In the Name of God

The Beneficient, The Merciful

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Exploring Teachers' Techniques of Raising EFL Learners' Pragmatic Knowledge:

A Grounded Theory

By: Rojin Aryan-Majd

Supervisor:

Dr. Seyyed Ali Ostovar- Namaghi

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Exploring teachers' Techniques of raising EFL Learners' Pragmatic Knowledge

که در تاریخ ۹۷/۱۱/۸ با حضور هیأت محترم داوران در دانشگاه صنعتی شاهرود برگزار گردید به شرح ذیل اعلام می گردد:

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تبصره: در صورتی که کسی مردود شود حداکثر یکبار دیگر ... پایان نامه خود دفاع نماید (دفاع مجدد نباید زودتر از ۴ ماه برگزار شود).

Dedication

This dissertation is dedicated to my supportive parents and my dearest grandma who have always encouraged me to succeed in all fileds. To my mom, for showing me the real meaning of love, for believeing in me and for dedicating her whole life to make me who I am. Love you three!

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Abstract

In many EFL contexts, including language education in Iran, pragmatic knowledge is usually ignored since language schools and teachers mainly focus on grammatical awareness. Taking the detrimental effect of pragmatic failure which may cause learners to miss key points that are being communicated or to have their messages misunderstood into account, some teachers foreground pragmatic awareness and try to raise their learners' awareness early on. To give voice to the experiences and techniques they use, this qualitative study interviewed twelve teachers who were willing to share their experience with the researcher. In line with grounded theory, the iterative process of data collection and analysis continued until the conceptualization of raising learners' pragmatic knowledge techniques was saturated. Analysis revealed six techniques, which reflect the participants' professional beliefs. The techniques emerged are giving real situation examples, using movies and TV series, using sarcasm and humor, using body expressions and tone of voice, differentiating formal and informal speech and differentiating direct and indirect speech act. The study has clear implications for practitioners and teacher educators.

Key words: Techniques, pragmatic awareness-raising, qualitative study.

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Chapter One:
Introduction

1.1. Overview

Despite the fact that most of EFL teachers in Iran are linguistically competent and they do use correct grammatical forms, they are not pragmatically competent and even the ones who are pragmatically competent, are weak in transferring their pragmatic knowledge and raising their learners' pragmatic knowledge. Consequently, learners have lots of problems in understanding and in using appropriate speech acts and they cannot differentiate between what is said and what is meant in EFL contexts. This problem is the result of the wrong supposition of some of EFL teachers that they think if they use the correct and appropriate forms in different situations and contexts, their learners will learn and use it as well. In fact, they hide their incompetency in verbalizing their pragmatic knowledge and in teaching techniques they use. All in all, we need to find the effective teaching pragmatic techniques. Therefore, in spite the fact that EFL teachers spend most of their time on teaching and explaining grammatical rules and linguistic forms which ends in developing linguistically competent learners, they forget about teaching pragmatics explicitly, so they have pragmatically incompetent learners. The end of this study is to uncover teachers' techniques of raising EFL learners' pragmatic knowledge. This study is supposed to have applications for syllabus designers since the findings clearly will show the techniques of raising pragmatic awareness used by famous teachers and emphasizes that they should not forget about pragmatic knowledge at the cost of language competence. It also will be beneficial for language teachers since the results will give them some practical techniques for teaching L2 pragmatics. It is claimed to be fruitful for supervisors since the conceptualization of teachers' perspective will give them sufficient criteria for judging teachers while observing.

1.2. Statement of the Problem

Knowing how to teach pragmatic knowledge and raising students' awareness is drastically different from having the knowledge and applying it in everyday interactions. Consequently, learners have lots of problems in understanding and also in using appropriate speech acts and they cannot differentiate between what is said and what is meant in EFL contexts. This problem is the result of the wrong supposition of some of EFL teachers that think if they use the correct and appropriate forms in different situations and contexts, their learners will learn and use them as well. In fact, they hide their incompetency in verbalizing their knowledge. So, we are in need of teachers who raise their students' pragmatic knowledge. In other words, EFL teachers who teach pragmatic knowledge explicitly, and have the ability to evaluate the techniques in teaching pragmatics they employ are required and we need to find the effective strategies.

Therefore, in spite of the fact that EFL teachers spend most of their time on teaching grammar rules and linguistic forms and explaining them and trying to develop linguistically competent learners, they forget about raising learners' pragmatic knowledge.

1.3. Purpose of the Study

Having pragmatic knowledge in several contexts is crucial for both teachers and students. Therefore, it is essential for teachers to have explicit knowledge of cultural, social and contextual differences between the first and second language in order to help raise their learners' pragmatic knowledge. The goal of this research is to unearth techniques which teachers use for raising EFL learners' pragmatic awareness. To this end, the following question directs the study to achieve its goal.

- What techniques do EFL teachers use to raise English language learners' pragmatic knowledge?

1.4. Limitations of the Study

Although there are many people who have mastered English language through living in English-speaking countries and they have acquired their teaching skills as well through attending English language teaching courses there, the researcher of this study was not able to get access to such cases. There can be different techniques which are employed by such cases in raising learner's pragmatic knowledge; however, this study only uncovers the applied techniques by those who have acquired the foreign language in academic contexts in Iran through language teaching courses rather than learning the language in real situation. In addition, this study was held just in Mashhad province, while teachers in other cities may have other perspectives towards the issue. Therefore, this study is not information rich enough to achieve to its main purpose because of consisting only the non-native EFL teachers to get the meanings out of their experiences.

1.5. Delimitations of the Study

To narrow down the existed limitation, the researcher attempts to uncover as much as possible techniques by only the people who have raised their students' pragmatic knowledge through watching movies, reading books, and attending language teaching courses. To this end, experiences through which the researcher can uncover are techniques which are restricted to the cases who are non-native EFL teachers. So, the uncovered techniques are mostly applicable for the people who are also non-native in English language the same as the participants. Also, the teacher participants were selected from different language schools in different regions to lessen the effect of place of living. Consequently, the purpose of the study is narrowed down to identify and uncover techniques leading to raising pragmatic knowledge which are applied by the successful teacher participants who have acquired the knowledge in non-real situation and academic contexts.

1.6. Ethical Issues

For researches whose subjects are human being, ethical issues should be taken into account. There are some guidelines for practice to ensure that participants in research projects are protected from harm and are not deceived. To do so, qualitative grounded theory researcher must carefully consider how to treat the identities of participants. First, by protecting their privacy (identities, names, and specific roles) and holding in confidence what they share with the researcher (not sharing it with others using their names). Second, by gaining the informed consent of participants. According to Rallis and Rossman (2009) there are four basic ethical principles underlying informed consent:

- Participants are as fully informed as possible about the study's purpose and audience.
- They understand what their agreement to participate entails.

- They give that consent willingly.
- They understand that they may withdraw from the study at any time without prejudice. (p. 276)

1.7. Implications

This study is supposed to have clear implications since the relationship between theory and practice is bilateral, in other words; language teaching is no longer in its infancy to be totally dependent on theories. We believe that conceptualization of teachers' perspectives and techniques concerning raising EFL learners' pragmatic knowledge will show that data driven studies should be taken seriously since they complement theory driven studies. This qualitative grounded theory study as an example of data driven studies can help theorists by presenting teachers' experiences and techniques hints to them to broaden the scope of their studies or modify their grand theories.

1.8. Applications

The end of this study is to uncover teachers' techniques of raising pragmatics knowledge of EFL learners. This study is supposed to have applications for, syllabus designers since the findings clearly will show that they should not forget about pragmatic knowledge at the cost of language competence. It also will be beneficial for language teachers since the results will give them some practical techniques for teaching L2 pragmatics. It is claimed to be fruitful for supervisors since the conceptualization of teachers' perspective will give them sufficient criteria for judging teachers while observing.

Chapter Two:

Review of the Related Literature

2.1. Overview

This study is an attempt to unearth techniques of raising pragmatic awareness of EFL learners used by EFL teachers in language schools. Consequently, in the course of this chapter the related literature is reviewed based on two sections, theoretical perspectives and empirical findings. In the first section, theories on the account of pragmatic competence, interlanguage pragmatics and raising pragmatic awareness are the matter of discussion. In the following section the empirical findings of published papers are presented on the grounds of interlanguage pragmatics, interlanguage pragmatic awareness and pragmatic awareness in teachers' education.

2.2. Theoretical Perspectives

To pave the way for presenting a clear picture of raising pragmatic knowledge of EFL learners, the theoretical perspectives regarding pragmatic competence, interlanguage pragmatics and raising pragmatic awareness will be analyzed.

2.2.1. Pragmatic Competence

Having knowledge of pragmatics is an end for most of EFL learners in order to communicate naturally and appropriately with the natives of other languages who has different cultures as well. There are some definitions that are now used to refer to pragmatics. Crystal (1997) defines pragmatics as, "the study of language from the point of view of users, especially of the choices they make, the constraints they encounter in using language in social interaction and the effects their use of language has on other participants in the act of communication" (p. 301). Also, Mey (2001) points out that "pragmatics studies the use of language in human communication as determined by the conditions of society." (p. 6). In simpler words, Bardovi-Harlig (2013) states that "pragmatics is the study of how-to-say-what-to-whom-when and that L2 pragmatics is the study of how learners come to know how-to-say-what-to-whom-when" (p. 68-69).

Being pragmatically competent is considered as a subpart of communicative competence. There are several complementary views in the light of the notion of pragmatic competence (e.g., Kasper, 1997; Rose, 1999; Bachman & Palmer, 2010; Canale, 1983). According to Kasper (1997), pragmatic competence is considered as a complementary part of communicative competence and it is not an extra aspect added to linguistic competence. Rose (1999) defines pragmatic competence as a sort of knowledge interlocutors try to use existing linguistic knowledge in a form appropriate to the context. Kasper (1997) names two features of pragmatic competence and distinguished them from these definitions of pragmatic competence and bring the concepts of pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics. Bachman and Palmer (2010) define the new concepts as, pragmalinguistics and they believe that it refers to a number of "strategies like directness and indirectness, routines, and a large range of linguistic forms which can intensify or soften communicative acts" and sociopragmatics is a collection of "conventions that determine the appropriate use of genres, dialects or varieties, registers, natural or idiomatic expressions, cultural references, and figures of speech" (p. 47).

There are some opposing views underpinning linguistic knowledge and pragmatic knowledge. In the field of Second Language Acquisition (SLA), the pragmatic concept has been implemented in a series of models (Bachman, 1990; Bachman & Palmer, 1996, 2010; Celce-Murcia, Dornyei & Thurrell, 1995). These models propose that developing pragmatic competence is an absolute necessity in improving learners' communicative language ability in L2. Bachman and Palmer's (1996, 2010) believed that framework of language knowledge consists of organizational knowledge and pragmatic knowledge. To be pragmatically competent, therefore, requires the mastery of both pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic knowledge as well as the intricate connections between them. To be stated more clearly, one needs to know which form to use in a particular context of communication in order to appropriately convey intended function, that is, the form-function-context mappings.

On the other hand, some scholars (Taguchi, 2011; Trim, 2005) believe that knowledge of form and knowledge of function are separated. Taguchi (2011) mentioned that organizational knowledge in this framework deals with formal aspects of language, while pragmatic knowledge involves language use in connection with language users and language use settings. The pragmatic strategies which people use in order to reach their communicative goals in everyday communication is particularly difficult since it requires the contextualization of language use. Trim (2005) had the same view and asserted that the linguistic competences, like knowledge of the language system in its lexical, grammatical, semantic and phonological dimensions and skill in its use are at the heart of language use and language learning, while other communicative language competences, like the sociolinguistic and pragmatic competences, can be developed by adopting a pragmatic awareness approach to teaching. He elaborated on the differences of sociolinguistic and pragmatic competence; sociolinguistic competences as the speakers' knowledge of the appropriate use of language in different social situations, consisting markers of social relations, politeness conventions, and register differences, unlike the pragmatic competences are connected with the speakers' ability to convey meaningful and reasonable discourse in different communicative situations.

According to the discussion of Bardovi-Harlig, Hartford, Mahan-Taylor, Morgan, and Reynolds (1991) on the importance of pragmatic competence, the emphasis has been put on its role in negotiating meaning among speakers; and it is noticed that a lack of pragmatic knowledge was the cause which leads the speakers towards "the risk of appearing uncooperative at the least, or, more seriously, rude or insulting. This is particularly true of advanced learners whose high linguistic proficiency lead other speakers to expect concomitantly high pragmatic competence" (p. 324). Also, Schauer (2009) adds that "it emphasizes that both production and comprehension are part of language learners' pragmatic competence in their L2. Thus, second/foreign language learners do not only have to be able to produce utterances that are regarded as contextually appropriate by their target audience, they also have to be aware of what constitutes appropriate linguistic behavior in a variety of social situations in their L2." (p. 15). So, he believes in being a link between culture and pragmatic competence in a second or foreign language.

2.2.2. Interlanguage Pragmatics

Interlanguage Pragmatics (ILP) is originated from both interlanguage studies, which are related to area of second language acquisition research, and pragmatics, as Schauer (2009) believed. Put it differently, the origin of ILP comes from pragmatics theory and develops in L2 instruction and research in the 1970s. Kasper and Rose (2002) identified ILP's interdisciplinary nature as "the study of second language use, interlanguage pragmatics examines how nonnative speakers comprehend and produce action in a target language. As the study of second language learning, interlanguage pragmatics investigates how L2 learners develop the ability to understand and perform action in a target language." (p. 5). It examines nonnative speaker's ability in encoding and decoding meaning in their L2 by using pragmatic theories and frameworks. By the same token, Bardovi-Harlig (2013) pointed that interlanguage pragmatics can be defined if we expand the term "users" in Crystal's (1997) definition in order to include non-native speakers. Also, Kasper and Dahl (1991) defined interlanguage pragmatics as one of pragmatics subfields which refers to nonnative speakers and said that interlanguage pragmatics is based on “comprehension and production of speech acts and how their L2 related speech act knowledge is required” and also consisting of “conversational management, discourse organization, or sociolinguistic aspects of language use such as choice of address terms” (p. 216).

There are some theorists who has mentioned some features of traditional interlanguage pragmatics. (e.g., Bardovi-Harlig, 1999, 2010a, 2010b, 2013; Beebe & Giles, 1984). According to Bardovi-Harlig (2010a, 2010b, 2013), traditional interlanguage pragmatics practice has been identified linguistic forms and semantic differences that convey illocutionary force in a particular language, and has been compared these with learners’ forms in order to determine a learner’s level of pragmatic competence. Beebe and Giles (1984) believed that ILP have its origins in social psychology, that is accommodation theory, this can be useful in explaining speakers’ linguistic variability in social contexts. The speech accommodation theory takes both cognitive and affective variables into account in explicating learners’ linguistic behavior in relation to their identity. As they assert this framework guarantees that learners’ social characteristics alone would not determine their speech behavior.

2.2.3. Raising Pragmatic Awareness

After reviewing the related literature, the researcher has come across with some phrases which have the same meaning and all of them refer to the same concept, such as pragmatic awareness (e.g., Bardovi-Harlig & Dornyei, 1998; Garcia, 2004), pragmatic comprehension (e.g., Van Dijk, 1977; Kasper, 1984; Taguchi, 2008a) and receptive pragmatic competence (e.g., Rinnert, Nogami & Iwai, 2006). These terms have been used to address the addressee’s ability to correctly interpret speakers’ intended meaning. Van Dijk (1977) holds the opinion that analyzing the context in which the interaction happened, helps us to understand each other’s intention correctly when communicating. Kasper (1984) sums up Van Dijk’s five phases of contextual analysis as follows;

1) The identification of the general social context (formal/informal, public/ private);
2) The identification of the specific social context (e.g. opening a formal meeting, introducing somebody at a party);

3) The identification of the relevant factors in the given context, for example, participants' social status, their positional and situational roles, and their role relationship;

4) The identification of conventions (social norms) pertaining to the given context; and

5) The identification of the overall ongoing action and the sequence of acts preceding the speech act under comprehension. (p. 4-5)

The pragmatic awareness is considered as one of the essential aspects of communicative competence which makes the tasks harder for learners in EFL contexts now due to the limited sources of target language in contexts. Cohen (2014) states that all efforts which teachers can make for the pragmatic awareness is to develop the pragmatic ability in the target language. On the one hand, it is the ability to negotiate what is meant which is beyond the literal meaning and deals with assumptions. The importance of it in interactions has always been a vital aspect in language classes. However, the recent thought about pragmatics has changed to an interest in pragmatics in language teaching or training in practical manner instead of mere theory (Sachtleben & Denny, 2012).

Furthermore, Bardovi-Harlig (1999) said that since pragmatic awareness is complicated in its own nature comparing to other components of language like grammar, special attention is needed to enhance pragmatic awareness and use of it in the classroom. She mentioned that, teaching pragmatics is challenging for both, native and nonnative speakers in different speech acts in the same situation in terms of pattern, form, semantic formula, and content and concluded that, this may be somehow the impact of their L1 and a lack of sufficient and appropriate amount of available linguistic input. In other words, although language learners inherently possess some sort of pragmatic competence due to universal pragmatic rules and transfer from L1, they are reluctant to apply their knowledge in L2 context (Bardovi-Harlig, 1999; Kasper, 1997). Therefore, pragmatics instruction is a necessity for L2 learners in order to developing their capability for using and interpreting contextually appropriate language functions. Moreover, Yates (2004) notices that having pragmatic awareness is dependent on having the knowledge and competence of both socio-pragmatic norms and pragma-linguistic norms of the language which are inevitable.

As the importance of being aware of what you are learning and teaching, that is explicit knowledge and explicit teaching, came to discussion, some scholars bring the notion of noticing and complete each other's perspectives (e.g., Schmidt, 1990; Rose, 2005; Bulut, 2009). Schmidt (1990) presented the concept of noticing under the title of noticing hypothesis. He believed that noticing target features is a necessary condition for SLA to occur, since a defining feature of explicit instruction is the provision of raising pragmatic information to learners. Similarly, Rose (2005) believed that learners are guaranteed to notice target pragmatic features in this instructional condition. Subsequently, she added, since metapragmatic information is hidden in implicit instructional condition, learners need to discover pragmatic rules by themselves; they may not always be successful in doing so. Moreover, although noticing target pragmatic features is crucial for L2 pragmatic development, this process remains only the very first step toward a full mastery of target pragmatic features. Bulut (2009) has the same view and asserts that, the first step in developing learners' pragmatic competence is awareness. The rationale behind this view is consistent with Schmidt's (1993) noticing hypothesis as previously mentioned. Meanwhile, the general absence of discussion issuing explicit knowledge in L2 pragmatics research makes it important to notice that, according to (Bardovi-Harlig, 2012b; Ellis, 2004) tasks which commonly used in pragmatics research may activate explicit knowledge. Ellis (2004) asserted that, "L2 researchers have not specifically set out to investigate explicit knowledge of L2 pragmatic features. However, many of the instruments that have been used to investigate learners' knowledge of illocutionary acts, such as the discourse completion questionnaire (Kasper & Dahl, 1991), are arguably more likely to tap explicit than implicit knowledge." (pp. 243–244)

In order to have learners who have explicit pragmatic knowledge, some researchers believed that we should educate our future teachers and arm them with all the information and skills. According to Tomlinson (1994), to make learners aware of pragmatics and language appropriate use in foreign or second language, it is necessary to develop teachers with this competence in the education of language teachers. Put it another way, we should make explicit what teacher students know implicitly about language components and system and the rules of language use is of high importance in language teachers' education. Knowing how language resources is used to attain different communicative goals in both spoken and written communication is essential for future language teachers, since it helps them improve their communicative language competences and empowers them to realize how they can teach to help their students acquire the language more effectively and successfully. In line with Tomlinson's (1994) idea, Cohen and Ishihara (2014) stated that teachers themselves have to notice their socio-pragmatic knowledge and added that teachers' knowledge and beliefs are considered as ever-changing system that will be modified easily in relation to, for example, teachers' professional development and experience. Since various events happen at the same time and at various and different levels in the classroom, much of teachers' knowledge of their own teaching may remain below the level of consciousness. Cohen and Ishihara (2014) added that "Their beliefs may be an outgrowth of this implicit knowledge or may be traceable to experiences they have had in their own learning or teaching decades ago. Because teachers' experience may have occurred unconsciously or subconsciously or may be buried deeply in the past, their knowledge and beliefs may not be easily articulated." (p. 29).

Tomlinson (1994) holds the opinion that the pragmatic awareness approach to teaching concerns with developing a gradual awareness of the mismatch between the EFL learners' performance and that of proficient users of the language, namely native speakers of English; therefore, this will help learners to overcome and identify the problematic features of appropriate use of language and will facilitate acquiring it. According to Povolna (2010) "the access to data representing authentic discourse and meaningful interaction in the target language can foster the learners' gradual development of pragmatic awareness and thus contribute to the learners' independence and promotion of their skills in generalizing and evaluating not only their own language performance, but also that of other speakers (e.g. their students), which is essential for their work as (future) teachers." (p. 149)

Teachers have crucial role in making pragmatically alerting students out of students who are only language competent. Scholars believe that each teacher has his own practice and they suggest some techniques to future teachers. Following Povolna (2012), "Pragmatic awareness can be achieved if students are regularly exposed to authentic English and guided to an understanding of the gap between their use of the target language and that of proficient language users." (p. 149-150) McCarthy (1998) emphasized on the importance of "noticing" phenomena as a step to acquiring L2 effectively. He also suggests supplementing the traditional 'Three Ps' methodology (Presentation-Practice-Production) by the 'Three I's' methodology (Illustration-Interaction-Induction) and he defined illustration as exposing learners to examples of authentic language, and interaction as talking about the language between teachers and students, and induction as drawing conclusion and sharing their ideas about the way the language is used in communication. Tudor (2001) proposed that teachers should facilitate learning process consequently the teacher's role is "more one of helping students to find a sense of personal meaningfulness in the learning process in a context which is often shaped by perceptions, goals, and priorities of a variety of other participants" (p. 207).

Since teachers are the primary source of the appropriate use of language, classroom practitioners' pragmatic awareness and competence become more important issues. Following others opinion Glasgow (2008) pointed out that an L2 teacher with pragmatic awareness should be able to:

1) fashion student awareness of how to effectively strategize their approaches in conversation;
2) realize speech acts with the proper pragma-linguistic forms;
3) provide students with a larger sense of what's "sayable" depending on the context;
4) give students access to choices, as Verschueren (2000) would put it, and allowing students to decide what choices would be best;
5) allow the opportunity for trial and error, especially in EFL, given the fact that few chances exist for many EFL students to interact outside the language school context; and
6) develop in students the ability to self-monitor their pragmatic development. (p.6-7)

Students will ask "what should I say in this situation?" This question allows the teacher to take advantage of accessing students to variations in the language that may serve student needs or work against students' needs, both types of information proving as useful for students to know, or allowing them to discover this autonomously.

2.3. Empirical Findings

An increasing number of studies investigated theories on interlanguage pragmatics, interlanguage pragmatic awareness and pragmatic awareness in teachers' education have been reviewed and their findings have been presented in this section.

2.3.1. Interlanguage Pragmatics

Some scholars preferred testing their beliefs and ideas rather than merely arguing what characteristics of an experienced pragmatics teacher are. There are different studies on effective duration of exposing EFL learners to the target language. In interlanguage pragmatics, a meta-analysis performed by Jeon & Kaya (2006) on related research topic which is the effects of instructional length. The findings illustrate that instruction lasting for more than five hours have led to more pragmatic gains than instruction lasting for less than five hours. However, Salazar-Campillo (2003), in his study found that pedagogical intervention can be as brief as 20 minutes presented in one session. While, according to Alcon-Soler (2015), found that pedagogical intervention should be as extensive as a total of 26 hours over one semester. Among instructional studies, however, huge variations in length of intervention exist and there does not seem to be a clear relationship between length of instruction and pragmatic gain.

Other related subject which have received considerable attention is the effect that explicit and implicit instruction have on gaining pragmatic knowledge. This topic revisited in several review articles (e.g., Kasper, 1997; Kasper & Roever, 2005; Kasper & Rose, 1999; Rose, 2005; Takahashi, 2010a, 2010b). Research in this respect has generally shown that explicit instruction is more effective than implicit instruction in promoting appropriate pragmatic performance (Jeon & Kaya, 2006). When it comes to why explicit instruction tends to be more effective than implicit instruction, researchers generally resort to Schmidt's (1990) noticing hypothesis. The findings of empirical studies in Interlanguage Pragmatics and contrastive pragmatics also propose that awareness-raising helps students employ the pragmatic knowledge that already possess. Kasper (1997) conducted a study and found that L1 and L2 speakers have access to similar list of semantic formulae and other pragmatic resources, but language learners do not use universal or L1 pragmatic knowledge. Consequently, awareness-raising activities are beneficial in attracting language learners' attention of their existing pragmatic competence and encouraging them to utilize their pragmatic resources.

2.3.2. Raising Pragmatic Awareness

Some researchers had attempts on discovering and comparing EFL or ESL learners' and native speakers' pragmatic awareness. These scholars Carrel & Konneker (1981), Tanaka & Kawade (1982), Kobayashi & Rinnert (2003), and Hinkel (1997) has focused on a particular speech act. Carrell and Konneker (1981) employed a rank-ordering task to explore differences in native speakers and L2 learners' judgements of politeness in requests. The participants consisted of a range of first languages, like Spanish, Persian and Arabic and they were asked to put cards contained description of a topic, for instance, purchasing vegetables in a grocery store and cards contained possible request strategies, based on the appropriate use of indirect and direct sentences in each situation.

Subsequently, Tanaka and Kawade (1982) replicated the previous study, and their L2 participants were native speakers of Japanese. The findings of the two studies illustrated that a high correlation between the native and learner judgments of politeness in the request utterances, which they attributed to the effect of the learning environment. Intriguingly they found that the L2 learner groups recognized more distinct levels within the request other than the native speakers. Similarly, Kobayashi & Rinnert (2003) utilized a rank-ordering task to uncover how language learners and native speakers judged politeness in requests. His participants consisted of Japanese learners of English in Japan as EFL context and ESL learners of English. Opposing to the two previous studies, he used a questionnaire instead of cards to uncover his participants' judgements on request strategies. Surprisingly, he found no significant differences in the perception of politeness between his American native speakers and his two Japanese learners' groups; the ESL learners' scores correlated more highly with the native speaker scores than the EFL scores. Kitao concluded that this result is owing to the ESL learners' exposure to the L2 in the target context.

In a different study Hinkel (1997) used a Multiple-Choice Questionnaire (MCQ) to discover which level of directness was considered appropriate by her Chinese ESL learners and American English native speakers. The candidates in Hinkel's study first read a written description of an authentic situation and then selected one of three possible options from directness hierarchy. His data crystalized that there are significant differences in the learners' and native speakers' selection of appropriate utterances in the advice scenarios. In detail, her ESL learners perceived direct or hedged advice to be appropriate significantly more frequently than the native speakers.

The native speakers, however, most frequently considered indirect comments to be the appropriate choice.

In the opposition with the claim that the above researchers had conducted developmental awareness studies examining requests and their findings have illustrated significant differences between L2 learner and native speaker candidates some other researchers like, Cook & Liddicoat (2002), Olshtain & Blum-Kulka (1985) and other scholars Bouton (1988, 1994), Koike (1996), Matsumura (2003) did similar researches with different methods and found that results of learner groups can vary based on their length of stay in the target environment and their proficiency level.

Additionally, Hinkel (1996) organized a questionnaire in order to inspect L2 learners' awareness of politeness and appropriateness in their L2 host country. The learners studied at an American university for more than 2 years and spoke five different native languages: Arabic, Chinese, Indonesian, Japanese and Korean. Participants of this study were asked to rate a number of statements included in the questionnaire. Hinkel found that, while the individual L1 group scores for the questionnaire items differ, her ESL learners generally were aware of the pragmatic norms of the L2. Hinkel concluded that this result is due to a combination of language learners' motivation to succeed in their L2 at a foreign university and their exposure to the target language in the L2 context. In a nutshell, the review of studies comparing L2 learners' and native speakers' pragmatic awareness has shown that although some studies reported significant differences between learners and native speakers (Bouton, 1988; Hinkel, 1997), others did not (Carrell & Konneker, 1981; Tanaka & Kawade, 1982; Kitao, 1990; Hinkel, 1996). Subsequently, Schauer (2009) found that the possible reasons for these different results would be task difficulty, differences in learners' proficiency levels and/or amount of exposure to the L2 in the target environment.

Bardovi-Harlig and Dornyei's (1998) conducted a research to examine and compare L2 learners' and native speakers' pragmatic and grammatical awareness. They studied the understanding and rating of grammatical errors and pragmatic inappropriateness by ESL and EFL learners as well as English language teachers. The researchers analyzed apologies, refusals, requests and suggesting speech acts in this study. Their participants first watched a video consisting 20 scenarios, some of which contained either grammatical or pragmatic errors. In addition, they were asked to evaluate the severity of the perceived problems in a questionnaire so, they had to decide whether a sentence was good or bad and then rated the bad ones along a continuum from not bad at all to very bad. Bardovi-Harlig and Dornyei's (1998) discovered that the ESL learners in the United States identified a considerably higher number of pragmatics than grammatical errors, though the EFL group in Hungary was more aware of grammatical violations than of pragmatic ones. The severity ratings for the two error types also indicated a difference in the participants' recognitions across the two learning environments; in other words, the ESL and EFL students' severity scores for pragmatics and grammatical errors were in opposite directions. Thus, ESL learners considered the pragmatic infelicities to be more salient, whereas EFL learners perceived the grammatical errors to be more serious. The results of this study crystalized that three factors play an important role in the learner's linguistic awareness: the proficiency level, the learning environment, and the students' access to authentic L2 input. Therefore, the findings of this study were in line with Schmidt's (1993, 1995) noticing hypothesis.

By the same token, Niezgoda and Rover's (2001) replicated the study but came to different results. They studied EFL learners in the Czech Republic and ESL learners in Hawaii. They used the same video and questionnaire that had been used in the original research design and they also taught the participants to identify grammatical and pragmatic errors. In opposition to Bardovi-Harlig and Dornyei's (1998) results, the EFL learners in their sample recognized a higher number of pragmatic infelicities than the ESL participants. The students in the Czech Republic also assigned higher severity ratings to both the pragmatic and grammatical errors than did the participants in the United States. In Contrast to the findings of the original study, Niezgoda and Rover's (2001) data, therefore, suggest that their EFL students were more aware of pragmatic infelicities than their ESL participants and also perceived them to be more serious than the learners in the United States did.

2.3.3. Pragmatic Awareness in Teachers' Education

There are research endeavors in the development of cultural norms in language learners and the related fields to distinguish the complex structures due to the unfamiliar cultural variables for a language learner. After reviewing the related literature, there are many researches investigating the EFL learners' awareness at the theoretical level or the availability and appropriateness of the teaching materials for pragmatic instruction (Bardovi-Harlig & Mahan-Taylor, 2003; Basturkmen, 2007; Istifci, 2009; Karatepe, 2001; Ozyıldırım, 2010; Povolna, 2012; Uso-Juan, 2008; Yates, 2010). On the other hand, there are a few researches on examining the pragmatic awareness of teachers and teacher trainees and its effect on classroom settings (Sachtleben and Denny, 2012).

While the achievement of pragmatic awareness is not easy, it is vital to know 'what', 'how' and 'in what ways' the pragmatic knowledge can be improved. Since not only the awareness and competence, but the implementation of pragmatically appropriate language in the classroom is important, we need for an in-depth observation to the training programs. The relevant researches evaluating the involvement of pragmatics in teacher education programs mostly focus on theory rather than practice (Eslami- Rasekh, 2005; Ishihara, 2011; Vasquez & Sharpless, 2009). Polovna (2012) designed a study to identify teacher trainees' suggestions about pragmatics teaching. The results indicated that, teacher trainees are willing to use most of their theoretical knowledge in their own teaching and they are also eager to improve pragmatic awareness of their students as a way to improve their speaking skill, as a result of communicative competence.

Since pragmatic competence, has become known as a crucial component of communicative competence, knowledge of pragmatics has been considered as an essential constituent of language teachers' knowledge base. Vasquez and Sharpless (2009) conducted a nationwide study in the U.S. and they surveyed 94 graduate TESOL programs and among them only 20% reported having a course dedicated to pragmatics while approximately half limited pragmatics to other relevant courses. These 20% of the programs that had a course dedicated to pragmatics, consists of 56% theoretical courses and 44% reported having applied Orientation. Therefore, the findings illustrated that most of master's-level TESOL programs in the U.S. include pragmatics in the teacher education curriculum in some way or other. Also, the treatment of pragmatics in teacher training courses often centers on theory (e.g., speech act and politeness theories) rather than on practical applications. In presenting theoretical pragmatics, it is assumed that as long as they are given theory, language teachers can devise instructional strategies on their own. Hagiwara (2010) reviewed Vasquez and Sharpless (2009) and states that "most of us [language educators in Japan] have never studied pragmatics as an independent subject or a course at the university we attended" (2010, p. 4). She continued that it may be that pragmatics has not been recognized widely among language teachers and teacher educators in Japan. Consequently, language teachers in Japan appear to be largely left to their own plans to improve learners' pragmatic competence.

Various scholars have tried to find out the most salient characteristics of effective pragmatic language teachers since they found that few qualities automatically come to language teachers without special preparation based on instructional pragmatics. So, Bardovi-Harlig, (1992), Eslami (2010), Hartford (1997), Ishihara (2010), Karatepe (2001), Kasper (1997), Meier (2003), Rose (1997), Freeman & Johnson (1998), and Shulman (1987) emphasized on the importance of teaching L2 pragmatics and they identified three qualifications of an effective teacher of L2 pragmatics: 1) being aware of pragmatic norms and pragmatic (subject matter knowledge), 2) having the ability to provide pragmatic-focused instruction and assessment (pedagogical content knowledge), and 3) being sensitive to learners' cultures and subjectivity (knowledge of the learners and the educational context).

As instructing L2 pragmatics became important and wide spread in the U.S., Eslami-Rasekh (2005), Eslami and Eslami-Rasekh (2008), and Yates and Wigglesworth (2005) had attempts regarding the effects of pedagogically centered courses in L2 pragmatics on teacher development opportunities. Yates and Wigglesworth (2005) designed a study on two phases and presented two different types of teacher development opportunities to two groups of adult ESL teachers in Australia. In the first phase of their project, the five participant teachers helped the researchers by collecting and analyzing data to cultivate a deeper understanding of mitigating devices in English and developing materials for their teacher workshops. The results showed that, the teachers gained knowledge of L2 pragmatic material development. Following that in focus group discussions and individual interviews, the teachers reported deeper appreciation and a strong sense of ownership of their newly-gained conscious understanding of how and why the mitigating devices functioned in context. In the course of this project, their pedagogical beliefs shifted from justifying purely linguistic instruction of polite request formulae to realizing students' needs to have a cultural and contextual understanding of these linguistic devices. Subsequently, after they reviewed the existing materials, they became more aware of the shortcomings of the materials for teaching these particular aspects of English. In the second phase of their project, a group of 100 teachers participated in one to two hour workshops on the same topic. Comparing with the first phase, the teachers gained less considerable knowledge since 84 participants thought they are already aware of mitigating devices. Yates and Wiggleworth (2005) concluded that this phase in the instruction process helps crystallize the teachers' implicit knowledge of mitigating devices and makes it explicit.

In the same direction of the previous study, Eslami-Rasekh (2005) and Eslami and Eslami-Rasekh (2008) focus on improving the pragmatic competence of non-native English-speaking teacher candidates (NNESTCs) in an EFL context. The researchers content that NNESTCs tend to feel insecure about their English proficiency in general; as a result of, less development of their pragmatic competence than their organizational competence (Eslami-Rasekh, 2005; Eslami & Eslami-Rasekh, 2008; Pasternak & Bailey, 2004). Eslami and Eslami-Rasekh (2008) conducted a quasi-experimental study of NNESTCs in Iran and analyzed the effect of metapragmatic instruction on the NNESTCs' pragmatic awareness and production. Participants in the experimental group received instructions and the instruction consisted of a number of readings of research articles in cross-cultural, interlanguage, and instructional pragmatics and the teacher candidates' ethnographic research for the purpose of pragmatic awareness-raising. This metapragmatic instruction lasted for 30 minutes each week and was provided as a component of a methodology course for 14 weeks. The results of the error recognition and discourse completion tasks indicated significant improvement in both pragmatic awareness and production among the 25 teacher candidates in the experimental group, comparing with the performance of the 27 candidates in the control group who did not receive the metapragmatic instruction. According to this study, L2 pragmatics instruction is a need in EFL contexts and the authors argued that inclusion of pragmatic language use in methodology textbooks as an important constituent in language teacher education is highly recommended.

More recently another group of researchers have tried to explore the effects of instructional pragmatics on teacher development (Eslami, 2010; Ishihara, 2010; Vasquez, 2010; Vellenga, 2010; Yoshimi, 2010) and have presented their studies in a conference on language teacher education and L2 pragmatics at the 18th Pragmatics and Language Learning Conference held in Kobe, Japan in 2010. All the researchers had been teaching and promoting instructional pragmatics in their teacher education programs in various contexts, and in the panel discussion they elaborated on some of the challenges and achievements in these studies.

Eslami (2010) reported on her graduate students' online pragmatic instruction to EFL learners in Taiwan provisioned as part of the required ESL methodology course. She analyzed the results in the light of the teacher learners' reflections, online discussions, final papers, researcher's field notes. In continuation, Eslami's teachers' challenges often appeared to be compounded by use of technology, including insufficient participation in online discussion, delayed responses, and difficulty building collaborative rapport without face-to-face interaction. Eslami (2010) also reported enhanced pragmatic competence and metapragmatic knowledge among teachers. Using telecollaborative technology presented her teachers and learners opportunities to use language with experts of the target culture in a meaningful manner. Similarly, Vasquez (2010) offered a required course based on instructional pragmatics and surveyed the students' opinion who took this course during the past five years. Vasquez's teachers taught pragmatics in a lower-level class or presented pragmatics as important in all levels. To overcome some of these challenges, Vasquez suggests different strategies to include pragmatics into a variety of existing curricula, thus allowing pragmatics to work within current curricular constraints.

Along the same line, Vellenga (2010) investigated reactions by her participant teachers, who received some training in teaching pragmatics and implemented it in their classrooms in the Midwestern and Southwestern U.S., Lithuania, and Japan. Yoshimi (2010) and Ishihara (2010) taught summer institutes in teaching pragmatics, ecologically (Yoshimi) or ethnographically (Ishihara). They explored participant teachers' perspectives, using for instance, researcher field notes, participant questionnaires, and participant-designed materials. The results showed that teachers in Yoshimi's (2010) study expressed heightened motivation for teaching pragmatics in small-scale interactions and conceptualized pragmatics as available and organized, rather than intimidating. In passing, the panel found some common obstacles that would make pragmatics instruction difficult like, time constraints, mandatory curricula, a perceived curricular misfit of pragmatics, and a dearth of appropriate instructional materials. Among the findings of the conference papers, the perceived benefits of integrating instructional pragmatics into teacher development incorporated first and foremost the teachers' enhanced understanding, awareness, and appreciation of pragmatics, and their recognition of its importance in language teaching. All the researches in the conference reported on teachers who taught or planned to teach pragmatics beyond the limits of the teacher education courses, using various instructional approaches such as role-plays, class discussion, jazz chants, student research, and awareness-raising language analysis in the spirit of learners as researchers.

In passing, in spite of the fact that the studies reviewed above present important pioneering work scrutinizing the effects of instructional pragmatics in teacher education, little has been investigated in regard to how teacher cognition develops in the classroom discourse in depth. Since teachers' metapragmatic awareness considered to be the foundation of teachers' knowledge base in pragmatics, a close exploration of this process would have implications for how pragmatics can be effectively incorporated in the teaching techniques and the language teacher education curriculum. As Borg (2003) asserted teacher cognition is "the observable cognitive dimensions of teaching" (p. 81), namely, "what teachers think, know or believe in relation to various aspects of their work" (p. 86). Borg (2003, 2006) uses this term broadly to include the complexity of teachers' mental lives and incorporate actual classroom practices and the relationships between cognition and these practices.

2.4. Summary of the Empirical Findings

The review illustrates that there are many theoretical perspectives relating knowledge of pragmatics, and limited number of findings in related subjects. Such as (Jeon & Kaya, 2006) who had a meta-analysis and also, (Kasper, 1997; Kasper & Roever, 2005; Kasper & Rose, 1999; Rose, 2005; Takahashi, 2010a, 2010b), all did some researches and found that explicit teaching is more effective than implicit, and they encouraged teachers to teach pragmatic knowledge explicitly and they wrongly suppose that if they prescribe suitable theoretical framework, EFL teachers can invent teaching L2 pragmatics techniques on their own. Ishihara and Cohen (2010) have encouraged teacher readers to take a close look at their current knowledge and beliefs about L2 pragmatics, examine how the knowledge and beliefs relate to their classroom practice by engaging in a reflective activity. They asserted "An explicit awareness of teachers' knowledge, beliefs, and practice makes what is tacit in their knowledge base more accessible to themselves and facilitates its analysis, modification, or refinement" (p. 29). It is also recommended that teachers regularly engage in reflective practice for further reasoning of their own teaching (Johnson, 1999). Due to learning through reflection can be enriched, supported, and promoted by dialoguing with oneself or with colleagues (Vygotsky, 1978).

Consequently, the gap between all of these limited empirical findings is that they forget about teachers' perspective in teaching pragmatics. Therefore, to make sense of how teachers' knowledge, belief, experience and practice shape each other, the field is in need of empirical evidence rather than theoretical perspectives which just show views of scholars.

Chapter Three:

Methodology

3.1. Overview

In this study the researcher followed the Grounded Theory research design which, owing its origin to the work of Glaser and Strauss in 1960s. By getting familiar with the rationale and philosophy behind the grounded theory, the researcher identified this type of research method as reasonable one to do this study. The processes of sampling procedure, data collection, and data analysis were applied based on the suggested rules in the Grounded Theory research method.

3.2. Grounded Theory Research Method

Among the different qualitative approaches that may be relied upon in family theorizing, grounded theory methods (GTM) developed by Barney Glaser and Anselm Strauss are the most popular. Glaser and Strauss co-founded grounded theory in the 1960s, and this was followed by the first publication they co-authored titled The discovery of grounded theory: Strategies for qualitative research (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). Soon after this publication the two scholars then differed on the usage of grounded theory and ceased to publish together on this methodology (Glaser, 1978; Strauss, 1987). The difference between the two concerns verification. Strauss and Corbin (1990) who are for verification argue that grounded theory analysis is more verificational than what Glaser and Strauss had suggested in their original work together. Their perspective on verification is that researchers should continuously examine the data, and should be an on-going process throughout the study. However, Glaser (1992) argues grounded theory is not verificational and that it is only after the development of theory that researchers can verify.

Grounded theory is a general methodology, a way of thinking about and conceptualizing data (Strauss & Corbin, 1994). The GT approach is so named because its ultimate aim is to produce innovative theory that is “grounded” in data collected from participants on the basis of the complexities of their lived experiences in a social context. Theory is derived inductively through an iterative, concurrent process of data collection, coding, conceptualizing, and theorizing, wherein new data are constantly compared to emerging concepts until no new themes, categories, or relationships are being discovered, at which point the properties of, and relationships among, constructs are specified in the form of a substantive theory about the social behavior under investigation (Glaser, 1978; Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Strauss, 1987; Corbin & Strauss, 1990). Rennie (1998) maintains that a significant strength of this approach is that it enables researchers to use data to develop theory rather than to test it.

Glaser (1965) originated the basic process of Grounded theory method described as the constant comparative method where the analyst begins analysis with the first data collected and constantly compares indicators, concepts and categories as the theory emerges. The aim of the technique of constant comparative analysis is to force the analyst to be close to the data in order not to come up with subjective understanding of the data (Glaser & Strauss, 1967).

According to Ary, Jacobs, and Sorensen (2010), the goal of this methodology "is to inductively build a theory about a practice or phenomenon using interviews and observation as the primary data collection tools" (p. 463). Punch (2001) refers to grounded theory as a research strategy aimed at generating theory from data, while Mansourian (2006) describes it as "inductive, contextual and processual" (p. 397). Wiersma and Jurs (2005) emphasise that "if a theory develops based on the data, we have "grounded theory," that is, a theory grounded in the data rather than based on some a priori constructed ideas, notions, or system" (p. 14). Generally speaking, grounded theory is an approach for looking systematically at (mostly) qualitative data (like transcripts of interviews or protocols of observations) aiming at the generation of theory (Strauss & Corbin, 1994). There are some elements of grounded theory in which Glaser and Strauss still agree. These include theoretical sensitivity, theoretical sampling, the coding process, constant comparative analysis, and theoretical memoing which are considered fundamental grounded theory elements that contribute to objectivity (Rennie, 1998). The first element is theoretical sensitive coding, that is, generating theoretical strong concepts from the data to explain the phenomenon researched. The second element is theoretical sampling, that is, deciding whom to interview or what to observe next according to the state of theory generation, and that implies starting data analysis with the first interview, and writing down memos and hypotheses early. And the final one is the need to compare between phenomena and contexts to make the theory strong.

According to Corbin and Strauss (1990), theoretical sensitivity is about "having insight, the ability to give meaning to data, the capacity to understand, and capability to separate the pertinent from that which isn't" (p. 41). Unlike Glaser, Corbin and Strauss (1990) argue that theoretical sensitivity is derived from a number of sources. One such source is the reading of literature for researchers to be familiar with publications that would provide them with a rich background of information that would sensitize them to what is happening with the phenomenon of study. Other important sources of sensitivity rejected by Glaser but recognized by Strauss and Corbin (1990) are the professional and personal experience of researchers.

According to experts in this field, important concepts of grounded theory method are categories, codes and coding. The research principle behind grounded theory method is neither inductive nor deductive, but a combination of both. This leads to a research practice where data sampling, data analysis and theory development are not seen as distinct and disjoint, but as different steps to be repeated until one can describe and explain the phenomenon that is to be researched. This stopping point is reached when new data does not change the emerging theory anymore (Charmaz, 2000; Corbin & Strauss, 1990; Glaser & Strauss, 1967; Strauss & Corbin, 1994).

3.3. Sampling Procedure and Participants

3.3.1. Purposive Sampling

Grounded theory studies are characterized by theoretical sampling, but this requires some data to be collected and analyzed. According to Patton (2002), sampling must thus begin purposively, as in any qualitative study. Purposive sampling (also known as judgment, selective or subjective sampling) is a sampling technique in which researcher relies on his or her own judgment when choosing members of population to participate in the study. Purposeful sampling is a technique widely used in qualitative research for the identification and selection of information-rich cases for the most effective use of limited resources. This involves identifying and selecting individuals or groups of individuals that are especially knowledgeable about or experienced with a phenomenon of interest (Cresswell & Clark, 2007). According to Oppong (2013), purposive sampling is a non-probability sampling method and it occurs when "elements selected for the sample are chosen by the judgment of the researcher. Researchers often believe that they can obtain a representative sample by using a sound judgment, which will result in saving time and money" (p. 206). Therefore, in purposive sampling personal judgment needs to be used to choose cases that help answer research questions or achieve research objectives.

Oppong (2013) was proposed six categories of purposive sampling. The first was typical case that explains cases that are average and normal. Second is extreme or deviant case that concerns deriving samples from cases that are perceived as unusual or rare such as exploring the reasons for corporate failure by interviewing executives that have been fired by shareholders. Then there is critical case sampling focuses on specific cases that are dramatic or very important. The next category is heterogeneous or maximum variation sampling relies on researcher's judgment to select participants with diverse characteristics. This is done to ensure the presence of maximum variability within the primary data. The fifth one is homogeneous sampling focuses on "focuses on one particular subgroup in which all the sample members are similar, such as a particular occupation or level in an organization's hierarchy" (Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2012). The last category concerns theoretical sampling that is a special case of purposive sampling and is based on an inductive method of Grounded Theory.

3.3.2. Theoretical Sampling

According to Chenitz and Swanson (1986), theoretical sampling emerged with the foundation of grounded theory, which was first developed by Glaser and Strauss in 1967. Theoretical sampling is associated with grounded theory approach based on analytic induction (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). According to Sandelowski (1995), although theoretical sampling is often misconstrued as purposive sampling, the uses of theoretical sampling vary to a large extent. Also, the selection criteria of participants for theoretical sampling changes according to the needs and changes that occur in the theoretical study at the given time. Theoretical sampling is considered to be purpose driven and it explicitly carries out its function on the basis of an emerging theory (Breckenridge & Jones, 2009). The main focus of theoretical research is to use its development through a constant comparative analysis of data that is gained through theoretical sampling for a better understanding of the theory produced (Coyne, 1997).

According to Coyne (1997), the main advantage of theoretical sampling is that it strengthens the rigor of the study if the study attempts to generate the theory in the research area. The application of theoretical sampling provides a structure to data collection as well as data analysis. It is based on the need to collect more data to examine categories and their relationships and assures that representativeness exists in the category. Theoretical sampling has inductive as well as deductive characteristics (Coyne, 1997). Flexibility occurs in this style of sampling when the researchers want to increase the sample size due to new factors that arise during the research. Flexibility also occurs when the researcher's wishes to use a small sample during the initial stages of the research but increase the sample size to test developing generalizations. Finally, flexibility is also allowed when the researcher finds unexpected generalization and wants to look into deviant cases (Silverman & Marvasti, 2008). On the other hand, certain disadvantages may be associated with this sampling method. It is a highly systematic method due to which application of theoretical sampling requires more resources like time and money as compared to other sampling methods (Oppong, 2013).

Silverman and Marvasti (2008) mentioned three features to be considered while discussing theoretical sampling. The first feature is choosing cases in terms of the theory. In this feature, the basis is constructed on an ideal universe or a wider universe where there is a larger comprehension or social explanation according to which the researcher is able to construct his theory. The second feature is choosing deviant cases. One of the leading philosophies in theoretical sampling is the fact that the researcher doesn't choose cases that are supportive to his/her argument. The third feature is changing the size of your sample during the course of the research. This feature deals with concerns or application during the process of the research.

The concept of saturation was first defined in the context of grounded theory as theoretical saturation. According to Glaser and Strauss (1967), in qualitative research the word saturation is extensively used almost interchangeably with data saturation, thematic saturation, theoretical saturation and conceptual saturation. Saturation can be simply defined as data satisfaction. It is when the researcher reaches a point where no new information is obtained from further data. According to Teeter and Sandberg (2016), saturation point determines the sample size in qualitative research as it indicates that adequate data has been collected for a detailed analysis. However, there are no fixed sizes or standard tests that determines the required data for reaching saturation. For example, in many phenomenographic studies, theoretical saturation is often reached after 15 to 30 participants, whereas other methods may require far fewer, or greater, numbers.

3.4. Data Collection

3.4.1. Interviewing

In qualitative studies, data most commonly consist of narratives of some sort, usually transcribed interviews or transcriptions of observational data, but also can include other kinds of documents (e.g. field notes, clinical case notes, historical documents, organizational reports, autobiographies, service logs). According to Creswell (1998) and Patton (2002), interviewing is one of the most common methods of collecting information from individuals. As these authors mentioned, there are various types of interviews that are used to collect data. These include structured, semi-structured and unstructured interviews. Structured interviews that are more or less like questionnaires since they consist of closed ended items. In this kind of interview, the respondents must choose from a limited number of answers that have been written in advance. Semi-structured interviews are flexible kind of interviews in which the interviewer asks important questions in the same way each time but is free to alter the sequence of the questions and to probe for more information. Some items are structured while others are open. The respondents are free to answer the questions in any way they choose. Unstructured interviews are wholly open ended instrument in which interviewers have a list of topics they want respondents to talk about but are free to phrase the questions as they wish. The respondents are free to answer in any way they choose (Creswell, 1998; Patton, 2002).

According to Creswell (2009), the interview form should fit your research goals. Depending on your subject of research, you may want to find out about subjective concepts or unconscious motives; or you may be interested in biographical self-description or simply in information from an expert. Interviews differ in the degree of structure; you may go into an interview knowing already a lot about the subject matter or you go into it as a stranger; the interview may take place as part of an everyday activity as in an ethnographic setting or in a more artificial context. The focus may be on listening to a long narrative or on working towards mutual understanding and everything in between.

As Britten (1999) stated, when designing an interview schedule it is imperative to ask questions that are likely to yield as much information about the study phenomenon as possible and also be able to address the aims and objectives of the research. In a qualitative interview, good questions should be open-ended (i.e. require more than a yes/no answer), neutral, sensitive and understandable (Britten, 1999). It is usually best to start with questions that participants can answer easily and then proceed to more difficult or sensitive topics (Britten, 1999). This can help put respondents at ease, build up confidence and rapport and often generates rich data that subsequently develops the interview further.

According to Creswell and Clark (2007), in order to have the interview data captured more effectively, recording of the interviews is considered an appropriate choice but sometimes a matter of controversy among the researcher and the respondent. It is often also helpful to make 'field notes' during and immediately after each interview about observations, thoughts and ideas about the interview, as this can help in data analysis process (May, 1991). However, Creswell and Clark (2007) argued that hand written notes during the interview are relatively unreliable, and the researcher might miss some key points. The recording of the interview makes it easier for the researcher to focus on the interview content and the verbal prompts and thus enables the transcriptionist to generate "verbatim transcript" of the interview.

Before an interview takes place, respondents should be informed about the study details and given assurance about ethical principles, such as anonymity and confidentiality (Britten, 1999). This gives respondents some idea of what to expect from the interview, increases the likelihood of honesty and is also a fundamental aspect of the informed consent process. Wherever possible, interviews should be conducted in areas free from distractions and at times and locations that are most suitable for participants. For many this may be at their own home in the evenings. Whilst researchers may have less control over the home environment, familiarity may help the respondent to relax and result in a more productive interview (Kvale, 1996).

3.4.2. Theoretical Memoing

Theoretical memoing is the core stage of grounded theory methodology (Glaser, 1992). Memos are the theorizing write-up of ideas about substantive codes and their theoretically coded relationships as they emerge during coding, collecting and analyzing data, and during memoing (Glaser, 1992). Without memoing, the theory is superficial and the concepts generated are not very original. Memoing works as an accumulation of written ideas into a bank of ideas about concepts and how they relate to each other. This bank contains rich parts of what will later be the written theory. Memoing is total creative freedom without rules of writing, grammar or style (Glaser, 1998). According to Charmaz (2006), memos are important tools to both refine and keep track of ideas that develop when researchers compare incidents to incidents and then concepts to concepts in the evolving theory. In memos, they develop ideas about naming concepts and relating them to each other and try the relationships between concepts in two-by-two tables, in diagrams or figures or whatever makes the ideas flow, and generates comparative power.

Memoing is an element that Glaser (1978) considers a continuous process which begins with the first coding of data through to sorting and writing papers to the end of the study. Memos can be of any length, ranging from just a sentence, a paragraph, or through to a few pages. According to Corbin and Strauss (1990) researchers have to develop their own style of memoing, which may include the use of software, colour coded cards, and putting type-written pages into folders or notebooks. Of most importance is for researchers to ensure that their memos are orderly, systematic, and can be easily retrievable for purposes of sortingor cross-referencing. Corbin and Strauss (1990) emphasize the importance of dating each memo and referencing the source from which it was taken.

3.5. Data Analysis

Once the data are collected, grounded theory analysis involves several basic steps (Charmaz, 2000). The first step is coding text and theorizing. In grounded theory research, the search for the theory starts with the very first line of the very first interview that one codes. It involves taking a small chunk of the text where line by line is being coded. Useful concepts are being identified where key phrases are being marked. The concepts are named. Another chunk of text is then taken and the above-mentioned steps are being repeated. According to Strauss and Corbin (1967), this process is called open coding and Charmaz (2000) called it initial coding. Basically, this process is breaking data into conceptual components. Strauss and Corbin (1998) define coding as "the analytic processes through which data are fractured, conceptualized, and integrated to form theory" (p. 3). The literature on grounded theory shows that the data have to be analyzed and coded to generate categories (Glaser, 1978, 1992; Strauss & Corbin, 1998). Categories can be described as "a type of concept, usually used for a higher level of abstraction" (Glaser, 1992, p. 38), or as "concepts, derived from data that stand for phenomena" (Strauss & Corbin, 1998, p. 114). Bryman (2008) defines a category as "a concept that has been elaborated so that it is regarded as representing real-world phenomena" (p. 544). The other significant level of Strauss and Corbin's (1998) method is axial coding, which they define as "the process of relating categories to their subcategories, termed 'axial' because coding occurs around the axis of a category, linking categories at the level of properties and dimensions" (p. 123). The aim of axial coding is to put "the fractured data back together in new ways after open coding, by making connections between a category and its subcategories" (Strauss & Corbin, 1990, p. 96). Corbin and Strauss (2008) refer to axial coding as "crosscutting or relating concepts to each other" (p. 195). The aim is to develop what would ultimately be one of several main categories (Strauss & Corbin, 1990).

Two kinds of coding processes namely, substantive coding and theoretical coding are described (Glaser, 1992). According to Glaser (1992) substantive coding is in two levels, open coding and selective coding. In the process of open coding, the aim of the researcher is to generate an emergent set of categories and their properties which should fit, work and are relevant to be integrated into a theory. The researchers have to code for as many categories that might fit; and should ensure that they code different incidences into as many categories as possible. In the process, new categories emerge and new incidences fit existing categories. Glaser (1978) emphasizes the need for the researcher to analyze the data line-by-line to be able to identify emerging substantive codes within the data. Further, the researcher should verify and saturate categories, and in the process avoid the risk of missing an important category. According to Strauss and Corbin (1990) open coding is “the part of analysis that pertains specifically to the naming and categorizing of phenomena through close examination of data” (p. 62). The second stage of Glaser’s (1978) substantive coding is selective coding. This stage requires the researcher to selectively code for a core variable. Glaser uses the word variable while Strauss uses category to mean the same thing. This is the stage of coding, where the researcher is required to delimit “coding to only variables that relate to the core variable in sufficiently significant ways to be used in a parsimonious theory” (Glaser, 1978, p. 61). Glaser (1978) suggests that the core variable becomes a guide to further data collection and theoretical sampling. This level requires the researcher to know when to cease coding to be able to selectively code for a core category (Strauss, 1987; Strauss & Corbin, 1998). The authors defines the core category as representative of the central problem or issue confronting the participants under study. Once the core category has been discovered, selective coding commences. This leads to further investigation of issues and ideas that are mainly centered round the core category. Strauss (1987) explains that “selective coding pertains to coding systematically and concertedly for the core category” (p. 33).

Bernard and Ryan (2010) proposed several stages in data analysis process which was modification of Corbin and Strauss’s (1990) model. According to theses authors, Open coding or substantive coding is conceptualizing on the first level of abstraction. Written data from field notes or transcripts are conceptualized line by line. In the beginning of a study everything is coded in order to find out about the problem and how it is being resolved. The coding is often done in the margin of the field notes. Corbin and Strauss (1990) also proposed axial coding and defined it as "a set of procedures whereby data are put back together in new ways after open coding, by making connections between categories" (p.96). Kelle (2005) proposed a "coding paradigm" that involved conditions, context, action/ interactional strategies and consequences.

The second stage mentioned by Bernard and Ryan (2010) is selective coding that is done after having found the core variable or what is thought to be the core, the tentative core. The core explains the behavior of the participants in resolving their main concern. Selective coding could be done by going over old field notes or memos which are already coded once at an earlier stage or by coding newly gathered data.

The third and final basic step is integrating, refining and writing up theories: Once coding categories emerge, the next step is to link them together in theoretical models around a central category that hold everything together. The constant comparative method comes into play, along with negative case analysis which looks for cases that do not confirm the model. Basically one generates a model about how whatever one is studying works right from the first interview and see if the model holds up as one analyzes more interviews. Researchers have to compare incidents applicable to each category, and they do that by coding each incident in the data into as many categories of analysis as possible. The basic rule for the constant comparative method is that in the process of coding an incident for a category, it should be compared with previous incidents in the same group as well as different groups that may have been coded in the same category (Glaser & Strauss, 1967). It is essential that researchers have to ensure that constant comparison is ongoing, as it is the process by which they sort the emerging themes on account of their similarities and differences (Goulding, 1999).

3.6. Design of the Study

Having identified the characteristics and principles of the Grounded Theory research design helped the researcher to consider it as the most useful research method that fits to the objectives of this study. The initial stage of this study was getting an in-depth understanding of philosophies and rationale behind this type of research method. The researcher obeyed the principles of grounded theory in terms of sampling procedure, data collection, and data analysis. Therefore, the researcher made use of the principles of grounded theory to build her own theory in terms of the notion of meta-pragmatic knowledge of EFL teachers and the strategies they use in teaching the knowledge.

Regarding sampling procedure, the researcher selected initial participants through purposive sampling. In this step, some participants who were representative of the intended issue were identified to be interviewed. Initial codes were emerged through analyzing the interviews taken from these first participants. Next, theoretical sampling was followed by the researcher through which the researcher had to look for the theories and extracted codes to expand them. This theoretical universe allowed for better-formulated samples which were more meaningful and sensible than others. So, in this type of sampling, the researcher selected samples that had a particular process, examples, categories and even types that are relevant to the ideal or wider universe.

The study took place in Mashhad, one of the big cities in Iran. Seven females and five males participated in the study. All of the participants were singled out among experienced EFL teachers who had language related education and believed in raising their learners' pragmatic knowledge. The number of participants was twelve in total, first six of which were selected through purposive sampling to elicit initial codes and the rest of them through theoretical sampling to saturate the initially generated codes. It should be noted that the participants were assured they remain anonymous during the whole process of research. A brief introduction about each of the participants is presented in the table below.

Table 3.1. Participants' Demographics

Teacher Participants	*Age*	*Gender*	*Education*	*Years of Experience*
T.P.1	31	Female	B.A. in TEFL TESOL holder	12
T.P.2	33	Male	M.A. in TEFL	15
T.P.3	20	Male	B.A student	3
T.P.4	35	Female	B.A. in TEFL	11
T.P.5	23	Male	B.A. in English Literature	5
T.P.6	30	Female	M.A. in TFEL	8
T.P.7	33	Male	PhD. in TEFL IELTS examiner	15
T.P.8	29	Male	M.A. in TEFL	10
T.P.9	30	Female	M.A. in TEFL	10
T.P.10	28	Female	M.A. in TEFL	4
T.P.11	31	Female	M.A. in Translation Studies	10
T.P.12	26	Female	M.A. in TEFL	7

Based on the principles of grounded theory in data collection, the researcher applied two methods to collect the intended data. The first method was interviewing the participants. The researcher asked questions that were likely to yield as much information about the study phenomenon as possible and also addressed the aims and objectives of the research. In a qualitative interview, the researcher used open-ended questions and started with questions that participants could answer easily and then the researcher proceeded to more difficult or sensitive topics. Then, the researcher made use of theoretical memos to expand and verify the already collected data through interview. Memoing was when the running notes of each of the concepts that were being identified were kept. It was the intermediate step between the coding and the first draft of the completed analysis. Memos were field notes about the concepts in which the researcher lays out his observations and insights. Memoing started with the first concept that has been identified and continued right through the process of breaking the text and of building theories.

The final step was analyzing data which was totally done based on the presented principles in grounded theory. This step was divided into two main steps; open coding and selective coding. Through the first step of data analysis, the researcher took a small chunk of the text where line by line was being coded. Useful concepts were being identified where key phrases were being marked. The concepts were named. In other words, the researcher broken down the transcribed data into units of meaning (concepts), and then labeled them with words close to those of the participant, and interrogated them for alternative interpretations, conditions surrounding the meaning, and gaps left unfilled. This step also involved the constant comparative method and it went on throughout the grounding theory process, right up through the development of complete theories. The second step of data analysis was selective coding through which a core "story" was generated, which was a brief narrative of the most important aspects of the data, subsuming all of the other categories and articulating their relationships to the core story. The researcher maintained his conceptual level when she wrote about concepts and how these concepts related to each other. Selective coding was also done by going over old field notes or memos which were already coded once at an earlier stage or by coding newly gathered data. Axial coding was also used as a set of procedures whereby data were put back together in new ways after open coding, by making connections between categories. The study ended with creating the ultimate theory in accordance to the core codes which concerned closely the notion of technique of raising pragmatic knowledge of EFL learners.

Chapter Four:

Findings

4.1. Overview

This chapter provides a detailed description of the findings of the present study, which was collected and analyzed based on the rules and methods of data collection and analysis of grounded theory research design through which some EFL teachers were interviewed to uncover their techniques for raising learners' pragmatic knowledge by asking how they teach the knowledge to their learners. Here in this semantic network the six techniques of raising EFL learners' pragmatic knowledge are presented. The first category is giving real situational examples in which teachers bring up different situations and interactions in class and try to explain the correct use of language. The second is using movies and TV series which helps the learners in raising situational and cultural awareness. The third one is using sarcasm and humor in teaching pragmatics which helps learners differentiate between expression and intention of the speaker. The fourth technique is using facial expressions and tone of voice in raising learners' pragmatic awareness which is considered as another type of situational meanings and cultural loading options. The last two techniques are differentiating between formal and informal and direct and indirect speech acts in which teachers explain that one form is more appropriate than the other depending on the audience and situation. Therefore, our semantic network is grounded and what follows aims at substantiating techniques used by the participants in raising EFL learners' pragmatic awareness.

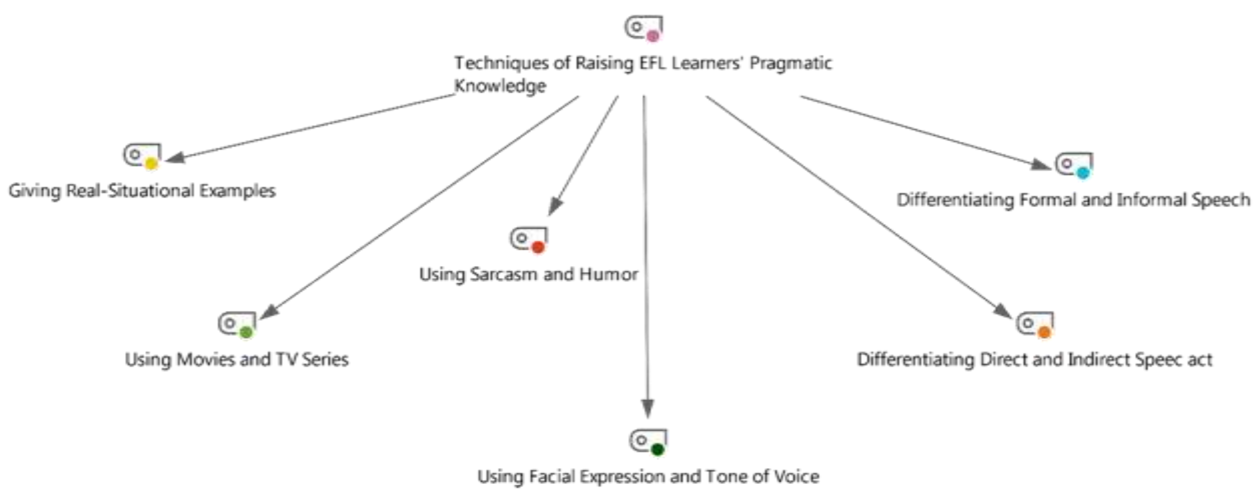

Figure 4.1. Semantic Map

4.2. Techniques of Raising EFL Learners' Pragmatic Knowledge

4.2.1. Giving Real-Situation Examples

Giving real situation examples is considered as one way of raising learners' situational awareness in which teachers explain one situation for the class and teach them the correct suitable forms for that special situation. The following comment is a real- situation example of a teacher participant: "I remember that one of my students told me that she had an American guest last night and he was shocked how nice she could speak English and he said she speaks English very well and then she answered thank you very much! But she could feel that he didn't like her answer and she wondered why? and then I explained to her that saying thank you is not appropriate here because when American people give you compliment they expect your confirmation and they even expect you to downgrade your competence and it was better for you to say "not really, I have been studying English for a long time, but still my English is terrible" or you can also say "not really, still I have a lot to learn in English" **(T.P.7)** In line with the teacher participants' example an idea, Schmitz (2001) believed that allowing students to enter a language arena that is usually considered native-speaker territory is not only challenging but also motivating for the learners. As a consequence, students are usually happy and willing to be involved in playful language use. Other participant had the same view and proposed that: "one of my students had the experience of having native English teacher and he said it was almost the last minutes of class and he just wanted to ask the teacher to finish teaching and he said don't be tired and the teacher didn't get what he meant and answered I am not tired. So I have told him that you should just have told your request politely and say would you please teach this part next session, because they do not have this in their culture." **(T.P.12)**

By the same token, it has been proven that one can be misunderstood if he/she does not know what form to use. As one of the famous and hardworking partcipants of this study clarified: "my cousin had the experience of being misunderstood, he left Iran when he was seven and he told me one of his experiences there and he said there was a big heavy door in our campus and it was hard for us to open it and whenever he opened it he held it for others to pass too and when they thanked him he answered by saying you're welcome, anytime or don't mention it, but others reaction was not good at all so, one day he went to his professor to ask why they reacted like this when he just wanted to be polite and the professor answered when you use "thank you" it means that what you did was a big deal while it wasn't and you should just nodded or said aha and that was all you had to do." **(T.P.5)** Therefore knowing where to use what form is of high importance after having mastered basic rules of speaking English as the other participant mentioned: "I just asked my students to imagine that we are in a supermarket and I asked if I say bring me a water what do I mean? then one of them answered a glass of water, I said no we are in a supermarket I have told you the situation so, I mean a bottle of water. Also if here I say bring me a coffee I mean a pocket of coffee powder not a cup of coffee so, be aware of the situation in which language is used." **(T.P.2)**

It is commonly observed that the same sentence can be used to convey different meanings in different contexts. That is why people complain when something they say is taken out of the context and translated and meant in other context since context makes it clear what they meant. Indeed, it is practically a platitude that what a speaker means in uttering a certain sentence, as well as how her/his audience understands her/his, depends on the context. Following that the teacher participants made clear for us how they teach their learners multiple meanings of a token as two of them elaborated on a title of an article: "we were covering a piece of reading and in that there was a picture of a piece of paper saying "people before profit employment all" so I explained for them that the meaning of this depends on the context which is used and I continued it very much depends on how we interpret the word "before" if the word before means in front of so interpretation is that people before profit means that people are in front of a work condition or vacancy and employment for all means that this advertisement is offering job for different and wide variety of people and the other interpretation is that we are talking about priorities and people before profit means that people are more important making profit so it's like criticizing the government or private sector saying that you have to care about people not making your own profit so create job opportunities for people rather than just thinking about your own profit. It mainly functions with explanations." **(T.P.7)** Additionally other participant uttered: "there was a title in their book saying that "primary education last forever" and we discussed on the meaning of this utterance and one of my students said it means it's going to be a long period or stage of their education and it might have five or six phases the other one said primary education is very important and the impact of primary education can stay with us for the rest of our lives, so the second student had gotten the deeper meaning and I emphasized on it." **(T.P.12)**

4.2.2. Using Movies and TV Series

Watching movies and TV series is one of the strategies used for raising situational and cultural awareness; hence in this study our teacher participants make use of this source for raising contextual awareness of their learners. Referring to this, two of the participants have used showing episods in their classes for teaching different replacements of “if”, here their comments are presented: “I wanted to teach them that “should you”is not always used for suggestion and to make my point clear I asked them have you ever seen “Mission Impossible”? and they said yes and I continued, when they called Tom Cruze to inform him about the mission what did they say? They didn’t remember so I played the episode right away and the statement was this “Should you accept your mission if anyone of you is caught or killed….” And then I explained here should is a replacement for if and does not mean suggesting.” **(T.P.2)**; the other participant said: “I was teaching the different replacements for “if” I mentioned “or” and I played an episode from movie named Terminator the situation was this Arnold went to a restaurant suddenly a person put his finger on Arnold’s chest and said get out of my restaurant and Arnold answered “you touch me again or you will come up with a broken finger” here I explained “or” means if by showing them real situation.” **(T.P.10)**

There are some different uses of language which is not common in academic learning and one can understand them if he/she has been to a native speaking country or has been watched lots of movies. Subsequntly, three of the teacher participants elaborated on the use of a phrase or a noun as a verb in speaking and the meaning of them. Participant number four explained that: “I played an episode in my class in that the boy said “If you want to solve your problem, looking yourself.” And the other one answered “Yeah, ok” with a careless tone and the other said “Don’t yeah ok me”so I paused and told them here he wanted to show her dissatisfaction by making use of the phrase “yeah, ok” as a verb which is not common and it only happens in speaking.” **(T.P.4)** In confirmation of the previous participant’s view, teachers number nine and three presented instances of using proper nouns as a verb and their classroom elaboration they said: “ I brought them a movie and the story was about two brothers who were taking care of a baby and they argued about the baby and one of them said “if you want to Dr. Miagi this kid, I’m fine but I’m out of here” so I paused and explained for them that Dr.Miagi had innovated the idea of babysitting and here the boy used the name as a verb and generalized Dr.Miagi’s ways of babysitting to babysitting in general."**(T.P.3)** ; "one session I played a psychology episode for my students and in that two persons were talking, one of them was saying that "You shouldn't think about future, carpe diem, live in the moment don't think about the past, only seize the moment." The other one said "Listen duck, if you want to Dr. Smith me. I'm cool but, I don't like it." at that moment one of my students raised her hand and asked what did he mean by saying Dr. Smith and I answred Dr. Smith is the most popular psychologist in the world and he used it as a verb which is rare and means don't use your psychological knowledge for me and I am not interested in it." **(T.P.9)** In line with our claims Chapple and Curtis (2000) believed, it is assumed that the language spoken in the movies, but also presented in the proper cultural context can be a valuable means of increasing more appropriate use of language.

In the same way, clarifying the meaning of a sentence by showing real situation examples in movies and TV series will help learners to notice the point which ends up with raising their pragmatic awareness. As one of the participants explained what a character of a movie meant by asking a counter question: "I was teaching my students that you can reject a claim by just asking a counter question and then I played an episode of Mr. Robot, season two, episode three or four. And here is the context, there were thirteen or fourteen men sitting in a circle and the priest was making a speech for them and he says God helps you in your worst condition, God is so kind, God is so generous and then asked the main character, "Eliot, what's your idea?" Then Eliot answered "Is that what God does? He helps?" so, here he rejected the whole thing with his counter question. And I'm sure that it stuck to their mind because I gave them the real situation example." **(T.P.5)** The other teacher of this story used movies to teach his students different meanings of "oh", he said: "I was explaining for my students that a little word like "Oh" can have lots of meanings in different contexts and I give them an example from a movie and I said there were two friends sitting at the table one of them said It's my birthday next week then the other one said "Oh, is it? so, I elaborated that here he meant that "I'm surprised to hear that" or it can have a totally different meaning like he is rejecting and ignoring and he is saying that "I'm rejecting please continue" and then I made another example and I said if one of your friends tell you that I saw the president last night and if your answer is "oh" it has the same two meanings and the meaning depends on your voice tone." **(T.P.8)** Some teachers tried to teach expressions by reffering to an episode to stablish their point, like this participant she stated: "I was talking to one of my pre-IELTS students and I said I have a plan to improve your fluency and it's going to blow you away then he reacted as he was frightened and said do you want to explode me? So, I understood that he has no idea about it and taught him the point by making use of an example from one of Prison Break's episodes which had a high rate. There the main character used this in the context and then I paused and explained that it meant it was like wow and I said it with excitement for him like the character." **(T.P.1)** In agreement to our point King (2002) indicates in his work, movies are such invaluable and rich resources for teaching because they present colloquial English in real life contexts rather than artificial situations; a chance of being exposed to different native speaker voices, stress, accents, and dialects.

Some other teacher participants mentioned and explained multiple meanings of a phrase in an episode played in the classroom and said: "we were watching a movie in class one of the characters asked the other one how much do I owe you? The other one said "oh common, forget it. It's nothing". Right away one my students raised his hand and said isn't "forget it" an offensive utterance? so I paused the movie and explained for him that here the situation was between two friends and they were polite, but there is another situation when one of your friends asks you for money and you know that he is not honest and he will not return you the money, so you say with anger and seriousness "forget it, I am not paying you" here forget it is more impolite." **(T.P.6)** Therefore, the meaning of an utterance depends on the way you talk and on the context which is used. The other pragmatic teacher stated different usage of a phrase by African- American people in a listening task: "one session I played a listening part and the dialogue was between two African-American men and one of them said "get out of there" and the learners didn't get the meaning I said here he was shocked of what the other one told him and this phrase can be considered as an exclamation expression in African-American culture and context and an equivalence for it can be "unbelievable!" or "you are messing with me!" which is informal." **(T.P.5)** Besides, one idiom does not have similar meaning in multiple situations; hence, the context and situation should be clarified for the leaners in order to help them notice these differences. Here the teacher elaborated on the meaning of "being down" idiom: "I was explaining different meanings of the idiom "being down" on the board and I exemplified in war or in conflict, "he is down" I said it doesn't mean that he falls down, but it means he is shot or he is not capable of moving so he is down. The second meaning of "being down" is used when someone is sad or depressed and the third meaning is for example when I'm saying I'm having gathering in my house, I call my friend and invite him and he says yeah I'm totally down. Here he means "I'm in"." **(T.P.3)** Subsequently, teachers try to make their learners understood different usage of an expression as she said: “I always notice and attract my students’ attention to the different usage of an utterance for instance, we have an expression “what the hell” and it has two usages, when someone is offering you to go out and you have something to do and you say “what the hell Let’s go” here it means that you are tired of what you’re doing and you don’t care for doing it anymore and now you want to go out and the other usage of it is when you see something that is weird and shocking.” **(T.P.1)** In affirmation of what is found Verschueren (1981) asserted that words can not considered as isolated entities. Infact they are interlinked with other words like as same as with the extralinguistic reality so, does the meanings of words. The linguistic meaning of the keywords is not only related to the meanings of other words happening within local context, sentential context, and topical context, also to extralinguistic reality being around the linguistic acts done by language users.

4.2.3. Using Sarcasm and Humor

Sarcasm and humor both deal with the way in which meaning is created in the interactional context. In other words, what you mean is not what you say and this will cause misunderstanding for EFL learners who have never been in an English speaking country and are not familiar with their culture and the context of language use. Therefore, the participants of this study mentioned that they use sarcasm and humor in their teachable moments or they provide with some real-life examples for their learners to point out the hidden meaning: “for instance, when one of my students always come late, accidently one day he comes on time, here I say to others Reza is always on time. Isn’t he? Then they laugh and I say your laugh shows that what I said was not what I mean but I mean that “This is the only time he is on time.” And my tone was sarcastic.” **(T.P.2)** The same situation has happened for our other participant as she said: “My real example that I want to tell you has happened for all teachers, my student came late and I asked him do you have a watch? And he answered yes of course and it is Fila brand! Then I looked at all the students and said what did I mean? And the other students told him that I meant that you are late and you have to be on time.” **(T.P.1)** Exactly the other participant did the same and made use of situation which occurred in his class and stated: “when one of my students didn’t do his homework here is the teachable moment for me and I use tag questions and I say “you are a student, aren’t you?” when I ask this question he will not answer, but if I see he tries to answer me I will say to all the students in the class “was it a real question?”then they will say no and I will explain that I just wanted to humiliate him because students’ job is just studying and doing homework on time, and then I will give them some other forms for using sarcasm, like rhetorical questions, tag questions, and also they can use facial expressions.” **(T.P.11)** Using sarcastic tone is common between most of the English teachers as other teacher said: “In my class after each exercise I give a topic to my students and they think about it for one minute and then we will discuss on it for five to ten minutes. One session I asked them which one is important wealth, fame, respect or power and while they were giving their opinion I was giving them my feedback, one of them said in my opinion respect is the most important because when you have respect you have wealth then I said “yeah, right” with a sarcastic tone and the others laughed and they understood I was denying it rather than confirming.” **(T.P.5)** According to Richmond and McCroskey (1998) it has been proven that using the situation and the combination of it to make sarcasm and humor out of that situation in the classroom aimed at student learning is known as immediacy. Previous researches have found that teacher immediacy helps in making students feel more comfortable in the classroom atmosphere (Gorham & Christophel, 1990; Teven & Hanson, 2004; Teven & McCroskey, 1997; Zhang, 2005).

Use of sarcasm and humor by the teachers as tools for raising learners’ pragmatic awareness and internalizing this awareness is crusial as he said: my personal experience proved that using humor in class and elaborating on the meaning if necessary can help students internalize the use of language. “It was a rainy day and we were talking about it in class then one of the students has just arrived and he was all wet and said it’s raining, right away I made use of the situation and said “You don’t say!” with a sarcastic tone, then all the students laughed and I saw that they were using “you don’t say” in an appropriate situation and context so, they internalized it.” **(T.P.3)** To guarantee the point discovered Garner (2006) stated that humor increases students’ motivation in learning, and learners who are taught by a teacher who make use of humor often learn more.

4.2.4. Using Facial Expressions and Tone of Voice

Body language and facial expressions can be considered as other types of situational meanings and cultural loading options. The issue is that the sender of the message is subconsciously aware about his gestures that he makes, while the receiver is not totally conscious for his reaction. when the sender of the message can not use body language in appropriateness way, it can be the first limit which makes the speaker unable to successfully send his or her message, but if he is good at expressing his thought it will be a good supporter. Most of body language cues depend on the context and the situation in which they are used as the teacher participant declared: “I use body expressions but it depends on my students’ level of proficiency, we had a topic that how can we solve this country’s problems and they said we should add money to the country, we should export, import …. I said these are all correct but by these we are not “solving anything” and when I was saying solving anything I was showing them air quotes with my fingers and they asked me what does this action mean, so I taught it on the board and started with written language and I said when you want to emphasize on some words or expressions you show air quote or you can apply voice tone, but you should choose one not both to convey your meaning.” **(T.P.5)** Other teacher used her facial expression when she was misunderstood by one of her students and said: “one of my students offered me something and I said no I’m fine and he said I didn’t ask you that you are fine or not pick one! Then I paused and showed him with my facial expression that he is wrong and he didn’t get what I mean and then he said oh you mean that you are full? I said yes and offered them some chocolates and I didn’t let them to have one and ask them to say no, I’m fine.” **(T.P.10)**

The majority of the participants believed that the way we talk particularly have profound effect on how others interpret and interact to what we are saying and how we are feeling. Likewise, the importance of using such property of non-verbal language represents the tone of our voices as a kind of message-delivery service. The old people say, "It's not what you said, it's how you said it" that goes back directly to tone of voice. Based on one of teachers’ experience he uttered: “for instance, sometimes I make use of my students to teach them the point. I remember that the last semester one of my students said with emphasis “I LOVE Japanese” then I asked all the class why didn’t he say I love and he said I LOVE instead? They said because he loves it very much even one of them said maybe he even hates it and here the meaning becomes sarcastic.” **(T.P.4)** By the same token one of the teachers mentioned the differences of putting emphasis on a word in a sentence, he elaborated: “I was explaining that tone of voice makes meaning different, like when you ask someone how do you do? And he answers you with the same question but he puts emphasize on the word “you” and he says “how do YOU do?” here it means that somehow why you are asking this question because you know my situation or even it means that you have more interesting news to say.” **(T.P.8)**

By using tone of voice one can show his/her different expressions like dissatisfaction, complaint, frustration and being surprised as the creative teacher participants presented: "I teach my leaners that we can mix our answers with tone, for example when someone asks you how are you? You can say same old, same old with sadness, here it means you emphasized on your answer and you are not satisfied with your feelings or another example when your friend says let's go to the cinema and you answer with eagereness "Yeah, let's go" or you can say "yeah, let's go" with reluctance. So, these two answers are different in meaning because of voice tone you used." **(T.P.3)**; sometimes when they want to show their complaint they emphasize on a word. "In a Listening task two people were talking one of them said "how are you cuz?" the other answered "how are you CUZ?" and I said the addressee didn't like the word that the other one used and showed his dissatisfaction by his tone and he means change the word or do not use this word for me." **(T.P.10)**. There is a phrase that you can say a variety of tones. "The phrase is "you gotta be kidding me" you can say it with frustration when you are so frustrated, everything didn't go as planned and then another bad thing happens, and then you say you gotta be kidding me or you can say it with surprised and sarcastic tone when your friend says I saw the president last night here it means you are mocking him and rejecting his claim." **(T.P.2)** In line with the findings DePaulo and Friedman (1998) believed that nonverbal kind of communication like facial expressions and tone of voice are highly informative, often inevitably used, and so powerful that they can interchange information about internal states, attitudes, and emotions.

4.2.5. Differentiating Formal and Informal Speech

The major differences between formal and informal speech come from the social and cultural contexts in which speakers use them. Speakers tend to use informal English among friends and relatives. Informal speech can include informal text messages and other written communication. On the other hand, speakers use formal speech in more professional settings, usually among colleagues or new acquaintances. Judgment of comfort level and social expectations give clues to speakers so that the average person switches between formal and informal speech in a variety of situations. Here the teacher participant elaborated on the importance of differentiating between their usage and examplifing for his learners in order to help them notice: "usually I use the expression "the thing is" in my speaking, I was saying that "the thing is that in our country we have a lot of economic problems" at that moment one of my students asked what is the meaning of “the thing is” and I explained for her that when we want to say that there is a problem and you should know that, this expression is spoken and native like and you can just use it in informal context, but when you want to use this in formal context you should say “the issue is” ; hence, it is important to mention these differences for them and I always do it.” **(T.P.9)**

An IELTS examiner added to this importance and asserted that in IELTS speaking exam it is also significant to know what form is suitable to use: “I am an IELTS examiner and if candidates are aware of the differences between formal and informal speech and they can use language appropriately it will have positive point in their rating. I was rating someone’s speaking skill and he was talking about his study and he said “It was all bullshit.”, If I was his teacher, I would have say that you shouldn’t use this word in this situation which is formal and you should say, “it was all a waste” or, “it was all in vein” or even when you want to use it in less formal situation it’s better to say “it was all nonesense” **(T.P.7)** Same as the previous teacher the next two participants highlighted the use of language in classroom as a formal situation and stated that : “one of my main concerns in my classes is that students have to know how they talk in class which is a formal context, one day we were discussing which day is suitable for having a make- up session and one of my students suggested that “what about Friday?” and I said this is the way that you suggest to your friends not your teacher and it’s better to say “would it be a good idea to have a make-up session on Friday?” and this is the formal way of suggesting. In my opinion EFL students need to know socio-pragmatics and pragma-linguistics.” **(T.P.6)**. The other similar experience and said: “I have given them a topic for panel discussion and I don’t remember what was the topic right now, suddenly one of my students said “holly shit” and because they were adults I right away corrected his inappropriate use of language and said if you are shocked you can say “holly crab” or “unbelievable” when you are in a formal situation like classroom.” **(T.P.4)** Additionally there are alternative forms of showing one’s agreement in formal and informal speech as the participant mentioned: “I was teaching different forms of showing agreement and I said for formal context you can say “I agree with you” or you can use it as an adjective and say “I am agreed on something”, but for informal situation, for example there is a woman with her child sitting in a bus station and the child is crying and nagging, other woman with her child come and sit, the first woman who is annoyed by her kid says to the newly arrived woman “ how hard is it!” and she answers “tell me about it” or says “talk to me”these are informal ways of showing your agreement and the most informal one is “you bet” when your friend asks you going to party on Saturday?

You say “you bet”. **(T.P.8)** In confirmation of the appropriate use of formal or informal forms based on where and to whom are used, Bedford (2011) asserted that neither formal nor informal language is necessarily better than the other, but it is almost always the situation and audience which determine the most appropriate kind of language.

4.2.6. Differentiating Direct and Indirect Speech Act

In order to be socially and culturally acceptable in using English language and be native like, as partcipants of this study emphasized, you should be able to differentiate between indirect and direct speaking style and know in which context and with which linguistic tools they are appropriate to use in order not to be perceived as rude or harsh. As the teacher participant elaborated: “Using direct and indirect speech refers to politeness and you can speak directly with your close friends and I always mention to my students that if you sit at a table and you want to ask your dad to pass you the salt you should say would you please pass me the salt? Because he is your father and older than you, also when I am correcting my students writing sheets instead of writing “you are weak” I would write “you need further practice” because if you say it directly that you are weak it’s direct hitting and offensive and maybe he will become upset.” **(T.P.4)**

In writing task which is considered as a formal letter it is appropitare to use indirect speech act and one of the teachers clarified this point by an example: “for instance, in their letter writing course they wanted to write a writing task and I taught them if you want to write an organization you should ask your request indirectly, this makes your request polite and you should say “I would appreciate it if you send us one of your brochures” or “I would be grateful if you did it” rather than saying it directly like “send me the brochures!” this is direct, impolite and face-threatening.” **(T.P.7)**. Additionally, it is significant to use indirect speech act if one wants to be polite and socially acceptable as one said: “always I emphasize on the difference between using direct and indirect speech and I say there are two ways of speaking indirectly one of them is changing the offensive word and the other one is using you voice tone. For example, someone asks you am I fat? and you will say no you are overweight because you want to be polite or when your friend asks you “is my dress beautiful?” but you think it’s not you can say no by saying “you have better dresses” or you can say it with a reluctant voice tone “yeah!” or you can also add a phrase to make sure she understood your intention and say “beautiful, if you know what I mean.” **(T.P.5.)** There are other ways of being polite by using indirect speech act like this example: “I explained for them when someone asks you to lift a heavy thing you can just refuse it indirectly by saying “I’m afraid not, I have a backache.” Rather than directly saying no. **(T.P.2)** In continuation, according to Brown and Levinson (1987) and Kasper (1990) and Letch (1983) and what they have found shows that the origin of many indirect forms of expressions exists in the necessity of softening the interaction for being polite.

This study shows that if one can provide different forms for saying the same thing in different situations and mentioning why he/she has meta-pragmatic awareness of the language and culture. Therefore, the teacher participants were asked to elaborate on this topic and they present their comments as: “I always give different forms for speech acts, for example I told them that when you want to suggest for something you can say “how about Friday night?” or you can say “Let’s go to the movies” when you are suggesting your friends and it’s informal but when you want to say it formally you would say “will you able to come with me on Friday?” and I inform them how they should use speech acts in multiple situations in order to help them to be more native like.” **(T.P.7)** Other participant presented alternative forms for making suggestions: for suggestion function we can use many forms which have different meanings, we say let’s go to the cinema, shall we? when we are with our friends and we are sure that their answer is positive, but when we say what about cinema? Here we are not sure that will be confirmed or rejected, and we have phrase that I always say to my students “Do you mind if” and when you use it is both request and suggestion because this structure is polite, and there is another phrase like saying “would you mind opening the window?” and this is also both request and suggestion. **(T.P.5)** One of teachers made use of the situation which has happened in her class to teach them alternative forms of requesting she said: “sometimes they want to have a polite request from their teacher but they do not know how means they don’t have a linguistic tools that is pragmalinguistics so they have social awareness but they do not have linguistic awareness for instance, they would say, “please cancel the next session” and they do not know they say it imperatively so I will tell them that for polite request you can use politeness markers and say I was wondering if you could cancel the next session, also I remember one of my students said can you help me? And I replied you can use this type of requesting with your friend, but with me as your teacher you should say “I was wondering if it would be all right to help me with this”. **(T.P.6)** In support of the findings several studies (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001; Boxer & Pickering, 1995; Bouton, 1996; Kasper 1997) have shown that learners of high grammatical proficiency will not necessarily possess comparable pragmatic competence. Even grammatically advanced learners may use language inappropriately and show differences from target-language pragmatic norms.

4.3. Code Relation Browser

Code relation browser considered as a visual tool in MAXQDA software which presents the degree of overlaps between codes (see figure 4.2.). In figure 2, the squares show the co-occurrence of codes, and the size of the square represents the degree of overlap. This tool helps us better understand that there is a meaningful relationship between codes in grounded theory. As you can see in figure 2, the larger the square the higher the relationship is between the two codes. For instance, between differentiating formal and informal code and using movies and TV series the degree of co-occurrence is higher since the square size is bigger. It means as the teacher participants declared in their comments, one can use showing movies and TV series as a vivid and practical source of formal and informal language usage in multiple contexts and with different people in case of their social status and relation.

On the other hand, between differentiating direct and indirect speech act code and using sarcasm ad humor the degree of co-occurrence is lower since the square size is smaller. In other words, differentiating direct and indirect speech act cannot be considered as a practical source or resource of using sarcasm and humor in raising learners' pragmatic knowledge.

Figure 4.2. Code Relations Browser

4.4. Charts Indicating the Frequency of the Sub-Codes

In addition to the code relation browser, which graphically represents the degree to which codes overlap, MAXQDA helped us create charts which, represents the degree to which emerged codes are grounded in the analyzed texts. Analysis revealed that in using movies and TV series code technique the highest frequency has been calculated since most of the documents and the participants had referred to this code which means this code can be considered as the most effective, practical and beneficial technique which can embrace all the other five presented techniques used by almost most of the teacher participants of this study. (see Figure 4.3.)

The four techniques, using facial expression and tone of voice, using sarcasm and humor, differentiating formal and informal speech and differentiating direct and indirect speech act have the same chance of representativeness of the documents. In other words, these four techniques less used by the participants and can be considered as sub-techniques of the first and second techniques.

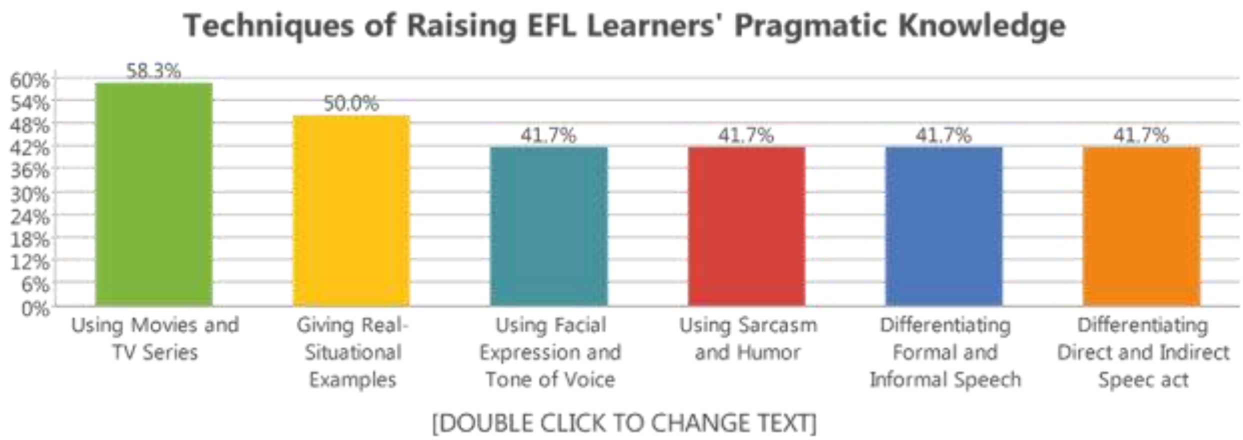

Figure 4.3. Sub-codes' Statistics

Chapter Five:

Discussion and Conclusion

5.1. Overview

The goal of this research is to bring teachers' pragmatic knowledge to their conscious level and uncover it by asking about their techniques of teaching pragmatics as well as investigate the effective ways through which applying such techniques is accomplished. To this end, some English language teachers who have been successful in explaining and elaborating on their English pragmatic knowledge, were chosen to be asked to introduce their applied techniques and also explain the 'how' of employing such techniques.

This chapter presents a summary of the findings, a discussion of these findings in relation to the previous studies in the field, the pedagogical implications of the study, and the recommendations for further research.

5.2. Discussion

To uncover what is teching techniques of EFL teachers in raising their learners' pragmatic knowledge and what are its different sources, EFL teachers need to follow pragmatic EFL teachers who have gained this knowledge and have taught this essential knowledge in their classrooms. So, this study investigated successful teachers' recommendations in terms of different aspects of techniques they have employed since the time of developing their language proficiency.

At first, only two techniques contributing to teaching pragmatic knowledge were found which were giving real situation examples and using movies and TV series. All of the applied techniques were affected by this factor. The first dimension of raising situational awareness factor concerned those techniques applied by the participants based on their inner desire in using English language. On the other hand, the third technique involved the techniques which helped participants to meet their social and cultural requirements. Therefore, giving real situational examples was considered as the most important factor playing role in helping learners noticing the contextual and cultural as Schmidt (1990) presented the concept of noticing under the title of noticing hypothesis. He believed that noticing target features is a necessary condition for SLA to occur, since a defining feature of explicit instruction is the provision of raising pragmatic information to learners. Similarly, Rose (2005) asserted that learners are guaranteed to notice target pragmatic features in this instructional condition. Subsequently, she added, since pragmatic information is hidden in implicit instructional condition, learners need to discover pragmatic rules by themselves;

they may not always be successful in doing so. Moreover, although noticing target pragmatic features is crucial for L2 pragmatic development, this process remains only the very first step toward a full mastery of target pragmatic features. Bulut (2009) has the same view and asserts that, the first step in developing learners' pragmatic competence is awareness. The rationale behind this view is consistent with Schmidt's (1993) noticing hypothesis as previously mentioned. Meanwhile, the general absence of discussion issuing explicit knowledge in L2 pragmatics research makes it important to notice that, according to (Bardovi-Harlig, 2012b; Ellis, 2004) tasks which commonly used in pragmatics research may activate explicit knowledge. Ellis (2004) asserted that, "L2 researchers have not specifically set out to investigate explicit knowledge of L2 pragmatic features. However, many of the instruments that have been used to investigate learners' knowledge of illocutionary acts, such as the discourse completion questionnaire (Kasper & Dahl, 1991), are arguably more likely to tap explicit than implicit knowledge." (pp. 243–244)

The first and most applied technique was giving real situation examples. The participants' explanation and exemplification activities were considered the focal point of teaching their pragmatic knowledge. This conception of a teaching process meant that it is essential to elaborate on situational and contextual and cross-cultural points in teaching process, and the activities must be developed on the basis of the student's own problem-solving. An open-ended learning environment provided students with multiple possibilities for activities. In order to have learners who have explicit pragmatic knowledge, some researchers believed that we should educate our future teachers and arm them with all the information and skills. According to Tomlinson (1994), to make learners aware of pragmatics and language appropriate use in foreign or second language, it is necessary to develop teachers with this competence in the education of language teachers. Put it another way, we should make explicit what teacher students know implicitly about language components and system and the rules of language use is of high importance in language teachers' education. Knowing how language resources is used to attain different communicative goals in both spoken and written communication is essential for future language teachers, since it helps them improve their communicative language competences and empowers them to realize how they can teach to help their students acquire the language more effectively and successfully. In line with Tomlinson's (1994) idea, Cohen and Ishihara (2014) stated that teachers themselves have to notice their socio-pragmatic knowledge and added that teachers' knowledge and beliefs are considered as ever-changing system that will be modified easily in relation to, for example, teachers' professional development and experience. Since various events happen at the same time and at various and different levels in the classroom, much of teachers' knowledge of their own teaching may remain below the level of consciousness. Cohen and Ishihara (2014) added that "Their beliefs may be an outgrowth of this implicit knowledge or may be traceable to experiences they have had in their own learning or teaching decades ago. Because teachers' experience may have occurred unconsciously or subconsciously or may be buried deeply in the past, their knowledge and beliefs may not be easily articulated." (p. 29).

The second technique was using movies and TV series. The participants have spent proper times on showing multiple movies and TV series and reviewed a large amount of materials. This technique was welcomed by most of the participants as they thought of it as the best way of getting familiar with slang and colloquial expressions in the target language. Most of the time, this trend was followed in the case of facing speaking problems through practicing other techniques. In other words, when the participants had problem in any area of English language via other sources of language input, they referred to the movies they had watched many times before during their learning period. To make clear, only watching movies for EFL learners is not enough to know what form is suitable to use so, they are in need of a teacher who can elaborate on these points. Tomlinson (1994) holds the opinion that the pragmatic awareness approach to teaching concerns with developing a gradual awareness of the mismatch between the EFL learners' performance and that of proficient users of the language, namely native speakers of English; therefore, this will help learners to overcome and identify the problematic features of appropriate use of language and will facilitate acquiring it. According to Povolna (2010) "the access to data representing authentic discourse and meaningful interaction in the target language can foster the learners' gradual development of pragmatic awareness and thus contribute to the learners' independence and promotion of their skills in generalizing and evaluating not only their own language performance, but also that of other speakers (e.g. their students), which is essential for their work as (future) teachers." (p. 149).

The third technique was recognized as using sarcasm and humor even for teaching the difference between intention and expression or for pointing out the meaning of a sarcastic utterance. This technique was welcomed by most of the participants as they thought of it as the best way of internalizing an expression or other utterances which without having the context it is hard for you to follow and get the intention. As Cohen (2014) states that all efforts which teachers can make for the pragmatic awareness is to develop the pragmatic ability in the target language. On the one hand, it is the ability to negotiate what is meant which is beyond the literal meaning and deals with assumptions. The importance of it in interactions has always been a vital aspect in language classes. However, the recent thought about pragmatics has changed to an interest in pragmatics in language teaching or training in practical manner instead of mere theory (Sachtleben & Denny, 2012).

The other and fourth explored technique was teaching differences between direct and indirect speech act which was favored highly by the participants. The participants applied such technique, appreciated the movies accompanied by using direct and indirect speech in helping them to improve their meta-pragmatic knowledge. The high fondness of the participants towards the importance of using and noticing contextual and situational differences for using direct and indirect speech act was consistent with the arguments of Schmidt (1990) and Rose (2005) who believed that noticing target features is a necessary condition for SLA to occur, since a defining feature of explicit instruction is the provision of pragmatic information to learners so, the learners are guaranteed to notice target pragmatic features in this instructional condition. Subsequently, she added, since meta-pragmatic information is hidden in implicit instructional condition, learners need to discover pragmatic rules by themselves; they may not always be successful in doing so. Moreover, although noticing target pragmatic features is crucial for L2 pragmatic development, this process remains only the very first step toward a full mastery of target pragmatic features.

As a further and fifth technique of teaching pragmatic knowledge is explaining multiple meaning of a token, some scholars got to a conclusion that making pragmatically alerting students out of students who are only language competent. Scholars believe that each teacher has his own practice and they suggest some techniques to future teachers. Following Povolna (2012), “Pragmatic awareness can be achieved if students are regularly exposed to authentic English and guided to an understanding of the gap between their use of the target language and that of proficient language users.” (p. 149-150) McCarthy (1998) emphasized on the importance of “noticing” phenomena as a step to acquiring L2 effectively. He also suggests supplementing the traditional ‘Three Ps’ methodology (Presentation-Practice-Production) by the ‘Three I’s’ methodology (Illustration-Interaction-Induction) and he defined illustration as exposing learners to examples of authentic language, and interaction as talking about the language between teachers and students, and induction as drawing conclusion and sharing their ideas about the way the language is used in communication. Tudor (2001) proposed that teachers should facilitate learning process consequently the teacher's role is "more one of helping students to find a sense of personal meaningfulness in the learning process in a context which is often shaped by perceptions, goals, and priorities of a variety of other participants" (p. 207).

The last technique which was necessitated the participants' situational awareness was differentiating formal and informal speech. Through this technique the participants looked for their faced problems- in terms of the situational and contextual knowledge- in real-life and native like situation and made use of them in teaching them to their learners. The findings in terms of differentiating formal and informal speech were proved by Bardovi-Harlig & Mahan-Taylor (2003) that the achievement of meta-pragmatic awareness is not easy, it is vital to know 'what', 'how' and 'in what ways' the pragmatic knowledge can be improved. Since not only the awareness and competence, but the implementation of pragmatically appropriate language in the classroom is important, we need for an in-depth observation to the training programs. The relevant researches evaluating the involvement of pragmatics in teacher education programs mostly focus on theory rather than practice (Eslami- Rasekh, 2005; Ishihara, 2011; Vasquez & Sharpless, 2009). Polovna (2012) designed a study to identify teacher trainees' suggestions about pragmatics teaching. The results indicated that, teacher trainees are willing to use most of their theoretical knowledge in their own teaching and they are also eager to improve pragmatic awareness of their students as a way to improve their speaking skill, as a result of communicative competence.

5.3. Implications for Practice

This study is supposed to have clear implications since the relationship between theory and practice is bilateral, in other words; language teaching is no longer in its infancy to be totally dependent on theories. We believe that conceptualization of teacher's perspectives and techniques concerning raising pragmatic knowledge of EFL learners will show that data driven studies should be taken seriously since they complement theory driven studies. This qualitative case study as an example of data driven studies can help theorists by presenting teachers' experiences and perspectives and hints to them to broaden the scope of their studies or modify their gran theories.

The end of this study is to uncover techniques of EFL teachers in raising pragmatic knowledge of their learner. This study is supposed to have applications for, syllabus designers since the findings clearly will show that they should not forget about pragmatic knowledge at the cost of language competence. It also will be beneficial for language teachers since the results will give them some practical techniques for teaching L2 pragmatics. It is claimed to be fruitful for supervisors since the conceptualization of teachers' perspective will give them sufficient criteria for judging teachers while observing.

5.4. Suggestions for Further Studies

The findings of this study revealed the having pragmatic awareness is essential for both teachers and learners of EFL. In addition, several suggestions were presented through this study to make this knowledge more effective. Such suggestions have been mentioned to be taken into account by teacher educators. It also worth mentioning that gaining the pragmatic knowledge is better to be bilateral and from different sources. In other words, learners also play important role in providing this knowledge as well as teacher educators. So, suggestions to be considered and applied by teacher trainers are also need to be explored. In addition, the already explored suggestions that have to be considered by teacher educators are needed to be tested in order to find the extent to which they can be applicable in language school context all around the world.

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چکیده

در بسیاری از بافت ها شامل اموزش زبان در ایران که زبان انگلیسی به عنوان زبان خارجی است – به دلیل اینکه مدارس زبان و معلمان اساسا بر روی اگاهی یا دانش گرامری تمرکز می کنند دانش کاربرد زبان معمولا نادیده گرفته می شود . با در نظر گرفتن این مهم که عدم اگاهی از دانش کاربرد زبان ممکن است باعث شود زبان اموزان نکات کلیدی که زمان برقراری ارتباط ردو بدل میشوند را از دست دهند و یا در برداشت پیام خود دچار اشتباه و سوتفاهم شوند. تعدادی از معلمان به دانش کاربرد زبان توجه ویژه ای کرده و تلاش کردند که اگاهی از این دانش را از ابتدا افزایش دهند. برای اشکار ساختن تجارب و تکنیک هایی که انها استفاده کرده اند – دراین مطالعه کیفی با دوازده معلم که تمایل داشتند تجارب خود را با محقق به اشتراک بگذارند مصاحبه شد. مطابق با نظریه زمینه ای فرایند متوالی (چرخه مکرر) جمع اوری و تحلیل داده ها تا زمان اشباع(تکمیل شدن) درک حاصل از تکنیک های بالابردن دانش کاربرد زبان ،زبان اموزان ادامه پیدا کرد. تحلیل داده ها شش تکنیک که عقاید حرفه ای شرکت کنندگان را منعکس می کنندرا نشان داد. تکنیک هایی که پدیدار شدند عبارت اند از ارائه مثال هایی از موقعیت های واقعی، استفاده از فیلم ها و سریال های تلویزیون، استفاده از طعنه و طنز، استفاده از بیان بدن و تن صدا،تمایز بین گفتار رسمی و غیر رسمی و تمایز بین صحبت کردن مستقیم و غیر مستقیم.این مطالعه کاربردهای روشنی برای زبان اموزان واموزش معلمان دارد.

کلمات کلیدی: تکنیک ها، بالابردن اگاهی دانش کاربرد زبان، مطالعه کیفی

گروه زبان انگلیسی

پایان نامه ارشد آموزش زبان

کشف تکنیک های معلمان در بالا بردن دانش کاربردی زبان آموزان: مطالعه کیفی

نگارنده: رژین آرین مجد

استاد راهنما

دکتر سیدعلی استوار نامقی

بهمن 1397