	Implicature Type
52	3	1. N 2. N 3. N 4. N 5. N 6. Y 7. N 8. N 9. N 10. Y	2/10	Highly implicit	It sounds right up my street.	+> It is sounds very ideal to me.	SLCI
					I have a lot of time for swimming.	+> I like swimming very much.	PCI
					I'm not very keen on riding.	+> I do not like riding.	SLCI
					I never feel particularly comfortable doing house chores.	+> I dislike house chores.	SLCI
					It doesn't really sound like fun.	+> I do not like to do it.	SLCI
					This really gets on my nerves.	+> This makes me angry.	SLCI
					I get a bit tired of doing homework.	+> I dislike it.	PCI

The activity in the table above for instance has scored 2 out of 10, which means this activity is highly implicit. 5 out of 7 of the implicatures found in this exercise are conventional, which shows that the focus of this activity is on conventional implicatures. The general results of the implicature teaching activities in the Upper-intermediate Life is given in Table 13.

Table 13: Total Results of Implicature Teaching Activities of Life

No. of Activities	Mean Value	General Verbal Evaluation	Total No. of PCIs	Total No. of SLCIs	Total No. of PCIs and SLCIs
4	2/10	Highly Implicit	2/ 12,5%	14/ 87.5%	16

4 implicature teaching activities in a course book which contains over 800 activities means almost 0,5% of the activities, which is a very low number. All the activities which aim to teach implicatures are highly implicit. The results also make manifest that conventional implicatures are the center of attention in the purposeful teaching of implicatures in activities.

As mentioned before, all the dialogical interactions were scrutinized to find SLCIs and PCIs in them. A sample of the results is displayed in Table 14.

Table 14: A Sample of Implicature Containing Dialogue in Life

Page No.	Activity Name	The Implicatures	Implicature Explanation (The meaning conveyed)	Implicature Type
48	1. 1.27	I'm going <u>to fire some statements at</u> you...	+> I'm going to read some random or maybe even irrelevant sentences to you.	SLCI
		I don't actually think that 'should' has a lot to do with it.	+> There is not a predefined frame for deciding what art actually is.	PCI
		(giving his opinion about art) Anyway, <u>I'll play the game</u>, so...let's hear what they say...	+> I am in this career, so let the other people who are not decide.	PCI
		Monet did some of his paintings in five minutes.	+> Not all artwork needs tremendous effort and time.	PCI
		(Preparing the interviewee for the next question) that <u>ties in</u> with the next one.	+> is related to	SLCI
		I can think of quite a lot of examples of successful art that wasn't technically difficult, but was just based on a clever idea.	+> There not such a fact that all artists have technical skills.	PCI

The total results of the analysis of the implicatures in the dialogues are given in Table 15.

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Table 15: Total Results of Dialogue Implicatures of Life

No. of Dialogues Containing Implicatures	Total No. of PCIs and SLCIs	Mean No. of Implicatures in Each Dialogue	Total No. of PCIs / Percentage to All Implicatures	Total No. of SLCIs / Percentage to All Implicatures
15	46	3	26/ 56,5%	20/ 43,5%

As Table 15 shows, 15 of the dialogues of the book contained at least one SLCI or PCI. Each of these dialogues had 3 PCIs or SLCIs on average. 26 out of 46 implicatures found in the dialogues were conversational. This equals to 56% of the implicatures. The raw number of SLCIs is 20, which means 44% of the implicatures were SLCIs.

Now a general look at the results is needed to sum up the analysis of the book in terms of the SLCIs and PCIs it teaches, and also the degree to which it exposes learners to these implicatures. The total summary of the analysis of the upper-intermediate Life Course Books in terms of implicatures is given in Table 16.

Table 16: Total Results of PCIs and SLCIs in Life

Total				
No. of Activities	No. of PCIs and SLCIs	Proportion of Implicature to Activity	No. of PCIs / Percentage to All Implicatures	No. of SLCI / Percentage to All Implicatures
≈ 800	62	A PCI or SLCI every 13 activities	28 / 45%	34 / 55%

The results show that although the total results are very close, students are slightly more exposed to SLCIs in general. While 55% of the total implicatures are SLCIs, 45% comprise the PCIs. Also, every 13 activities there is an implicature; PCI or SLCI.

4.1.2 Language Leader (Upper-Intermediate)

In the content analysis process of this study, two course books of the Language Leader Series were analyzed. The upper-intermediate Language Leader is one of the main course books studied at Gazi Language Preparatory School, at the upper-intermediate level. It is the last book of the four-book series. This series focuses on four skills of language and communicative skills. There are twelve units in the upper-intermediate Language Leader course book. Each unit starts with discussions around the unit topic. A switch between skills is given every set of a few activities.

An example of the results is given in Table 17, followed by the summary of the results of implicature teaching activities (Table 18).

Table 17: A Sample of Implicature Teaching Activities: Language Leader (Upper-Intermediate)

Page	Activity Name	Value Based on Criteria	Total Value	Final Result	The Implicatures	Implicature Explanation (The meaning conveyed)	Implicature Type
9	5a	1. Y 2. N 3. N 4. N 5. N 6. Y 7. N 8. N 9. N 10. Y	3/10	Highly Implicit	Actions speak louder than words.	+> What you do is more important than what you say.	SLCI
					Get a word in edgeways.	+> contribute to a conversation with difficulty because the other speaker talks incessantly.	SLCI

Hear it on the grapevine.	+> Talk about a rumor passed from someone to other.	SLCI
Be on the same wavelength.	+> Share similar ideas.	SLCI
Get straight to the point.	+> Talk about the most important thing immediately.	SLCI
Have a quick word with someone.	+> Talk briefly to someone.	SLCI

Table 18: Total Results of Implicature Teaching Activities of Language Leader (Upper-Intermediate)

No. of Activities	Mean Value	General Verbal Evaluation	Total No. of PCIs	Total No. of SLCIs	Total No. of PCIs and SLCIs
6	3/10	Implicit	0/ 0%	16/ 100%	16

6 implicature teaching activities were detected in the whole book. 3 of these activities were highly implicit, 2 implicit, and 1 explicit. The activities received a score of 3/10 in average, which means they tended to be implicit. None of these activities included teaching PCIs. Therefore, all the activities found in the implicature teaching activities focused on teaching SLCIs.

According to the procedure, the dialogues in upper-intermediate Language Leader were all studied to find examples of PCIs and SLCIs. Table 19 shows an example:

Table 19: A Sample of Implicature Containing Dialogues

Page No.	Activity Name	The Implicatures	Implicature Explanation (The meaning conveyed)	Implicature Type
59	8.a 2.10	It's a page turner.	+> It is a book you can hardly stop reading.	SLCI
		I couldn't put it down.	+> I could not stop reading.	PCI
		I couldn't get into it.	+> I could not enjoy it.	SLCI
		It lived up the hype.	+> It was as good as expected.	SLCI
		Let's agree to differ on this one.	+> Let's not try to convince each other more.	SLCI

The total results of implicatures in dialogues is given in Table 20:

Table 20: Total Results of Dialogue Implicatures of Language Leader (Upper-Intermediate)

No. of Dialogues Containing PCIs or SLCIs	Total No. of PCIs and SLCIs	Mean No. of Implicatures in Each Dialogue	Total No. of PCIs / Percentage to total PCIs and SLCIs	Total No. of SLCIs / Percentage to total PCIs and SLCIs
10	24	2.4	12 / 50%	12 / 50%

As seen above, only 10 of all the dialogues in the book contained PCIs or SLCIs. Interestingly, the distribution of these two types of the implicatures of our interest are identical: 12 PCIs, and 12 SLCIs. Each dialogue included a mean number of 2 to 3 PCIs or SLCIs.

Table 21 sums up the results of the analysis of the upper-intermediate Language Leader.

Table 21: Total Results of PCIs and SLCIs in Language Leader (Upper-Intermediate)

Total				
No. of Activities	No. of PCIs and SLCIs	Proportion of Implicature to Activity	No. of PCIs / Percentage to All Implicatures	No. of SLCI / Percentage to All Implicatures
≈ 840	40	A PCI or ALCI every 21 activities	12 / 30%	28 / 70%

The activity number is an approximate number calculated by counting the mean number of activities in three units and multiplying it by 12. The activities separated by letters, having the same number, inside a whole task were counted as separate activities. The total number of PCIs and SLCIs in the implicature teaching activities and dialogues are 40. Every 21 activities there is a PCI or SLCI. As the numbers show, 70% of all the implicatures are SLCIs, which means students are considerably less exposed to PCIs, in comparison to the SCLIs in this book.

4.1.3 Language Leader (Advanced)

The upper-intermediate course book of the Language Leader by Pearson Longman was already analyzed as the main course book studied at Gazi English Preparatory School. The advanced level of this series is one of the main course books studied at the upper-intermediate level of English Preparatory School of METU. As with the previous member of this series, this book is comprised of 12 units. Each unit has lessons and activities for all the four basic skills.

The analysis showed that there were more implicature teaching activities in this book compared to the previously analyzed books. Table 22 gives an example of an implicature teaching activity from advanced Language Leader.

Table 22: Sample Implicature Teaching Activities in Language Leader (Advanced)

Page	Activity Name	Value Based on Criteria	Total Value	Final Result	The Implicatures	Implicature Explanation (The meaning conveyed)	Implicature Type
63	8	1. Y 2. Y 3. N 4. N 5. N 6. Y 7. N 8. Y 9. N 10. Y	5/10	Equally explicit and implicit	Get somebody down	+> To upset somebody	SLCI
					Get on somebody's nerves	+> To irritate someone	SLCI
					Get the hang of something	+> Learn the proper way of doing something	SLCI
					Get on like a house on fire	+> To like one another very much and be friends quickly	SLCI
					Get off to a flying start	+> To begin an activity very successfully	SLCI

Table 23 summarizes all such activities:

Table 23: Total Results of Implicature Teaching Activities of Language Leader (Advanced)

No. of Activities	Mean Value	General Verbal Evaluation	Total No. of PCIs	Total No. of SLCIs	Total No. of PCIs and SLCIs
8	3 /10	Implicit	6	10/ 38,5%	16/ 61,5%

Although there are remarkably more implicature teaching activities in this book compared to other analyzed books, the degree of explicitness is still low in these activities. As with other books, the SLCIs outnumber the PCIs in these activities. Out of 16 implicatures, 10 are SLCIs, while 6 are PCIs.

The dialogues were less rich in PCIs and SLCIs, considering the proportion of the implicatures found in dialogues to the ones found in the activities in other books. An example is given below in Table 24:

Table 24: Sample Implicature Containing Dialogue from Language Leader (Upper-intermediate)

Page No.	Activity Name	The Implicatures	Implicature Explanation (The meaning conveyed)	Implicature Type
37	4a 1.20	She didn't really show much of herself.	+> She did not give much information about herself.	SLCI
		She certainly didn't push herself too much.	+> She does not force herself too much.	SLCI

And the summary of the results of the implicatures found in dialogues is displayed in Table 25:

Table 25: Total Results of Dialogue Implicatures of Language Leader (Advanced)

No. of Dialogues Containing PCIs or SLCIs	Total No. of PCIs and SLCIs	Mean No. of Implicatures in Each Dialogue	Total No. of PCIs/ Percentage to total PCIs and SLCIs	Total No. of SLCIs/ Percentage to total PCIs and SLCIs
10	16	1.6	4/ 25%	12/ 75%

Only 10 of the dialogues in the book contained PCIs or SLCIs. The total number of the implicatures of our interest were 16, which means the mentioned 10 dialogues each had averagely more than one PCI or SLCI. The SLCIs notably outnumbered the PCIs by a 75% to 25% proportion.

Summing up the total results of the analysis, gives Table 26:

Table 26: Total Results of PCIs and SLCIs in Language Leader (Advanced)

Total				
No. of Activities	No. of PCIs and SLCIs	Proportion of Implicature to Activity	No. of PCIs/ Percentage to All Implicatures	No. of SLCI/ Percentage to All Implicatures
≈ 750	32	A PCI or SLCI every 23 activities (Approximately)	10 / 31%	22/ 69%

There are nearly 750 activities in the 12 units of the Advanced-level Language Leader. There is a PCI or SLCI in approximately every 23 activities. SLCIs are remarkably more than PCIs; the 69% to 31% manifests the difference. This has been so far the richest course book in terms of the implicatures we are looking for.

4.1.4 Strategic Reading

The last book of Gazi upper-intermediate level preparatory English courses to be discussed is Strategic Reading 3 by Cambridge University Press. The third book is the last of its series. The goal of this series is to develop reading fluency of the students. There are more than 12 units in each book, each including three authentic reading passages which are manipulated to some extent to be appropriate for the level of the books. Strategic Reading 3 is comprised of 16 units with these features.

As with the Introduction to Academic Writing, this book is chiefly focused on a single skill too, and no spoken language is included in the book. There were, however, a number of activities which aimed to teach implicatures of our interest. An example is displayed in Table 27:

Table 27: Sample Implicature Teaching Activities in Strategic Reading

In Table 28 the implicatures found in the exercises are summarized.

Page	Activity Name	Value Based on Criteria	Total Value	Final Result	The Implicatures	Implicature Explanation	Implicature Type
128	Vocabulary expansion. A	1. Y 2. N 3. N 4. Y 5. N 6. Y 7. N 8. N 9. N 10. N	3/ 10	Implicit	Be in hysterics	+>an outburst of uncontrollable laughing or crying	SLCI
					Burst out laughing	+> Laugh very suddenly	SLCI
					Have someone in stitches	+> To make someone laugh a lot	SLCI
					Crack people up	+> To make someone laugh	SLCI

Almost die laughing	+> laugh very much	SLCI
Laugh your head off	+> laugh very loudly and hard	SLCI
Roar with laughter	+> To laugh very loudly	SLCI

Table 28: Total Results of Implicature Teaching Activities of Strategic Reading

No. of Activities	Mean Value	General Verbal Evaluation	Total No. of PCIs	Total No. of SLCIs	Total No. of PCIs and SLCIs
6	3/ 10	Implicit	0/ 0%	23/ 100%	23

The results indicate that although there were a noticeable number of activities in Strategic Reading 3, there were no activities aimed at teaching PCIs. Additionally, since there were no dialogues in the book under study, no PCIs which could count were detected in the whole book.

Total results are summarized in Table 29.

Table 29: Total Results of PCIs and SLCIs in Strategic Reading

Total				
No. of Activities	No. of PCIs and SLCIs	Proportion of Implicature to Activity	No. of PCIs/ Percentage to All Implicatures	No. of SLCI/ Percentage to All Implicatures
>800	23	A PCI or SLCI every 35 activities	0/ 0%	23/ 100%

As Table 29 shows, there is one SLCI found in the book every 35 activities. Although not impressive, the number can be deemed quite promising for a book focused only on a single skill; namely, reading.

4.1.5 English File

English File Upper-Intermediate is one of the two main course books at the upper-intermediate level of Hacettepe English Preparatory School. Published by Oxford University Press, this series is comprised of 7 books, starting from the beginner's level, ending with advanced. Although it works on the four main skills, it focuses more on getting students to talk. This book consists of 10 units. Each unit is broken down into three sections, the third section of which is a video students are supposed to watch. The units are organized according to grammar, vocabulary, and pronunciation.

Only one activity was found, which teaches implicatures. This activity aimed to teach some idioms (Table 30).

Table 30: Sample Implicature Teaching Activities in English File

Page	Activity Name	Value Based on Criteria	Total Value	Final Result	The Implicatures	Implicature Explanation (The meaning conveyed)	Implicature Type
93	2, Looking at Language	1. Y 2. Y 3. N 4. N 5. N 6. Y 7. N 8. Y 9. N 10. Y	5/ 10	Equally explicit and implicit	They get into your head…	+> You memorize them without a particular intention to do so.	SLCI
					Um, have billboards and TV commercials had their day?	+> Were they favored some day?	SLCI
					They became kind of the gold standard and they rarely hit a false note.	+> To do something wrong.	SLCI

The statistical results of the implicatures found in the activities is displayed in Table 31:

Table 31: Total Results of Implicature Teaching Activities of English File

No. of Activities	Mean Value	General Verbal Evaluation	Total No. of PCIs	Total No. of SLCIs	Total No. of PCIs and SLCIs
1	5/ 10	Equally explicit and implicit	0/ 0%	3/ 100%	3

This activity is in the middle of the explicit-implicit continuum, and it only teaches SLCIs.

12 dialogues were found which contained at least one PCI or SLCI. A sample is given in Table 32.

Table 32: Sample Implicature Containing Dialogue

Page No.	Activity Name	The Implicatures	Implicature Explanation (The meaning conveyed)	Implicature Type
52	a 3.24	You could sort of end up feeling that you just want to go and shoot yourself.	+> You feel very disappointed and desperate.	PCI
		…the pieces become so fragmented that they're the same size as the zooplankton, um, which is obviously in the food chain.	+> Plastic gets mistakenly eaten as planktons by some animals.	PCI

The Table 33 displays general statistics about these implicatures.

Table 33: Total Results of Dialogue Implicatures of Engliah File

No. of Dialogues Containing PCIs or SLCIs	Total No. of PCIs and SLCIs	Mean No. of Implicatures in Each Dialogue	Total No. of PCIs/ Percentage to total PCIs and SLCIs	Total No. of SLCIs/ Percentage to total PCIs and SLCIs
12	15	1.25	11/ 73%	4/ 27%

As can be seen above, only 4 out of 15 of all the implicatures found in the dialogues are conventional. This means that 73% of the implicatures are PCIs while only 27% of the implicatures are SLCIs. In contrast to the implicature teaching activities, there is remarkably more exposure to PCIs than SLCIs in the dialogues. There is averagely one or two PCIs or SLCIs in each of the dialogues containing implicatures.

In total, counting all the activities in the tasks, there are nearly 700 activities in the book. In Table 34, a general summary of the PCIs and SLCIs in the book are given:

Table 34: Total Results of PCIs and SLCIs in English File

Total				
No. of Activities	No. of PCIs and SLCIs	Proportion of Implicature to Activity	No. of PCIs/ Percentage to All Implicatures	No. of SLCI/ Percentage to All Implicatures
≈ 700	18	A PCI or SLCI every 45 activities	11/ 61%	7/ 39%

According to these numbers, there are only 18 PCIs or SLCIs in the whole book; either taught in the activities or simply given passively inside the dialogues. The frequency of the implicatures of our interest are one implicature every 45 activities, which can be interpreted as rare. More than 60% of all these implicatures are PCIs, and less than 40% are SLCIs.

4.1.6 Making Connections

Making Connections is a series of course books developed by Cambridge University Press to help students prepare for their college academic studies. They teach reading strategies to use in academic readings. They come in three levels of low intermediate, intermediate, and upper-intermediate.

Making Connections 3 is one of the main course books studied at the upper-intermediate level of Bilkent University. This book is comprised of 4 main units, each unit is around a particular topic. There are three reading strategies in each unit, followed by a number of exercises, practicing these skills. Since the main purpose of this book is teaching reading skills and strategies, no attention is given to speaking skill, and there is no exposure to the spoken language, even at a monologue level.

The whole book and the constituting exercises were carefully analyzed to find cases of exercises aimed at teaching implicatures. There are a number of exercises in the book which teach learners how to infer messages from the text and to draw conclusions, mostly at a discourse level. However, there are no exercises or instructions focusing particularly on implicatures. Since there are no dialogues either, no implicatures of our interest were found in the whole book.

4.1.7 Grammar and Beyond

This series is a product of Cambridge Publications. There are four books in this series. As the name suggests, these books focus on teaching grammar to learners in four levels. They are developed based on corpus; the Cambridge English Corpus, so it provides grammar instructions with authentic language ("Cambridge English," 2015). It combines the teaching of grammar with all the four skills.

Grammar and Beyond 3 is another book studied at the upper-intermediate level of English Preparatory School of Bilkent University. As it is expected from a book entitled grammar, this book concentrates on the form of language.

4.1.8 Lecture Ready

Published by Oxford University Press, this series is intended to teach listening and note-taking strategies to college-level learners who are to be students of English-medium universities. In

order to be able to comprehend the lecturers' speech at university, students need to be prepared specifically for long academic lectures (Flowerdew, 1994).

Lecture Ready 3 is the third course book studied at the upper-intermediate level of English Preparatory School of Bilkent University. Since this book is consisted of lectures, and they are monologues in essence, they do not have analysis value for the current research. There were also no implicature teaching activities in the book which taught PCIs or SLCIs.

4.1.9 Contemporary Topics

This series is designed to prepare college students for English Lectures in academic environments. There are three books in this series; numbered from 1 to 3. The topics dealt with in this series are related to a variety of disciplines. The main focus is on teaching listening, note taking strategies and practice in 12 units. It additionally provides students with useful speaking tasks. The materials are authentic materials recorded with real audiences.

Contemporary Topics 2 is one of the main resources at the upper-intermediate level of English Preparatory Schools of Gazi and Hacettepe Universities. The Contemporary Topics 3 is also covered at Gazi upper-intermediate level of the English Preparatory School. The two books highly resemble in structure and content, and vary in the language difficulty only.

Because of this resemblance and the resemblance of the results, the analysis results of both books are not presented separately. Contemporary Topics 2 and 3 contained no activities which noticeably taught PCIs or SLCIs. Nor did they contain any interactive conversations or daily interactions which could interest our research. The listening passages were comprised of lectures and monologues with very little interactivity.

4.1.10 Introduction to Academic Writing

Studied as one of the main resources at the upper-intermediate level of Gazi University English Preparatory School, Introduction to Academic Writing 3 is an intermediate level course book and work book combination which introduces students to academic writing structure and strategies step by step. This book consists of 10 chapters, each consisting of 3 sections: organization, sentence structure, and writing.

As is anticipated by the name and the introduction of it, it focuses on writing skill and subskills pertaining to it. There are no instructions of PCIs or SLCIs. Also no conversations are found in the book to analyze in terms of the implicatures they might contain.

4.1.11 Offline Readings

Offline Readings 2 is one of the main sources studied at the upper-intermediate level of English Preparatory School of METU. It is also prepared and published by the University. This series focuses on the reading skill by practicing vocabulary, academic readings, and reading strategies. Since this book is only interested in reading skill, and there is no spoken language in the book, it has no dialogues which could have an analysis value for this research. There were also no activities which aimed teaching PCIs or SLCIs.

4.1.12 More to Read

The second book of this series is the other main resource for developing learners' reading skill at the upper-intermediate level of English Preparatory School of METU. Like Offline Readings, this book concentrates on the reading skill and its sub-skills. Therefore, there are no daily conversations which could interest us, and no activities aimed at teaching implicatures within our research scope.

4.1.13 Advanced Learner's Grammar

The advanced Learner's Grammar by Pearson Longman is the last book in the analysis list. Being a complementary source at the upper-intermediate level of English Preparatory School at METU, this book is intended to improve the grammar knowledge of the learners. As the name suggests, this book is comprised of lessons and exercises merely for grammar and forms. Therefore, as expected, this book does not have any conversations or dialogues to be suitable for our analysis.

4.2. Discussion of the Content Analysis

Herein, we will discuss the results of the content analysis in light of the particular research questions given below.

Do the course books studied at upper-intermediate levels of University English preparatory schools in Ankara, Turkey, contain tasks, and activities to teach implicatures, or present to learners the examples of them? If yes, how do they present implicatures to the learners?

a) Do the course books contain any purposeful instructions on sentence-level conventional implicatures, or particularized conversational implicatures? If they do, are these instructions implicit or explicit?

b) Do the dialogues expose learners to particularized conversational implicatures, or sentence-level-conventional implicatures? To what extent?

c) What kind of implicatures are more prevailing? Sentence-level conventional implicatures, or particularized conversational implicatures (SLCIs, or PCIs)?

Among all the books, only 42 activities contained some type of instruction of PCIs or SLCIs. Since there are no studies in the literature which can serve as a benchmark to evaluate what proportion of implicatures to activities is enough, making certain conclusions about their sufficiency would not be sensible. However, considering the average number of 800 activities in each course book, and the total number of the books which is 14, it could be said with certainty that there is not a considerable number of them. Teachers' intuitional evaluation of the course books, assessing these books as weak from the aspect of teaching implicatures, emphasizes this point. The activities which we found to be teaching PCIs or SLCIs, contained over eight times more SLCIs rather than PCIs in total. This dramatic difference allows us to conclude that the course books concentrate on teaching SLCIs, or idioms in other words; rather than PCIs.

Among the five books which yielded interpretable results, none contained explicit instruction. The closest where the results of these analyses came to the explicit end was in English File course book, which was, according to our results, equally explicit and implicit. With the other results being *Highly Implicit*, and two *Implicit* results, showing the high tendency of results towards the implicit pole of the Explicit-Implicit continuum.

The dialogues contained 94 implicatures of our interest in total: 53 PCIs and 41 SLCIs in total. Considering the number of the books, 14, the course books do not seem to expose learners to a remarkable amount of implicatures. There is not a dramatic distance between the numbers of the two types of implicatures; however, as the numbers demonstrate, conversational types outnumber the conventional ones.

The conclusion that course books fall short in playing their role as pragmatic resources beside being resources for other skills is also in line with Vellenga's (2004) findings. She observed that not only they provide very little meta-pragmatic information, the analysis of teachers' guides also show teachers are not guided to use any strategies to teach pragmatics. Perhaps this is partially attributable to the use of safe and carefully adjusted language of the course books since the questionable authenticity of the materials inside course books also does not help students encounter cultural and pragmatic aspects of the target language (Richards, 2001; Thornbury, 1999).

Although we could not find extensive exposure to implicatures in the course books, either in the activities or dialogues, we found that activities which teach implicatures we looked for aimed to teach SLCIs to a notably wider extent; while conversations in the course books expose learners to PCIs slightly more than SLCIs. The reason for finding a remarkably greater number of activities teaching SLCIs rather than PCIs might be the higher teachability capacity of conventional implicatures (Bouton, 1994). It may also be due to the abstract and form-free nature of the particularized implicatures which makes them seem not much available for instruction. On the other hand, conversations in the course books perhaps intend to follow from authentic spoken language in which more PCIs might be found rather than SLCIs; however, there is need for research to establish this point.

As was mentioned in the introduction of this chapter, results of the questionnaires will follow the results of the content analysis.

4.3. Results of the Questionnaires

The questionnaires of this study were collected anonymously. Therefore, they were numbered to have a reference. The Excel file in which the answers to the questionnaires were stored, contained information about the university to which the participant belonged, the assigned number, and the answers to the questions by each item.

In the coming parts of this section, the results and the analysis of the questionnaires will be given by each item. The analysis process is aided by the SPSS program where required. Since each question is considered a stand-alone item, a separate look at each one is beneficial. Then, a general analysis follows. The multiple-choice questions are analyzed as Likert-type questions. The open-ended questions will be analyzed using qualitative data analysis methods. This section will end with a discussion of what the results indicate.

Using the SPSS program, the frequency of choices, percentage, mode, and median for each question were calculated. The results are displayed in Table 35.

Table 35: Results of Questionnaires

Statement	SA (%)	A (%)	N (%)	D (%)	SD (%)	Median	Mode
1. I know what pragmatics is.	7 (19,5)	21 (58,3)	5 (13,9)	3 (8,3)	0 (0)	4,00	4
2. I know how to teach pragmatics to my English learners.	2 (5,5)	19 (53)	10 (27,7)	5 (13,8)	0 (0)	4,00	4
3. I know what implicature is.	5 (13,9)	22 (61,1)	7 (19,4)	2 (5,6)	0 (0)	4,00	4
4. I know the types of implicatures.	0 (0)	9 (25)	11 (30,6)	16 (44,4)	0 (0)	3,00	2
5. I think it is necessary to teach implicatures to English learners.	5 (13,9)	18 (50)	10 (27,8)	3 (8,3)	0 (0)	4,00	4
6. I was taught about implicatures during my study at the English Language Teaching Department.	1 (2,8)	8 (22,2)	9 (25)	14 (38,9)	4 (11,1)	2,50	2
7. I was taught how to teach implicatures to English learners.	0 (0)	6 (16,7)	2 (5,6)	23 (63,9)	5 (13,9)	2,00	2
8. I know how to teach implicatures to my English learners.	1 (2,8)	9 (25)	14 (38,9)	11 (30,6)	1 (2,8)	3,00	3
9. I can test my English learners' knowledge of implicatures.	1 (2,8)	9 (25)	11 (30,6)	14 (38,9)	1 (2,8)	3,00	2
10. I observe that my English learners are interested in learning implicatures.	0 (0)	6 (16,7)	17 (47,2)	10 (27,8)	3 (8,3)	3,00	3
11. I think course books sufficiently provide materials and models	0 (0)	1 (2,8)	10 (27,8)	17 (47,2)	8 (22,2)	2,00	2

for English learners to learn implicatures.						
12. I use supplementary activities and tasks to enhance the implicature awareness of English learners.	0 (0)	8 (22,2)	9 (25)	17 (47,2)	2 (5,6)	2,00	2

The first question inquires the instructors' knowledge about pragmatics. As shown in Table 35, mode is equal to 4, which means the most frequently given answer is 'Agree', and this makes more than 58% of all the answers. The median, which is equal to 4, means that all the given answers to the first question tend to show a mild agreement. The frequency of other choices, except the 'Strongly Disagree' choice in this question are close. None of the 36 participants claimed they knew nothing about pragmatics, while a significant number assess their knowledge of pragmatics at a certain level which enables them to claim they know what pragmatics is.

More than half of the participants (53%) claim they know how to teach pragmatics; the mode equals 4, which tells us the most given answer to the statement of the second item is 'Agree'. In other words, more than half of the participating instructors think they know the ways to teaching pragmatics. Only 2 of them (5,5%) believed they absolutely knew the methods to teaching pragmatics. 5 out of 35 participants (13,8) admitted they do not know much about ways of teaching implicatures to their students while none of them claimed they know nothing about it at all.

Although the most frequent answer given to the third question, which is about the participants' knowledge about implicature, is "agree" (mode=4) as with the previous items, the participants were less sure about their knowledge about implicatures, compared to their knowledge about pragmatics. Only 5 participants (13,9%) assess their knowledge about implicatures as very well. 22 (61,1%) of them, which means more than half of the instructors, mildly state that they know the concept of implicature. Just like the previous questions, no one stated they knew nothing about implicatures at all; while 2 of the instructors admitted they did not know much about them.

As the types of implicatures perhaps seem to be too technical to know for English teachers, none of the 35 participants strongly agreed that they knew their types. The median is equal to 3, which shows that the replies tend to be towards the undecided choice about the statement of the item. Additionally, the mode is 2, showing that most of the responses the instructors gave stated they did not know much about the types of implicatures. 11 of the 35 upper-intermediate teachers (30,6%) were undecided about whether they knew the types of implicatures or not. 44,4% of the

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participants revealed their unawareness about the types of implicatures by selecting the "disagree" choice for the relating item.

The answers to the fifth item in the questionnaire, regarding the teachers' opinions about the necessity of teaching implicatures, yield a median and a mode of 4; both showing the instructors' mild agreement to the necessity of teaching implicatures. The number of participants who agreed with the statement was 18 (50%), meaning half of them had positive attitudes towards teaching implicatures. None of the participants strongly disagreed to the idea.

The sixth item is about whether the instructors themselves received any instruction about implicatures during their own studies as students. The analysis of the replies to this item resulted in a median of 2,5; and a mode of 2; showing that the answers tended to be towards the "disagree" choice. 38,9% of the participants stated that they received no instructions regarding implicatures during their own studies; while almost the same percent of participants (25%; 22,2%) were undecided or claimed they had received instructions about implicatures. 4 (11,1) of the instructors stated they did not receive any instructions as students at all.

Inquiring about their abilities to teach implicatures to their learners, the mode and the median for the seventh item was equal to 2, indicating that the most frequent reply given to this item is "Disagree" and they all tend to be close to this choice. 63,9% of these replies were "Disagree". None of the instructors could claim that they had received any instructions about the methods and ways of teaching implicatures. Only 6 (16,7%) instructors stated they were taught about the methods of teaching implicatures.

The eighth item is very similar to the sixth one, the difference being that the latter inquires about the instructors' current knowledge about teaching implicatures; whether or not they have received relevant instructions during their student years. Only one of the instructors (2,8%) was confident in her/his knowledge about teaching implicatures and only one was very firm in his/her idea that he/she did not know anything about teaching implicatures. The mode and median are both 3 in value, indicating that most instructors were not sure whether they had the knowledge about the methods and ways of teaching implicatures. This is also verified by the numbers of the teachers who selected the neutral choice; 14 (38,9%).

Instructors approached the item related to their abilities to testing implicatures more skeptical. While the most frequent given reply to the related item was "Disagree" (mode=2), the replies tended to be towards the neutral response (median=3). 14 (38,9%) of the participants disagreed that they knew much about testing implicatures. 11 (30,6%) of participants gave neutral

responses, in accordance with the median and mode results. Only 9 or 25% of the instructors felt confident enough to claim they knew how to test implicatures.

The teachers were very undecided about the enthusiasm of their students to learn implicatures. This is reflected in numbers by the mode and median valued 3, and 47% neutral replies. 10 (27,8%) of the participants did not think their students showed much interest to learn implicatures. Fewer instructors, 6 (16,7%), believed that their students were interested in learning implicatures. While none of the teachers strongly agreed with the statement in this item, 3 (8,3%) of them strongly believed their students never showed any signs of interest in learning implicatures.

In accordance with the findings of our content analysis, most participants (47,2%) disagree that the course books studied at preparatory schools provide students with instructions about implicatures. The central tendency is, as expected, towards the "Disagree" choice. 27,8% are not sure about their ideas towards this item. 8 participants (22,2%) strongly disagree that course books provide lessons of implicatures or exposure to them. Only one participant (2,8%) thought course books provide sufficient implicature instruction and exposure.

The last multiple-choice item inquires about the extra and supplementary activities that instructors use to teach implicatures. The mode and median being 2 in value show that most teachers do not use such materials sufficiently; these teachers make 47,2% of the total. 9 (25%) gave neutral responses, and 8 (22,2%) claimed they used supplementary activities and tasks to enhance the implicature awareness of their learners. None of them, however, were confident enough to reply this item with "Strongly agree".

After the analysis of the results of the Likert-type items, we shall turn to the analysis of open-ended items. This section, as already stated, inquires about the methods teachers use to teach implicatures, in terms of implicitness and explicitness, how the participants evaluate their students' knowledge of implicatures, their suggestions about supplementing course books for teaching implicatures, and arousing students' interest for learning implicatures. The final two questions were unfortunately answered by only two participants.

The analysis of the open-ended questions follows the qualitative data analysis method, inductive content analysis. As described in the methodology section, this process started with reading the participants' answers several times, labeling phrases, and sentences, selecting the more important codes, and summing up.

The first question in Part B starts with a multiple choice item, and it asks about whether the instructors teach implicatures implicitly or explicitly, and the reasons for that choice. Table 36 summarizes the replies given to the multiple choice section of the question. 4 of the participants left it unanswered.

Table 36: Answers to Question B.1

Statement	Explicitly (%)	Implicitly (%)	Both explicitly and implicitly (%)	Neither explicitly, nor implicitly (%)	Unanswered	Median	Mode
I teach implicatures …	4 (11,1)	7 (19,4)	9 (25)	12 (33,3)	4 (11,1)	3,00	4

The mode value tells us that the most often given answer is "Neither explicitly nor implicitly" to this item (33,3%), while the total of answers are closer to the "Both explicitly and implicitly" choice (median=3; 25%). 7 participants (19,4%) claim they teach implicatures implicitly, and only 4 (11,1%) state they teach implicatures explicitly. This analysis is, however, only the analysis of the multiple choice part of this question. It continues with asking the reasons for their choice. They do not have to explain if their answer is "Neither explicitly, not implicitly". We will come back to the analysis of this part, after analyzing the answers to the first part of the question in relation to some others in the following part.

I believe it is useful to analyze this item in relation to some of the previous ones. The reason is the logical relation between them. I would like to show what percent of the participants who found it unnecessary to teach implicatures claim that they teach implicatures explicitly; or what percent of those who say they fairly know what implicatures are claim they teach implicatures in one of the mentioned ways. Items 3-8 seem to be potentially connected to the relevant question. One by one we will try to discuss this connection.

Item number 3 in Part A is, as already discussed, concerned with the participants' knowledge of implicatures. Table 37 summarizes the results of the respondents to items A.3 and B.1.

Table 37: Hybrid Results of Questions B.1, and A.3

B.1/ A.3	SA (5/ 13,9%)	A (22/ 61,1%)	N (7/ 19,4%)	D (2/ 5,6%)	SD (0%)
Explicitly	1/ 20%	2/ 10%	1/ 14,3%	0	0
Implicitly	3/ 60%	3/ 13 %	1/ 14,3%	0	0
Both explicitly and implicitly	0	9/ 40%	0	0	0
Neither explicitly, nor implicitly	1/ 20%	6/ 27%	4/ 57,1%	1/ 50%	0
Unanswered	0	2/ 10%	1/ 14,3%	1/ 50%	0

Let us only focus on those numbers which are either significant in scale, or are useful for interpretation. 60% of those participants who claim they know implicatures at a very good level, teach them implicitly. Only 20% of these instructors state they teach implicatures explicitly. 20% of them claim that although they almost perfectly know what implicatures are, they do not teach implicatures in any way. 40% of the instructors who mildly claimed they knew implicatures teach implicatures both explicitly and implicitly. However, 27% of these teachers say they do not use any of the ways mentioned. Not a significant number of those who were not sure they knew implicatures claimed they taught implicatures in one of the two ways.

Next item I am interested in comparing with the last question is the fifth question. This question asks teachers how much they find teaching implicatures necessary. The hybrid display of the responses to questions B.1 and A.5 are given in Table 38.

Table 38: Hybrid Results of Questions B.1, and A.5

B.1/ A.5	SA (5/ 13,9%)	A (18/ 50%)	N (10/ 27,8%)	D (3/ 8,3%)	SD (0%)
Explicitly	2/ 40%	2/ 11%	0	0	0
Implicitly	1/ 20%	5/ 28%	0	1/ 33%	0
Both explicitly and implicitly	2/ 40%	5/ 28%	2/ 20%	0	0
Neither explicitly, nor implicitly	0	4/ 22%	6/ 60%	2/ 67%	0
Unanswered	0	2/ 11%	2/ 20%	0	0

As demonstrated in Table 38: Hybrid Results of Questions B.1, and A.5Table 38, all the participants who strongly agree that teaching implicatures is necessary claim to be teaching implicatures themselves; either explicitly, implicitly, or both. 22% of those who agree that teaching implicatures is necessary do teach implicatures neither explicitly, nor implicitly.

The last item I am interested in comparing with the last question is item A.8. This item is the one asking the participants how much assertive they are about their knowledge and skills of teaching implicatures. Table 39 summarizes the results.

Table 39: Hybrid Results of Questions B.1, and A.8

B.1/ A.8	SA (1/ 2,8%)	A (9/ 25%)	N (14/ 38,9%)	D (11/ 3,6%)	SD (1/ 2,8%)
Explicitly	0	1/ 11,11%	2/ 14,2%	1/ 9%	0
Implicitly	1/ 100%	2/ 22,22%	4/ 28,6%	0	0
Both explicitly	0	6/ 66,66%	3/ 21,5%	0	0

and implicitly					
Neither explicitly, nor implicitly	0	0	4/ 28,5%	8/ 73%	0
Unanswered	0	0	1/ 7,1%	2/ 18%	1/ 100%

As seen above, most of those instructors who claim to know the methods of teaching implicatures at a fine level prefer using both implicit and explicit ways for teaching implicatures. 28,6% of the participants who were not sure about how much they knew methods of teaching implicatures, claimed they taught implicatures implicitly.

Now the analysis of the justifications teachers presented for their choices regarding teaching implicatures explicitly, implicitly, or both, will be discussed. As seen in Table 39 above, 4 of the participants claimed they taught implicatures explicitly. Out of these 4, who give the answer "Explicitly", 3 give short explanations about their choice. These reasons reveal that teachers who teach explicitly associate its necessity with the difficulty of discovery learning for their students, and their low levels.

5 out of 7 of the participants who claimed they taught implicatures implicitly gave their reasons for their choice. These instructors mainly state that they find implicit learning more effective. They reason that when students discover for themselves, the learning becomes more long-lasting. Some instructors find it unnecessary to be explicit about a pragmatic aspect of language, perhaps, because they do not perceive it as one of the major elements of language and language learning.

6 of the 9 participants who had answered this question with "Both explicitly and implicitly" explained their reasons for their choice. Most teachers point at the dependency of their method of teaching implicatures on their students' needs and levels. They state that they might try both according to their students' understanding. The sequence of this switch seems to be from implicit to explicit.

The next question to be analyzed asks the participants to evaluate their students' knowledge of implicatures. Some instructors admit they never evaluate their students' knowledge of implicatures, or never notice in another way. Others evaluate their learners' knowledge of implicature either weak or fairly fine. However, an important point here is that some instructors

emphasize that even those learners who might be fairly fine at comprehension of implicatures do not seem to be half as good at production of implicatures, which almost means they do not produce implicatures in their own speech.

Next question asks the participants to share their ideas about how the course books can be supplemented to teach implicatures to English learners. This questions is answered by 23 participants. The major reply given by these participants is that more authentic daily conversations and dialogues containing examples of implicatures should be given to learners. Some suggest covering examples of implicatures in listening activities. These authentic materials might come from sources like TV series, and magazines. Some also expect the teacher's guide to be enriched with tips for teachers to enhance teaching implicatures. According to the participants, teachers can also work specifically on implicatures by using DCTs and role plays along with other materials.

The last question in part B asks the teachers for their ideas about how students can be made more interested and engaged in learning implicatures. 21 of our participants answered this question. The most prevalent reasons among others are the use of authentic materials, such as movies or visually aided situations and discussing the implicatures in them, and also making learners aware of the reasons for which they have to learn pragmatics in general, and implicatures in particular. A few others think that it depends on the teachers' ability to arouse students' interests according to the students' needs and expectations. One of the instructors pointed to a simple, but remarkable point: testing. She states if students get tested on a certain aspect, they begin to manifest interest in it.

The final questions of the questionnaire, Part C, are directed to those participants who have a part in material development. Only two of the participants answered this question. Although two respondents are too few to lead us to a conclusion, the analysis of these two replies is given. The first question in Part C asks the participants if they consider incorporating teaching of pragmatics and implicatures into the materials they design. One of the participants claims she is not given the chance to manipulate the program, and that the program they follow is very defined and fixed. Therefore, she does not have the opportunity to do so. The other participant claims she would like to consider teaching implicatures and indirect native-like speech at higher levels when students do not have to struggle with grammar and vocabulary requirements. However, her material development team does not in fact consider implicature teaching in.

The second item in Part C inquires about the material developers' criteria for developing materials and if it has any items about teaching pragmatics and implicatures. One of the replies is a direct "No". The other respondent also admits that they currently have no criterion pertaining to the teaching of pragmatics and implicatures.

4.4. Discussion of the Questionnaire Results

Taking a look back to our research questions pertaining to the questionnaire, we will address them and discuss them on the basis of our results.

1. Are the upper-intermediate level teachers of the five participating universities aware of what pragmatics and implicatures are?

A noticeable number of the participants claim they know what pragmatics is. Compared to their general knowledge of pragmatics, fewer participants state they know what implicatures are; since a greater number are insecure to claim they know implicatures. Yet, as with their acquaintance with pragmatics, more than half state they know implicatures, even though not to a very high degree. Despite all, the positive responses regarding their knowledge suddenly drops when it comes to their knowledge about the types of implicatures. They have apparently not been given instruction regarding implicatures more than only an introduction. In other words, the reason for this very limited knowledge of pragmatics and especially implicatures might be attributable to the inadequacy of attention and instruction related to pragmatics and implicatures.

2. Are they educated on implicatures? Are they educated on teaching implicatures to their students? How much do they know about teaching pragmatics and implicatures?

Not more than a quarter of the participants received some kind of instruction about implicatures, and this might be a reason for these teachers to be not much interested in teaching them to their own learners. More to this is the issue that they have not been taught how to teach implicatures. The fact that most of them are not confident in their implicature teaching abilities is in line with the fact that they were not taught about the methods and ways of teaching implicatures.

Regardless of their training, although compared to implicatures, many more teachers know how to teach pragmatics, two-fifths of the teachers could not state they knew how to teach pragmatics. This situation is much worse about teaching implicatures. As normally expected, teachers are also unaware of the ways in which implicatures can be tested.

3. What are their opinions regarding teaching pragmatics and implicatures?

There was no major disagreement regarding the necessity of teaching implicatures; participants either agreed strongly or mildly, or were not sure whether they are necessary. Therefore, we could observe that even though not many teachers know about teaching implicatures, they find it something worth attention. Except less than a quarter of these instructors who believe in the necessity of teaching implicatures either strongly, or mildly, all of them teach implicatures either explicitly, implicitly, or both ways, proving their attempt in doing what they believe must be done.

4. Do they teach pragmatics and implicatures to their students? If they do, how? Implicitly, or explicitly? Do they use any supplementary materials aimed at teaching implicatures?

More than half of the respondent teachers claimed they taught implicatures either explicitly, implicitly, or both ways. Most of these participants say they use both, and only about one out of ten claimed they taught implicatures explicitly. In spite of these results, less than a quarter of these instructors stated they sometimes used supplementary activities and tasks for teaching implicatures.

A close look at the hybrid of responses revealed interesting results. Most of those teachers who knew implicatures at a perfect-like level said they taught implicatures implicitly. A far fewer number of them stated they taught implicatures explicitly. About half of those who said they were acquainted with implicatures said they used both. It seems that a fully explicit instruction of a pragmatic aspect of language like implicatures does not really appeal to teachers.

Additionally, the very few number of those teachers who could state they knew the ways to teaching implicatures very well, or at a fairly fine level, did not tend to teach implicatures explicitly. They tended towards a hybrid teaching approach. It should also be noted that some of the instructors who could not trust their teaching abilities taught implicatures in one of the three approaches.

5. How do they evaluate their students' knowledge and interests regarding implicatures?

Very few instructors found their learners enthusiastic about learning implicatures. The teachers also evaluate their learners' knowledge of implicatures as weak, or at best, mediocre in interpretation of implicatures, but not the production, which is, according to them, very weak. Many teachers do not evaluate their students' implicature knowledge at all.

6. How do they evaluate the course books and materials in terms of teaching pragmatics and implicatures?

Teachers' responses and the results of our content analysis are in conformity about the sufficiency of course books in exposing and teaching implicatures. Teachers do not find books adequate for teaching the pragmatic aspect of implicature. Even though there is only one participant who believes they are enough, all the other participants are either unsure, or disagree to different extents.

7. Do the teachers who take part in material development for the upper-intermediate students consider teaching pragmatics and implicatures?

There are unfortunately only two responses to draw a conclusion upon. Two responses are certainly not enough for a conclusion; however, those two responses give us the view that pragmatics and implicatures are neglected in institutionally prepared materials too, and it is not given the due attention in designing these materials.

8. What are their ways and suggestions to improve teaching pragmatics and implicatures?

Teachers' ideas about improving teaching pragmatics and implicatures lead us to useful ideas for teaching. Using authentic materials such as movies, which is in fact a useful suggestion also given by Vellenga (2004), is a bright idea to bring pragmatics and implicatures lively into the classroom. Another useful idea is to explain to the learners the reasons for which they have to learn pragmatics and implicatures. Considering the incorporation of pragmatics and implicatures into testing is also a wise idea. As the effect of testing or backwash effect on learning in general can be positive (Alderson and Wall, 1993; Prodromou, 1995), finding the right ways to test implicatures can be positive in them as well. Teachers should also remember to find innovative teaching ideas based on the specific needs and potentials of their students.

4.5. Results of the Quasi-Experimental Study

In this section we will present and analyze the outcome of the implementation of our materials on the experimental groups, reflected in the post-test results. Let us recall our quasi-experimental study with a brief review. To test the effectiveness of the two explicit and implicit teaching approaches on teaching implicatures, we designed two sets of materials, one for each approach. Out of six groups, three received explicit, and three received implicit instructions for five hours. The detailed comparison between the results of the two sets of groups constituted our final results.

Before presenting the results, describing the variables of the experimental study is essential. It was stated in the Methodology Chapter that the results of the tests were not presented in two

single scores. Although there is a total score to measure and compare the total performance, there are 11 other variables which are aimed at tracking the nature of the changes and differences in the results. Table 40 shows all the experimental variables with their descriptions.

Table 40: The Experimantal Variables

Variable Name	The Description
SLCI (Multiple Choice)	Keeps the count of the correct multiple choice items which target assessing SLCIs. It is 5 at maximum.
PCI (Multiple Choice)	Keeps the count of the correct multiple choice items which target assessing PCIs. It is 5 at maximum.
Direct-Indirect Confusion	Keeps the count of the direct answers given instead of implicatures, and implicatures produced instead of direct answers.
L1 Translation	Keeps the count of idioms and expressions literally translated from L1.
Not Conveying	Keeps the count of the answers which may contain implicatures but do not convey the message they are supposed to convey.
Wrong Idiom	Keeps the count of the answers which do contain SLCIs, however, they are not the appropriate ones for the situation.
Incomprehensible	Keeps the count of the answers that do not convey what they are supposed to convey, to the degree of incomprehensibility.
SLCI Production	Keeps the count of the correct SLCIs the learner has used.
Incorrect Direct	Keeps the count of the implicature-free answers which are either carrying a type of implicature, or not conveying what they are supposed to convey at all.
Multiple Choice Total	Keeps the sum of the correct answers to multiple choice questions. It is 10 at maximum.
Correct Production	Keeps the score of correct open-ended items. It is 10 at maximum.
Total Score	Keeps the total score. It is 20 at maximum.

As mentioned in the Methodology chapter, the analysis starts by a descriptive analysis to attain a general conspectus of our data. This descriptive analysis contains the average and standard deviations of the pre- and post-tests for both groups by each variable (Table 41).

Table 41: Descriptive Analysis of Pre- and Post-test Results

	Groups	No.	Pre-test Average	Post-test Average	Pre-test Standard Deviation	Post-test Standard Deviation
SLCI (Multiple Choice)/ Out of 5	Explicit	23	2,87	3,783	1,014	0,8505
	Implicit	24	2,50	3,333	0,885	1,2039
PCI (Multiple Choice)/ Out of 5	Explicit	23	3,087	3,565	0,9493	0,9451
	Implicit	24	3,000	2,958	0,9780	1,2676
Direct-Indirect Confusion	Explicit	23	1,391	0,783	1,0762	0,9023
	Implicit	24	1,500	1,042	1,5323	0,8587
L1 Translation	Explicit	23	0,217	0,043	0,4217	0,2085
	Implicit	24	0,042	0,083	0,2041	0,2823
Not Conveying	Explicit	23	0,826	0,696	0,7168	0,7029
	Implicit	24	0,458	0,875	0,7790	0,9470
Wrong Idiom	Explicit	23	0,087	0,174	0,4170	0,4910
	Implicit	24	0,000	0,208	0,0000	0,4149
Incomprehensible	Explicit	23	0,478	0,043	0,5108	0,2085
	Implicit	24	0,167	0,208	0,3807	0,4149
SLCI Production	Explicit	23	0,087	1,304	0,4170	0,7029
	Implicit	24	0,000	0,625	0,0000	0,7109
Incorrect Direct	Explicit	23	1,609	0,739	1,0331	0,6887
	Implicit	24	1,542	1,667	1,2504	1,2039
Multiple Choice Total / Out of 10	Explicit	23	5,9565	7,3478	1,60902	1,52580
	Implicit	24	5,5000	6,2917	1,17954	2,17654
Correct Production/ Out of 10	Explicit	23	5,130	7,478	2,1596	1,3774
	Implicit	24	4,583	5,083	3,5129	2,5693

Total Score/ Out of 20	Explicit	23	11,0870	14,8261	3,08829	2,01477
	Implicit	24	10,0833	11,3750	4,13802	4,05197

As Table 41 displays, the average of the results in pre-tests of both groups are very close, while in the post-test the difference between the groups is easier to see. The standard deviation results also are for the most part less than 1, which indicates that the learners stand close, and that is important for drawing logical and more inclusive conclusions out of the results.

After the descriptive analysis, it is time to turn to inferential statistics. As explained in the Methodology section, the ANCOVA test is used for comparing the improvement our experiment groups have made. To perform the ANCOVA test, however, we have to prove the normality of our data. This is what the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test does. The results of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test on the pre-test are displayed in Table 42. This test is also performed on the post-test results (Table 43). The results of the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test prove the normality of our data.

Table 42: Kolmogorov-Smirnov on Pre-test

		SLCI (M)/ out of 5	PCI (M)/ out of 5	Direct-Indirect Confusion	L1 Translation	Not Conveying	Wrong Idiom	Incomprehensible	SLCI Production	Incorrect Direct	Multiple Choice Total / Out of 10	Correct Production (out of 10)	Total Score (out of 20)
Sample Number		47	47	47	47	47	47	47	47	47	47	47	47
Normal Parameters	Average	2,68	3,043	1,447	0,128	0,638	0,043	0,319	0,043	1,574	5,7234	4,851	10,5745
	Standard Deviation	0,958	0,9546	1,3156	0,3373	0,7640	0,2917	0,4712	0,2917	1,1372	1,40963	2,9116	3,65790
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	0,129	0,131	0,128	0,120	0,109	0,117	0,102	0,107	0,106	0,104	0,107	0,081
	Positive	0,129	0,131	0,128	0,120	0,109	0,117	0,102	0,107	0,106	0,104	0,155	0,072

Negative	-0,162	-0,227	-0,106	-0,353	-0,202	-0,92	-0,99	-0,92	-0,98	-0,110	-0,107	-0,081
Test Statistics	0,129	0,131	0,128	0,120	0,109	0,117	0,102	0,107	0,106	0,104	0,107	0,081
Assumption Sig (1-tailed)	0,109c	0,105c	0,111c	0,119c	0,128c	0,121c	0,136c	0,130c	0,131c	0,133c	0,130c	0,200c,d

The results of Kolmogorov-Smirnov on Post-test can be viewed in Table 43.

Table 43: Kolmogorov-Smirnov on Post-test

		SLCI (M)/ out of 5	PCI (M)/ out of 5	Direct-Indirect Confusion	L1 Translation	Not Conveying	Wrong Idiom	Incomprehensible	SLCI Production	Incorrect Direct	Multiple Choice Total / Out of 10	Correct Production (out of 10)	Total Score (out of 20)
Sample Number		47	47	47	47	47	47	47	47	47	47	47	47
Normal Parameters	Average	3,553	3,255	0,915	0,064	0,787	3,553	3,255	6,255	0,915	0,064	6,255	0,787
	Standard Deviation	1,0593	1,1510	0,8805	0,2471	0,8324	1,0593	1,1510	2,3817	0,8805	0,2471	2,3817	0,8324
Most Extreme Differences	Absolute	0,117	0,101	0,114	0,91	0,93	0,117	0,121	0,113	0,114	0,118	0,103	0,122
	Positive	0,106	0,101	0,114	0,91	0,93	0,117	0,121	0,113	0,114	0,118	0,9	0,122
	Negative	-0,117	-0,81	-0,96	-0,78	-0,75	-0,97	-0,101	-0,83	-0,96	-0,108	-0,103	-0,105

Test Statistics	0,117	0,101	0,114	0,91	0,93	0,117	0,121	0,113	0,114	0,118	0,103	0,122
Assumption sig (1-tailed)	0,121c	0,137c	0,124c	0,185c	0,181c	0,121c	0,118c	0,125c	0,124c	0,120c	0,135c	0,118c

As seen in Table 43, according to the results attained from the tests, the Sig value for all the statistical indexes is more than 5%, which indicates that the dispersion of all the dependent variables is normal.

After establishing the normality of our data, it is time to prove the homogeneity of the data too. To do this, we will perform Levene's test on our data for each variable. The Sig (Significance) value must not be more than 5% for our results to be accepted as homogenous. The results are displayed from Table 44 to Table 54: Leven's Test for ' Correct Essay (Out of 10)'

			Sum of Squares	Degree of Freedom	Average of Squares	F	Sig
Correct Production (out of 10)	Pre-test	Between Groups	3,515	1	3,515	0,409	0,526
	Post-test		6.364	1	6.364	3.660	0,070

Table 55.

Table 44: Leven's Test for ' SLCI (M)/ Out of 5'

			Sum of Squares	Degree of Freedom	Average of Squares	F	Sig
SLCI (M)/ Out of 5	Pre-test	Between Groups	1,604	1	1,604	1,778	0,189

			Sum of Squares	Degree of Freedom	Average of Squares	F	Sig
	Post-test		2,371	1	2,371	2,166	0,148

Table 45: Leven's Test for 'PCI (M)/ Out of 5'

			Sum of Squares	Degree of Freedom	Average of Squares	F	Sig
PCI (M)/ Out of 5	Pre-test	Between Groups	0,089	1	0,089	0,096	0,759
	Post-test		4,326	1	4,326	3,438	0,070

Table 46: Leven's Test for ' Direct-Indirect Confusion'

			Sum of Squares	Degree of Freedom	Average of Squares	F	Sig
Direct-Indirect Confusion	Pre-test	Between Groups	0,363	1	0,363	3,350	0,074
	Post-test		0,019	1	0,019	0,301	0,586

Table 47: Leven's Test for ' L1 Translation'

			Sum of Squares	Degree of Freedom	Average of Squares	F	Sig
L1 Translation	Pre-test	Between Groups	0,363	1	0,363	3,350	0,074
	Post-test		0,019	1	0,019	0,301	0,586

Table 48: Leven's Test for ' Not Conveying'

			Sum of Squares	Degree of Freedom	Average of Squares	F	Sig
Not Conveying	Pre-test	Between Groups	1,588	1	1,588	2,829	0,099
	Post-test		0,378	1	0,378	0,540	0,466

Table 49: Leven's Test for ' Wrong Idiom'

			Sum of Squares	Degree of Freedom	Average of Squares	F	Sig
Wrong Idiom	Pre-test	Between Groups	0,089	1	0,089	1,044	0,312
	Post-test		0,014	1	0,014	0,068	0,796

Table 50: Leven's Test for ' Incomprehensible'

			Sum of Squares	Degree of Freedom	Average of Squares	F	Sig
Incomprehensible	Pre-test	Between Groups	1,140	1	1,140	3,656	0,072
	Post-test		0,319	1	0,319	2,922	0,094

Table 51: Leven's Test for ' SLCI Production'

			Sum of Squares	Degree of Freedom	Average of Squares	F	Sig
SLCI Production	Pre-test	Between Groups	0,089	1	0,089	1,044	0,312
	Post-test		3,420	1	3,420	2,843	0,082

Table 52: Leven's Test for ' Incorrect Direct'

			Sum of Squares	Degree of Freedom	Average of Squares	F	Sig
Incorrect Direct	Pre-test	Between Groups	0,053	1	0,053	0,040	0,842
	Post-test		3,104	1	3,104	2,389	0,072

Table 53: Leven's Test for 'Multiple Choice Total/ Out of 10'

			Sum of Squares	Degree of Freedom	Average of Squares	F	Sig
Multiple Choice Total / Out of 10	Pre-test	Between Groups	2,448	1	2,448	1,238	0,272
	Post-test		13,101	1	13,101	3,681	0,061

Table 54: Leven's Test for ' Correct Essay (Out of 10)'

			Sum of Squares	Degree of Freedom	Average of Squares	F	Sig
Correct Production (out of 10)	Pre-test	Between Groups	3,515	1	3,515	0,409	0,526
	Post-test		6.364	1	6.364	3.660	0,070

Table 55: Leven's Test for 'Total Score (Out of 20)'

			Sum of Squares	Degree of Freedom	Average of Squares	F	Sig
Total Score (out of 20)	Pre-test	Between Groups	11,830	1	11,830	0,882	0,353
	Post-test		3,879	1	3,879	3,481	0,065

As the results demonstrate, Sig value is lower than 5% for all the experimental variables, and groups; proving the homogeneity of the data. After having proved the normality and homogeneity of all the data, and thus, meeting the pre-requisites of the ANCOVA Test, we can make the next move towards answering the question of whether there has been a significant improvement in our experiment groups. We also wonder which group showed a better progress if one did at all.

The ANCOVA Test is performed for each of our experimental variables (Table 78). By eliminating the effect of pre-test, the results of the ANCOVA Test are as follow.

The first variable on which the ANCOVA Test is performed is the multiple choice SLCI. The results are displayed in Table 56 and Table 57.

Table 56: ANCOVA for 'SLCI (M).1

Source of variation	Sum of Squares	Degree of Freedom	Average of Squares	F	Sig
Pre-test	5,069	1	5,069	5,049	0,030
Group	1,148	1	1,148	1,143	0,291
Error	44,177	44	1,004		
Total	645,000	47			

Table 57: ANCOVA for 'SLCI (M)'.2

Group	Average	Confidence Level (95%)

	Standard Error	Lower Limit	Upper Limit
Explicit	3,716a	0,211	3,291	4,141
Implicit	3,397a	0,207	2,981	3,813

As is clear in the tables above, Sig value is higher than 5% (0,291); indicating the fact that there is not a significant difference between the two implicit and explicit experiment groups in reception of SLCIs. The confidence level for these results is 95%.

The next variable to perform the ANCOVA Test on, is the multiple choice PCI variable. Table 58 and Table 59 display the results.

Table 58: ANCOVA for 'PCI (M)'.1

Source of variation	Sum of Squares	Degree of Freedom	Average of Squares	F	Sig
Pre-test	2,329	1	2,329	1,888	0,176
Group	4,030	1	4,030	3,266	0,078
Error	54,282	44	1,234		
Total	559,000	47			

Table 59: ANCOVA for 'PCI (M)'.2

Group	Average	Standard Error	Confidence Level (95%)	
			Lower Limit	Upper Limit
Explicit	3.555a	0,232	3,088	4,022
Implicit	2,968a	0,227	2,511	3,426

Sig value for this variable is higher than 5% (0,078), signifying the lack of a significant difference between the implicit and explicit group in the reception of PCIs; with a confidence level of 95%.

The variable which represents the ability of the subjects in distinguishing what is direct from an implicature is Direct-Indirect Confusion. The ANCOVA Test for this yields the following results (Table 60 and Table 61).

Table 60: ANCOVA for 'Direct-Indirect Confusion'.1

Source of variation	Sum of Squares	Degree of Freedom	Average of Squares	F	Sig
Pre-test	0,900	1	0,900	1,165	0,286
Group	0,718	1	0,718	0,930	0,340
Error	33,972	44	0,772		
Total	75,000	47			

Table 61: ANCOVA for 'Direct-Indirect Confusion'.2

Group	Average	Standard Error	Confidence Level (95%)	
			Lower Limit	Upper Limit
Explicit	0,789a	0,183	0,419	1,158
Implicit	1,036a	0,179	0,674	1,398

The Sig value for this variable is more than 5% (0,340), which leads us to conclude by a confidence level of 95%, that the difference between the explicit and implicit groups in discerning the implicature and direct utterance is not significant.

What was the effect of instruction on the students' wrong idiom and expression translation from their first language? The ANCOVA Test performed on the L1 Translation variable provides the answer (Table 62 and Table 63).

Table 62: ANCOVA for 'L1 Translation'.1

Source of variation	Sum of Squares	Degree of Freedom	Average of Squares	F	Sig
Pre-test	0,100	1	0,100	1,642	0,207
Group	0,046	1	0,046	0,757	0,389

Error	2,689	44	0,061
Total	3,000	47	

Table 63: ANCOVA for 'L1 Translation'.2

Group	**Average**	**Standard Error**	**Confidence Level (95%)**	
			Lower Limit	**Upper Limit**
Explicit	0,031a	0,053	-0,075	0,136
Implicit	0,096a	0,051	-0,008	0,199

The results indicate that the instruction mode in terms of the explicitness or implicitness does not significantly influence the subjects' errors in translating idioms from their first language. This is inferred by the Sig value which is more than 5% (0,389), by a confidence level of 95%.

The next variable to be tested among the groups is the variable which counts the responses produced by the subjects which do not properly convey what they are supposed to. The results of the ANCOVA Test on the Not Conveying variable is given in Table 64 and Table 65.

Table 64: ANCOVA for 'Not Conveying'.1

Source of variation	**Sum of Squares**	**Degree of Freedom**	**Average of Squares**	**F**	**Sig**
Pre-test	2,028	1	2,028	3,028	0,089
Group	0,888	1	0,888	1,327	0,256
Error	29,467	44	0,670		
Total	61,000	47			

Table 65: ANCOVA for 'Not Conveying'.2

Group	**Average**	**Standard Error**	**Confidence Level (95%)**	
			Lower Limit	**Upper Limit**

	Average	Standard Error	Lower Limit	Upper Limit
Explicit	0,642a	0,173	0,293	0,992
Implicit	0,926a	0,170	0,584	1,268

There is no significant difference in terms the responses which do not convey the intended meaning by an implicature, is not significantly better in one group compared to the other. This is inferred from the Sig value which is more than 5% (0,256), and with a confidence level of 95%.

To measure the students' improvement in misusing the English idioms, or using the malformed types of English idioms the ANCOVA Test is performed on the Wrong Idiom variable. The results are given below in Table 66 and Table 67.

Table 66: ANCOVA for 'Wrong Idiom'.1

Source of variation	Sum of Squares	Degree of Freedom	Average of Squares	F	Sig
Pre-test	0,032	1	0,032	0,151	0,700
Group	0,008	1	0,008	0,038	0,845
Error	9,231	44	0,210		
Total	11,000	47			

Table 67: ANCOVA for 'Wrong Idiom'.2

Group	Average	Standard Error	Confidence Level (95%)	
			Lower Limit	Upper Limit
Explicit	0,178a	0,096	-0,016	0,372
Implicit	0,204a	0,094	0,015	0,394

There is no significant difference between the implicit and explicit groups in terms of an improvement in not using wrong idioms or using them in the wrong situations. This is because the Sig value is more than 5% (0,845), with a confidence level of 95%.

Some of the responses learners provided were not conveying what they meant to convey, to the degree of incomprehensibility. These responses were counted by the Incomprehensible

variable. The results of ANCOVA test for the incomprehensible answers is given in Table 68 and Table 69

Table 68: ANCOVA for 'Incomprehensible'.1

Source of variation	Sum of Squares	Degree of Freedom	Average of Squares	F	Sig
Pre-test	0,052	1	0,052	0,473	0,495
Group	0,371	1	0,371	3,354	0,074
Error	4,863	44	0,111		
Total	6,000	47			

Table 69: ANCOVA for 'Incomprehensible'.2

Group	Average	Standard Error	Confidence Level (95%)	
			Lower Limit	Upper Limit
Explicit	0,031a	0,072	-0,113	0,176
Implicit	0,220a	0,070	0,079	0,361

There is not a significant difference between the implicit and explicit groups in terms of this variable since the Sig value is more than 5% (0,074), with a confidence level of 95%.

Are the subjects better in use of idioms after the instructions they received? The results of the ANCOVA test for the SLCI Production variable is as below (Table 70 and Table 71):

Table 70: ANCOVA for 'SLCI Production'.1

Source of variation	Sum of Squares	Degree of Freedom	Average of Squares	F	Sig
Pre-test	0,506	1	0,506	1,012	0,320
Group	4,816	1	4,816	9,636	0,003
Error	21,989	44	0,500		
Total	71,000	47			

Table 71: ANCOVA for 'SLCI Production'.2

Group	Average	Standard Error	Confidence Level (95%)	
			Lower Limit	Upper Limit
Explicit	1,288a	0,148	0,989	1,587
Implicit	0,640a	0,145	0,348	0,933

There seems to be a significant difference between the implicit and explicit groups in the production of SLCIs after the instructions. This inference is based on the Sig value, which is less than 5% (0,003) by a confidence level of 99%. The explicit group outperforms the implicit group in using SLCIs in indirect speech by 17,6%. This result leads us to the conclusion that SLCIs are learned considerably better by explicit instruction.

As mentioned, the errors of learners in producing correct direct responses is measured by the Incorrect Direct variable. The results of the ANCOVA Test on this variable yields the following numbers (Table 72 and Table 73).

Table 72: ANCOVA for 'Incorrect Direct'.1

Source of variation	Sum of Squares	Degree of Freedom	Average of Squares	F	Sig
Pre-test	0,193	1	0,193	0,381	0,540
Group	5,477	1	5,477	10,805	0,002
Error	22,302	44	0,507		
Total	71,000	47			

Table 73: ANCOVA for 'Incorrect Direct'.2

Group	Average	Standard Error	Confidence Level (95%)	
			Lower Limit	Upper Limit
Explicit	1,306a	0,148	1,007	1,606
Implicit	0,623a	0,145	0,330	0,916

The implicit and explicit groups do show a significant difference in producing correct direct answers as the Sig value is less than 5% (0,002), by a confidence level of 99%. The explicit group outperforms the implicit group by 16,5%. This indicates that explicit instruction has contributed to learners' differentiation of the direct speech and one which contains implicature.

How did instruction influence awareness in PCIs and SLCIs in total? The results of the ANCOVA Test for Total Score is given in Table 74 and Table 75.

Table 74: ANCOVA for 'Multiple Choice Total / Out of 10'.1

Source of variation	Sum of Squares	Degree of Freedom	Average of Squares	F	Sig
Pre-test	13,651	1	13,651	4,099	0,049
Group	8,798	1	8,798	2,642	0,111
Error	146,524	44	3,330		
Total	2352,000	47			

Table 75: ANCOVA for 'Multiple Choice Total / Out of 10.2

Group	Average	Standard Error	Confidence Level (95%)	
			Lower Limit	Upper Limit
Explicit	7,257a	0,383	6,484	8,029
Implicit	6,379a	0,375	5,623	7,135

As Table 74 demonstrates, Sig value is more than 5% (0,111); indicating the absence of a significant difference between the explicit and implicit groups with a confidence level of 95%.

What is the difference level in the variable representing the correct PCI or SLCI production of learners, namely the Correct Essay variable? Table 76 and Table 77 answer this question based on the results of the ANCOVA Test.

Table 76: ANCOVA for 'Correct Production'.1

Source of variation	Sum of Squares	Degree of Freedom	Average of Squares	F	Sig
Pre-test	12.825	1	12,825	3,122	0,084
Group	61,316	1	61,316	14,926	0,001
Error	180,748	44	4,108		
Total	2100,000	47			

Table 77: ANCOVA for 'Correct Production'.2

Group	Average	Standard Error	Confidence Level (95%)	
			Lower Limit	Upper Limit
Explicit	7,427a	0,424	6,574	8,281
Implicit	5,132a	0,415	4,296	5,968

In this case, the Sig value is less than 1% (0,001), indicating the significant difference between the implicit and explicit groups in producing correct PCIs and SLCIs with a confidence level of 99%. Based on the difference between the average of the two groups in SLCI and PCI production, we can infer that explicit group outperformed the implicit group in implicature production significantly, specifically by 27,6%.

Finally, the results of the ANCOVA test for the Total Score variable is displayed in Table 78 and Table 79.

Table 78: ANCOVA for 'Total Score'.1

Source of variation	Sum of Squares	Degree of Freedom	Average of Squares	F	Sig
Pre-test	29.126	1	29,126	2,927	0,094
Group	120,223	1	120,223	12,083	0,001
Error	437,803	44	9,950		
Total	8628,000	47			

Table 79: ANCOVA for 'Total Score'.2

| Group | Average | Standard Error | Confidence Level (95%) | |
			Lower Limit	Upper Limit
Explicit	14,714a	0,661	13,381	16,046
Implicit	11,483a	0,647	10,179	12,787

As Table 78 demonstrates, the value of Sig, which is below 1% (0,001), indicates the significant difference between the Implicit and Explicit groups, with a confidence level of 99%. By subtracting the average total scores, the explicit group proved to perform significantly better than the implicit group after both received instructions. The explicit group improved by 24,6% in total scores.

4.6. Discussion of the Quasi-Experimental Study

What the results of the experiment indicate will be discussed in the light of the research questions. The quasi-experimental study promised to answer the question "Which approach to teaching implicatures yields better results; implicit, or explicit?" This question is answered on the basis of a few sub-questions mentioned in the research questions. Let us review these questions and answer them.

1. Does teaching implicatures help learners improve their pragmatic competence of implicatures (reception and production)?
2. Which teaching approach to teaching implicatures does prove to be more effective? Explicit teaching, or implicit teaching?
3. In what ways do students show variability in the post-test?

The comparison of the total scores of the pre- and the post-test demonstrated the significant difference that both explicit and implicit groups made after receiving instruction. Thus, whether implicit, or explicit, a particular attention given to teaching implicatures does help learners perform better in implicatures. This is in line with the findings of a number of other studies, which have proved the effectiveness of teaching in students' understanding and production of implicatures (Bouton, 1994; Kubota, 1995; Tuan and Hsu, 1999). The descriptive analysis showed that both the explicit and implicit groups improved their receptive and productive skills of implicatures with the 5-hour course.

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All which has been discussed so far, was pertaining to the positive influence instruction, whether it be implicit or explicit, has on improving students' awareness and use of implicatures. Here comes the central issue now: how is this improvement led by the type of instruction? Do the implicit and explicit groups show a statistically significant difference?

The comparison of the total scores among the two explicit and implicit groups did prove that explicit teaching is superior to implicit approach significantly. This result does verify what had been put forward by other works who also defended the explicit instruction of implicatures over the implicit instruction (Bouton, 1994; Tuan and Hsu, 1999). However, the results interestingly indicated that the teaching approach did not differentiate the groups significantly in terms of reception of implicatures alone. This means that although the explicit group outperformed the implicit one in general, the explicit group did not do particularly better in interpretation of PCIs and SLCIs, neither independently, nor together after the treatment.

However, the difference between the two experimental groups was well reflected in the production of correct implicatures by students. The explicit group performed better by more than one-fourth in production of implicatures in the post-test. The explicit group also did to a meaningful degree better in the production of SLCIs. In other words, this group learned to use the idioms, which were taught, better than the implicit group. Similar to this finding, the teachability of conventional implicatures compared with the conversational ones was also proved by Bouton (1994).

The students' understanding of the difference between what is implicit and what is explicit did not significantly vary among groups. They both showed the same degree of improvement. In spite of this, the explicit group did significantly produce more correct direct answers in the post-test.

A very common mistake language learners tend to make is to translate idioms (SLCIs) directly from their first language (Banjar, 2014). The results tell us that the type of instruction does not in fact influence the learners' awareness and performance relating this issue.

Some of the responses students provided as implicatures did not convey what they were supposed to. In other words, the learners understood the situation and the type of response they were asked to give; yet, not well enough. This led them to give responses that they thought conveyed the intended meaning, but did not. These misunderstandings were not reduced significantly more in one group rather than the other. Neither was a meaningful

difference observed between the two types of groups in reducing the same mistake which they made to the degree of incomprehensibility.

In some cases, students memorize idioms, yet they do not develop the skill to use them in the proper situation. Although they use an SLCI, they use it in the wrong situation, or produce SLCIs in the wrong forms. The results do not indicate that one group was better than the other in reducing this type of mistake.

In general, the main question of the quasi-experimental study can be answered by the supremacy of the explicit approach towards teaching implicatures. This is not only reflected in the general performance, but specifically in the implicature production, and especially in SCLI production. Thus, these findings are in concordance with the findings of other studies around same topic as cited before.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

If what isn't being said is so prominent in communication, it must not be neglected in teaching a language, which is essentially teaching of communication too. What this study is interested in establishing is where teaching of implicatures stands in the general English language curriculum. It also aims to determine how the curriculum and instructors had better approach teaching them. It is, in fact, centered on a triangular model of material, instructor, and method.

To do these, a content analysis was carried out on general English course books of upper-intermediate level at the preparatory schools of five eminent universities in Ankara. Aimed at determining the degree to which these course books expose learners to implicatures in dialogues, and how much they teach implicatures in activities as their main learning objective, the content analysis was conducted carefully. The analysis was specifically conducted on dialogues, for we were interested in implicatures of dialogical conversations. The results indicated the fact that most course books do not have any concerns about teaching implicatures or exposing learners to them in conversations. The very few course books which did contain some implicature instruction and/or implicatures in their dialogues did not give us perfectly satisfying results. The implicature teaching activities on the other hand, were chiefly implicit; while research has proved the effectiveness of explicit instruction in teaching implicatures.

In the second step of the research, the attention was given to instructors. Their knowledge and views towards implicatures were measured. They were also asked to state their opinions and recommendations regarding how teaching implicatures could be improved. The analysis of the responses revealed that teachers were acquainted with the terms pragmatics and implicature; yet, they did not have detailed information about their nature, types, and the appropriate methods of teaching them. Teachers, however, did have useful suggestions for future. They suggest using more authentic materials, making students understand the learning objectives for

learning implicatures, and considering implicatures in testing so that learners will be motivated to learn better and care.

The third side of the triangle was the quasi-experimental study which was carried out on about 50 students of upper-intermediate level. Divided into two groups of explicit and implicit, the two experiment groups received five hours of instruction on implicatures each. They took pre- and post-tests which included both reception and production skills measuring students' performance in implicatures. The test results revealed that both groups showed improvement in understanding and producing implicatures. However, the explicit group not only excelled significantly in the total score after the post-test, but also performed better in producing correct direct answers. This group also showed better results in using SLCIs, proving the effectiveness of explicit instruction in learning SLCIs.

To put the results of the study more concisely, we can say teaching implicatures has not been a serious concern for neither curriculum developers nor teachers. Neither course books give adequate attention to teaching implicatures in conversations or activities, nor do the instructors know much about them, even though most of them find it necessary for teaching. Those very few books or instructors who give some attention, are apparently not well aware of the ways to do it. We also found that teaching implicatures does help students improve in terms of both interpretation and production of implicatures. However, explicit instruction proved to be significantly more effective in teaching implicatures. These findings confirm previous research.

As every other research, this study had some limitations. The content analysis concentrated only on the implicatures from dialogues. It also looked for only two certain types of implicatures, namely, PCIs and SLCIs. There were also some materials which we could not reach due to the fact that we were not allowed by the heads of preparatory schools to share their institutionally prepared materials. We could not examine these materials; however, this weakness was attempted to be compensated by questionnaires. Unfortunately very few participants answered the questions related to the institutionally prepared materials and stated that teaching implicatures were not among the criteria in preparing these materials.

Another drawback in the study was the number of students in the quasi-experiment groups. There were twice as many students in the English Preparatory School at the upper-intermediate level as those whose performance of implicatures were analyzed in this study. However, because of the absent students in either of the tests, the amount of useful data decreased dramatically. Additionally, due to the limitations in scheduling, all the lessons were given in

five successive hours. Therefore, no homework could be given and all the exercises were done during the class.

Looking back at the literature, to my knowledge, no studies can be found which have conducted content analysis on course books for teaching of implicatures. This was an important gap in the literature, which this study tried to fill to some extent. It is important because course books are the central and sometimes the only source for teachers to teach in the language classroom. Therefore, they need to be enriched with everything that is essential for language learning. They can be improved by more authentic language which contains implicatures.

With the questionnaires, on the other hand, we found that teacher training courses and programs need to start taking teaching into consideration implicatures and their teaching methods. English teachers not only should have a good grasp of the concept of implicatures, but also know how to teach them to their students. Teachers can improve teaching implicatures by teaching them explicitly, and including them in testing. Using supplementary materials, especially attractive visual materials, will certainly help.

As mentioned before, this study also confirmed that explicit teaching is more effective in teaching implicatures. Although there were other studies which had answered the same question, the current study, tried to verify these findings in other unattended details. Therefore, there are indications for future teachers to consider in teaching implicatures more effectively.

What is left unattended yet? Implicature is not old in linguistics; thus, it is even younger in language teaching, and there is yet a lot to be done. However, some of my personal suggestions for future researchers interested in the intersection of implicatures and teaching, could be to extend the scope of the content analysis found in this study to include readings and other contents, searching for other types of implicatures. An attempt to answer the details of how course books can be supplemented to promote teaching implicatures can also end in useful results for material developers. Another suggestion to the interested future researchers can be exploring for strategies which can improve learning implicatures more effectively.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1: THE MATERIALS TAUGHT IN THE CLASS

Lesson 1: The Implicit Story Worksheet

Lesson 1 Worksheet
Sherlock Holmes and a study in Scarlet

A Study in Scarlet was the first story in the Sherlock Holmes series written by Arthur Canon Doyle in 1886. Doyle introduced Sherlock Holmes to the English literature with this story.

In this story, Holmes tries to solve the mystery of a rich old man's murder. He soon traces signs of revenge. The story begins in London, when Sherlock Holmes receives a letter from Scotland Yard investigator, Gregson, asking him for help in a case of murder. An American gentleman is killed in an abandoned house. Holmes meets investigators Gregson and Lestrade. Finding the word *Rache* inscribed on the wall, they attempt to interpret the word. However, Holmes and the investigators from Scotland Yard have different ideas...

1. Watch the first part of the story. Some parts appeared bold in subtitles. You may take notes of any patterns you discover in these utterances.

2. Summarize the story in a couple of sentences.

3. Did you discover any patterns which you think distinguished the utterances in bold from others?

4. Read the following excerpts from the video you just watched. Can you write the meaning you infer from these messages? Discuss in groups. Share your ideas with the class.

A) Watson enters the house hearing the gun but to his surprise he finds Holmes writing on the wall by bullets:
Holmes: No danger Watson. That was merely an excitement to ease the boredom of inactivity. What use are brains in our profession when there is no real crime to detect? Nothing complex, nothing worthy of my talents.

B) Holmes watching out the window at a man apparently looking for an address.
Holmes: Interesting!
Watson: What? The chap looking for an address?

C) Watson opens the door and meets the man who brings them a message. He wonders if Holmes's guesses about him are correct.
Watson: May I ask what your trade might be?

D) Holmes reads the telegraph he just recceived.
Holmes: From Gregson, of Scotland Yard. You remember Gregson?
Watson: That smart young chap?
Holmes: Smart?

E) Holmes reads the message arrived from Scotland Yard.
Holmes: Did I say just now there were no crimes worthy of our minds? Watson your hat!

F) Holmes sees the wheel trails on the ground and sends the cab driver back.
Holmes: No man! No! Go back the way you came.
Watson: There goes another man in London who thinks you're mad.
Holmes: Perhaps you should have told him you're my doctor Watson!

G) Holmes enters the house without listening to the guard's warning.

The guard: Dear sir! You can't go in there. <u>Who he thinks he is?</u>

Watson: Sherlock Holmes.

H) Gregson welcomes Holmes and Watson.

Gregson: Very kind of you to come. I've left everything as it was. Nothing's been touched.

Holmes: <u>Nothing Gregson?</u> <u>Was it entirely necessary to run the herd of buffalo across the passway repeatedly or had you drawn your own conclusions before the stampede?</u>

Gregson: <u>I've had much to do; inside I mean. I was relying on my colleague to look after things out here.</u>

I) Holmes asks questions to the police officers.

Constable Rance: Horrible it was too, sir. Me and Murcher here…

Holmes: <u>All in good time my dear fellow.</u> <u>Facts first, details after.</u>

J) Watson looks at the watch closely.

Watson: <u>Oh, I couldn't afford such a time piece on an army pension. The gentleman had money.</u>

K) Holmes asks Gregson how much information they could collect about Drebber and anyone associated and Greson shares an inadequate piece of informaiton.

Holmes: Nothing more crucial?

Gregson: No, sir.

Holmes: Then telegraph again man.

Gregson: <u>This is my case Mr. Holmes.</u>

L) Holmes tells Gregson about some of the conclusions he has drawn.

Holmes: It means Gregson that two individuals arrived by cab during the night; and one of them was Enoch J. Drebber.

Gregson: And the other Stangerson?

Holmes: Perhaps. <u>If Stangerson stands six feet tall wears hobnailed boots and has long nails on the fingers of his right hand.</u>

Lesson1: The Explicit Story Worksheet

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1. Watch the first part of the story. Some parts appeared bold in subtitles. These marked utterances are the implicatures you were just introduced to.

2. Summarize the story in a couple of sentences.

3. Read the following excerpts from the video you just watched. Can you write the meaning you infer from these messages? Discuss in groups. Share your ideas with the class.

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Gregson: And the other Stangerson?

Holmes: Perhaps. <u>If Stangerson stands six feet tall wears hobnailed boots and has long nails on the fingers of his right hand.</u>

Lesson 1: The Implicit and Explicit Exercise Worksheet

Lesson 1 Worksheet

1. Jimmy and Jill are playing in a room. Jimmy likes to play with Jill's toys. Jill's mother tries to convince Jill to share her toys with Jimmy.

Jill's mother: Would you like to share your toys with Jimmy honey?

Jill: I thought he was a boy!

Think:

A) Is Jill's answer rational? How is Jill's answer related to her mother's request? What does Jill mean?

B) How else could she answer?

C) Consider the conversation as follows and compare it with the initial form of this conversation.

Jill's mother: Would you like to share your toys with Jimmy honey?

Jill: No!

D) Does the hearer need to have a kind of prior knowledge to properly interpret the message? Could you specify?

2. Paul is leaving and his mother wonders when he will be back.

Paul's mother: When are you coming?

Paul: Not later than daddy.

A) Is Paul's answer irrelevant? What does he mean?

B) Why do you think he prefers this answer instead of a clearer one?

3. Jack would really like to try working with a newly brought machine in the factory he works. The operator, Al, is leaving for a couple of hours and is looking for someone who can fill in for him while he is out.

Jack: I can look after it while you're away.

Al: I cannot put you in charge of the machine, because it needs a lot of attention.

A) This reply offended Jack. Why do you think Jack was offended? What did you understand from Al's reply?

B) How could you revise Al's utterance by adding or removing some things to his sentence to eliminate its offensiveness?

4. five-year-old James wants her mother to buy a very expensive toy.

James: Why don't you buy it? I love it.

James's mother: Because it costs an arm and a leg James!

A) What do you think James's mother means?

B) Where do you think this expression is used?

C) Do you think it is possible to say *it costs a head and a foot*? Would it be the same? Why?

5. Two friends are talking about a funny thing together and they see an acquaintance, Linda laughing too.
a) Does Linda know about it?
b) She is just grinning like a shot fox!

A) What does the second speaker mean?

B) What type of prior knowledge does one need to have to infer the message properly?

6. Sam and Jim are roommates. Sam knows that Jim has a date with his girlfriend Rosy. Sam sees Jim going to the stadium to watch a football match few hours before the date.
Sam: Rosy thinks you will meet her tonight.

A) What can you infer from this utterance?

B) What kind of contextual knowledge did you need to infer that message?

7. Sam and Tom are two friends talking. Sam was at a party last night where he saw Tom's ex-girlfriend. It has only been two days since they broke up.
Sam: I saw Laura at the party last night.
Tom: Really? How did she look? I hope she isn't depressed or something.
Sam: Well… She was dancing all night.

A) What do you think Sam is trying to say?

B) What background and contextual knowledge is needed to infer the message?

C) How else could Sam say the same thing?

D) Now compare the same utterance in the following context.
Laura threw a party. Sam was not at the party, but Tom was.
Sam: How was the party last night?
Tom: I got really tired. I managed everything in the party.
Sam: really? What was Laura doing then?
Tom: Well… She was dancing all night.

How do you find the two last utterances of the two conversations different? Explain.

Lesson 2: The Implicit and Explicit Story Worksheet

Lesson 2 Worksheet

1. What do you remember about the story from last session?

Holmes continues to collect more evidence for his ideas. He asks the police officers who found the corpse some questions. He learns that one of the police officers has seen a tall drunken man in front of the house where they found the dead body. Holmes believes the man acting drunk was actually the murderer. He also discovers that the word written on the wall meant 'revenge' and that some one else was going to be killed.

Upon his guesses, he believes that the murderer will come after the ring; thus he gives a newspaper a note where he notifies of having found a wedding ring and asking the owner to apply. An old woman appears and Holmes follows her, however, she gives him a slip.

Gregson arrests Someone named Charpantier, since it is known that Charpantier has had problems with Drebber. However this suspicion is discarded when everyone found out that Stangerson was killed while Charpantier was imprisoned. Holmes finds similar clues in the crime scene where Stangerson was killed.

Now he knows who he is looking for. He calls a cab driver. He knows that this man is whom they have been looking for…

2. Watch the new episode of *A Study in Scarlet*. As you track the flow of the story, notice the bold-faced sentences in subtitles.

3. Summarize the story in a few sentences.

4. Read the following excerpts from the video you just watched. Discuss in your groups the meanings you can infer from each, other than the literal meanings associated with the words. Discuss the following questions for items C, L, H.

a) Is the underlined utterance irrelevant?
b) Is it long and ambiguous?
c) Is it obviously stating something which is not true?
d) Is it providing just the necessary amount of information (not more or less)?

A) Watson wonders where Rachel, whom Lestrade talks about is, according to Holmes.

Watson: Then who is Rachel?

Holmes: <u>*The figment of Lestrade's imagination.*</u>

B) Watson and Holmes continue talking about *Rache*.

Watson: But the name on the wall!

Holmes: Did you notice anything about it?

Watson: Well it was a medieval script; Germanic.

Holmes: Exactly. <u>*But contrive my dear fellow.*</u>

C) Holmes tells Watson how to be ready to meet the one who comes after the ring.

Holmes: Do you still have your service revolver Watson?

Watson: Yes.

Holmes: <u>*Get it clean and loaded. He will be a desperate man; the murderer.*</u>

D) Holmes and Watson continue to talk about the murderer whom they are expecting to apply.

Watson: But, why should the murderer be anxious for this ring?

Holmes: <u>*It's precious to him Watson! More precious than a man's life.*</u>

E) Gregson tells Holmes and Watson how he Found Charpentier.

Gregson: The American Exchange had no forwarding address for Enoch J. Drebber. I traced him through the label in his hat. The man at Underwoods remembered making the hat for an American gentleman living at Torquay Terrace.

F) Holmes hears Gregson and his reasons about why he thinks Charpentier is guilty.

Holmes: How tall are you lieutenant?

Charpentier: five feet nine.

Holmes: That proves the young man's innocence Gregson.

Gregson: Sorry Mr. Holmes. I've got the man and the motive.

G) Lestrade joins the other detectives and tells them Stangerson is found.

Gregson: I had him encaptivated in 5 hours.

Lestrade: Then he isn't the murderer.

Gregson: You found Stangerson?

Lestrade: I have indeed at Halliday's private hotel.

Gregson: What's he got to say?

Lestrade: Nothing.

H) Holmes asks the workers in the hotel some questions .

Holmes: The man you saw was tall, wearing a long brown overcoat?

The Cook: A scarf on neck! That seemed alright.

I) Holmes examines the pills he finds on the table of the room Stangerson stayed in. He indicates that the murderer was thinking of poisoning Stangerson. However, Stangerson is killed by a knife

Lestrade: I don't need a microscope to tell me Stangerson wasn't poisoned Mr. Holmes.

Holmes: No, but Drebber was.

J) Holmes tells Lestrade he does not think more people will be killed.

Lestrade: Oh, yes. Certain of that, are you?

Holmes: As certain as I am about the murderer's identity and whereabouts.

K) Although he was very close to it, Holmes could not catch the murderer.

Gregson: He slipped through our fingers.

Holmes: Not yet. No ship sails to America till Saturday, that gives us two days.

L) Holmes gives the little boy some money and asks him not to use the front door.

Holmes: Boy, take this and don't go through the front door.

The boy: I wouldn't know front door, sir. They are no uses in my line of work.

Lesson 2: The Implicit Exercise Worksheet

1. Mike goes to a market to buy a packet of cigarettes.

The salesman: You need to be over 18 to be able to buy cigarettes young man.
Mike: I am 20.

A) What is the salesman trying to say?

B) What is Mike trying to say?

C) Analyze the implicatures. Are they intentionally made longer or shorter than necessary?

2. Lucy has made a cake herself and has invited her friend Sally over. They ate the cake.

Lucy: Did you like the cake?
Sally: It really looked pretty!

A) Has Sally liked the cake? How do you know?

B) Analyze Sally's answer: is she giving the right amount of information? Is she being truthful? Is she being clear? Is she being relevant?

C) How could Sally express her intention directly? Which one is better in your opinion?

3. Clara saw her ex-husband with his new wife. Amy, Clara's friend, likes to learn about the details.

Amy: How did you feel?
Clara: Oh! How have I never noticed this beautiful flower you have!

A) Is Clara being relevant? Why?

B) What does Clara mean?

4. Susie and Rose are talking about a mutual friend, Betty.

Susie: She is very pretty and intelligent!
Rose: She is indeed very intelligent.

A) What does Rose mean?

B) Analyze Rose's answer: is Rose giving the right amount of information? Is she being truthful? Is she being clear? Is she being relevant?

C) Why do you think she possibly likes to convey her message this way?

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PART C
In the following questions you are going to produce your own sentences. Justify why you used a direct or an indirect utterance. Compare the possible effects of your answer with an answer the other way round (if your answer is direct, compare it with the indirect version and vice versa.)

1. You went to a friend's wedding. You did not like her wedding dress at all. You are talking to another friend about the wedding. Complete the following conversation.

Your friend: What did you think of Jane's dress?
You:

2. Your friend, Jane has had problems in her marriage since she has got married. You are talking to a mutual friend, Susan. Complete your part in the following conversation, then answer the questions.

Susan: Jane is getting divorced.
You:

3. You and a close cousin are having dinner in her place. He made sandwiches for dinner but they were too small and very few in number. Complete your part in the following conversation.

Your Cousin: Are you full now?
You:

4. You know your sister has worn your shirt which you love and wouldn't like to share. She has put it back, however you saw her wearing it in a photograph shared by a mutual friend in Facebook. You would like to tell her you know about it.

You:

5. Your neighbor is at your place. You get a call from someone telling you to show up for something very urgent. You need to ask her to leave and get ready to go as soon as possible. How would you ask her to go?

You:

Lesson 2: the Explicit Exercise Worksheet

Lesson 2 Worksheet

PART A

Answer the following questions according to the conversations.

1. Mike goes to a market to buy a packet of cigarettes.
The salesman: You need to be over 18 to be able to buy cigarettes young man.
Mike: I am 20.

A) What is the salesman trying to say?

B) What is Mike trying to say?

C) Analyze the implicatures. Are they intentionally made longer or shorter than necessary?

2. Lucy has made a cake herself and has invited her friend Sally over. They ate the cake.
Lucy: Did you like the cake?
Sally: It really looked pretty!

A) Has Sally liked the cake? How do you know?

B) Is she giving the right amount of information? Is she being truthful? Is she being clear? Is she being relevant?

C) How could Sally express her intention directly? Which one is better in your opinion?

3. Clara saw her ex-husband with his new wife. Amy, Clara's friend, likes to learn about the details.
Amy: How did you feel?
Clara: Oh! How have I never noticed this beautiful flower you have!

A) Is Clara being relevant? Why?

B) What does Clara mean?

4. Susie and Rose are talking about a mutual friend, Betty.
Susie: She is very pretty and intelligent!
Rose: She is indeed very intelligent.

A) Is Rose giving the right amount of information? Is she being truthful? Is she being clear? Is she being relevant?

B) Why do you think she possibly likes to convey her message this way?

5. Mike cannot find his bag. He asks his wife, Jane.
Mike: Where is my bag?
Jane: Somewhere around here.
A) What does Jane mean?

B) What effect do you think Jane's utterance has on Mike?

C) Is Jane giving just the right amount of information (observing the maxim of quantity)? How?

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In the following questions you are going to produce your own sentences. You will explain why you preferred to complete the conversation as you did (directly or indirectly).

To create implicatures you may:
1. Say what you believe to be false or lack the evidence for, in a way that the hearer finds out that you are trying to make her/him understand (flout the maxim of quality)
2. Give more or less information than needed and catch the hearer's attention to this deliberate action (flout the maxim of quantity).
3. Give an irrelevant reply to an utterance or situation and draw the hearer's attention to it (flout maxim of relevance).
4. make long and ambiguous sentences in an unordered way that the hearer gets your intentionality (flout the maxim of manner).
You should always remember that implicatures might make you far more polite and tactful than when you speak directly, as they might make you disrespectful and bitterly sharp-tongued much more than the direct speech does. Remember that you are always responsible for everything you directly and/or indirectly deliver.

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1. You went to a friend's wedding. You did not like her wedding dress at all. You are talking to another friend about the wedding. Complete the following conversation.

Your friend: What did you think of Jane's dress?
You:

A) Is your answer a direct answer or one which contains an implicature? Why did you prefer it?

B) If your answer contains an implicature, can you explain in details how you made it?

2. Your friend, Jane has had problems in her marriage since she has got married. You are talking to a mutual friend, Susan. Complete your part in the following conversation, then answer the questions.

Susan: Jane is getting divorced.
You:

A) Is your answer a direct or indirect one? Why did you prefer it?

3. You and a close cousin are having dinner in her place. He made sandwiches for dinner but they were too small and very few in number. Complete your part in the following conversation.

Your Cousin: Are you full now?
You:

A) Is your answer a direct or indirect one? Why did you prefer it?

4. You know your sister has worn your shirt which you love and wouldn't like to share. She   has put it back, however you saw her wearing it in a photograph shared by a mutual friend in Facebook. What would you say?

A) Is your answer a direct or an indirect one? Why did you prefer it?

B) How would you expect your sister to react?
5. Someone asked you out. He/she is a good person, however, you are not much interested and would like to refuse.

The proposer: I would really like to know you better. Shall we meet for dinner tomorrow?
You:

Lesson 3

Lucy and Jefferson

In a small village in America there lived a farmer named Jack Ferrier, with his young daughter, Lucy. The land Ferrier had been working on belonged to old Mr. Drebber. Mr. Drebber had promised the land to Ferrier, however, before he could officially give the land to Ferrier, he died.

Enoch Drebber, Mr. Drebber's son, inherits everything and things change forever. Enoch is a wicked man. He does not keep his father's promises and gives Ferrier a deadline to leave his land, or accept to have his daughter marry Drebber. However, Lucy is too young for Drebber and she does not intend to marry Drebber.

Ferrier relinquishes the farm and decides to leave there with his daughter. Drebber is decided to have Lucy though; thus he never stops following Lucy.

On their way away from Drebber's farm, the Ferriers meet a young man who later they learn had actually been looking for Ferrier, his father's old friend. Short after they meet, Lucy and the young man, Jefferson Hope, fall in love. They decide to marry, however Hope goes on a trip and tells Lucy they are going to marry after he gets back.

To Hope's shock, he finds Ferrier and Lucy dead when he returns. After Hope's departure, Drebber sends his servant Stangerson after Lucy. Faced with resistance, Stangerson kills him and takes Lucy to Drebber and marries him with a compulsory marriage. But Lucy cannot bear the grief of losing her father, her lover, and marrying a man he hates. She lives very unhappily for short, and dies.

Hope swears to get Lucy and Ferrier's revenge. He sets out on a long journey chasing Drebber and Stangerson. Drebber and Stangerson leave America and travel the Europe. When they find out that Hope is after them, Drebber uses his reputation to get Hope arrested. It is not over, however…

Lesson 3 Worksheet

1. What do you remember about the story from last session?

2. Read the following story.

   In a small village in America there lived a farmer named Jack Ferrier, with his young daughter, Lucy. The land Ferrier had been working on, belonged to the old Mr. Drebber. Mr. Drebber had promised Ferrier the land; however, before he could officially give the land to Ferrier, he died.

   Enoch J. Drebber, Mr. Drebber's son, inherits everything and things change forever. Enoch is a wicked man. He does not keep his father's promises and gives Ferrier a deadline to leave his land, or accept to have his daughter marry Drebber. However, Lucy is too young for Drebber and she does not intend to marry Drebber.

   Ferrier relinquishes the farm and decides to leave it with his daughter. Drebber is determined to have Lucy though; thus he never stops following Lucy.

   On their way away from Drebber's farm, the Ferriers meet a young man who later they learn had actually been looking for Ferrier, his father's old friend. Short after they meet, Lucy and this young man, Jefferson Hope, fall in love. They decide to marry, however Hope goes on a trip and tells Lucy they are going to marry after he gets back.

   To Hope's shock, he finds Ferrier and Lucy dead when he returns. He learns that after his departure, Drebber sends his servant Stangerson after Lucy. Faced with resistance, Stangerson kills him and takes Lucy to Drebber and marries him with a compulsory marriage. But Lucy cannot bear the grief of losing her father, her lover, and marrying a man she hates. She lives very unhappily for short, and dies.

   Hope swears to get Lucy and Ferrier's revenge. He sets out on a long journey chasing Drebber and Stangerson. Drebber and Stangerson leave America and travel to Europe. When they find out that Hope is after them, Drebber uses his reputation to get Hope arrested. It is not over, however…

3. Now watch the new and the last part of the story.

In this part Jefferson Hope gives details of the murders; how he killed Drebber and Stangerson.

4. Summarize the last part briefly. What do you generally think of the story?

5. Read the following excerpts from the video you just watched. Discuss in your groups the meanings you can infer from each, other than the literal meanings associated with the words. Answer the following questions for items A, L, and E:

a) What information do you exactly need to infer the extra message?
b) Can you add a sentence or more to cancel the extra meaning inferred without creating a contradiction?
c) Can you create another context for these utterances to make them mean differently?

A) Jefferson Hope is being interrogated.
Watson: Is that the way you acquired the strychnine tablet? In Berlin?
Hope: You're wise.

B) Holmes continues interrogation.
Holmes: And that's when you took out driving hansom?
Hope: I don't know who you are sir, but seems to me you know more about me than I do.

C) Drebber tells Stangerson to stay at another hotel till Drebber is finished with his personal matters.
Stangerson: All I'm saying is it's wiser to stick together Mr. Drebber.
Drebber: You say too much Joe.

D) Hope drives Drebber to a pub and waits outside for him to take him back home.

Hope: An hour or two he can try my patience.

E) Drebber enters the hotel drunk.

Drebber: This Halliday's Private Hotel is creepy. How can a rich man like me stay in a flea pit like this?

F) Faced with death, Drebber strives to persuade Hope to forgive him.

Drebber: Don't kill me. I can buy my life; I'm rich.

G) Hope tells Drebber why he wants to kill him.

Hope: You're the one who shot down Jack Ferrier.

Drebber: No! Joe Stangerson did.

Hope: Then he'll pay for that old man's life. And you'll pay Lucy's.

H) Holmes continues interrogating Hope.

Holmes: And having murdered Drebber, you drove away to…

Hope: Drebber killed himself.

Holmes: With a little prompting you'll admit.

I) Interrogating continues...

Holmes: And when you returned to the Brixtson Road, the police were already on the scene.

Hope: That's why I had to act drunk.

J) Hope tells the investigators why he took the risk of sticking around after the murders.

Hope: I knew where I was going, but didn't seem I had much to worry about after they arrested Charpentier. Maybe I wanted to be caught. Guess I got my wish; huh?

K) Hope gets weaker and is about to die.

Watson: No more questions, Holmes.

Hope: No more time either.

L) After having heard Hope's story, Lestrade and Gregson talk about the case.

Lestrade: Whatever our personal feelings in the matter, the law must be complied with.

M) Watson comes out of the room to tell Gregson and Stangerson, Hope died.

Watson: A higher judge has taken the matter of Jefferson Hope in hand.

Lesson 3: The Implicit and Explicit Exercise worksheet

Part A

1. Mina's father says that he knows she has spent a lot of money on a camera her father did not want her to buy.

Mina's father: I know you bought the camera you wanted.
Mina: Who told you about it?

A) What can be inferred from Mina's message?

B) Add something to her utterance to change the message.

2. Nancy and Chloe are two old relatives who have never liked each other. Nancy dislikes most of Chloe's behaviors and personality traits. However, Chloe is coming from a long journey, bringing Nancy a souvenir she always wanted. Brian, Nancy's husband thinks that Nancy must be happy about seeing Chloe for the first time.

Brian: Aren't you glad honey?
Nancy: Do I look so?!

A) Is Nancy happy?

B) Can you add one or two sentences to change her message?

C) Can you write a new situation for the Nancy's utterance to make it mean differently?

3. Sam and Tom read the same book.

Sam: This book is amazing! What do you think?
Tom: I just think our definitions of amazing are nothing like each other.

A) What is Tom trying to say?

B) Analyze the stages you went through to infer that message.

4. Nancy and Brian have two young daughters.

Nancy cannot find her makeup bag.
Nancy: Where is my makeup bag Brian? I cannot find it.
Brian: girls have been too silent for too long.

A) What is Brian trying to say?

B) Can you explain how and in what stages you inferred that message?

C) Write another situation for Brian's utterance and test if it means the same.

5. Jake is going to take a very important exam some months later. However, he spends a lot of time with his friends. His mother sees this.
Jake's mother: Don't bother yourself so much sweetheart. I don't want you to get sick from hard work.

A) What does Jake's mother mean?

A) What information does one exactly need to interpret the message properly?

B) Add one or two sentences to cancel what Jake's mother implies.

C) Change the context of the conversation so that it means literally what is says.

Part B
In the following items, complete the conversation with an indirect utterance.

1. You are chatting with a group of friends. They are talking about something that you hate to talk about; which is another friend's private life. How would you change the subject indirectly?

2. You have lost a precious item your brother had lent you. You want to do your best to say it in the best way you can. How would you tell him the truth indirectly?

3. You would like to remind a colleague he owes you some money. How would you remind him indirect-ly?

4. A friend has written a story and is thinking of publishing it. He seems very excited about it. However, you really find it insufficient and think he should make several changes before meeting a publisher. How would you tell him?

5. You found out that your younger sister is in a relationship with someone your family absolutely dis-likes. You do not really like to embarrass her, but she is obviously lying to you about where she goes, what she does, and you do not really like it. She is lying again. How would you tell her tactfully?

6. Discuss how the effect of your utterances would be different if you used a direct and straightforward utterance instead.

Lesson 4: The Implicit Exercise Worksheet

Lesson 4 Worksheet

Part A

Read the following conversation. Underline the utterances that mean beyond the literal meanings of the comprising words and are idiomatic. Can you guess what they mean?

Sandy and Kathy are two old friends.

Sandy: Thank you for coming Susan. I had really started to feel lonely.

Kathy: Oh dear, you know I'm always available for you.

S: Would you like a cup of coffee?

K: Is the Pope Catholic?

S: You're right, I shouldn't have asked. You are a coffee addict!

K: Yeah! So tell me Sandy, did you make up your mind about going?

S: Oh, Kathy! It's a fork in the road. I love my boyfriend and I love my career too!

K: I think most problems would fade by itself if you just tied the knot.

S: All I can do about that is just waiting for him to propose.

K: I know. Everything will be fine soon.

S: I hope. By the way... I heard it on the grapevine that your sister Kate is getting married.

K: That's right. How quickly words spread!

S: Ha-ha... They do!

A) After discussing the possible meanings in groups, use the internet to confirm your guesses.

B) Try the following tests on the utterances you underlined:

Can you cancel the meaning by adding one or two sentences?

Take it out of the conversation and put it in another conversation. Does the meaning change?

Do you think the utterances discussed in the previous sessions needed more processing time or these ones?

Part B

Read the following conversations and write what you think B means. Confirm your guesses using the internet afterwards.

1. *A: I can't believe Sam thinks he can fool everyone so easily. He is trying to hide his family background.*
    B: Yes, but a leopard can't change his spots.
    B means:
2. *A: Do you think she gave the right punishment?*
    B: I think it was a slap on the wrist.
    B Means:
3. *A: Do you know her?*
    B: Is the sky blue?
    B means:
4. *A: I never thought I'd fail so badly.*
    B: Just go back to the drawing board dear. Never give up.
    B means:
5. *A: Did you like the book I gave you?*
    B: It was all Greek to me.
    B means:

Part C

Make a guess first and then search the web to find what the following idioms mean. Use them to complete each conversation. Choose 2 of them and answer the following questions about them:

A) Can you cancel the implied meaning by adding one or two sentences?
B) Will the meaning change if you put the second utterance in another context?
C) Do you need to have detailed background and situational information to extract the meaning?

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- Till the cows come home.
- Blood is thicker than water.
- A fork in the road.
- Money doesn't grow on trees.
- To hear it on the grapevine.
- It was all Greek to me.
- To bend over backwards for someone
- Tie the knot.
- We're all in the same boat.
- Your guess is as good as mine.

1. A friend gave you a book to read. You found it difficult to comprehend. Later, your friend asks you what you thought about it.

    Your friend: Did you like the book I gave you?

    You:

2. You have a tactless boss. You and your colleagues are fed up with him. A colleague complains about him to you.

    Your colleague: I cannot continue working with this boss.

    You:

3. Your aunt's husband left his family when your cousin was very young. Now he wants to come back to his family. Your sister and you are talking about them. You think your cousin will probably want his father back.

    Your sister: Do you think Jimmy will want his father back?

    You:

4. You heard a friend wants to move abroad but are not sure of its authenticity. You talk to a close about what you have heard.

    You:

5. You are very undecided about an important decision in your life. A friend asks you about it.

    Your friend: Did you make up your mind?

    You:

6. Your friend has had money issues and thinks his parents could help him better. You have been in the issue, and know that his parents did indeed whatever they could.

    Your friend: I expected more from my parents.

    You:

7. Your younger sister is waiting for a packet to arrive via post. You believe it will not come for some reasons.

    Your sister: I run into the door every time I hear the doorbell. When do you think it will arrive?

    You:

8. Your young cousin wonders why you work for long hours everyday.

    Your cousin: Why do you work such long hours?

    You:

9. Your friend has been in a relationship for a long time. You think they make a fine couple and think they should not wait longer for marriage.

    Your friend: I love my girlfriend.

    You:

10. A big robbery has taken place in daylight in your neighborhood. You and your friend are very surprised about how the burglar has done it without being noticed.

    Your friend: How has the burglar done it without being noticed at all?

    You:

Part D
Write a situation and conversation for the following idioms.

- Bark up the wrong tree.
- Actions speak louder than words.
- Don't hold your breath.
- Wake up and smell the coffee.

Lesson 4: The Explicit Exercise Worksheet

Lesson 4 Worksheet

Part A

1. Read the following conversation. Look at the underlined utterances. Can you guess what they mean?
Sandy and Kathy are two old friends.

Sandy: Thank you for coming Susan. I had really started to feel lonely.
Kathy: Oh dear, you know I'm always available for you.
S: Would you like a cup of coffee?
K: <u>Is the Pope Catholic?</u>
S: You're right, I shouldn't have asked. You are a coffee addict!
K: Yeah! So tell me Sandy, did you <u>make up your mind</u> about going?
S: Oh, Kathy! It's <u>a fork in the road</u>. I love my boyfriend and I love my career too!
K: I think most problems would fade by itself if you just <u>tied the knot</u>.
S: All I can do about that is just waiting for him to propose.
K: I know. Everything will be fine soon.
S: I hope. By the way... I <u>heard it on the grapevine</u> that your sister Kate is getting married.
K: That's right. How quickly words spread!
S: Ha-ha... They do!

A) Check your guesses with the class.

B) Try the following tests (the features of conversational implicatures) on the underlined utterances:
   Can you cancel the meaning by adding one or two sentences?

   Take it out of the conversation and put it in another conversation. Does the meaning change?

   Do you think the utterances discussed in the previous sessions needed more processing time or these ones?

Part B
Read the following conversations and write what you think B means.

1.   A: I can't believe Sam thinks he can foul everyone so easily. He is trying to hide his family background.
        B: Yes, but a leopard can't change his spots.
        B means:
2.   A: Do you think she gave the right punishment?
        B: I think it was a slap on the wrist.
        B Means:
3.   A: Do you know her?
        B: Is the sky blue?
        B means:
4.   A: I never thought I'd fail so badly.
        B:Just go back to the drawing board dear. Never give up.
        B means:
5.   A: Did you like the book I gave you?
        B: It was all Greek to me.
        B means:

Part C
Work in groups to make guesses about what the following idioms mean. Use them to complete each conversation.

- Till the cows come home.
- Blood is thicker than water.
- A fork in the road.
- Money doesn't grow on trees.
- To hear it on the grapevine.
- It was all Greek to me.
- To bend over backwards for someone
- Tie the knot.
- We're all in the same boat.
- Your guess is as good as mine.

1

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1. A friend gave you a book to read. You found it difficult to comprehend. Later, your friend asks you what you thought about it.

     Your friend: Did you like the book I gave you?
     You:

2. You have a tactless boss. You and your colleagues are fed up with him. A colleague complains about him to you.

     Your colleague: I cannot continue working with this boss.
     You:

3. Your aunt's husband left his family when your cousin was very young. Now he wants to come back to his family. Your sister and you are talking about them. You think your cousin will probably want his father back.

     Your sister: Do you think Jimmy will want his father back?
     You:

4. You heard a friend wants to move abroad but are not sure of its authenticity. You talk to a close about what you have heard.

     You:

5. You are very undecided about an important decision in your life. A friend asks you about it.

     Your friend: Did you make up your mind?
     You:

6. Your friend has had money issues and thinks his parents could help him better. You have been in the issue, and know they indeed did whatever they could.

     Your friend: I expected more from my parents.
     You:

7. Your younger sister is waiting for a packet to arrive via post. You believe it will not come for some reasons.

     Your sister: I run into the door every time I hear the doorbell. When do you think it will arrive?
     You:

8. Your young cousin wonders why you work for long hours everyday.

     Your cousin: Why do you work such long hours?
     You:

9. Your friend has been in a relationship for a long time. You think they make a fine couple and think they should not wait longer for marriage.

     Your friend: I love my girlfriend.
     You:

10. A big robbery has taken place in daylight in your neighborhood. You and your friend are very surprised about how the burglar has done it without being noticed.

     Your friend: How has the burglar done it without being noticed at all?
     You:

Part D

Write a situation and conversation for the following idioms.

- Bark up the wrong tree.
- Actions speak louder than words.
- Don't hold your breath.
- Wake up and smell the coffee.

Worksheet Lesson 4
Conventional Implicatures List

- Is the Pope Catholic?
  It is a way of saying an emphatic yes. As clear as it is that the Pope is Catholic, the yes answer is clear to the question this utterance is used in response.
- Make up one's mind
  To decide upon something.
- A fork in the road
  Used to show undecidedness on an important decision.
- To tie the knot
  To marry
- To hear it on the grapevine
  To have heard from an unauthentic source.
- A leopard can't change his spots.
  Used to emphasize the belief people cannot change their basic nature.
- A slap on the wrist.
  A very mild punishment.
- Is the sky blue?
  Exactly like the 'Is the Pope Catholic' example. It means definitely yes.
- Back to the drawing board
  Used to indicate that an idea, scheme, or proposal has been unsuccessful and that a new one must be devised
- all Greek to me.
  Used to express that something is not comprehensible.
- Till the cows come home.
  It means for a very long time.
- Blood is thicker than water.
  It means that family relationships and loyalties are very strong.
- A fork in the road.
  deciding moment in life or history when a major choice of options is required.
- Money doesn't grow on trees.
  Earning money is not easy.
- To bend over backwards for someone
  To do their best for someone.
- Tie the knot.
  To get married
- We're all in the same boat.
  To be in the same situation.
- Your guess is as good as mine.
  To express that one does not have any idea about something
- Bark up the wrong tree.
  To blame the wrong one for something
- Actions speak louder than words.
  what someone actually does means more than what they say they will do.
- Don't hold your breath.
  used to indicate that something is unlikely to happen.
- Wake up and smell the coffee.
  used to indicate that something is unlikely to happen.

APPENDIX 2: THE PRE- AND POST-TEST

A Test for Implicatures

Name:	Surname:
Class Number:	**Time:** 30 minutes

PART A: Please choose the best answer according to the given context and the conversation.

1. Jim baked a cake for his girlfriend Sally. Jim's friend, Jack, wonders if she liked his cake.

Jack: Did Sally like your cake?

Jim: Is the sky blue?

a) Jim did not hear what Jack said.   b) Jim found Jack's question inappropriate.

c) Sally liked the cake.   d) Jim wants to answer Jack's question based on the weather conditions.

2. Mia had always dreamt of winning the music contest; however, she failed to register for it because she was not deemed qualified for it. She is talking to her music teacher, Mr. Brown.

Mia: I couldn't even enter the contest.

Mr. Brown: Jill, go back to the drawing board.

a) Mr. Brown means that Mia should forget about the contest by going back to what she did.

b) Mr. Brown wants to distract Mia, so that she stops thinking about the failure.

c) Mr. Brown thinks that Mia should not give up and should start over.

d) Mr. Brown means that Mia should try drawing instead.

3. Alex's mother left him when he was very young. Years later, his mother is back to see him. Ian, Alex's friend wonders if he wants to see his mother too.

Ian: Do you want to see her?

Alex: Well, blood is thicker than water.

a) There is no difference for Alex between his mother and a stranger anymore.

b) Alex does not even find this issue worth talking about.

c) Alex thinks he must get a revenge for all the years she has been away.

d) Alex would like to meet his mother.

4. Simon and Mila are talking about Mila's decision for her field of study in university.

Simon: What are you going to study? Arts or linguistics?

Mila: Oh, it's a fork in the road.

a) Mila has not decided yet.   b) Mila is going to study arts.

c) Mila is going to study linguistics.   d) Mila has decided, but does not want to tell anyone yet.

5. Max and Eva are talking about a mutual acquaintance, Lucy.

Eva: Lucy is getting married.

Max: I'm sure you've heard it on the grapevine.

a) Max thinks Eva is jealous of Lucy.   b) Max thinks that the news is probably not true.

c) Max thinks that Eva heard it in a garden.   d) Max thinks Eva is being too intrusive.

6. Stella asks Sally the time.

Stella: What times is it?

Sally: The sun set a few minutes ago.

a) Sally does not know what time it is at all. b) Sally's answer is irrelevant.

c) Sally tells Stella the approximate time.   d) Sally does not intend to answer Stella's question.

7. Ivy and Luke are talking about a mutual friend, Larry.

Luke: I heard Larry was arrested.

Ivy: I'm wise enough to know what to believe.

a) Ivy expresses her surprise.   b) Ivy tells Luke she already knew it.

c) Luke does not really care about Larry.   d) Ivy does not believe Luke.

8. Steven and Sandra, two friends, are talking about a contest Steven and Jim, a rival, will soon have.

Steven: Jim can never beat me.

Sandra: Why does this sound so familiar to me?!

a) Sandra does not believe Steven upon prior experience.

b) Sandra does not know where she heard this sentence before.

c) Sandra thinks Jim is too weak.

d) Sandra believes that Jim will beat Steven.

9. Sandy asks Martin what he thinks of her dress.

Sandy: Do you like it?

Martin: well… Maybe it's too pretty.

a) Martin loved the dress.   b) Martin did not like the dress.

c) Martin is not sure.   d) Martin thinks it is too expensive.

10. Sam and Jimmy are two colleagues. They have had arguments before for a few times.

Sam: Would you like a cup of coffee?

Jimmy: What do you need?

a) Jimmy wants to do something for Sam to compensate his kindness.

b) Jimmy suddenly remembers a request Sam has made before.

c) Jimmy wants to help Sam in making the coffee.

d) Jimmy thinks Sam is not making an honest offer.

PART B: IN EACH ITEM BELOW, READ THE SITUATION AND RESPOND FIRST <u>DIRECTLY</u>, AND THEN <u>INDIRECTLY</u>.

> *Example: You and a friend are chatting. Your friend tells you that he has won many medals in swimming. He does not seem to be an athlete however. You say:*
>
> *Directly: I don't believe you at all.*
>
> *Indirectly: And I'm the cookie monster!*

1. You are in a room with some friends, chatting. One of your close friends starts to talk about another friend's secret. Since you find it very unethical, you want to interrupt your friend. You say:

Directly:

Indirectly:

2. You found that your brother told your parents about something you were trying to hide from your parents. You tell him you found it out, but he tries to deny. You say:

Directly:

Indirectly:

3. A friend is accusing you of having used his personal things. You are offended and know someone else has done it. You say:

Directly:

Indirectly:

4. Your little cousin broke your computer. You are extremely angry but would like to wait for your aunt to punish him. Your aunt gives him a very mild punishment for what he has done. You say to your aunt:

Directly:

Indirectly:

5. You and your roommate are cleaning the house. He/she stops working and starts talking about his/her problems in the office. You say:

Directly:

Indirectly:

A Test for Implicatures

Name-Surname: **Date:**

Group: ELT …   **Time:** 30 minutes

PART A: IN EACH ITEM BELOW, A DIALOGUE IN A SITUATION IS GIVEN. READ THE SITUATION AND THE DIALOGUE, AND CHOOSE THE ANSWER FOR THE QUESTION ABOUT THE SECOND UTTERANCE IN EACH DIALOGUE.

1. Emily and Jill are waiting for a friend; Molly.

Emily: How long do you think we'll have to wait?

Jill: I'm sure he'll arrive till the cows come home.

a) Jill thinks Molly will come at the dawn.   b) Jill thinks Emily shouldn't ask her.

c) Jill thinks Molly will be very late.   d) Jill thinks Molly will not come at all.

2. Leo and Max met after a long time.

Leo: What is the latest status of you and Rosanna's relationship?

Max: Oh! I thought you knew! We tied the knot.

a) Leo and Max Split up.   b) Max and Rosanna are married.

c) Leo and Max are temporarily not together.   c) Max does not want to talk about it.

3. Alex has become a candidate for a political election. He just gave a speech. Tom and Taylor are talking about him.

Tom: Do you think he is being honest?

Taylor: Wake up and smell the coffee.

a) Taylor does not believe Alex's promises.   b) Taylor finds Alex honest and eligible for the position.

c) Taylor finds Tom's question stupid.   d) Taylor likes to continue discussion after a coffee break.

4. Mia, Adam, and Sally work at the same office. Adam and Mia are talking about an ironic thing Sally has said.

Mia: I don't know what Sally meant by that.

Adam: Your guess is as good as mine!

a) Adam thinks Mia is just pretending not to have understood.   b) Adam hates to talk about it.

c) Adam and Mia think Sally was very rude.   d) Adam does not have any idea either.

5. Luke, Jake and Clark work for the same company. Clark is for some reason boss's favorite employee. He has lost some very important documents. The boss asked him how he lost it and sent everyone about their business afterwards.

Luke: Did you see what the boss did?

Jake: A real slap on the wrist!

a) Jake thinks the boss got too angry.   b) Jake thinks Clark did not get what he deserved.

c) Jake thinks Clark will be punished more.   d) Jake thinks Clark is offended by what the boss did.

6. Susan, Lex, and Megan are teenagers. Lex has invited his friends to a late-night party. Susan has arrived and Lex asks Susan if Megan, who is a neighbor of Megan's is coming or not.

Lex: Is Megan coming to the party?

Susan: Not all parents think a late night party is a good idea.

a) Susan means Megan will arrive in a short time.   b) Susan means she does not know if Megan will come or not at all.

c) Susan means Megan will not come.   d) Susan means Lex should call Megan and ask her.

7. Oliver wants to go to Jennifer's place. Oliver had been Jennifer's guest a year ago.

Oliver: How do I get into your apartment?

Jennifer: Walk up to the front door, turn the door handle clockwise as far as it will go, and then pull gently towards you.

a) Jennifer does not want Jennifer to come.   b) Jennifer misunderstands Oliver.

c) Jennifer thinks Oliver should know the address   d) Jennifer thinks Oliver will find it difficult to enter the house.

8. Arthur and Celine are a married couple. Their neighbors are moving. They have had a good relationship for years.

Arthur: Bill and Martha are leaving tomorrow.

Celine: I'll miss Martha very much.

a) Celine will not miss Bill.   b) Celine is happy that Martha is moving.

c) Celine does not want Bill to move away.   d) Celine hates Martha.

9. Mary and Lucy are two classmates.

Mary: I'm gonna fail this course.

Lucy: Sure, just like you fail every course you take.

a) Lucy Sympathizes with Mary.   b) Lucy wants to warn Mary not to fail.

c) Lucy thinks Mary should drop the course.   d) Lucy thinks Mary will pass this course.

10. Jane made a roast beef an hour ago but, she cannot find it now. She asks her husband.

Jane: Where's the roast beef?

Robert: The dog looks happy.

a) The roast beef is too rotten for them to eat.   b) Robert wants to change the subject.

c) Robert thinks the dog has eaten the beef.   d) Robert thinks they can find the roast beef with the dog's help.

PART B: IN EACH ITEM BELOW, READ THE SITUATION AND RESPOND FIRST <u>DIRECTLY</u>, AND THEN <u>INDIRECTLY</u>. MARK THE REACTION YOU WOULD PREFER IN REALITY.

1. You cannot decide whether to accept a good job offer you have got, or start your higher education in the university you have been admitted to in another country. It is a difficult decision to make. Your friend asks you about your decision.

Your friend: Will you accept the job or continue studying?

You (Directly):

You (Indirectly):

2. Elizabeth, a colleague of yours, has always treated you badly but, always pretends to be nice. You just learned that someone has lied to your boss that you have done illegal things. You think it must be Elizabeth again. You see her in the elevator. You say to her:

Directly:

Indirectly:

3. You have done everything you could for your younger sister. However, she seems to be very unappreciative about it all. You would like to remind her that you really did so much to her. You would say to her:

Directly:

Indirectly:

4. You saw Jane's lover with someone else. You are very upset because Jane is your best friend. So you think that Jane has to know. You tell Jane:

Directly:

Indirectly:

5. You are the owner of a company. An employee has been making awful mistakes since he started working in your company. You know he has had personal problems but, you cannot bear any more mistakes at all. How would you warn him?

Directly:

Indirectly:

APPENDIX 3: THE CONTENT ANALYSIS CRITERIA

Implicature Teaching Activity Analysis Criteria

- Does the activity <u>teach</u> PCIs or SLCIs in any way?
- If it does, does it teach explicitly or implicitly (According to the Explicitness/Implicitness Criteria)?
- If the activity teaches implicatures, what are the implicatures and their types (According to the Implicature Type Criteria)?

Explicitness/ Implicitness Criteria

1. Are the learners made aware of what (the implicature) they are learning?
2. Do the learners employ deliberate and analytic strategies to learn implicatures?
3. Is the knowledge about implicatures clearly stated?
4. Does the activity/content engage participants in voluntary explicit learning?
5. Does the content aim to enable students to express the acquired knowledge?
6. Is a particular type of implicatures the focus of attention?
7. Are meta-pragmatic rules and information provided?
8. Is the learning process active?
9. Does the activity/content use authentic materials?
10. Does the activity/content aim at controlled use of language?

Implicature Criteria

1. Is the utterance flouting or strictly following the CP to convey a message more than the sum of the literal meanings of the constituting words (Is it an implicature according to the Gricean definition)?

2. If it is an implicature at sentence level, does it carry the following features?

   a) Is it Cancellable?

   b) Is it non-detachable?

   c) Is it context dependent?

   d) Is it calculable?

   If it carries the features above, it is a conversational implicature. Then answer the following question:

   a) Is it dependent on the more particular context, rather than the more general context and some certain words?

If it carries all the features mentioned, it is a Particularized Conversational Implicature (PCI).

3. If it does not carry the features of conversational implicatures mentioned above, is the implicature this utterance carries dependent strictly on particular words (Is it an idiom)?

If carries the mentioned features, it is a Sentence Level Conventional Implicature (SLCI).

APPENDIX 4: CONTENT ANALYSIS RESULTS

1.1. Life Upper-intermediate: Implicature Teaching Activities

Page	Activity Name	Value Based on Criteria	Total Value	Final Result	The Implicatures	Implicature Explanation	Implicature Type
52	3	1. N 2. N 3. N 4. N 5. N 6. Y 7. N 8. N 9. N 10. Y	2/10	Highly implicit	It sounds right up my street.	+> It is sounds very ideal to me.	SLCI
					I have a lot of time for swimming.	+> I like swimming very much.	PCI
					I'm not very keen on riding.	+> I do not like riding.	SLCI
					I never feel particularly comfortable doing house chores.	+> I dislike house chores.	SLCI
					It doesn't really sound like fun.	+> I do not like to do it.	SLCI
					This really gets on my nerves.	+> This makes me angry.	SLCI
					I get a bit tired of doing homework.	+> I dislike it.	PCI
52	6	1. N 2. N	3/10	Highly implicit	0	0	SLCI production demanding

		3. N			(Production demanding activity)		
		4. N					
		5. N					
		6. N					
		7. N					
		8. Y					
		9.Y					
		10. Y					
62	9	1. N	2/10	Highly implicit	I think It's easy to pick holes in the world bank plan…+>	+> It's easy to find flaws	SLCI
		2. N			Can I pick your brains for a moment?	+> Can I have your opinion?	SLCI
		3. N					
		4. N			Sales of electricity to Thailand were slow at first, but they're picking up now.	+> They are going higher.	SLCI
		5. N					
		6. Y					
		7. N					
		8. Y					
		9. N					
		10. N			He feels that he is being picked on.	+> He feels he is being criticized unfairly.	SLCI
146	9	1. N	2/10	Highly implicit	Have no hard feelings.	+>Don't be angry.	SLCI

	The Implicatures	Implicature Explanation	Implicature Type
2. N	Fran and Chris are pretty hard up these days.	+> They have little money.	SLCI
3. N			
4. N			
5. N	Kate's feeling pretty hard done by.	+> She feels she has been treated unfairly.	SLCI
6. Y			
7. N			
8. Y	Don't be hard on Jake.	+> Don't hurt his feelings.	SLCI
9. N			
10. N			

1.2. Life (Upper-Intermediate): Dialogue Implicatures

Page No.	Activity Name	The Implicatures	Implicature Explanation	Implicature Type
16	2. 1.4	Fancy bumping into you here.	+> glad to see you by coincidence.	SLCI
		What have you been up to?	+> What are you doing?	SLCI
		I've been completely snowed under with work.	+> I have a lot to do	SLCI
		Get my shoe shop business off the ground.	+> To get something started.	SLCI
		It has its ups and downs	+> It has its rises and falls	SLCI
		I don't want to look her up this time	+> I don't want to contact her this time.	SLCI
		Perhaps we can all meet and catch up	+> We can meet and get together.	SLCI
		Give me a call	+> Call me on telephone	SLCI

		I'm not a huge fan of Formula One...	+> I do not like Formula One.	PCI
		It leaves you to <u>make up your own mind</u> about him completely.	+> Decide	SLCI
21	1. 1.6	Although in the end you <u>come down on</u> Senna's <u>side</u>...	To come down on someone's side+> To support someone. Although you come down on Senna's side+> Although the film appears to be neutral, it is on Senna's side	SLCI and PCI
40	3. 1.22	Can you give me a hand?	+> Help me.	SLCI
		Hang on.	+> wait.	SLCI
48	1. 1.27	I'm going <u>to fire some statements at</u> you...	+> I'm going to read some random or maybe even irrelevant sentences to you.	SLCI
		I don't actually think that 'should' has a lot to do with it.	+> There is not a predefined frame for deciding what art actually is.	PCI
		(giving his opinion about art) Anyway, <u>I'll play the game</u>, so...let's hear what they say...	+> I am in this career, so let the other people who are not decide.	PCI
		Monet did some of his paintings in five minutes.	+> Not all artwork needs tremendous effort and time.	PCI

		(Preparing the interviewee for the next question) that <u>ties in</u> with the next one.	+> is related to	SLCI
		I can think of quite a lot of examples of successful art that wasn't technically difficult, but was just based on a clever idea.	+> There not such a fact that all artists have technical skills.	PCI
		That moves me.		SLCI
		I'm not generally a fan of musicals…	+> I don't like musicals.	PCI
		That bird, who is supposed to be there for the comic effect.	+> The bird is not funny.	PCI
52	2. 1.28	They can get on your nerves.	+> They are annoying.	SLCI
		T: Have you heard *Circle of Life?* J: Er… No, I don't think so. T: <u>Well, I'm not going to sing it</u>…	+> I can't tell you how it was if you have not heard it yourself.	PCI
64	4. 1.35	I don't think we should give them another penny.	+> We should stop financial support completely.	PCI
72	2. 1.37	You probably thought that sort of vacation was for eighteen year olds on their gap year…	+> You do not normally expect an adult to have such a job.	PCI
		Lend a hand to people	+> help people	SLCI

		So you could actually come back with a skill you didn't have when you left?	+> You learn something	PCI
80	4	Why don't you find out something about your own country for a change?	+> Find out something about your own country for a change.	PCI
		I'll take a tent with me.	+> I will stay out in a tent.	PCI
		Let's not be too ambitious.	+> What you said is far from reality.	PCI
93	2. 2.7	As an expression of parental concern, you can't help but be impressed by it.	+> You will be impressed.	PCI
100	1. 2.10	Well, I didn't see it myself, but I heard…	+> I am not sure	PCI
		Well, I'd take what Tara says with a pinch of salt if I were you.	+> I do not believe her completely.	SLCI
		She tends to blow things out of proportion.	+> To exaggerate.	SLCI
106	1. 2.14	That's one small step for man, a giant leap for mankind.	+> Although it may look just like one step, it is the symbol of the progress mankind has made.	PCI
112	2. 2.17	I have quite a lot of experience of sitting at a desk…	+> Doing a 9-5 job.	PCI
136	2. 2.37	Look at their work again, … with fresh eyes this as it were.	+> look from a new perspective.	SLCI

Page	Activity		That's too much to take in all at once. I'm trying to write it down.	+> Speak slowly.	PCI
144	3. 2.40		Thirty years ago, the idea of getting a worker to hand wash your car would have been unthinkable-except to the very rich.	+> It was very expensive to have a maid at home.	PCI
148	2. 2.43		A key thing for us is how long we'd be tired into the lease.	+> I want to know for how many years you will rent.	PCI
			We don't really know how things are going to go over the next few years… <u>who does?</u>	+> No one knows either.	PCI
			So I'm not at all sure we're going to get anywhere there…	+> You are not giving tempting offers to me.	PCI
			…that's a bit of a sticking point then, isn't it?	+> Because of this we can't reach an agreement.	PCI
			Look, we have other people interested in the promises, so someone will take it.	+> You had better accept the offer.	PCI

2.1. Language Leader (Upper-intermediate): Implicature Teaching Activities

Page	Activity Name	Value Based on Criteria	Total Value	Final Result	The Implicatures	Implicature Explanation	Implicature Type

9	5a	1. Y 2. N 3. N 4. N 5. N 6. Y 7. N 8. N 9. N 10. Y	3/10	Highly Implicit	Actions speak louder than words.	+> What you do is more important than what you say.	SLCI
					Get a word in edgeways.	contribute to a conversation with difficulty because the other speaker talks incessantly.	SLCI
					Hear it on the grapevine.	+> Talk about a rumor passed from someone to other.	SLCI
					Be on the same wavelength.	+> Share similar ideas.	SLCI
					Get straight to the point.	+> Talk about the most important thing immediately.	SLCI
					Have a quick word with someone.	+> Talk briefly to someone.	SLCI
9	5b	1. Y 2. Y	6/10	Explicit	The same implicatures from the previous exercise.		

		3. N				
		4. Y				
		5. Y				
		6. Y				
		7. N				
		8. Y				
		9. N				
		10. N				
					Be on the ball	+> be well-informed	SLCI
					To move the ball	+> to make progress	SLCI
27	6a	1. Y 2. N 3. N 4. N 5. N 6. Y 7. N 8. Y 9. N 10. Y	4/10	Implicit	Take your eye off the ball	+> Keep one's attention focused on the matter in hand.	SLCI
					A level playing field	+> A situation in which everyone has equal chances of winning.	SLCI
					A whole new ball game	+> a completely different situation	SLCI

					Score an own goal	+> Something that someone does to try to get an advantage, but which makes a situation worse.	SLCI
					Start the ball rolling	+> Cause something start happening	SLCI
27	6b	1. Y 2. Y 3. N 4. N 5. N 6. Y 7. N 8. N 9. N 10. Y	4/10	Implicit	The practice of the idioms from the previous exercise.		
87	5b	1. N 2. N 3. N 4. N	1/10	Highly Implicit	Can I just <u>come in</u> here?	+> Can I interrupt you here?	SLCI
					Getting your point across	+> Conveying	SLCI

Page No.	Activity Name		Ratio	Type	Explanation
		5. N			your
		6. N			intentions.
		7. N			
		8. N			
		9. N			
		10. Y			
119	5a	1. Y	1/10	Highly Implicit	This activity teaches rhetorical questions.
		2. N			
		3. N			
		4. N			
		5. N			
		6. N			
		7. N			
		8. N			
		9. N			
		10. N			

2.2. Language Leader (Upper-intermediate): Dialogue Implicatures

Page No.	Activity Name	The Implicatures	Implicature Explanation	Implicature Type
12	5.a/1.6	What have you got in mind, Martin?	+> What is your idea?	SLCI
		I'm not a big eater.	+> I do not each very much.	SLCI
		The place is a dump.	+> This place is extremely untidy.	SLCI

		I'm getting fed up with your little notes and messages.	+> I am getting very tired from your little notes and messages.	SLCI
		I'm not keen on people staying.	+> I do not like people to stay here.	SLCI
		I think the way to sort out our problems is to see the university counselling service.	+> I think we should consult the university counselling service.	PCI
22	2. 1.12	That's one way of looking at it.	+> It has a point, but not a comprehensive perspective.	PCI
		Remember, all the really great ideas are unpopular at first.	+> The objection to this new idea is normal.	PCI
24	2a. 1.13	What on earth does it mean?	+> What does it mean?	SLCI
		It's too late then!	+> You cannot go back and change what you have done wrong.	PCI
25	5a. 1.14	What have you come up with?	+> What have you thought of?	SLCI
28	2a. 1.16	But I'd like to take that a step further…	+> I would like to do more than teaching karate to my students.	PCI
45	3a. 2.4	That's a thought I must say…	+> I might not have a very similar idea.	PCI
		Well, we have to make a choice, that's for sure.	+> We should not think too much ideally; because we have to make a decision.	PCI
59	8.a 2.10	It's a page turner.	+> It is a book you can hardly stop reading.	SLCI

		I couldn't put it down.	+> I could not stop reading.	PCI
		I couldn't get into it.	+> I could not enjoy it.	SLCI
		It lived up the hype.	+> It was as good as expected.	SLCI
		Let's <u>agree to differ on</u> this one.	+> Let's not try to convince each other more.	SLCI
65	3a. 2.14	Readers would like to know about your childhood, your parents, and your two sisters. <u>I believe your father left home when you were eight; didn't he?</u>	+> I suggest that you write about that your father left you and your family when you were a child.	PCI
		A: If my family don't object, we can have more chapters about my family. B: <u>Let's hope there's no problem there.</u>	+> I would like that we have more chapters about family.	PCI
		You'll find <u>I'm good value for money.</u>	+> You will see that <u>my work</u> is worth the money you pay.	PCI
77	3a. 2.23	Seeing that space won't be a problem.	+> Let's go and see that space.	PCI
129	4a. 3.22	My team leader had a go at me.	+> My team leader got angry and shouted at me.	SLCI

3.1. Language Leader (advanced): Implicature Teaching Activities

Page	Activity Name	Value Based on Criteria	Total Value	Final Result	The Implicatures	Implicature Explanation	Implicature Type
23	Other Useful Phrases	1. N 2. N 3. N 4. N 5. N 6. Y 7. N 8. N 9. N 10. Y	1/10	Highly Implicit	The project isn't simply feasible.	+> I disagree with the project.	PCI
					It's not the right thing for this area.	+> I disagree with the project.	PCI
					You haven't thought it through.	+> I disagree with the project.	PCI
52	2a	1. N 2. N 3. N 4. N 5. N 6. Y 7. N 8. N 9. Y 10. N	2/10	Highly Implicit	Green is the new black.	-	PCI
					Fur flies on the cat walk.	-	PCI
					Buy it, wear it, chuck it: the price of fast fashion.	-	PCI
63	8	1. Y	5/10	Equally explicit	Get somebody down	+> To upset somebody	SLCI

					Idiom	Meaning	
		2. Y		and implicit	Get on somebody's nerves	+> To irritate someone	SLCI
		3. N					
		4. N			Get the hang of something	+> Learn the proper way of doing something	SLCI
		5. N					
		6. Y					
		7. N					
		8. Y			Get on like a house on fire	+> To like one another very much and be friends quickly	SLCI
		9. N					
		10. Y					
					Get off to a flying start	+> To begin an activity very successfully	SLCI
71	8	1. Y	5/10	Equally explicit and implicit	Got my hands full	+> I am totally busy.	SLCI
		2. Y					
		3. N			Hands are tied	+> to be prevented from doing something.	SLCI
		4. N					
		5. N					
		6. Y			Turn her hand to anything	+> is able to do everything.	SLCI
		7. N					
		8. Y					
		9. N			Give me a hand	+> Help me.	SLCI
		10. Y					

84	6a	1. Y 2. N 3. N 4. N 5. N 6. Y 7. N 8. N 9. N 10. Y	3/10	Implicit	Keep a close eye on	+> Monitor very carefully.	SLCI
					Keep a low profile	+> Avoid attracting attention to yourself.	SLCI
					Keep an open mind	+> Get all the facts before making a judgement.	SLCI
					Keep your wits about you	+> Stay alert.	SLCI
					Keep your fingers crossed	+> Hope for a positive outcome.	SLCI
84	6b	1. Y 2. N 3. N 4. N 5. N 6. Y 7. N 8. N 9. N 10. Y	3/10	Implicit	The same implicatures as the previous activity		

97	Other Useful Phrases	1. N 2. N 3. N 4. N 5. N 6. Y 7. N 8. N 9. N 10. Y	1/10	Highly Implicit	I can go along with that.	+> I agree with it.	SLCI
100	4 2.29	1. Y 2. Y 3. N 4. N 5. N 6. Y 7. N 8. Y 9. N	4/10	Implicit	She thinks he takes her for granted.	+> She thinks he does not give her the value and the attention she deserves.	SLCI
					She offers her to give a hand.	+> She offers her to help.	SLCI
					He doesn't want to wash his dirty linen in public.	+> He does not want to get into trouble because of another's mistake.	SLCI

		She doesn't want to make a scene.	+> She does not want to be loud and rude in front of other people.	SLCI
		She's keeping her fingers crossed.	+> She is hoping.	SLCI
		His hands are tied.	+> He cannot do anything about the issue.	SLCI
		He's got time on his hands.	+> He has extra time.	SLCI

3.2. Language Leader (Advanced): Dialogue Implicatures

Page No.	Activity Name	The Implicatures	Implicature Explanation	Implicature Type
22	3a 1.12	I understand <u>where you're coming from.</u>	+> I understand what your point is.	PCI
		There are other countries I can go to, if I'm turned down here. I don't want to, but if I have to, I will.	+> Do not bother me, or you will lose your benefits.	PCI
24	3a 1.13	Brainstorming. Mmm, how do you <u>go about it?</u>	+> How do you do it?	SLCI
33	3a 1.18	I'm <u>counting on</u> their support and financial help.	+> I am expecting their support.	SLCI

Page				
37	4a 1.20	She didn't really show much of herself.	+> She did not give much information about herself.	SLCI
		She certainly didn't push herself too much.	+> She does not force herself too much.	SLCI
44	2a 1.24	SID the slug!	Eat less salt.	SLCI
63	7 2.1	It came out of the blue.	+> It came out of nowhere.	SLCI
		Focus on moving forward rather than looking back.	+> Focusing on future.	SLCI
		Focus on moving forward rather than looking back.	+> Focusing on past.	SLCI
69	7a 2.8	The facts speak for themselves.	+> The facts show everything.	SLCI
77	3a 2.13	Fabia, you're still shaking your head.	+> You seem to disagree in spite of all the ideas and reasons presented.	PCI
86	3a 2.17	We could be in very hot water.	+> To be subject to anger.	SLCI
		We need to hold fire on this one.	+> We need to post pone our criticism on this one.	SLCI
107	6 3.2	I can't get hold of you.	+> I cannot control you.	SLCI
		That just sums up, er, a hot Saturday night for Tyler!		PCI

4. Strategic Reading 3: Implicature Teaching Activities

Page	Activity Name	Value Based on Criteria	Total Value	Final Result	The Implicatures	Implicature Explanation	Implicature Type

8	Vocabulary Expansion. A	1. Y 2. N 3. N 4. N 5. N 6. Y 7. N 8. N 9. N 10. Y	3/10	Implicit	Be down on your luck	+> suffer because bad things are happening to you	SLCI
					Be in luck	+> get what you want	SLCI
					Be out of luck	+>Not get what you want	SLCI
					Just my luck	+> said when something bad happens to you and you are not surprised	SLCI
					Luck out	+> Have something good happen to you by chance	SLCI
8	Vocabulary Expansion. B	1. N 2. N 3. N 4. N 5. N 6. Y 7. N 8. N 9. N 10. Y	2/10	Highly Implicit	The same implicatures from the previous exercise		

16	Health and You	1. N 2. Y 3. N 4. N 5. N 6. Y 7. N 8. Y 9. N 10. Y	4/10	Implicit	An apple a day keeps the doctor away	+> Apple is so healthy that if you eat it regularly, you will not get sick.	SLCI
					An ounce of prevention is worth a pound of cure	+> Prevention is far more important than cure.	SLCI
24	Vocabulary Expansion. A	1. N 2. N 3. N 4. N 5. N 6. Y 7. N 8. N 9. Y 10. Y	3/10	Implicit	Give up on	+> stop waiting for someone to do something	SLCI
					Give up hope	+> stop wishing for something	SCLI
					Shake up	+> disturb, stimulate	SCLI
					Give in to	+> cease fighting	SCLI
					Sum something up	+> give a brief summary	SCLI
27	After you read. A	1. N 2. Y 3. N 4. N 5. N	4/10	Implicit	Going under the knife	+> being operated	SCLI
					Break through the glass ceiling	+> An unacknowledged — and ultimately illegal — barrier	SCLI

		6. Y				to advancement, especially for women and people of color	
		7. N					
		8. Y					
		9. Y			Be passed over for	+> Not be selected for	SCLI
		10. N					
					Be considered the persevere of a group of people	+> Something only one group does	SCLI
128	Vocabulary expansion. A	1. Y	3/10	Implicit	Be in hysterics	+> an outburst of uncontrollable laughing or crying	SLCI
		2. N			Burst out laughing	+> Laugh very suddenly	SLCI
		3. N					
		4. Y			Have someone in stitches	+> To make someone laugh a lot	SLCI
		5. N					
		6. Y			Crack people up	+> To make someone laugh	SLCI
		7. N					
		8. N			Almost die laughing	+> laugh very much	SLCI
		9. N			Laugh your head off	+> laugh very loudly and hard	SLCI
		10. N					
					Roar with laughter	+> To laugh very loudly	SLCI

5.1. English File (Upper-intermediate): Implicature Teaching Activities

Page	Activity Name	Value Based on Criteria	Total Value	Final Result	The Implicatures	Implicature Explanation	Implicature Type
93	2, Looking at Language	1. Y 2. Y 3. N 4. N 5. N 6. Y 7. N 8. Y 9. N 10. Y	5/10	Equally explicit and implicit	They get into your head…	+> You memorize them without a particular intention to do so.	SLCI
					Um, have billboards and TV commercials <u>had their day?</u>	+> Were they favored some day?	SLCI
					They became kind of the gold standard and they rarely <u>hit a false note.</u>	+> To do something wrong.	SLCI
					They became kind of the gold standard and they rarely <u>hit a false note.</u>	+> To do something wrong.	SLCI

5.2. English File (Upper-intermediate): Implicature Teaching Activities

Page No.	Activity Name	The Implicatures	Implicature Explanation	Implicature Type
7	Listening 1.9	A: I see that you studied philosophy. Do you still practice philosophy? B: <u>Well, I still think a lot.</u>	+> philosophy is actually thinking profoundly which I always do; although I may not be engaged in philosophy academically anymore.	PCI
15	Grammar. b	Can you send the next patient in please, nurse?	+> This visit is over.	PCI
20	b 1.45	Next time you give your granny a warm cardigan and some slippers for her birthday, don't be surprised if she asks for the receipt, because she'll probably want to go out and change them.	+> Old people's tastes are different from what you might expect.	PCI
52	b 3.23	He will, you know, wear his jumpers until they're worn out.	+> He never wastes.	PCI
52	a 3.24	You could sort of end up feeling that you just want to go and shoot yourself.	+> You feel very disappointed and desperate.	PCI
		…the pieces become so fragmented that they're the same size as the zooplankton, um, which is obviously in the food chain.	+> Plastic gets mistakenly eaten as planktons by some animals.	PCI
64	a 4.2	I never take anything from the fridge that isn't mine.	+> I did not take your milk.	PCI

		A: What are you drinking? B: Just coffee. A: <u>Yes, white coffee</u>…	+> I know you are drinking my milk.	PCI
69	F 4.15	A: What techniques do you use to help you to express emotions, feelings? B: Mmm, <u>well, there's a big difference between speaking with a smile, and not speaking with a smile.</u>	+> When you simply picture them, you actually express what they are.	PCI
72	a 4.25	First of all, there are some metal objects right in front of you, sort of, staring at you as you're doing your love scene or whatever else it might be.	+> The materials around us do not let us feel comfortable while playing.	PCI
73	4.26	They were alive and kicking.	+> They were healthy.	SLCI
73	a 4.28	She put her heart into everything.	+> She did everything with all her power.	SLCI
81	a 4.46	…nobody just goes to the gym with their hair done and make-up on unless they're actually expecting to be photographed.	+> These famous people have a plan to be shown in news.	PCI
92	b 5.21	My father kind of <u>took the baton from him</u>…	+> My father took the responsibility from him…	SLCI
		<u>I bet you</u> I'm getting this word for word if you could find it.	+> I assure you…	SLCI

APPENDIX 5: TEACHER'S QUESTIONNAIRE

A Questionnaire on Implicatures

Dear participant,
The following items in the questionnaire are about your opinions concerning implicatures. Your answers will be kept confidential. Thank you for your participation.
Arezoo Babaei Ajabshir (MA Student, Gazi University)

The term *implicature* refers to the meaning inferred from an utterance which is beyond the literal meaning of words.
Example: A: Why don't you tell me what happened last night?
B: The weather is beautiful. Isn't it?
The irrelevant answer given by the second speaker implicates her/his unwillingness for answering his information request.

Part A: Please choose the option that reflects your opinion about the implicatures. Put a ✓ in the box next to the option you choose.

1. I know what pragmatics is.
strongly agree ☐   agree ☐   neither agree nor disagree ☐   disagree ☐   strongly disagree ☐

2. I know how to teach pragmatics to my English learners.
strongly agree ☐   agree ☐   neither agree nor disagree ☐   disagree ☐   strongly disagree ☐

3. I know what implicature is.
strongly agree ☐   agree ☐   neither agree nor disagree ☐   disagree ☐   strongly disagree

4. I know the types of implicatures.
strongly agree ☐   agree ☐   neither agree nor disagree ☐   disagree ☐   strongly disagree ☐

5. I think it is necessary to teach implicatures to English learners.
strongly agree ☐   agree ☐   neither agree nor disagree ☐   disagree ☐   strongly disagree ☐

6. I was taught about implicatures during my study at the English Language Teaching Department.
strongly agree ☐   agree ☐   neither agree nor disagree ☐   disagree ☐   strongly disagree ☐

7. I was taught how to teach implicatures to English learners.
strongly agree ☐   agree ☐   neither agree nor disagree ☐   disagree ☐   strongly disagree ☐

8. I know how to teach implicatures to my English learners.
strongly agree ☐   agree ☐   neither agree nor disagree ☐   disagree ☐   strongly disagree ☐

9. I can test my English learners' knowledge of implicatures.
strongly agree ☐   agree ☐   neither agree nor disagree ☐   disagree ☐   strongly disagree ☐

10. I observe that my English learners are interested in learning implicatures.
strongly agree ☐   agree ☐   neither agree nor disagree ☐   disagree ☐   strongly disagree ☐

11. I think course books sufficiently provide materials and models for English learners to learn implicatures.
strongly agree ☐   agree ☐   neither agree nor disagree ☐   disagree ☐   strongly disagree ☐

12. I use supplementary activities and tasks to enhance the implicature awareness of English learners.
strongly agree ☐   agree ☐   neither agree nor disagree ☐   disagree ☐   strongly disagree ☐

Part B: Please answer the following questions briefly.

1. I teach English implicatures:

☐ Explicitly (Deductive [tümdengelimsel] techniques, direct, teacher-centered explanations,)
☐ Implicitly (Inductive [tümevarımsal] techniques, no direct teacher-centered explanations, students discovering on their own)
☐ Or both explicitly and implicitly
☐ Neither implicitly nor explicitly

If explicitly, why?

If implicitly, why?

If both explicitly and implicitly, why?

2. How do you evaluate your English learners' knowledge of implicatures?

3. How do you think the course books can be supplemented to teach implicatures to English learners more effectively?

4. How do you think English learners can get more interested and engaged in learning the pragmatic aspects of language in general and implicatures in particular?

Part C: Please answer the following questions if you are a member of the material development team or have a part in designing materials in any other way.

1. Do you consider incorporating teaching of pragmatics in general and implicatures in particular into the materials you design for supplementing the main book?

2. Do you have certain criteria for incorporating pragmatics in general and implicatures in particular into the materials?

APPENDIX 6: RESEARCH PERMISSIONS

T.C.
GAZİ ÜNİVERSİTESİ
Etik Komisyonu

Sayı : 77082166-604.01.02-39519   31/03/2015
Konu : Değerlendirme ve Onay

Sayın Yrd.Doç.Dr. Cemal ÇAKIR
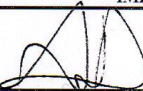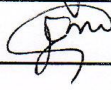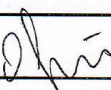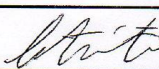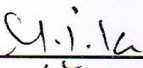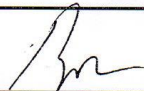**İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı Başkanlığı - Öğretim Üyesi**
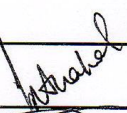
Tez Danışmanı olduğunuz Üniversitemiz Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Ana Bilim Dalı Yüksek Lisans öğrencisi Arezoo Babaei AJABSHIR'ın tez çalışması olan **"An Experimental Study of Implicatures in Course Books Used at University Preparatory Schools in Ankara"** başlıklı araştırma öneriniz incelenmiş ve Üniversitemiz Etik Komisyon ilkelerine uygun olduğuna oybirliği ile karar verilmiştir.

Bilgilerinizi rica ederim.

Prof. Dr. Aysu DUYAN ÇAMURDAN
Komisyon Başkanı

EK :
1 Liste

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ETİK KOMİSYONU KATILIM LİSTESİ

TOPLANTI TARİHİ : 26.02.2015

TOPLANTI SAYISI : 2

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Doç.Dr.Eda KÖKSAL (Başkan Yrd.)	
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Doç.Dr.Ramazan YILDIZ	
Yrd.Doç.Dr.Ayşe Bikem HACIÖMEROĞLU	

T.C.
GAZİ ÜNİVERSİTESİ
Öğrenci İşleri Daire Başkanlığı

Sayı : 17311665-044-
Konu : Anket Uygulama Talebi (Arezoo Babaei
AJABSHIR)

EĞİTİM BİLİMLERİ ENSTİTÜSÜ MÜDÜRLÜĞÜNE

İlgi :   a) 13/04/2015 tarihli ve 80287700-302.08.01- 45124 sayılı yazı,
         b) 17/04/2015 tarihli ve 39701152-044- 47795 sayılı yazı,

Enstitünüz Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı, İngilizce Öğretmenliği Bilim Dalı, Yüksek Lisans öğrencisi Arezoo Babaei AJABSHIR'ın Yrd. Doç. Dr. Cemal ÇAKIR danışmanlığında yürüttüğü **"An Experimental Study of Implicatures in Course Books Used at University Preparatory Schools in ANKARA"** konulu tezi hakkındaki ilgi (a) yazınız Üniversitemiz Yabancı Diller Yüksekokulu Müdürlüğüne iletilmiş olup, alınan ilgi (b) cevabi yazının bir örneği ilişikte gönderilmektedir.
Bilgilerinizi rica ederim.

e-imzalıdır
Prof. Dr. Cengiz Bekir DEMİREL
Rektör Yardımcısı

EK :
İlgi yazı (1 sayfa)

Gazi Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü Müdürlüğüne

Gazi Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü İngilizce Öğretmenliği Yüksek Lisans Programı'nda öğrenciyim. Yüksek Lisans tez çalışmam kapsamında ODTÜ, Ankara, Hacettepe, ve Bilkent Üniversitelerinin Yabancı Diller Yüksek Okullarında okutmanlara bir anket uygulamak istiyorum. Bahsedilen çalışmayı yapabilmem için enstitümüzden onaylı ilgili izin belgelerine ihtiyaç duymaktayım. Anket uygulama işlerime yardımcı olacak belgelerin tarafıma verilmesini saygılarımla arz ederim. 25 Şubat 2015

Arezoo Babaei Ajabshir

ADRES:

Gazi Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Enistitüsü

İngilizce Öğretmenliği Yüksek Lisans Programı

Öğrenci Numarası: 128164118

E-Posta: a.babayi@gmail.com

Ek; Seddrimle İlgili Bir Anket

Uygundur.
25.02.2015

Yrd. Doç. Dr. Cemal Çakır
Tez Danışmanı

192

T.C.
GAZİ ÜNİVERSİTESİ
Yabancı Diller Yüksekokulu Müdürlüğü

Sayı :   39701152-044-
Konu :   Anket Uygulama Talebi (Arezoo Babaei
          AJABSHIR)

ÖĞRENCİ İŞLERİ DAİRE BAŞKANLIĞINA

İlgi :   16/04/2015 tarihli ve 17311665-044- 47400 sayılı yazı,

Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Anabilim Dalı, İngilizce Öğretmenliği Bilim Dalı, Yüksek Lisans öğrencisi Arezoo Babaei AJABSHIR'ın Yrd. Doç.Dr. Cemal ÇAKIR danışmanlığında yürüttüğü "An Experimental Study of Implicatures in Course Books Used at University Preparatory Schools in ANKARA" konulu tezi ile ilgili olarak Yüksekokulumuzda görevli okutmanlara anket ve ileri-orta düzeydeki öğrencilere bir ön test uygulaması uygun görülmüştür.

Bilgilerinizi ve gereğini arz ederim.

e-imzalıdır
Prof. Dr. Abdulvahit ÇAKIR
Yüksekokul Müdürü

T.C.
GAZİ ÜNİVERSİTESİ
EĞİTİM BİLİMLERİ ENSTİTÜSÜ

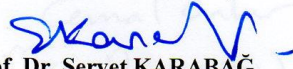SAYI : 80287700-302.10 /5252   A N K A R A
KONU : İzin   03.11.2014

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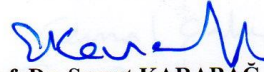**EĞİTİM BİLİMLERİ ENSTİTÜSÜ**

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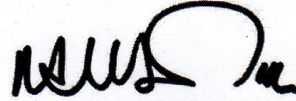Sayı : 35853172/ O44-1075   20 Mart 2015

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Bilgilerinizi ve gereğini arz ederim.

Prof. Dr. A. Murat TUNCER
Rektör

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