AURAL PRAGMA-LINGUISTIC COMPREHENSION: A LONGITUDINAL STUDY

İŞİTSEL EDİMSEL ANLAMA: BOYLAMSAL BİR ÇALIŞMA

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ABSTRACT: This longitudinal study has two phases: The first phase completed in 2007-2008 academic term was an attempt to probe into pragmatic comprehension levels of second language (L2) learners as measured by the recognition of speech acts and conversational implicatures (Alagözlu & Büyüköztürk, 2009). Using One Group Pretest-Posttest Research Design and considering the first measurement as a pretest, in the second phase of the study conducted in 2010-2011 academic year, pragmatic comprehension levels of the Turkish learners of English are tested once more after three and a half years of formal instruction with a paired t-test of pre and post-scores of the same learners, which did not indicate a statistically significant difference between the scores (p>0,05), therefore, an improvement between the scores of two measurements of pragmatic comprehension of speech acts and conversational implicatures in aural discourse.

Keywords: Aural Pragma-linguistic comprehension, longitudinal studies, speech acts, conversational implicatures


Anahtar Sözcükler: İşitse edimsel anlama, boylamsal çalışma, sözcülemler, Konuşma sevdirileri.

1. INTRODUCTION

1.1. Aural comprehension process

In the history of language teaching, the status of aural comprehension has gradually changed from a peripheral position to a permanent status of importance after the AILA conference in the 70s. (Osada, 2004). Appealing to many researchers until recently, aural comprehension in foreign language is a very intricate process and prone to be affected by a wide range of factors. Buck (2001 pp.1-10) subdivides the knowledge listeners need in this process into five categories: “input to the listener”, “applying knowledge of language” using world knowledge“, “context of communication” and “building mental representations”, all of which are simply embraced by the linguistic knowledge and situational knowledge that the listener makes use of while making the meaning out of the utterances (Yule, 1996; Schiffrin, 1994). He discusses the aural input to the listener emphasizing three basic issues: a) speech encoded in the form of sounds, b) real time nature of language that does not allow the hearers to go back and review the messages and c) linguistic differences between spoken and written language. To explain respectively, first, due to the acoustic nature of language, sounds cannot be perceived clearly and can be modified phonologically by the native speakers. Phonological processes like assimilation, deletion or elision and intrusion make the spoken text complicated. Stress and intonation of weak forms and strong forms particularly in English pronunciation show different

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patterns, causing a confusion for the listeners. Second, real time nature of language indicates the situation where language is heard only once. If the repetition of the utterance is required, the repeated expression would possibly not be the same as what is previously stated. The speakers never utter the same sentence once again and all is left to the memory of the hearers, which is often imperfect. For listeners, text familiarity and multiple exposure to the linguistic items are not possible in spoken discourse. Third, spoken language is informal and colloquial unlike written language. Speech is considered to be redundant. Speakers use short and incomplete sentences, even words or phrases to communicate. Not all the details are given to the listeners. This is compensated with “using world knowledge in the context of communication through several cognitive skills like producing assumptions, inferences for implicit meaning or implicatures and establishing relevances in the speech, which relates to the way listeners process pragmatic aspect of information.

Speech comprehension and production processes are complex since natural speech is continuous. Sounds overlap and influence each other, which makes the listeners use some mechanisms to decipher the aural text. The cognitive mechanisms behind them have been of interest to many researchers. The hearer perceives distinct words and syllables and phonemes. A central problem of speech perception is to explain how the hearer understand those sounds/signals as meaningful units, known as “segmentation problem”. Secondly, how the hearer recognizes different speech sounds as produced by different speakers in different environments, that is “invariance problem”. In L1, those problems are surmounted by the listeners who can calibrate their perceptions to control for differences and they can segment the utterances into sounds, syllables, morphemes and words. This normalization process make the hearers understand the speech regardless of the speaker and surrounding sounds. However, in L2, it is quite likely for L2 listeners to experience difficulties in recognizing speech due to segmenting speech into parts; sounds, morphemes, utterances before they negotiate the appropriate meaning and message. In the process of comprehension, the listener first takes charge of recognizing words accessing his mental lexicon, later, he must figure out the syntactic and semantic relations among the words and phrases in a sentence via syntactic processing or “parsing” or providing the structure of the utterance. The parsing of a sentence is largely determined by the rules of the grammar, but also strongly influenced by the sequential nature of language. The listener retrieves all the meanings of the ambiguous word and very quickly uses the disambiguating information in the sentence to discard the meanings which are not appropriate. (Fromkin et al., 2003 pp. 403-408).

In their pioneering studies, Van Dijk & Kintch (1983) explain discourse comprehension and production as semantic processing that occurs in three operational stages:

- Organization of the text into a coherent whole
- Condensing the full meaning of the text into its gist.
- Generating the new text from the traces of the comprehension process.

The model describes comprehension as a transition from micro level propositions to macro level structures. Either readily available in the text or inferred propositions based on the background knowledge of the listener “called “micro propositions” in the model are stored in the short term memory in search for an overlap with those already existing in the short term memory and with the help of their working memory. Meanwhile the short memory is used as a buffer storing at least five propositions to be tested in terms of coherence. If there is an overlap they are accepted as “micropropositions and microstructures of the model to be exposed to several macro rules like deletion, overgeneralization or construction of the propositions in comprehension process (Kintch & Van Dijk, 1978).

Van Dijk’s (1977) theory of pragmatic comprehension proposes that discourse comprehension has two main processes: context analysis and utterance analysis. In context analysis, language users analyze the meaning of an utterance based on the context in which it was uttered by using background knowledge, past experiences, and knowledge of social rules. They also apply their own expectations of plausible goals of the speaker and expectation of the kinds of utterances that are likely to take place in that particular context. They decide which information to focus attention on, for example, the location of an interaction rather than the hair color of the speaker. Choosing the most relevant information or
the “salience” of the proposition to “comprehend” was focused on later in the Relevance theory by Sperber and Wilson (1999).

Grice’s (1975) well known “conversational principles” that relate to the quality, quantity, relevance, and clarity of the utterances in discourse describe an ideal communication. Any disobedience of those rules by the speakers is proposed to spoil listeners’s comprehension just because this leads to the interpretation of indirect and implied meaning. As valuable as Grice’s well known theory in explaining how the listeners make sense out of texts, of importance to cite here is Sperber and Wilson’s Relevance Theory (1999). It sheds light on pragmatic comprehension process as it attempts to explain that the hearers opt out the most relevant proposition or interpretation of the utterances after analyzing the context. According to Sperber and Wilson, the listeners will search for the meaning in any communication setting until they find the one that fits their expectations and they will stop processing. Relevance Theory offers an in-depth analysis of how listeners decode meaning in communication and how their assumptions contribute to comprehension. The theory is based on two principles of relevance: a Cognitive Principle of Relevance that proposes human cognition selects the most relevant information or input which creates a Positive Cognitive Effect on him. The most important type of cognitive effect is contextual implication by which the input is evaluated. A Communicative Principle of Relevance basically states that utterances in communication create expectations of optimal relevance. Optimal relevance is established on the ostensive stimulus creating presumptions of relevance in certain contexts. (Wilson & Sperber, 2004). Relevance theory proposes that with least effort and greatest contextual effect or help an inferred meaning is optimally relevant to the topic. Taguchi (2002) from relevance theoretic perspective finds that L2 learners at two different proficiency levels made use of same inferencing strategies which can be predicted by Relevance Theory. In L2 comprehension the more advanced the group the more attention to the adjacency pairs, paralinguistic cues and motivational analysis of speakers intention is paid. The less proficient the listener, frequent inferences are made based on background knowledge and lexemes. Failure in pragma-linguistic knowledge in L2 comprehension has been recently reported to cause troubles in processing the incoming speech in several studies. For instance, Anderson & Lynch (2000) present lack of socio-cultural, factual and contextual knowledge of the target language as an obstacle to comprehension due to intercultural differences. Similarly, unfamiliarity with the topics in the texts as part of background knowledge is reported to make listening problematic for the listener as he is not able to relate this to his own background knowledge (Gebhard, 2000, Gilakjani & Ahmadi, 2011). Garcia’s (1999, 2004) study provides a valuable insight into developmental differences in the comprehension of pragmatic meaning in second language listening. Basing her hypotheses on the existing research showing that high-level learners have better comprehension of speech acts and conversational implicatures. She explores and discusses the relationship between comprehension of pragmatic meaning and linguistic meaning. Drawing a line between pragmatic knowledge and linguistic knowledge to comprehend meaning, she, but she theorizes learners show varying success depending on their ability levels. In line with Garcia’s perspective, as was done in the first study, the researcher in this study will basically focus on indirect speech acts and conversational implicatures resulting from the lack of one-to-one correspondence between the meaning of the utterances and their functions in context.

1.2. Indirect Speech Acts and Conversational Implicatures

Roughly definable as a mismatch between linguistic forms and their functions, Indirectness in language has interested many researchers. The issue of indirectness as it relates to speech acts was first unfolded by Austin (1973) who proposed that speech acts have a set of illocutionary forces. Austin’s (1976) “ the Locutionary Act” is the basic act of the utterance, producing a meaningful linguistic expression, which might be equated with literal meaning of the utterances. The “Perlocutionary Act” is the effect of an utterance with a function on the hearer, both of which are out of the scope of this research. Produced with an intention in mind “the Illocutionary Act” (Yule, 1996:48-49) refers to the indirect meaning of the utterances. An indirect speech act is a case where a speakers communicates to the listener more than he actually says, to Buck (ibid.). It is conventionalized or idiomatized for
conventional use according to Searle (1975 p.76). Certain forms are conventionally established as the standard idiomatic forms. They sometimes keep their literal meanings while they acquire conventional uses. Morgan(1975) takes a deeper look at indirect speech acts by stating that indirect speech acts develop in a three stage process in which an implicature (other than what is literally stated) is associated with the utterances. First an implicature is attached to an utterance whereby the meaning of an utterance plays a role in the calculation of the communicative force or function of the utterance. Later, that implicature is directly relates to a certain syntactic form. The pragmatic function is still calculatable and explicit. Lastly, the bond between the implicature and the meaning of the utterance is lost, which stands out as a difficulty particularly for foreign and second language learners (in Geis, 2006 pp. 122-125).

Blum-Kulka (1989 pp. 37-46) sorts out multi-dimensional roles of conventionality in indirectness in the target language that are very likely to affect aural comprehension of learners from different cultures. Different types of conventionality in indirectness may point out a significant source of troubles in the recognition and the production of speech acts particularly in spoken discourse in a particular language.

a. Conventions of Language or meaning conventions whereby meaning is specified contextually with sense and reference
b. Conversational principles as given by Grice (1975) through which the speakers are expected to follow so as to achieve a healthy communication and disobedience may cause indirectness.
c. Pragmalinguistic Conventions where particular languages may require specific conventions in producing certain speech. (Leech, 1983, p. 11).
d. Contextualized Conventions (Gumperz, 1982) where particular modes for conveying illocutions may carry specific meanings in given situations universally or in particular cultures.

Indirectness emerging out of conversational implicatures in discourse has been cited to be a challenging aspect in foreign or second language listening. Owing to culture specific nature of languages, Bouton (1988) pinpoints the presence of multiple interpretations of conversational implicatures by the members of different cultures that should be taken into account in teaching second languages. In a study where he compared native and non-native speakers' comprehension of implicatures in an US setting, he finds differences even in comprehension of native like proficient non-native speakers. Comprehension of conversational implicatures in L2 is found correlated with linguistic knowledge rather than cognitive processing skills by Taguchi (2009). He examined the extent to which pragmatic comprehension, namely accurate and speedy comprehension of conversational implicatures in L2, is related to cognitive processing skills and general listening abilities. Thirty-five Japanese students learning English as a second language completed five tasks: (1) a pragmatic listening test (PLT) that measured the ability to comprehend implied speakers' intentions, (2) a phonemic discrimination test, (3) a listening section of the institutional TOEFL, (4) a working memory test, and (5) a lexical access test that measured the ability to make speedy semantic judgment. The students' pragmatic comprehension was analyzed for accuracy (scores) and comprehension speed (time taken to answer items correctly). Results revealed a significant relationship between accuracy scores of the PLT and the TOEFL listening scores, but not with phonemic discrimination ability. Response time of pragmatic listening significantly correlated with the semantic access speed, but not with working memory.

Bouton (1994) examined whether successful understanding of implicatures hinges on the type of the implicature in a longitudinal study and found that not the type, but the idiosyncratic and culture specific content causes problems for the L2 learners. While the learners after 4 and a half years exposure to culture their understanding improved, those who stayed in the target culture for 17 months had remaining difficulties in indirect criticisms, sequence implicature, formulaic implicature, and irony, concluding that conversational implicatures should be taught explicitly as they are culture specific and conventional.
1.3. Formal Tertiary Teacher Training Education in Turkey: the case of Foreign Language Teachers

Formal education in this study refers to the compulsory period of tertiary teacher training education that follow a curriculum determined by the Turkish Higher Education Council (THEC) in the faculties of education to grow language teachers. In 1946, the main source of English language teachers was the school called Gazi Training Institute in Ankara, Turkey. Till 1962, training institutes for foreign language teachers had two or three year education. Later, in 1978, four year university level education was adopted to train language teachers, transforming them to Higher Teacher Schools. With the regulations by THEC in 1982, all teacher training institutions are changed into the universities principally to train teachers from a single source. This practice initiated a betterment process in teacher training despite several difficulties (Demirel, 1991 p.26).

Since 1997, academic term, a common program has been put into application to standardize the education in the Faculties of Education across the country. This new structure aimed to increase the quality in training pre-service teachers and to eliminate the gap between application and theory. In each department, new arrangements in the curriculum were made. In order to support these developments, a school-faculty cooperation was formed by THEC and Turkish Ministry of Education (TME) to improve the quality of instruction with a systematic and steady approach. A study of accreditation was initiated (THEC, 1999). Considering related research results and recommendations, after eight-year of implementation, THEC needed to make some additional changes to the program starting from the 2006-2007 academic year, another new program was put into practice.

English Language Teaching curriculum in the new program taken as formal instruction in this study evolves around the courses of three types which are literature, linguistics and language teaching, embracing both English and Turkish courses, but English courses are in the majority. ELT students receive advanced reading and writing courses in the first year of their study together with speaking, phonetics and grammar classes. In later years of their study they continue to receive content-based instruction where the course content is delivered in the target language such as English literature, linguistics, teaching methodology and language testing. They also receive courses like educational sciences in Turkish. Since the education integrates content and foreign language the evaluation measures both language ability and the subject knowledge of the students.

The important feature of the program being implemented was the special weight given to teaching profession classes. The program went into effect and went down well with the authorities in terms of vocational courses (Demirel, 1999; Uslu, 2002, Işık ). However, each section of this program was not reported to be equally successful in all areas and was observed to have caused commotions (Uslu, 2006). The curriculum was criticised because it contains teaching methodology courses that overweight content specific courses which must be taught for linguistic and pedagogical development of the teacher candidates in English Language Teaching Departments. For example, the courses “Teaching English to young Learners I/II; Language Skills I/II; Special Teaching Methods /II “ and Materials Evaluation, Development and Adaptation in the existing curriculum are very similar in content. Determining their content is left to the departments. When teacher candidates’ low linguistic proficiency levels before university education are taken into account, it is likely to say they are required to teach a language that they have not fully learned yet (Alagözülü, 2012). Research on the program indicates an inadequate instruction of field courses and those that aim teaching language skills (Demirel, 1991; Uslu 2002: 37; Maden Sakarya 2000: 45, Işık, 2008).

1.4. Aim

Pragmatic comprehension is multifaceted. Recognition and production of speech acts, implicit meaning, conversational implicatures and face threatening acts add up to form pragmatic competence. In this study, specifically, the degree to which the participants could recognize illocutionary force of speech acts and conversational implicatures are referred to as pragmatic competence. Taking linguistic proficiency as the linguistic knowledge of vocabulary and syntax, besides writing and
speaking performances, which are reported to be related to linguistic competence (Canale and Swain, 1983), the first part of this study was an attempt to find out the levels of aural pragmatic comprehension of pre service teachers in L2 before they get formal instruction and to what extent pragmatic comprehension is related to linguistic knowledge and oral and written performance. With a secondary and a longitudinal perspective, the present study explores if the existing formal language education has an effect on the improvement of the aural pragmatic aspect of linguistic knowledge. Thus, the first part of the study (Alagozlu and Büyüköztürk, 2009) focused on the extent to which the students recognize intended illocutionary force of speech acts. In the second part, we aim to explore the impact of the formal education on pragmatic knowledge at the university level, trying to answer the following:

- What are the pre-service teachers’ levels of recognition in intended illocutionary force of the speech acts and conversational implicatures, referred to as aural pragmatic comprehension in L2 listening, after about four-year formal instruction?
- Does pragmatic comprehension improve over time due to formal teacher training education they had at the department where they major English?

2. METHODOLOGY

2.1. Procedure

Using One Group Pretest-Posttest Research Design and considering the first measurement as a pretest in 2007 (Alagözü et al, 2009), in the second phase of the study conducted in the second half of 2010-2011 academic year, aural pragmatic comprehension levels of pre-service teachers are tested once more to compare their pragmatic improvement after three and a half years of formal instruction. The secondary measurement for the present study was made in the researcher’s office where each participant was tested one by one in a face to face manner. A speech act recognition device was prepared using the dialogues on the website http://language.chinadaily.com.cn/dialogue/more.html, the participants were instructed to read the questions in the test before listening to the first dialogue. After hearing the dialogue the first time, participants were given time to answer the first set of items. Then, the dialogue was played a second time, after which participants were given as much time as they needed to answer the remaining items related to that dialogue. This procedure of listening allowed for secondary exposure to the contexts where the speech acts were uttered. This might be thought to devalue the authenticity of the aural texts, yet we did not want that listening tasks cause stress for the participants (Garcia, 2004).

2.2. Participants

The present study was carried out three years after the first study in 2007 with the same group containing graduates of the preparatory school (11) and matriculates (11). In 2011, at the time of the second measurement, they were the senior students at the department who are about to complete their four year education. The aim was to find out if there was a difference in aural pragmatic levels after a period of formal instruction of four years at the faculty and to find out whether senior students improved through three years of formal instruction of several courses at the department. In the subsequent study, the same respondents are accessed. 22 seniors were recruited for the study.

2.3. Instrument

The instrument used in the second study tested aural comprehension using a similar speech act comprehension device. The instrument contained indirect speech acts as in the first study, but the scenarios were different. This new version multiple choice pragmatic comprehension test was developed based on the Everyday English dialogue sessions at http://language.chinadaily.com.cn/dialogue/more.html. (Appendix I). In a similar manner to the first study, each dialogue was first elaborated in terms of speech acts and conversational implicatures. The
same set of speech acts and conversational implicatures were included into the test (see Alagozlu et al., 2009 and Appendix IV). Of the dialogues, all were conversations between two close friends; (office mates, roommates, classmates) (see Appendix II). An indirect speech act analysis was made for each dialogue. Literal meaning were not questioned. In the multiple choice test, what the speaker was trying to do was asked and the participants were required to select from among four speech act choices. (see Appendix IV). As in the first study, the participants were not instructed in the definitions of these speech act types; they were asked to perform the task based on their own aural understanding.

The instrument was later used as a post-test to measure pragmatic comprehension levels of the respondents to be taken as the effect of or the improvement due to four year formal instruction at the university.

3. DATA ANALYSIS and RESULTS

In the first measurement in 2007, as the scores of those who completed the preparatory year and passed the exemption exam were not significantly different from the scores of those who achieved the exam without attending the preparatory year and started their first year in the department (Alagözü & Büyüköztürk, 2009 p. 88), preparatory school attendants and matriculates were considered to be a single group and tested together (N=22). A “Paired Sample T-test” was used to compare the means of the test scores of the same group: the pragmatic scores obtained in 2007 and those in 2011. We compared the mean test scores before (in 2007) and after (in 2011) the participants completed their formal university education. The post-test mean scores were higher than the pre-tests scores (SACTS07=5.6818; SACTS11=6.5455). This means that the students scored better in recognizing indirect speech acts and conversational implicatures in listening. However, there was not a statistical difference between two test scores (p>0.05). Additionally, test scores were not found correlated with each other (p>0.01), which shows participants who did well in the first test did not do well in the second.

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4. CONCLUSION

Bringing inadequate instruction of pragma-linguistic knowledge to the fore and grounding on a part of a preliminary study that measured the recognition of illocutionary speech acts and conversational implicatures as aural pragmatic comprehension, the present study is once again centred upon pragma-linguistic aspects of listening comprehension in Turkey setting by taking a longitudinal perspective. Presupposing aural pragmatic comprehension is neglected in language education particularly in training language teachers, in this subsequent study to Alagözü and Büyükoztürk (2009), the levels of student teachers’ pragmatic recognition as related to indirect speech acts and
Conversational implicatures were measured after seven academic terms of formal tertiary education to see any improvement in their aural pragmatic comprehension levels. As the means of pragmatic test scores measured in 2011 were slightly higher compared to the first measurement in 2007, it may be evaluated that the rise in aural pragmatic comprehension scores must be taken into account as any minimal effect is better than none. Nevertheless, insignificant statistical difference between the two groups seem to that pre-service teachers have not been properly trained to improve their aural pragmatic skills.

Research on aural comprehension processes suggests a correlation between comprehension of indirect meaning in the form of indirect speech acts or conversational implicatures and proficiency levels of the learners. Higher level learners are reported to be better in pragmatic comprehension (Bouton, 1988, 1994; Taguchi, 2002, 2009; Garcia, 2004). Rather than cognitive processing skills, it has been pinpointed that knowledge about conventionality of speech acts and conversational implicatures play a role in accurate comprehension due to the idiosyncratic nature of indirect speech acts and conversational implicatures. For several researchers (Bouton, 1994; Taguchi, 2002), conventionality of indirect meaning requires explicit instruction. Therefore, a collaborative departmental and institutional intervention as well as THEC level initiative can help repair this shortcoming in language teaching programs in Turkey. For a deliberate plan of action, a conscious step should be taken to make appropriate changes in the determination of courses, course content, textbooks and methodological strategies to build up pragmatic comprehension and production skills to drive up their pragmatic awareness along with their pragmatic comprehension and production. Secondly, as more proficient learners are better at interpreting indirect meaning, this study also points out the necessity to hoist linguistic levels of pre-service teachers in the existing system.

The results of the present study primarily imply a negligence in English language teacher training in Turkey that have effects on the quality of language teaching, which indicates a need for a revised and elaborated curriculum for English language teaching programs. Though limited to aural pragmatic comprehension, this study signals a redundancy in pragmatic instruction in training pre-service English language teachers after four year tertiary education. This directly concerns the efficacy and the quality problems of the teachers and the related education despite content courses like target literature, educational sciences and intense language instruction. As pre-service language teachers appear to lack necessary pragmatic skills, they may have difficulties to teach pragmatic use of language them to students at schools. This partly explains the fact that Turkish students lag far behind in foreign language learning compared to other world countries.

Such redundancy in pragmatic instruction seems to be caused by the following flaws in the existing language teacher training curriculum in Turkey. Only when they are thought over or repaired can pre-service teachers get maximum benefit from their education:

- Lack of exposure to real life settings where student teachers can experience and use language for communication since they are trained in sterile environments where English is only used in the textbooks. Language instruction is text-dependent. Caused by the exposure to mainly formal language in the textbooks, the production and comprehension of speech acts by foreign language learners are different from those of native speakers. Elaborating formal language does not teach much about speech acts in general indirect or direct. Caused by the exposure to mainly formal language in the textbooks or the use of different meta cognitive strategies, the production of speech acts by foreign language learners are different from native speakers. Pre-service teachers are weak in the production of speech acts (Olstein and Cohen, 1991), in the same sense, our study may imply that language teachers in Turkish setting, cannot use English effectively in the classrooms to communicate and to teach with it as their language education does not allow them to do so. This kind of text-dependency might be eliminated by achieving a balanced distribution of courses involving the improvement of all language skills in the curriculum with educational decisions to be taken either by the departments or higher institutions. Instructional programs must expand their perspective on pragmatic skills to include listening in addition to other three language skills.
• Teaching methodology courses overweighing content specific courses in language teaching departments lead to a problem of getting lost in too much language teaching practice before pre service teachers are not properly taught the target language.

• A self repeating curriculum where most course content overlaps or does not have very well defined course objectives despite all efforts of the THEC. A curriculum and materials meeting pragmatic language requirements of Turkish learners may help Turkish learners relieve of the hegemonia of formal textbooks and materials to provide top quality pre service training for high calibre language teachers.

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5. REFERENCES
sözcülemleri ve konuşma sezdirilerini içeren dinleme edimsel analam seviyelerinde ön test ve son test sonuçları arasında istatistiksel olarak anlamlı bir farklılık (p=0,05) bulunmadığını göstermiştir.


- Genel olarak edimsel dil kullanımının açıkça öğretilmemesi veya vurgulanamaması temel sıkıntıdır.
- Hedef dilin kullanılıldığı ortamlarda öğretmen adaylarının çok fazla dahi edilmişimsel önemli bir sorun olarak karşımasına çıkılmaktadır. Dil öğretmeni bu çok kitaplarla da yazılı metinlere birakılmaktadır ve bura tür kaynaklardaki dil konuşması dili en az seviyede yansittığı için, edimsel dil kullanımını yeterince öğretmenmekteydirt. Dolayısıyla sözcülemler ve konuşma sezdirileri gibi doğal bir unsurlar dolu dilsel testler hedef dilde iletişimde sorun oluşmuşturmaktadır.

Sonuç olarak öğretmen adayları metinlerle dil öğretiminin hüküm sürdüğündan kurtarmak ve onları dilsel öğrenme lehine tanıyabilecekleri ortamlara yönlendirmek Türkiye de yabancı dil öğretmeni ve daha donanımlı dil öğretmeni yetiştirme amaçlı derslere oranla daha fazla zorlu olacaktır.

**APPENDIX 1 - SAMPLE DIALOGUES IN THE PRE-TEST**

**TALK 1 :: HONESTY (Session 4, Dialogue)**
Kate: How are things going with you and your roommate?
Bill: Not very well. We're supposed to share the groceries, but I end up feeding him three meals a day. My grocery bill is huge, you know. I really can't afford it any longer.
Kate: I know how you feel. I used to have a roommate like that. He never offered to reimburse me for anything.
Bill: Not very well. We're supposed to share the groceries, but I end up feeding him three meals a day. My grocery bill is huge, you know. I really can't afford it any longer.

**TALK 2 :: HEALTH (Session 5, Dialogue)**
John: I think I'm running a temperature. My head is spinning, my mouth feels like cotton, and I have a scratchy throat.
Jane: Let me see. Hmm, you'd better stay at home today. And don't work on the computer! Staying up late with that thing has obviously played havoc with your health.
John: I can't help it. I guess I'm addicted to the Internet.
Jane: If you want to keep yourself in good shape, you'd better quit surfing the Net deep into the night. I don't want you kicking the bucket!

**TALK 3 :: SHOPPING (Session 7, Dialogue)**
Gregory: Hi, can I help you?
Nicole: No, thanks. I'm just looking.
Gregory: All right. If you need any help, just let me know. My name is Greg.
Nicole: Sure. I'll let you know if I need anything. (A king-size mattress attracts Karen.) Hm, this mattress is very firm. Jack will probably like it.
Gregory: Did you find something you like?
Nicole: Yes, this mattress is very good. It's pretty firm. The mattress I'm now sleeping on is saggy.
Gregory: You're right. This is a very good brand. It doesn't sag easily. And we offer a life-time warranty, so you don't have to worry about its quality.
Nicole: Does it come with a frame?
Gregory: Unfortunately, it doesn't. However, we can give you a ten percent discount on the frame. We also offer a very good financing plan. There's no payment, no interest until next June.
Nicole: That's an attractive plan. I'll think about it.
Gregory: Well, you've got to hurry. This mattress sells pretty well. This promotion ends tomorrow.

TALK 4 :: BREAKING UP (Session 11, Dialogue)
Tim: Hi, Mike. Haven't seen you for a while? How is Cathy?
Michael: We're not seeing each other any more.
Tim: What happened? Did you break up?
Michael: Yeah. I got sick and tired of her nagging all the time.
Tim: Oh, I'm sorry. Maybe, you were just emotional at that moment. Do you think you guys can get back together?
Michael: I don't know. There's plenty of fish out there in the sea.
Tim: Oh, you're such a dog!

APPENDIX II - SPEECH ACT RECOGNITION DEVICE

1 :: COMMUNICATION (Session 1, Dialogue)
Bob says “Maybe he ought to get another line.” He is
a. Advising /suggesting
b. offering
c. complaining
d. requesting

2:: ORDERING (Session 2, Dialogue)
Liz says Liz: Yes. I'll have some salad, roast beef, and mashed potatoes.
What is she doing ?
 a. Requesting
b. Ordering
c. Correcting
d. Offering

3:: HONESTY (Session 4, Dialogue)
Bill says “I really can't afford it any longer.”
He is
a. complaining
b. explaining
c. making a statement (stating that he can’t afford)
d. making a promise

4:: HONESTY (Session 4, Dialogue)
Kate says “Maybe you just want to have a heart-to-heart, friend-to-friend talk with him. If he refuses to mend his ways, then ask him to move out”.
She is
a. convincing
b. advising
c. warning
d. requesting

5 :: HEALTH (Session 5, Dialogue)
Jane says “Staying up late with that thing has obviously played havoc with your health.”
a. warning
b. convincing
c. advising
d. requesting

6:: EATING OUT (Session 10, Dialogue)
Michael says “I wish you wanted to relax everyday”
He means
a. he simply wants him to get relaxed
b. he requests him to get relaxed
c. he suggests him to get relaxed
d. he wishes to be offered a meal once again.

7:: BREAKING UP (Session 11, Dialogue)
Tim says “you're such a dog!”
He is
a. complaining
b. kidding
c. insulting
d. warning

8:: BREAKING UP (Session 11, Dialogue)
Michael says “There's plenty of fish out there in the sea.”
He means
a. He simply states there is a lot of fish in the sea.
b. He means there are others to make friends
c. He requests her to cook fish

d. He complains about the fish in the sea.

9. :: BREAKING UP (Session 11, Dialogue)
Michael says, "I got sick and tired of her nagging all the time."

a. Complaining
b. Correcting
c. Suggesting
d. Protesting

10. :: SHOPPING (Session 7, Dialogue)
Gregory says, "Well, you've got to hurry. This mattress sells pretty well. This promotion ends tomorrow.

a. Convincing
b. Requesting
c. Warning
d. Offering

APPENDIX III – SAMPLE DIALOGUES IN THE POST TEST

Dialogue I
A: "I don't know. I just feel like I've got to get away. This place is too small for me. I feel like there's so much of the world I haven't seen."
B: "But you've been travelling all your life. Aren't you tired of it yet?"
A: "No, not at all. I've always had itchy feet. And once you give in to the urge, the desire to move just gets worse and worse. I can't stay in one place for more than two years before I'm off again."
B: "Aren't you ever going to settle?"
A: "Who knows. Perhaps if I find a place I really like. But you know, the grass is always greener on the other side. I'll think one place is wonderful and want to stay there, but before long I'm thinking about somewhere else and the place I'm in just seems dull. So I move."

Dialogue 2
A: "What happened to you last night? We waited but you didn't show up."
B: "The police took my family's dog because I didn't have a license for it. I had to spend the whole night looking for a new dog that looked to the same as the old one."
A: "Really? That's crazy."
B: "Look, could you keep this on the down-low? My parents loved the old dog. I don't want them to hear I bought a new one."

Dialogue 3
A: "Things have changed since we were young. He's become a real fat cat, drives a limousine, drinks the best whiskey, hangs out with the big wigs, the top brass. I'm just a small fry compared to him. We don't see each other at all."
B: "But surely he hasn't changed that much. He never used to care a jot for money or status."
A: "That was when we were students. That's what you're supposed to think when you're a student. Things just change as you get older."
B: "But you haven't."
A: "I just never made it, that's all. To be honest, I wouldn't mind living the high life for a while."

Dialogue 4
A: "This whole situation is completely messed up, I don't know how to deal with it at all."
B: "Don't worry. Worrying only makes things worse."
A: "But what am I going to do?"
B: "Deal with it."
A: "You're a lot of help. What kind of advice is "deal with it"?"

APPENDIX IV - SPEECH ACT RECOGNITION DEVICE II

Dialogue 1
1. At the end of the dialogue, "I've always had itchy feet". S/he is
   a. stating she is that sort of person
   b. criticizing
   c. complaining
   d. requesting

Dialogue 2
2. At the end of the dialogue, one speaker says "could you keep this on the down-low?" He is
   a. suggesting
   b. offering
   c. complaining
   d. requesting

Dialogue 3
3. One speaker says “I'm just a small fry compared to him.” He is
   a. complaining
   b. kidding
   c. insulting
   d. stating he is a fry.
4. At the beginning of the dialogue, the speaker says “Don’t worry. Worrying only makes things worse.” s/he is
   a. offering
   b. advising
   c. complaining
   d. disagreeing

Dialogue 4
5. At the end of the dialogue, one of the speaker says “You’re a lot of help” S’he is
   a. kidding
   b. offering
   c. complaining
   d. disagreeing

Dialogue 5
6. In the dialogue, one of the speaker says “You’re looking bright eyed and bushy tailed.” S/he is
   a. criticizing
   b. stating that s/he is so
   c. complimenting
   d. disagreeing

Dialogue 6
7. The last speaker says “Oh I’ll survive” she is
   a. stating that she will survive
   b. disagreeing
   c. complaining
   d. refusing

Dialogue 7
8. One of the speakers says “It will get easier once you’ve learnt the ropes I should think” She is
   a. convincing
   b. advising
   c. warning
   d. disagreeing

Dialogue 8
9. In the dialogue, one of the speakers says “Why do you always speak using cliches?” She is
   a. convincing
   b. requesting
   c. warning
   d. disagreeing

10. In the same dialogue, one of the speakers says “What goes up must come down” She is
    a. disagreeing
    b. complimenting
    c. warning
    d. relaxing