T.C.

BURSA ULUDAĞ UNIVERSITY

INSTITUTE OF EDUCATION SCIENCES FOREIGN LANGUAGE EDUCATION

DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE EDUCATION

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MOTIVATION AND PRAGMATIC AWARENESS: A CASE STUDY OF TURKISH EFL LEARNERS

M.A. THESIS

EZGİ KIYANÇİÇEK

0000-0002-1865-0023

BURSA – 2023

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MOTIVATION AND PRAGMATIC AWARENESS: A CASE STUDY OF TURKISH EFL LEARNERS

M.A. THESIS

Ezgi KIYANÇİÇEK

0000-0002-1865-0023

SUPERVISOR

Asst. Prof. Dr. Çiğdem KARATEPE

BURSA – 2023

BİLİMSEL ETİĞE UYGUNLUK

Bu çalışmadaki tüm bilgilerin akademik ve etik kurallara uygun bir şekilde elde edildiğini beyan ederim.

<div align="right">

Ezgi KIYANÇİÇEK

16.01.2023

</div>

TEZ YAZIM KURALINA UYGUNLUK ONAYI

"The relationship between motivation and pragmatic awareness: A case study of Turkish EFL learners" adlı Yüksek Lisans tezi, Bursa Uludağ Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü tez yazım kurallarına uygun olarak hazırlanmıştır.

Tezi Hazırlayan   **Danışman**
Ezgi KIYANÇİÇEK   Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Çiğdem KARATEPE

İngiliz Dili Eğitimi ABD Başkanı

Prof. Dr. Ayşegül Amanda YEŞİLBURSA

EĞİTİM BİLİMLERİ ENSTİTÜSÜ

YÜKSEK LİSANS/DOKTORA BENZERLİK YAZILIM RAPORU

BURSA ULUDAĞ ÜNİVERSİTESİ
EĞİTİM BİLİMLERİ ENSTİTÜSÜ
YABANCI DİLLER EĞİTİMİ ANABİLİM DALI BAŞKANLIĞI'NA

Tarih: 16.01.2023

Tez Başlığı: The relationship between motivation and pragmatic awareness: A case study of Turkish EFL learners

Yukarıda başlığı gösterilen tez çalışmamın a) Kapak sayfası, b) Giriş, c) Ana bölümler ve d) Sonuç kısımlarından oluşan toplam 105 sayfalık kısmına ilişkin, 05.01.2023 tarihinde şahsım tarafından *Turnitin* adlı intihal (benzerlik) tespit programından (Turnitin)[*] aşağıda belirtilen filtrelemeler uygulanarak alınmış olan özgünlük raporuna göre, tezimin benzerlik oranı % 18'dir.

Uygulanan filtrelemeler:

1- Kaynakça hariç
2- Alıntılar hariç/dahil
3- 5 kelimeden daha az örtüşme içeren metin kısımları hariç

Uludağ Üniversitesi Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü Tez Çalışması Özgünlük Raporu Alınması ve Kullanılması Uygulama Esasları'nı inceledim ve bu Uygulama Esasları'nda belirtilen azami benzerlik oranlarına göre tez çalışmamın herhangi bir intihal (benzerlik) içermediğini; aksinin tespit edileceği muhtemel durumda doğabilecek her türlü hukuki sorumluluğu kabul ettiğimi ve yukarıda vermiş olduğum bilgilerin doğru olduğunu beyan ederim.

Gereğini saygılarımla arz ederim.

Tarih ve İmza

16.01.2023

Adı Soyadı:	Ezgi KIYANÇİÇEK
Öğrenci No:	802093003
Anabilim Dalı:	Yabancı Diller Eğitimi
Programı:	İngiliz Dili Eğitimi
Statüsü:	☒ Y.Lisans ☐ Doktora

Danışman

(Adı, Soyadı, Tarih)

Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Çiğdem Karatepe

ÖZET

Adı-Soyadı	Ezgi KIYANÇİÇEK
Üniversite	Bursa Uludağ Üniversitesi
Enstitü	Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü
Ana Bilim Dalı	Yabancı Diller Eğitimi
Bilim Dalı	İngiliz Dili Eğitimi
Tezin Niteliği	Yüksek Lisans
Sayfa Numarası	
Mezuniyet Tarihi	
Danışman	Dr. Öğr. Üyesi. Çiğdem KARATEPE

MOTİVASYON VE EDİMBİLİMSEL FARKINDALIK ARASINDAKİ İLİŞKİ: İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRENEN TÜRK ÖĞRENCİLER ÜZERİNE BİR VAKA ÇALIŞMASI

Son yıllarda, yabancı dil sınıflarında dil öğretiminin arkasında yatan temel fikir önemli ölçüde değişip gelişmiştir. Özellikle, iletişimsel dil öğretim yönteminin ortaya çıkmasıyla birlikte, dil öğretiminin odak noktası öğretmen merkezli ve dilbilgisi odaklı bir bakış açısından uzaklaşarak daha iletişimsel ve öğrenci odaklı bir öğretime doğru kaymıştır. Bu nedenle, iletişim kurmak ve verilmek istenen mesajı iletmek, dil öğretimi ve öğreniminin hedefleri arasında yer almaktadır. Bu hedeflere ulaşmak için dilin edimbilimsel unsurlar dil öğretimin bir parçası olmalı ve öğrenciler bu unsurların farkında olmalıdır. Ancak, farkındalık sadece öğretim yöntemi ilgili değildir. Dil öğrenenlerin farkındalığını etkileyen birkaç bireysel faktör bulunmaktadır ve bu faktörlerden biri motivasyondur. Motivasyon, özellikle ikinci dil edinimi çalışmalarında, dil öğrenimi açısından hem tetikleyici bir faktör hem de bir engel olabileceği için büyük ilgi görmüştür. Bu nedenle, motivasyon ve dimbilimsel farkındalık arasındaki ilişkiyi analiz etmek önem taşımaktadır. Her ne kadar motivasyon ve edimbilimsel farkındalık arasındaki ilişkinin incelenmesi gerektiği daha önce vurgulanmış olsa da çok az sayıda çalışmada bu ilişki analiz edilmiştir. Ayrıca araştırmacının bildiği kadarıyla, Türkiye'de bu konuya odaklanan herhangi bir çalışma bulunmamaktadır. Bu nedenle, bu çalışma Türkiye'de yükseköğretim düzeyinde dil öğrenenlerin motivasyon düzeylerini araştırmayı amaçlamaktadır. Ayrıca katılımcıların edimbilimsel farkındalık düzeylerini ve onları etkileyen faktörleri incelemeyi hedeflemektedir. Bu çalışmanın bir diğer amacı ise katılımcıların motivasyonları ile pragmatik farkındalıkları arasındaki ilişkiyi analiz etmektir. Bu doğrultuda, bu çalışma 2021-2022 eğitim-öğretim yılı bahar döneminde Türkiye'nin iki büyük üniversitesinden A2, B1, B2 ve C1 seviyesinden 235 katılımcı ile gerçekleştirilmiştir. Karma yöntemli bir araştırma tasarımı

izlenen bu çalışmada, ilk önce Taguchi ve diğerleri (2009) tarafından tasarlanan Dörnyei'nin L2 motivasyon teorisine (L2MSS) dayalı beşli Likert ölçeği şeklinde hazırlanmış anket uygulanmış ve katılımcılara edimbilimsel farkındalık düzeylerini ölçmek amacıyla on senaryodan oluşan uygun dil kullanımını değerlendirme çalışması verilmiştir. Daha sonra, yarı yapılandırılmış görüşmeler yapılmıştır. Nicel veriler SPSS'de betimsel istatistikler, Mann-Whitney U testi, Kruskal-Vallis Testi, Spearman Korelasyon testi ve Çoklu Doğrusal Regresyon analizi ile incelenmiştir. Nitel veriler deşifre edilmiş, kodlanmış, analiz edilmiş ve bir akış şeması içerisinde sunulmuştur. Bulgular, mevcut çalışmada üniversite düzeyinde dil öğrenenlerin İngilizce öğrenmek için oldukça motive olduklarını göstermektedir. Yurt dışında yaşamak ve eğitim almak, lisans derecesinden sonra eğitim kademelerinde yer almak ve daha iyi bir kariyer sahibi olmak katılımcıların dil öğrenme motivasyonlarını etkileyen temel hususlar arasında yer almaktadır. Ayrıca, katılımcıların edimbilimsel farkındalık düzeyleri farklı söz eylem durumlarında farklılık gösterse de katılımcılar yüksek düzeyde edimbilimsel farkındalığa sahiptir ve farklı sözeylem senaryolarında gözlemlenen farklılıkların sebepleri arasında ders kitapları ve sıklıkla kullanılan belirli dil bilgisi yapıları gibi çeşitli faktörler bulunmaktadır. Ayrıca katılımcıların motivasyon düzeylerinin pragmatik farkındalıklarını olumlu yönde etkilediği sonucuna varılmıştır. Edimbilimsel farkındalık ve ideal ikinci dil benliği, kültürel ilgi ve öğrenilen dilin topluluğuna yönelik tutumlar arasında pozitif bir ilişki olduğu tespit edilmiştir. Ayrıca, öğrenilen dilin topluluğuna yönelik tutumlar ve kültüre duyulan ilgi, bu çalışmadaki katılımcıların edimbilimsel farkındalık düzeylerini en iyi tahmin eden ve açıklayan motivasyonel faktörlerdir. Çalışmanın sonuçları, Türkiye'de üniversite düzeyinde dil öğrenenlerin İngilizce öğrenme motivasyonlarının yüksek olduğunu ve bu yüksek motivasyonun edimbilimsel farkındalık düzeylerini bir ölçüde olumlu etkileyebileceğini ortaya koymuştur.

Anahtar Kelimeler: edimbilim, söz eylem, edimbilimsel farkındalık, motivasyon, L2MSS,

ABSTRACT

Name and Surname	Ezgi KIYANÇİÇEK
University	Bursa Uludağ University
Institution	Institute of Educational Sciences
Field	Foreign Language Education
Branch	English Language Education
Degree Awarded	Master
Page Number	
Degree Date	
Supervisor	Asst. Prof. Çiğdem KARATEPE

THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN MOTIVATION AND PRAGMATIC AWARENESS: A CASE STUDY OF TURKISH EFL LEARNERS

Over the last few decades, the idea behind language instruction in the classroom has changed and evolved considerably. Especially, with the emergence of the communicative language teaching method, the orientation of language teaching has shifted from a teacher-centered and grammar-oriented perspective to a more communicative and student-focused instruction. Therefore, communicating in the language and delivering the intended message have been among the main goals of language teaching and learning. To achieve these goals, pragmatic elements of the language should be part of the instruction, and students should be aware of these pragmatic components in the language. However, awareness is not only related to the delivery of the instruction as several individual factors affect the awareness of language learners, and motivation is one these factors. Motivation has received ample attention, especially in second language acquisition (SLA) studies, as it is both a triggering factor and a hindrance in language learning. Therefore, analyzing the relationship between motivation and pragmatic awareness is essential. Although many researchers and scholars have emphasized the need for it, very few studies have examined this relationship worldwide. What's more, to the researcher's knowledge, there are no studies focusing on this issue in Turkey. Therefore, the current study aims to investigate the motivation level of the language learners at the tertiary level in Turkey. It also aims to examine the level of their pragmatic awareness and the factors affecting it. What's more, analyzing the relationship between the motivation and pragmatic awareness of the participants is another purpose of the current study. The study took place in the spring semester of the 2021-2022 academic year, consisting of 235 participants from A2, B1, B2, and C1 levels from two major universities in Turkey. Following a mixed-method research design,

a five-point Likert scale questionnaire based on Dörnyei's L2 motivation theory (L2MSS) designed by Taguchi et al. (2009) was first implemented, and ten appropriacy judgment tasks were given to the participants to determine their pragmatic awareness level. Later, semi-structured interviews were conducted to elicit further information and have a deeper understanding. Quantitative data were analyzed through descriptive statistics, Mann-Whitney U test, Kruskal-Vallis Test, Spearman Correlation test, and Multiple Linear Regression analysis in SPSS while the qualitative data were transcribed, coded, analyzed, and presented in a flow chart. The findings show that language learners at the university level in the current study are highly motivated to learn English. They mainly learn English to move and live abroad, and to have further academic studies after they finish their bachelor's degrees. They are also aware of the need to learn English for their future careers. Additionally, the participants have a high level of pragmatic awareness, although their level of pragmatic awareness varies in different speech act situations. There might be several factors causing this deviation, such as lack of pragmatic instruction, scarcity of pragmatic content in the coursebooks, overgeneralization and excessive use of specific linguistic forms in any speech act situation, and students' not paying enough attention to contextual factors. It is also concluded that the motivation level of the participants positively affects their pragmatic awareness. There is a positive correlation between pragmatic awareness and the components of the ideal L2 self, cultural interest, and attitudes towards the L2 community. Furthermore, cultural interest and attitudes toward the L2 community are the motivational factors that best anticipate the pragmatic awareness levels of the participants in the current study. The results of the study have revealed that language learners at the university level in Turkey have a high motivation to learn English and their level of pragmatic awareness can be positively affected by their motivation to some extent.

Keywords: pragmatics, speech acts, pragmatic awareness, motivation, L2MSS

To my beloved family

TABLE OF CONTENTS

CHAPTER 1

INTRODCUTION

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

CHAPTER6

CONCLUSION

List of Tables

List of Figures

List Of Abbreviations

AJT: Appropriateness Judgement Task

CCSARP: Cross-Cultural Study of Speech Act Realization Pattern

DCT: Discourse Completion Task

EFL: English as a Foreign Language

ESL: English as a Second Language

FL: Foreign Language

ID: Individual Difference

ILP: Interlanguage Pragmatics

L1: Mother Tongue

L2: Second Language

L2MSS: L2 Motivation Self System

TEFLL: Tunisian EFL Learners

SL: Second Language

SLA: Second Language Acquisition

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

This chapter targets to offer some background information regarding the study conducted to investigate the relationship between Dörnyei's L2 motivation self system and the pragmatic awareness of university-level students in Turkey. In this regard, information regarding the background of the current study, its purpose, significance, and contribution to the research area will be explained in this part.

1.1. Background of the Study

Interacting with others in the community is an indispensable element of being part of a social group, and therefore, it creates the need for language use to sustain communication effectively in various settings. However, is it only the words that we need to communicate effectively? Is there something beyond the dictionary definitions of the words that we need to know?

The answers to these basic questions are quite clear. People need to go beyond the vocabulary and linguistic items they have in their minds. They should be well aware of how to utter something in specific encounters with specific interlocutors. It is obvious that communication is a lot more than ordering some vocabulary in a linear form. Therefore, language users must follow certain norms and use appropriate language to achieve meaningful communication. The realization of appropriate language use has directed attention to the field that focuses on how to say things appropriately: pragmatics.

Pragmatics, as a subfield of linguistics, mainly focuses on what is beyond what language users can find in dictionary definitions. In other words, it is about how context and its norms affect an utterance. According to LoCastro (2003), pragmatics is the "study of speaker and hearer and the meaning created in their joint interactions that include both linguistic and non-linguistic signals in the context of socio-culturally organized activities" (p.15). Leech (1983) claims that pragmatics is primarily related to communication's social, contextual, and linguistic elements. Therefore, according to Yule (1996), it is important to have a good grasp of contextual elements that help the speakers create and maintain appropriate communication and understand each other.

Although it is easier to achieve communication in the mother tongue (L1), is it that easy to do it in the second or the third languages learned? As communicative approaches and techniques in language teaching have gained immense attention in the field of second language learning and teaching, researchers have tried to analyze and find the best approaches to teaching

the pragmatic components of a second language and the most effective ways to help language learners develop their pragmatic competence. Taguchi (2018) claims that pragmatic competence is related to using linguistic resources and communication strategies in accordance with the elements of a conversation, including context, subject of the discussion, power relationship, and status of the speakers. Taguchi (ibid) further states that it is also about being capable of arranging the appropriate level of politeness, directness, and formality. One of the ways to show pragmatic competence is the speech act use, which is about communicative functions such as apologizing, offering, rejecting, and many more, which have received attention in the field of linguistic studies.

Apart from linguistics, scholars in the field of SLA research have also paid attention to pragmatics and the study of speech acts. Therefore, second language instructors and teachers have attempted to provide information about the sociocultural aspects of language and the interactional norms in the classroom to raise the awareness of language learners to facilitate appropriate language production (Taguchi, 2018). It is possible to reach a wide range of resources designed to teach pragmatic components in the language classroom, e.g., Bardovi-Harlig & Taylor 2003; Martínez-Flor & Uso-Juan 2006; Ishihara & Cohen 2010; Houck & Tatsuki 2011). However, there are still challenges to integrate pragmatic instruction into classroom practices, such as a lack of pragmatic input in the second language or the target language (L2), transferring L1 pragmatic norms, and curricular limitations (Kasper & Rose, 2002; Taguchi, 2018). In the Turkish context, Ekin and Damar (2013) and Mede and Dikilitaş (2015) highlight the inefficiency of learners in gaining pragmatic skills.

Language learners should be aware of pragmatic norms and contextual elements to be pragmatically competent. However, are they really aware of these? What should have been done in the language classrooms is still being investigated. Although the previous SLA and pragmatic research claim that the lack of pragmatic competency relies heavily on the lack of pragmatic instruction, L1 norms, and deficiency of pragmatic input, it is also worth noting that the pragmatic input may fail to be noticed in the classroom. Therefore, building on Schmidt's (1993) highly influential work on awareness in SLA, pragmatics in L2 learning is suggested to include a few stages, including the one in which learners should first become 'aware' of the co-occurrences of linguistic forms and contextual features and notice them. Then, this noticing should follow the gradual process of "understanding" the meaning of the utterance and its underlying principles. Therefore, it requires attention, detecting the pattern, and formalizing the knowledge step-by-step.

Furthermore, individual factors that affect pragmatic competence cannot be underestimated. Individual differences (IDs) are too effective in language learning that they cannot and should not be ignored. However, are the researchers and language instructors really aware of individual differences?

According to SLA, IDs have a vital role in language learning (Dörnyei, 2005; Dörnyei & Skehan, 2003; Ellis, 2015). Dörnyei (2005) defines these individual differences as the "dimensions of enduring personal characteristics that are assumed to apply to everybody and on which people differ by degree" (p. 4) and argues that IDs highly influence the learners' desire to learn the language, their learning processes, and their achievements in learning. Dörnyei and Skehan (2003) state that IDs are the factors without which the exposure to the language and classroom instruction in L2 cannot be efficient. Therefore, there has been a lot of research focusing on IDs over the past century, and how they affect language teaching and the learning process is still under investigation.

Among the many IDs, L2 language proficiency and how it contributes to the development of pragmatic competence has been the most commonly examined topic. A number of studies have shown a positive link between proficiency in L2 and pragmatic competency (e.g., Bella, 2012, 2014; Derakhshan, 2019; Félix-Brasdefer, 2007; Roever & Al-Gahtani, 2015; Roever et al., 2014; Takahashi, 2015; Xiao, 2015). These studies show that mastery in L2 can facilitate pragmatic development. Furthermore, age and gender as part of IDs have been investigated by some studies (e.g., Roever et al., 2014; Tajeddin & Malmir, 2014). It is chiefly reported that age does not play a crucial role in developing L2 pragmatics despite the general belief that younger learners who are part of the target community gain L2 pragmatic competence more quickly when compared to older language learners. Some researchers also claim that gender has not been observed to affect pragmatic development physiologically. However, it has been shown in some studies that its psychological and sociological reflections may restrain the acquisition of particular categories of pragmatic knowledge (e.g., Geluykens & Kraft 2007; Herbert, 1990; Iwasaki, 2011; Parisi & Wogan, 2006; Siegal,1995). In some other studies, the researchers have examined willingness to communicate (WTC) (e.g., Karatepe & Fidan, 2021), types of personality (e.g., Taguchi, 2014; Verhoeven & Vermeer, 2002), multiple intelligences (e.g., Sarani & Malmir, 2020), pragmatic learning strategies (e.g., Cohen, 2005, 2010; Cohen & Wang, 2018; Derakhshan et al., 2021; Malmir & Derakhshan, 2020, Tajeddin & Malmir, 2015), and L2 learning aptitude (Ellis, 2015; Derakhshan, 2021).

1.2. Problem and Significance of the Study

It is well-accepted that motivation towards language learning has an immense effect on both the process of language learning and its outcomes. Therefore, numerous studies have paid attention to this individual factor in L2 learning (Ellis, 2015). However, a few studies have explored the link between motivation toward L2 learning and pragmatic acquisition. For instance, Cook (2001) and Takahashi (2005) focused on motivation in language learning and development of pragmatic competence in their studies while Arabmofrad et al. (2019) and Tajeddin and Zand-Moghadam (2012) investigated pragmatic motivation. Recently a few other researchers, including Yang and Ren (2020), analyzed pragmatic awareness and second language learning motivation.

Taguchi and Roever (2017) claim that the possible contribution of motivation to learning L2 pragmatics has received little attention. Similarly, almost a decade ago, Kasper and Rose (2002) explained the need for further research on the effects of motivation on learning pragmatics, as Takahashi (2000; as cited in Kasper and Rose, 2002) was the only researcher who had directly analyzed the influence of motivation on awareness of pragmalinguistic knowledge of learners at the time. However, as stated by Taguchi and Roever (ibid.), approximately 20 years later, this condition is primarily unaltered, especially in Turkey.

To the researcher's knowledge, there are currently no studies examining the impact of L2 motivation on pragmatic awareness in the Turkish context. Researchers who focused on the studies in the Turkish context have mainly focused on the teaching and learning of various pragmatic components (Beştaş-Çetinkaya, 2012; Mede & Dikilitaş, 2015; Karatepe, 2001, Otçu & Zeyrek, 2008). Therefore, it is possible to find studies on (1) the pragmatic output from the students (Balcı, 2009; İstifçi, 2009; Otçu & Zeyrek,2008), (2) the pragmatic production of teachers and (Bektaş-Çetinkaya, 2012; Karatepe, 2001; Terzi, 2014), (3) potential problems with teaching pragmatics (Mede & Dikilitaş,2015). However, there may be few or no studies measuring motivation as an independent factor that affects pragmatic learning in Turkey although there have been some from other L2 contexts (see Tajeddin & Moghadam, 2012; Takahashi, 2005, 2015; Yang & Ren, 2020). The scarce number of empirical studies on learners' motivations for learning L2 pragmatics points to an important field of research gap that has not yet been investigated. Therefore, the current study aims to address this research gap in the literature.

1.3. Purpose of the Study

This particular study is designed in an attempt to identify the overall motivation level of language learners at the university level towards learning English by using the motivational theory proposed by Dörnyei (2005, 2009). Therefore, the overall motivation and the level of motivation for each component of the proposed theory will be analyzed and explained in detail. What's more, another main purposes of the current study is to shed light into the pragmatic awareness of Turkish English as a foreign language (EFL) learners in Turkey. Finally, it is also aimed to find out how different components of the motivation theory affect the motivation and pragmatic awareness of the language learners in the study.

1.4. Research Questions

The current study aims to answer the following research questions (RQ):

RQ1: What is the motivational level of university students in terms of language learning?

RQ2: Are there any statistically significant difference in the motivational level of the participants in terms of:

    a. Gender

    b. Language level

    c. Overseas experience

    d. High school they have studied

RQ3: Is there a correlation among the motivational factors?

RQ4: To what extent are university students able to judge the appropriateness of pragmatic (in)felicities in a range of speech act situations?

RQ5: Are there any correlations between students' L2 motivation and levels of L2 pragmatic awareness?

RQ6: Which motivational variable(s) can be used to predict students' levels of L2 pragmatic awareness?

1.5. Limitations of the Study

Although several conclusions have been drawn from the data, the current study is not free from any limitations. The main limitation of the current study is the sample size of it. As the research has a limited number of participants (N=235), it is not possible to generalize the results to all the language learners at university level in Turkey. However, it is worth noting that the research design can be transferrable to similar contexts in Turkey. Additionally, as the participants in the present study were from two state universities, there were no students from any foundation university. Therefore, the participants were limited in terms of the backgrounds.

However, this factor shows that they come from socioeconomically similar backgrounds. Finally, as the data collection process took place during COVID-19 pandemic, there were various regulations regarding the pandemic in both universities, which made the data collection process long and difficult. Additionally, the global pandemic and lock-down might have affected the participants psychologically, which may have led to some effects on the learner motivation toward learning English.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter aims to provide insight into the theoretical background used in this study. Therefore, in the first part of the chapter, a detailed review related to pragmatics and SLA is provided. In the second part, the theoretical background regarding motivation as an individual factor in SLA and Dörnyei's theory of motivation, which is called the L2 Motivation Self System (L2MSS), is presented. Finally, previous studies focusing on these two components are presented.

2.1. Pragmatics

2.1.1. Pragmatics in SLA: Pragmatics, nowadays, is among the most active and productive fields of linguistics, and it has gained a lot of attention during the last two decades. The studies related to pragmatics have ranged from the ones focusing on speech act theory and speech act production in different languages (e.g., Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984; Cohen & Olshtain, 1981; Kádár & House, 2020) to the second language (L2) pragmatics where the use of the features of pragmatics in learner language is investigated (e.g., Cohen & Olshtain, 1993; Kasper & Blum-Kulka, 1993; Ren, 2019; Taguchi, 2006).

With the growing popularity of communicative language teaching, the goal of the language teaching has become to help language learners become more competent when communicating in L2. Language learners' ability to use the features of pragmatics has been identified as an essential aspect of being communicatively competent (Canale & Swain, 1980; Canale, 1983) as it is connected to grammatical knowledge (Bachman & Palmer, 1996). That is, pragmatics is included in the description of language competence.

It is accepted that learning a second language means more than learning only grammar and vocabulary. As Byram (1997) states, foreign language learning process includes not only mastering vocabulary and linguistic structures accurately but using the language appropriately within a given cultural context. Through language learning, the learners might gain an insight into the culture, the speakers and the traditions of the language. Mastering sociocultural practices and norms of the language, such as what to say or not to say in a specific situation, how to deliver intentions in a contextually suitable manner, and how to achieve a communicative goal in collaboration with others, are essential parts of turning into a competent L2 speaker. This fundamental but often ignored area of L2 learning and teaching is addressed by the field of L2 pragmatics, which includes two broader disciplines, namely pragmatics and SLA.

Taguchi (2019) states that pragmatics is an area of study that focuses on the link between "a linguistic form and a context where that form is used, and how this connection is perceived and realized in a social interaction" (p. 1). She further puts forward that our linguistic choices depend on several factors, including contextual factors such as settings, the roles of the speakers and the relationship between them, topics of conversation, and agency and consequentiality. Individuals decide to speak in a way according to the type of 'self' that they want to show (Duff, 2012; LoCastro, 2003; Taguchi, 2019), and they are also aware of the consequences of their linguistic choices and how these choices affect others' understanding and reactions. This idea of pragmatics is echoed by Crystal (1997), who 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). Therefore, it can be interpreted that there are several factors affecting the pragmatic choices of the speakers and each scholar approached pragmatics from a different perspective.

Before 1950s, philosophers focused on isolating meaning and context from each other to understand various aspects of the language and limited meaning in a system of rules controlled by semantic principles (Arif, 2016). However, from the late 1950s on, SLA researchers and linguists have started focusing on communicative elements in language production and how to construct and interpret meaning in a conversation with the rise of more communicative language teaching methods (Ishihara & Cohen, 2010; Kasper & Rose, 1999). Speech act theory proposed by Austin (1975) and Searle (1969), the Principle of Maxims of Conversation by Grice (1975) are the main examples for the language philosophers who tried to have an "inquiry on the nature, origin and usage of language" (Arif, 2016, p. 26). Therefore, it is possible to see several definitions of pragmatics in SLA, too. In his own words, Stalnaker (1972) defines pragmatics as "the study of linguistic acts and the contexts in which they are performed" (1972, p. 383) and shows the relationship between pragmatics and language.

In the 1980s, linguists started investigating the boundaries and elements of pragmatics, which was then considered as a subfield of linguistics. Leech (1983) considers the study of pragmatics as the first step to analyzing different components of language as pragmatics refers to "how language is used in communication." Leech (1983) places pragmatics on a continuum to show the relation of pragmatics to linguistics on one end and sociology on the other. While *pragmalinguistics* stands at the linguistic end of the continuum, *sociopragmatics* resides at the sociological end of the continuum. (ibid). Likewise, Thomas (1983) also differentiates pragmalinguistics from sociopragmatics, and he further defines pragmalinguistics as the

linguistic resources needed for a communicative act. She also states that sociopragmatics involves the awareness of sociocultural conventions connected to a specific act. Similarly, Kasper (1997) indicates that sociopragmatics includes the social and cultural elements and contextual features that lead to appropriate language use by considering social power, relationships, and social imposition

Over the years, pragmatics has expanded beyond the boundaries of linguistics and drawn the attention of researchers in the fields of language learning and teaching (Bardovi-Harlig, 2000, 2010a, 2010b; Kasper & Rose, 1999, 2002). David (1997) defines pragmatics in language teaching studies 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 (David, 1997, p.301).

This definition emphasizes the importance of creating and interpreting the meaning beyond sentence level and within a context. Understanding a text includes interpreting contextual cues to understand the expressions beyond their literal meanings. Bardovi-Harlig (2013) also stresses the relationship between contextual knowledge and the use of language in her definition of pragmatics. In her own words, 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" (Bardovi-Harlig, 2013, p. 68).

Kasper (1997) provides a definition to summarize all the other definitions and states that pragmatics is an investigation of communicative acts, their sociocultural context, and their relationship. This comprehensive definition indirectly shows that pragmatics and its subcomponents are very much related to the context in which language is spoken and its culture. Therefore, this definition leads the way toward integrating cultural elements of language into language teaching. However, narrowing down the content of the culture for classroom use may not be easy. Therefore, Hinkel's (2014) categorization of cultural elements can enable us to have a clear idea of culture. Hinkel (2014) differentiates between visible and invisible culture. The former refers to the art, literature, architecture, dressing, food, festivals, traditions, and music, which can be examined and argued as part of language classroom. On the other hand, invisible culture refers to more complex elements such as social norms, beliefs, value and assumptions that may affect language use. As invisible culture is more complicated, it may not be possible to explain these complex elements thoroughly (Hinkel, 2014; Karatepe & Yılmaz, 2018). For example, although politeness is regarded to be universal (Brown&Levinson, 1987),

there are variations in terms of linguistic and behavioral choices in different languages and cultures. Therefore, it is essential to integrate appropriate communication skills that are necessary for interpersonal communication into the classroom practices. Stripping grammar from its cultural context in the classroom can lead learners to develop an incomplete language repertoire, which can potentially lead to interaction breakdowns and misunderstandings. The literature is rich with such examples (e.g., Brown, 1980; Frodesen, 2001; Hadley, 2003; McLaughlin, et. al, 1983; Nunan, 1998). Thornbury (1999) focuses on the context-sensitive characteristic of grammar and focuses on the difficulty in discovering the intended meaning if there is no context in which language item is used.

2.1.2. Speech Act Theory: Research related to pragmatics in SLA and L2 teaching usually pays attention to the subfields, including speech acts, conversational implicature, conversational structure, discourse organization, conversational management, and address forms (Bardovi-Harlig & Taylor, 2003). However, speech acts have been by far the most researched subject area (Taguchi, 2018). As Brock and Nagasaka (2005) state, realizing and using appropriate speech acts helps learners communicate effectively. Therefore, it is crucial to focus on the speech act theory to understand how it can shape communication among the participants of the speech and appreciate its place in SLA and L2 learning and teaching.

British philosopher John Austin first introduced the Speech Act Theory in 1955 at the William James Lectures at Harvard University, and this theory was then published in Austin's influential book entitled *How to Do Things with Words* in 1962. The American philosopher John Searle further developed Austin's ideas in his seminal work called *Speech Acts* in 1969 and his later works (1976, 2010). Both philosophers mainly focus on the structure of utterances in relation to their meaning, how they are used, and the action they perform. Austin (1962) suggests a three-way taxonomy of speech acts: locutionary, illocutionary, and perlocutionary. While locutionary acts are the ones used to communicate and they are the ones that produce meaningful linguistic utterances, illocutionary acts are carried out by the communicative power of the speech, such as when making a declaration, an offer, an explanation, or for some other communicative goal. Perlocutionary acts are the ones performed by an utterance in a particular context and they show the effects of the utterance in these particular contexts.

A few scholars have proposed different speech acts categorizations that originated from Austin's categorizations. Austin's speech acts categorization involves *verdictives, exercitives, commissives, behabitives*, and *expositives*. However, later, Searle (1976) proposed a broader and detailed classification of speech acts, which has been well accepted in the SLA field. He categorizes speech acts into five groups:

- *Representatives or assertives* are used when the speaker proposes something or puts forward some ideas. e.g., insist, inform, suggest, swear, etc.
- *Directives* are used to achieve an aim. e.g., request, order, invite, ask, advise, etc.
- *Commissives* are the ones related to showing aims and future plans or intentions. e.g., threat, vow, agree, offer, promise, etc.
- *Expressives* are the utterances used to convey feelings. e.g., thank, congratulate, apologize, welcome, etc.
- *Declaratives* refer to a change of state. e.g., pronounce, christen, declare, fire an employee, etc.

In realization of speech acts, speakers are not required to perform the actions provided in the literal meaning. Social and contextual factors involved in the speech situation affect the interpretation of the hidden meanings beyond the literal meanings of the sentences. Searle (1976) also claims that direct and indirect speech acts show differences in terms of the speakers' purposes. While in a direct speech act, there is a similarity between the literal meaning of the utterance and intended meaning, indirect speech acts do not create a match between the actual sentence and the intended meaning. For instance, a speaker can express a request with the help of a question such as "Can you answer the phone?". The question is asking the hearer to perform an action rather than asking about the ability of the hearer.

Brown and Levinson (1987) claim that direct speech acts are perceived as more face threatening and impolite when compared to indirect ones since the speaker threatens the negative face of the hearer through direct speech act utterance. In 2004, Lee studied the speech acts of request with EFL learners in Chinese context by adapting the Cross-Cultural Study of Speech Act Realization Pattern (CCSARP) coding scheme by Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984). The researcher concludes that Chinese learners choose to apply direct strategies while writing a request e-mail to their teacher. The result reveals that there is a strong relationship among cultural background, teacher-student relationship and speech act use.

Yule (1996) also explains that different forms including *declarative, interrogative, imperative* can be used to achieve different communicative functions. For example:

My shoes are new. (declarative)

Are your shoes new? (interrogative)

Polish my shoes, please! (imperative)

In accordance with Lee, Yule (1996) claims that interrogative forms can be used to ask more than a question. He proposes that the questions with *'Can you?'* and *'Could you?'* are question forms that are generally learnt and used to find out the hearer's ability. However, he

also notes that they are used to express a request to the hearer in certain situations to perform an action. Similarly, another example is the question forms such as *'Will you?'* and *'Would you?'*, which are typically utilized to understand the future possibility of an action. However, they can also express a request from the hearer. This means linguistic forms are used to achieve different communicative function in the language. Thomas (1995), on the other hand, pays attention to the imposition level and states that indirect speech acts are used to prevent impoliteness towards people of higher social levels and with higher imposition level. They also create strong acts on the hearer as well as setting good manner examples.

In his study, Aribi (2012) investigated the speech act of request produced by Tunisian EFL learners (TEFLL). The researcher analyzed the data by using the framework proposed by Blum-Kulka, et. al (1989) and concluded that social factors were among the main factors affecting the directness level of EFL learners. Additionally, it is also concluded that TEFLL used more direct request when addressing to people from a lower position and the people who they are close with. However, conventionally indirect strategies were utilized towards people with a high rank of imposition and the participants utilized indirect request when interacting with someone with a higher position to express admiration. Also, the researcher states that negative politeness strategies or indirect request forms are used to protect the faces of both the speaker and the hearer. Overall, the study implies how sociopragmatic norms and social factors are important in speech act production. Similarly, Saadatmandi et. al conducted a study in 2018 to investigate whether teaching English pragmatic elements to high school students in Iranian context would influence their choice when producing speech acts of request. The researchers state that there is a significant relationship between the politeness and cultural norms, and indirect forms used for speech acts of request is the most preferred strategy because of cultural politeness.

In her study, Karatepe (2016) cites that using appropriate lexical and syntactic strategies are part of pragmatic competence and further states that writing a letter of complaint to an authoritative figure requires a high level of pragmatic competence. However, language learners may fail to achieve high level of pragmatic competence even though they have a high level of grammar knowledge. Therefore, in her study, Karatepe (2016) investigates the forms that EFL learners in Turkish context, who are ELT teacher candidates, and native speakers use to express request in a complaint letter. The researcher concludes that most native speakers in the study preferred conventionally indirect requests forms and imperative forms. However, Turkish EFL learners preferred using *explicit performative, want statements*, and *suggestory formulas* to express their request unlike native speakers. The researcher highlights that EFL learners have

difficulties in choosing the appropriate forms to express indirectness no matter what their language proficiency level is.

Briefly, it can be said that speakers need to choose appropriate strategies according to the social and cultural context when it comes to deciding whether to use direct or indirect speech acts (Holtgraves, 1986). Some context-related factors, including power and social distance between the participants, and the degree of imposition involved determine the directness level of the sentences (Brown & Levinson, 1987; Thomas, 1995). In order to better understand the directness or indirectness of the strategies used in speech act production, the notion of face work by Goffman (1955) and politeness theory by Brown and Levinson (1987) will be further analyzed in the next section.

2.1.3. Politeness Theory: Before delving into the description of politeness theory, it is necessary to mention the notion of face. The concept of face work proposed by Goffman (1955) will be helpful in understanding the strategies to sound direct or indirect, and the notions of face and face work are important concepts of politeness theory. Goffman (1955) introduces the term face to describe how one can construct an image of oneself that is accepted by social norms and creates a positive image to others. The term face stands for the "public self-image a person assumes in a social encounter" (Holtgraves, 1986, p. 306).

Brown and Levinson developed *Politeness Theory* and introduced it in their book "Politeness Some Universals in Language Usage". Brown and Levinson (1987) focus on face management and suggest that the *'Model Person'* has two types of face: *positive face and negative face*. While the former relates to the desires of one to be approved, appreciated, and accepted, the latter is about avoiding imposition and restriction to sustain personal space. In negative face, the speaker wishes "his[her] actions be unimpeded by others" (Bou-Franch & Garcés Conejos, 2003, p. 4). Brown and Levinson (1987) state that individuals engage in face-work in every interaction by enhancing their face or losing it. Therefore, it is expected from all the participants of the communication to maintain or enhance each other's face by avoiding any face-threatening acts, which can be defined as communicative acts that may sometimes result in speakers' losing face (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Face-threatening acts prevent people from sustaining their self-image, which results in losing one's face. In a communicative encounter, speakers tend to eliminate any face-threatening act to maintain the self-images (Brown, 1970).

Negative and positive faces of the speakers can be threatened by speech acts that have the potential of imposition, and that's why language learners need to know and choose appropriate politeness strategies such as indirectness in order not to commit a face-threatening

act. Speakers can decrease the level of imposition with the help of some indirect forms or expressions.

Brown and Levinson (1987) propose three crucial sociological variables, which define the directness of the language used, including power between the interlocutors, the social distance between the speakers, and ranking of imposition. These variables guide the speaker to choose direct and indirect expression during a conversational act. Power is related to the social status of the speaker and hearer in any communication situation. The social distance indicates how speakers are familiar with each other (Brown & Levinson, 1987). Kida (2011) claims that social distance can be expressed with the help of different linguistic structures to show "respect, deference, and politeness" (p. 183). Finally, the level of imposition refers to the severity level of a situation that defines the rights and obligations of the participants in the dialogue to perform an act (Bou-Franch & Garcés Conejos, 2003). Martínez-Flor (2007) states that the degree of imposition is about "the type of imposition the speaker is exerting over the hearer" (p. 250).

Brown and Levinson (1987) group the strategies to eliminate face-threatening acts into five. Speakers can choose one of the four different types of action while performing a face-threatening act, or they may avoid the face-threatening act totally, as shown in Figure 1 below (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 69). To protect the face of the hearer, speakers may commit to redressive acts that take the form of negative or positive politeness (ibid., p. 70). The details regarding the strategies are given below:

Figure 1

Politeness strategies by Brown and Levinson
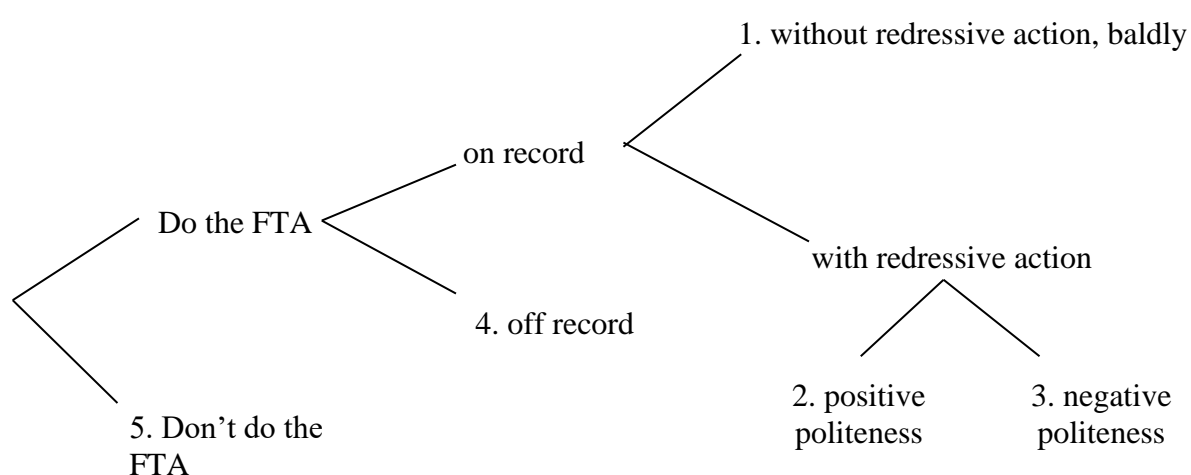
Note: Adapted from Brown and Levinson (1987, p. 69)

Brown and Levinson (1987) explain bald-on record strategy as "a direct way of saying things" (p. 74). It does not leave the ground for misinterpretation or misunderstanding on the hearer's side as the speaker uses direct, unambiguous, and explicit expressions. There is no minimization of impositions to the hearer. According to Brown and Levinson, imperatives can be an example of a bald-on record.

According to Brown and Levinson's (1987) definition, positive politeness is "the strategy which is oriented by a speaker towards the positive face or the positive self-image of hearers that the speaker claims for himself" (p. 70). It aims to respect and maintain the hearer's positive face. Compliments are an example of positive politeness.

Brown and Levinson (1987) define a negative politeness strategy "as a redressive action addressed to the hearer's negative face: his want to have his freedom of action unhindered and his attention unimpeded" (p. 129). It requires the minimization of impositions on the hearer's side, and the speaker may utilize hedges or show pessimism in their utterances to achieve this minimization. For example, "You can come with me if you like." is an example of a negative politeness strategy as it does not interfere with the hearer's freedom of action.

Speakers show a tendency to commit redressive action when the sociological variables constitute an asymmetrical relationship between the interlocutors, and they may use negative politeness strategies to eliminate imposition. Brown and Levinson (1987) define negative politeness as being "avoidance-based" (p. 70). Therefore, it mainly focuses on satisfying the hearer's negative face, respecting their territory, and maintaining the face. On the other hand, positive politeness refers to the communication situations in which both the speaker and the hearer show respect to the mutual interest of each other and reach solidarity. In requests, mitigators and supportive moves will be helpful in achieving indirectness to commit redressive action.

Finally, Brown and Levinson (1987) define the off-record strategy as "a communicative act which is done in such way that it is not possible to attribute one clear communicative intention to the act" (p. 211). They are indirect communication utterances allowing the hearer to interpret the intended meaning by themselves. As a result, the off-record strategy helps the speaker avoid the responsibility of the face-threatening acts. For instance, the utterance: "I'm exhausted. A cup of coffee would be great now!" means that the speaker wants the hearer to make coffee.

As requests, apologies, suggestions, and refusals are the speech act types used in this thesis, it is necessary to provide some information about how to achieve politeness in these

speech acts. Therefore, the following section will delve into the strategies and expressions proposed by researchers to mitigate the level of the directness of these certain speech acts.

Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984) believe that politeness strategies are universal and (in)directness strategies indicate the politeness of utterance. In their study, the researchers investigated the speech act realizations of native speakers and non-native speakers to determine if there were any individual and cross-cultural differences in request and apologizing strategies in different languages. Based on the results of their study, Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (ibid.) conclude that there is a universal pattern of politeness that guided their analysis, that there are different request forms varying from direct to indirect ones. There are also three indirectness levels to determine the level of face-threatening act: "direct, conventionally indirect, and non-conventionally indirect" (ibid., 209). Language learners are usually encouraged to use conventionally indirect forms to decrease the potential of the face-threatening act in a request act, and Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (ibid.) provide a request realization pattern that is composed of specific properties exemplified in the following sentence:

Jack / Can I borrow your car today? / Mine is in the garage.

In the example, the first part is *address term*, the second part is *head act*, and the last part is called the *adjunct to head act*. There is a rich range of strategies available for language learners in English to eliminate the imposition while requesting. They can mitigate the utterance and soften the speech acts by using external and internal modifiers. Internal modifiers refer to the strategies used to modify head act, such as *syntactic* and *lexical downgraders*. On the other hand, external modifiers are supportive moves that might be utilized as adjunct to head acts with head acts.

The speech act of apology is also a frequently analyzed field of study (e.g., Cohen & Olshtain, 1981; Blum-Kulka and Olshtain, 1984; İstifçi, 2009; Kanık, 2017; Olshtain & Cohen, 1983; Owen, 1983; Prachanant, 2016; Válková, 2014). Apologies are post-event speech acts committed by an apologist to create a remedy for the possibly perceived offense (Blum-Kulka, et al., 1989; Holmes, 1989; Leech, 1980). Apologies try to "maintain harmony and avoid conflict in relationship with other people in everyday communication" (Spencer-Oatey, 2008, as cited in Jassim, 2016, p. 1). By apologizing, the speaker shows that they have violated social norms (Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984). Additionally, the speaker reveals that they take responsibility for their behavior and express regret (Fraser, 1981, as cited in Nureddeen, 2008). Therefore, apologies include a loss of the speaker's face and lend support for the hearer (Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984).

Olshtain and Cohen (1983) suggest a set of formulae that can be utilized to express an apology as a speech act set: expressing apology, showing an account of the situation, taking responsibility, offering of repair, and promising forbearance. Any of these forms can be used in isolation, or they can be used together to intensify the level of apology. Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1984) echo similar ideas in their work. Speakers in a communicative act utilize one of the strategies for apologizing, such as the promise of forbearance, providing a repair, or acknowledging the responsibility to intensify the apology in a situation if there is a distance between the speaker and the hearer in terms of power and social distance (ibid.). In other words, the sociological variables define the strategies to be used when apologizing as in the request.

The other type of speech act that I would like to delve into in the light of politeness theory is the speech act of refusal, which shows the unwillingness of the interlocutor as a response to some other speech acts like invitations, requests, offers, and suggestions. As the speaker rejects to take a future action, the speech act of refusal goes under the commissives category. According to politeness theory proposed by Brown and Levinson (1987), the speech act of refusal is among the face-threatening acts in communication. They show a very complex structure in the sense that the interlocutors take turns in order to maintain face. While suggestions, invitations, offers, and requests impose a threat to the hearer's negative face by interrupting with their independence, refusals create a threat to the hearer's positive face as they imply that their wants are not desirable. In that case, the person who refuses experiences a specific difficulty. To be polite, they are required to save their negative face and mitigate the threat that they pose to their interlocutor's positive face while refusing. Therefore, to "save face", speakers use different strategies to communicate with their hearer (Brown & Levinson, 1987, p. 62-68).

Beebe et al. (1990; as cited in Çiftçi, 2016) propose a categorization of various components of refusal strategies: direct, indirect refusals, and adjuncts. Direct strategies are specific and clear in meaning (e.g. *No, I can't come tonight.*), while indirect refusal strategies involve some mitigation devices to save the hearer's positive face (e.g. *I'm sorry... I have some other plans. I don't know. Let me think. If it was earlier, then maybe I would be able to…*). Additionally, adjuncts are the expressions that speakers can employ to mitigate refusals; however, they cannot stand alone to work as a refusal act. For example, the expressions such as "*that's a good idea, but...*; …but I would love to attend actually, can I let you know later?" are examples of adjuncts.

The speech act of suggestion, which is another focus of this thesis, belongs to the directive speech act category, which, according to Searle (1976), are those in which the speaker

aims to get the hearer to commit themselves to some future action. In her own words, Rintell (1979) explains that "in a suggestion, the speaker asks the hearer to take some action which the speaker believes will benefit the hearer, even one that the speaker should desire" (p. 99).

Suggestions are regarded as non-impositive acts and show a benefit to the hearer. However, Brown and Levinson (1987) categorize suggestions as face-threatening because the speaker interferes with the hearer's world, and the imposition might threaten the hearer's negative face. Therefore, to avoid being offensive towards the hearer or to mitigate the level of impositions, speakers may employ politeness strategies or mitigations. One of the taxonomies suggested to increase the politeness of the suggestion was proposed by Martínez-Flor in 2005. She bases her taxonomy on the speech act theory, politeness theory, Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford's (1996) maxim of congruence, and previous studies in the crosscultural interlanguage pragmatics field. According to this taxonomy, the speakers may use three main types of strategies: direct, conventionalized, and indirect forms (see Figure 2).

Figure 2
Taxonomy of suggestion linguistic realization strategies

Strategies for Suggestions

Direct strategies

Performative verb
"I suggest that you..."

Noun of suggestion
"My suggestion would be…"

Imperatives
"Try using..."

Negative imperative
"Don't try to...

Conventionalized forms

Interrogative forms
"Why don't you..?"

Possibility
"You can…"

Should
"You should…"

Need
"You need to…"

Conditional
"If I were you, I would…"

Direct strategies

Impersonal
"It might be better to…"

Hints
"I've heard that…"

Inclusive we
"Let's…"

Obligation
"You must…"

Note: Adapted from Martínez-Flor (2005, p. 175)

Briefly, using speech acts is related to how appropriate an utterance is according to the sociocultural context of the act. Therefore, interlocutors in any communicative act need to use their linguistic knowledge along with their sociocultural knowledge to interpret a message or the intentions. However, it is not always easy for both native speakers and language learners to give their message indirectly and achieve politeness because of the sophisticated nature of sociocultural aspects of language and pragmalinguistic elements of speech acts (Bardovi-Harlig & Dörnyei, 1998). It might be challenging for language learners to produce speech acts indirectly and mitigate the imposition and soften their utterance. Therefore, language learners should be informed about the mitigation strategies that they can use to minimize the imposition level like native speakers.

2.1.4. Pragmatics in Learner Language: Pragmatics has moved away from the limits of linguistics and gained the attention of research in SLA and language teaching (Derakhshan & Malmir, 2021; Félix-Brasdefer & Cohen, 2012; Ishihara, 2010; Karatepe, 2001; Karatepe & Ünal, 2019; Karatepe & Civelek, 2021; Kasper & Rose, 2002; Özdemir, 2011; Tajeddin, 2021). Pragmatics has attracted the attention of different scholars over time, and it is an indispensable component of applied linguistics and SLA. Kasper and Rose (1999) state that pragmatics is vital for research in SLA studies as it "acts as a constraint on linguistic forms and their acquisition, and it represents a type of communicative knowledge and object of L2 learning in its own right" (p. 81). Additionally, pragmatics suggests that language learners should accompany their grammatical knowledge with pragmatic knowledge to master the second language. Because the importance of pragmatics in language use has been realized and there has been a growing desire to develop communicative abilities, researchers have started investigating the pragmatic knowledge of native and non-native speakers, which brought the terms interlanguage pragmatics (ILP) and cross-cultural pragmatics. The term interlanguage was introduced by Selinker in 1972 and he refers the systematic L2 knowledge, which is dependent on both the L1 of the language learners and the target language. The term can be used to describethe system observed during L2 learning and development, and particular combinations of L1 and the target languages. He further emphasizes that the learners' language system comprises both that of their mother tongue and that of the target language. Figure 3 below represent the relationship between L1 and L2 in sense of interlanguage.

The main feature of interlanguage is its being systematic and "governed by rules which constitute the learner's internal grammar" (Selinker, 1972, p. 209) and each learner creates his own personal system which is different from the others'. Another characteristic of interlanguage is its dynamicity, and therefore, it "changes frequently or in the state of flux, resulting in a

succession of interim grammar" (ibid). Therefore, interlanguage plays an important role in language acquisition and learning process.

Figure 3

The representation of interlanguage
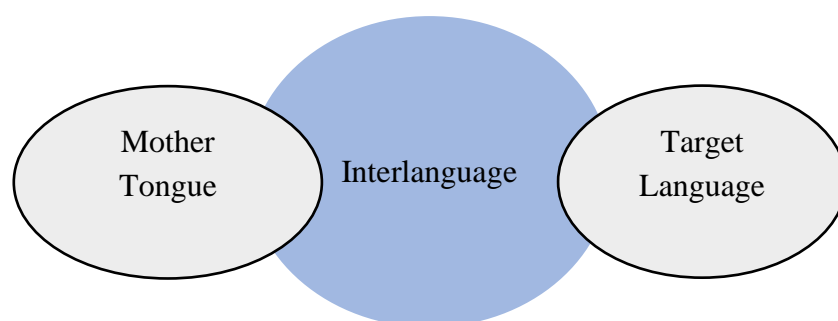
Note: Adapted from Corder (1981, p. 17)

Based on Selinker's interlanguage concept Kasper and Rose came up with the idea that as a legitimate source of interaction, interlanguage has its peculiar norms of pragmatics and it attracted a lot of attention in the 1990s (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989). Several researchers define ILP as the study of non-native speakers' pragmatic production, how they learn pragmatic elements, and the differences between native speakers and non-native speakers in terms of pragmatic production (Kasper & Dahl, 1991; Kasper & Rose,1999). In this respect, ILP mainly focuses on the possibility to teach pragmatics, pragmatic failure, how to acquire and produce pragmatic elements (Kasper & Rose, 1999; Rose, 2005) and, therefore, the research in ILP comprises mainly of the studies focusing on of speech acts. On the other hand, cross-cultural pragmatics analyzes the performances of speech acts by native speakers in their language to show differences in terms of strategies used to realize speech acts (e.g., Blum-Kulka et al., 1989). Particularly with the publication of the reports of CCSARP opened up a new window for interlanguage and SLA pragmatics.

Cross-cultural differences in realization of speech acts have been explored and studied since the CCSARP (Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984) first came out. This project analyzed the differences in realization of speech acts among different languages (Hebrew, German, Danish, French, and three varieties of English), cultures, and speakers – to be precise, native speakers and non-native speakers of target languages. The researchers used a discourse completion task

(DCT) to elicit speech acts of request and apology from both native and non-native speakers of the languages and categorized speech act strategies with the help of a coding framework. As a result of data analysis, the researchers could report the number of speech act strategies in a language, directness or indirectness level of those strategies, and the variation of the strategies across different situations including different relationships between the speakers and social distance. The researchers conclude that there might be discrepancy between native and non-native language users, and it could be resulted from various factors including *intra-cultural, cross-cultural and individual factors* (Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984). To minimize the divergency, learners should realize that some pragmatic norms might not be universal and "the issue of universality relates to the degree and nature of possible cross-cultural variance in speech act realization." (ibid, p. 209). The coding scheme and DCT instrument used in the study have been utilized in a large number of other studies, which has provided data to create descriptions of speech act strategies and patterns across different language groups.

Due to the complex structure involved in pragmatics, it is possible to conclude that achieving competency in L2 pragmatics is challenging. The challenge results from many reasons. One reason is the influence of the first language (L1) or any additional language that one knows (Taguchi, 2019). Especially adult learners come to L2 learning context with an existing foundation of L1 pragmatic knowledge. Therefore, they are required to have control over pre-existing pragmatic knowledge while learning or creating new connections between the newly discovered linguistic forms and the social contexts in which they are used in L2 (Bialystok, 1993; Taguchi, 2019). It may not always be possible to directly transfer the knowledge of social and interpersonal norms such as politeness or formality from L1 to L2 because linguistic expressions and strategies in L2 may be different from the ones in L1, and their degree also shows variances across cultures (Taguchi, 2019).

Another difficulty in the acquisition of L2 pragmatics comes from the sociocultural nature of pragmatics. Wolfson (1989; as cited in Taguchi, 2019, p. 1) expresses that as social norms of communication are not noticeable, it is usually hard for learners to realize what linguistic forms are utilized to show appropriate levels of formality or politeness in a situation, or how the speaker can convey meaning indirectly with the help of specific linguistic forms and non-linguistic means. Those means and the social conventions behind them also vary even within a single community; therefore, this varying and implicit nature of forms further makes pragmatics learning harder.

2.1.5. Pragmatic Competence: In the field of language teaching, there is a shift from an emphasis on formal structures of language in the 1960s to increasing attention on language use in the 1970s and 80s (Martínez-Flor, 2004). Rather than regarding the language system in isolation, scholars from different fields have started focusing on the relation between the language and extralinguistic factors and have analyzed language in communication. Therefore, this shift has created a ground for increasing fame of the communicative approach, which holds communicative competence as the critical factor in language teaching. As Martínez-Flor (2004) explains in her work, communicative competence is especially related to the SLA field and foreign language learning classrooms because the main aim is to help "learners to become communicatively competent" in the target language (p. 34).

Chomsky (1965) first introduces the term competence to distinguish between a speaker's competence and a speaker's performance. While the former represents the language knowledge in the abstract, the latter refers to how that knowledge is used to produce and interpret the speech. However, Chomsky mainly focuses on the language system but not how it is used. He only focuses on isolated sentences and left out the real language use. In Chomsky's own words:

> Linguistic theory is concerned primarily with an ideal speaker-listener, in a completely homogenous speech community, who knows its language perfectly and is unaffected by such grammatically irrelevant conditions as memory limitations, distractions, shifts of attention and interests, and errors (random or characteristics) in applying his knowledge of the language in actual performance (Chomsky, 1965, p. 3).

However, many linguists, psychologists, and sociologists, who pay attention to the sociocultural features, disagree with Chomsky's ideas, and one of these people is Dell Hymes. Hymes (1972) criticizes Chomsky's concept of competence and rejects Chomsky's differentiation between performance and competence. In Hymes's own words, "there are rules of use without which the rules of grammar are useless" (p. 278). He furthermore specifies the knowledge that speakers need to use in social situations and puts forward four main questions to asked as *what can be done with language, what is feasible, what is appropriate, and what is actually done and to what degree*.

Hymes also names the combination of knowledge and ability as *communicative competence*. Hymes's (1972) 'communicative competence' as an alternative to Chomskyan linguistic competence is a significant change in the field. Canale and Swain (1980) provide a model of communicative competence with its sub-categories: "grammatical competence,

sociolinguistic competence, and strategic competence" (pp. 29 - 30). This idea is further extended by Canale (1983) with the addition of discourse competence. Even though Canale and Swain (1980) and Canale (1983) do not explicitly mention pragmatic competence in their study, it is implied in their definition of sociolinguistic competence. As stated by Kasper (2001), pragmatics is by nature part of the definition but hasn't been named yet in Canale and Swain's studies.

From the previous categorization, Bachman (1990) proposes his own categorization of language competence and is the first who focuses on the division of *organizational competence* and *pragmatic competence* and states that pragmatic competence should be considered as one of the major parts of *language* competence (see Figure 4). According to him, organizational competence consists of grammatical and textual knowledge. It is related to comprehending and producing correct sentences in terms of grammar and employing cohesive devices correctly. On the other hand, pragmatic competence includes *illocutionary competence* and *sociolinguistic competence and* involves "those abilities related to the functions that are performed through language use" (ibid., p.86).

Figure 4

Bachman's communicative competence model
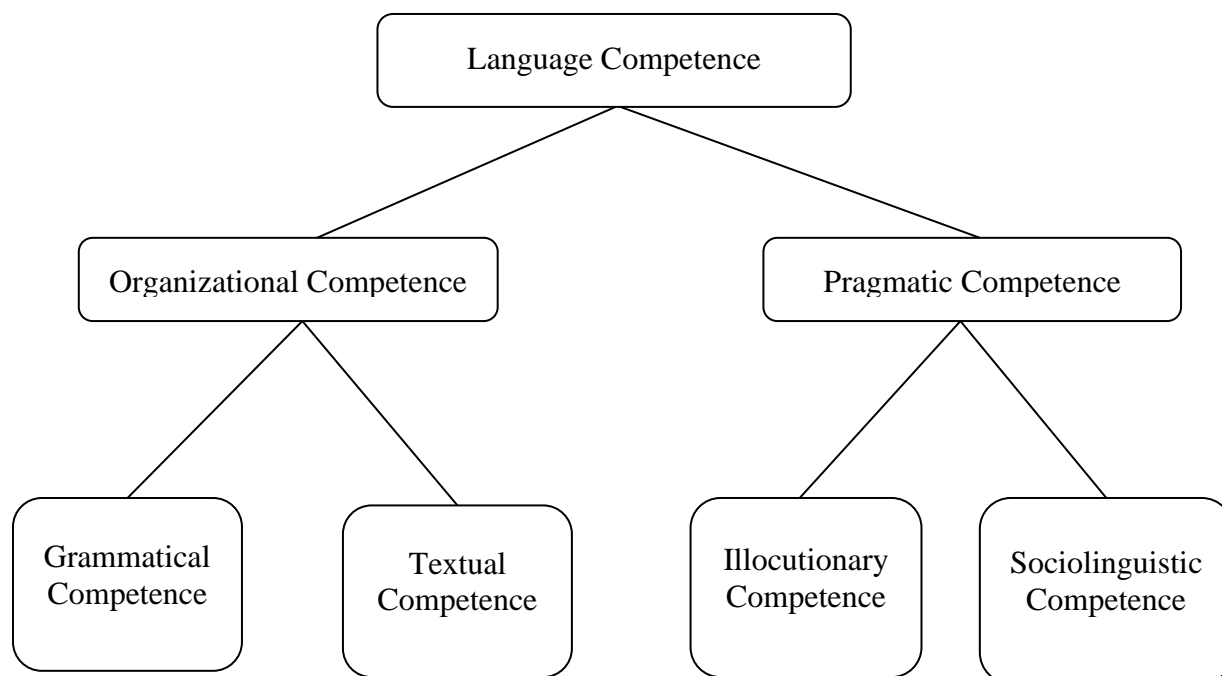
Note: Adapted from Bachman (1990, p. 87).

Based on Bachman's (1990) language competency model, Barron (2003) defines pragmatic competence as "knowledge of the linguistic resources available in a given language for realizing particular interlocutions, knowledge of the sequential aspects of speech acts and,

finally, knowledge of the appropriate contextual use of the particular languages' linguistic resources" (p. 10). Murray (2009) also defines it by stating that "pragmatic competence can be defined as an understanding of the relationship between form and context that enables us, accurately and appropriately, to express and interpret intended meaning" (p. 239). Similarly, according to Fraser's (2010) definition, pragmatic competence is "the ability to communicate your intended message with all its nuances in any sociocultural context and to interpret the message of your interlocutor as it was intended" (p. 15). According to Thomas (1983), pragmatic competence is "the ability to use language effectively in order to achieve a specific purpose and to understand language in context" (p. 92). As can be seen from various definitions for the term pragmatic competence, to be pragmatically competent, one needs to provide and grasp the intended meaning given in a message.

Thomas (1983) also introduced the term *pragmatic failure* to clarify the inadequacy of pragmatic competence, especially in foreign language speakers. She explained a pragmatically competent person by saying:

> I think that in order to be considered pragmatically competent, one must be able to behave linguistically in such a manner as to avoid being unintentionally offensive, for most of the time, to strangers who speak the same language or variety of language as oneself (Thomas, 1983, p. 95).

Thomas (ibid.) states that native speakers who are competent in language may sometimes employ pragmatically inappropriate or unsuitable forms deliberately or accidentally. Therefore, it is not fair to call them pragmatically incompetent. However, she claims "the non-native speaker who says anything other than what is expected finds it difficult to get her/his views taken seriously" (p. 96), and their pragmatic failure is not as much tolerated as their grammatical mistakes. Thomas instead believes that people learning a foreign language should also be given a chance to doubt and should not be judged as pragmatically incompetent because of their few utterances. Consequently, she claims that language teaching practices should be reconsidered as it would be unfair to ask foreign language learners to understand pragmatic norms totally. According to Thomas (1983), "sensitizing learners to expect cross-cultural differences in the linguistic realizations of politeness, truthfulness, etc., takes the teaching of language beyond the realms of mere training and makes it truly educational" (p. 110).

Additionally, Celce-Murcia et al. (1995) proposed another model of communicative competence. It mainly includes lin*guistic competence, strategic competence, socio-cultural competence, discourse competence* and *actional competence*, and it is like Canale and Swain's except for a couple of variations in terminology. First of all, the researchers altered the term

grammatical competence named in Canale and Swain's model to *linguistic competence* to include phonology and lexis in grammar (i.e., morphology and syntax). Secondly, they turned the term *sociolinguistic competence* into *socio-cultural competence* to emphasize the importance of cultural background (Celce-Murcia, 2008).

Finally, thirteen years after their first model, Celce-Murcia (2008) revised their model and proposed a newer version of competencies with the inclusion of interactional competence and formulaic competence. Formulaic competence is complementary to linguistic competence because it is related to the necessary language chunks usually that are utilized in everyday conversations including idioms, collocations, and lexical frames (Celce-Murcia, 2008). Interactional competence includes three sub-components: non-verbal/paralinguistic competence, conversational competence, and actional competence (ibid.). While actional competence is about the knowledge of achieving speech acts properly, conversational competence refers to the turn-takings in dialogues such as starting and ending a conversation or interrupting a speaker. Finally, the non-verbal/paralinguistic competence includes body language, use of space by the speakers in the conversation, tactile behavior such as touching.

To sum up, grammatical knowledge has always been a part of all the models of language competence stated above, in spite of the variations in terminology. The historical evolution of those components of language competency and different models proposed are shown in Figure 5.

Figure 5
The chronological changes in language competence
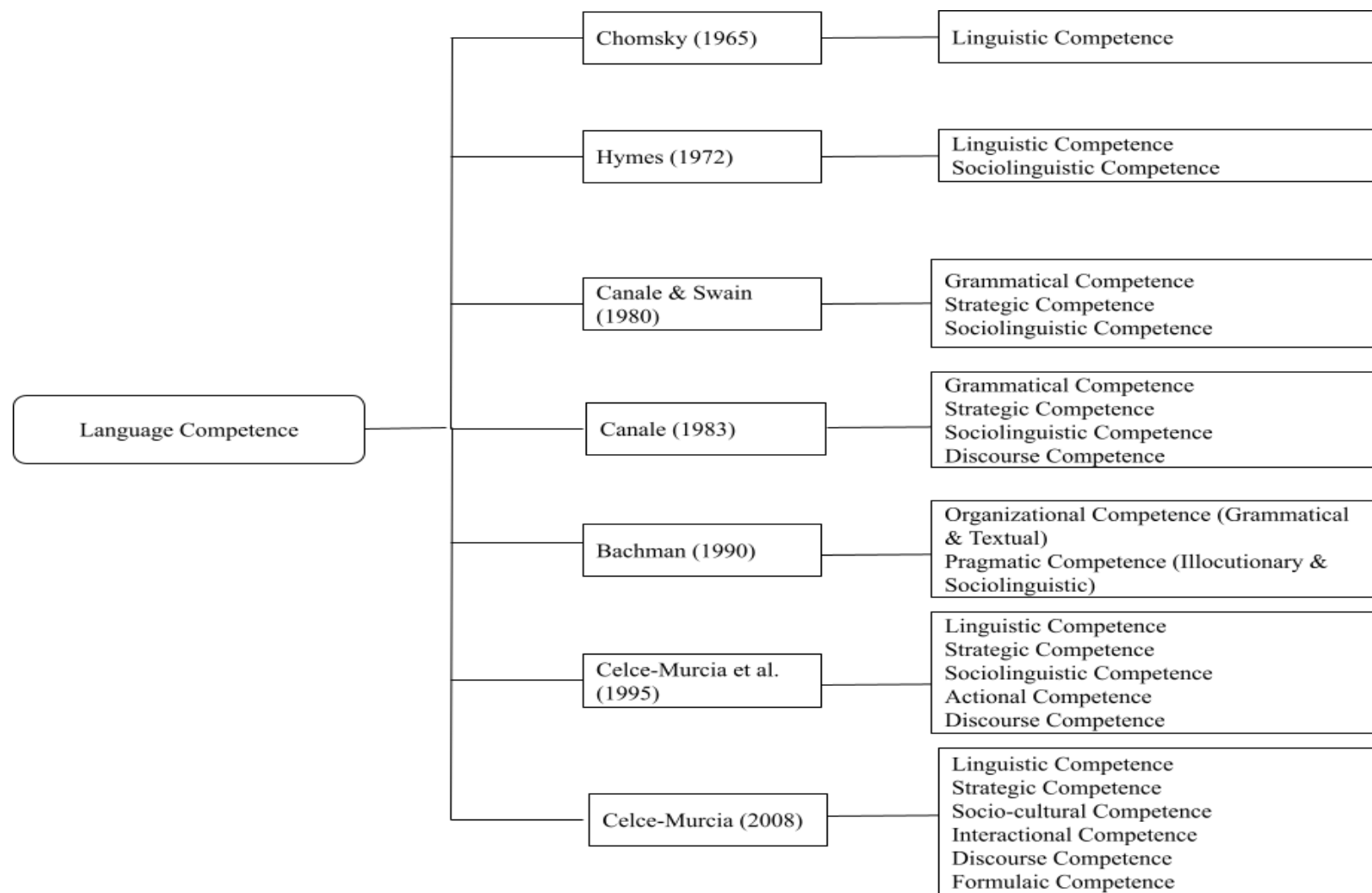
Note: Adopted from Celce-Murcia (2008)

2.1.6. Pragmatic Awareness: It is possible to observe differences in speech acts in various cultural and linguistic contexts, and these differences may lead to some misunderstandings in interactions. In this respect, Bardovi-Harlig and Taylor (2003) state "the consequences of pragmatic differences, unlike the case of grammatical errors, are often interpreted on a social or personal level rather than as a result of the language learning process" (p. 38). According to Bardovi-Harlig et al. (1991), it is not possible to teach all the different contexts that speech acts can be used. However, they also state that what is more important in language learning is "to make students aware that pragmatic functions exist in language, specifically in discourse, in order that they may be more aware of these functions as learners" (p. 5). Thus, it is possible to say that helping language learners become pragmatically more aware individuals is essential to help language learners become pragmatically competent.

The noticing hypothesis by Schmidt (1990; 1993; 1995), which conceptualizes awareness in terms of two cognitive constructs, namely *noticing* and *understanding*, has directed the attention of the researchers and scholars to the role of awareness in second language learning. According to the hypothesis, one needs to notice the input in order to turn it into an intake. Schmidt (1990) also differentiates between noticing and understanding and states that the former is a lower-order form of awareness. The latter is related to a higher-order form of awareness known as understanding and understanding involves explicit knowledge of language rules. Therefore, one needs to pay attention, detect the language and formulate knowledge to develop awareness in language learning (Schmidt, 1995).

When it comes to learning L2 pragmatics, it is suggested that learners should notice the input and its features so that they can realize the relation between forms, functions, and context (Bialystok, 1993; Schmidt, 1993). This means learners should notice the link that can assist them to connect the pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic features of language used.

Pragmatic awareness helps L2 pragmatic development of language learners since they can notice the linguistic structure of speech acts and create explicit hypotheses regarding how sociopragmatic norms of appropriateness are reflected in pragmalinguistic choices that speakers make. In other words, according to Schmidt (1993), pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatic information is essential and required to achieve pragmatic competence in second language learning. Both sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic features of the languages should be explicitly taught to help language learners become pragmatically competent in the target language.

Eslami-Rasekh (2005) puts forward that pragmatic awareness entails "how language forms are used appropriately in context" (p. 200). Nikula (2002) also emphasizes the

importance of directing "attention to the appropriateness of language use and various features oriented to the interpersonal level of language" (p. 451). Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnyei (1998) focus on implementing awareness-raising activities into classroom instruction, especially in foreign language learning settings. Similarly, Kondo (2004) indicates that awareness-raising should be used as a language teaching approach in language classrooms, especially when teaching pragmatics. He further mentions that a teaching approach benefiting awareness raising could help language learners focus on different variables in using language, which may guide learners to employ pragmatic awareness that they have learned in the classroom in other communicative acts they may be in. In a similar vein, Eslami-Rasekh (2005) asserts that guiding learners to develop pragmatic awareness in language classrooms may allow language learners to communicate better in real life.

The main goal of classroom instruction in teaching pragmatics can be summarized as to raise learners' awareness regarding pragmatics and provide them with choices about interactions in the language they are learning. This means that pragmatic instruction should not insist on conformity to a specific language norm but should try to make learners familiar with the variety of pragmatic norms and practices. This kind of classroom instruction enables language learners to keep their cultural identities, take part more in target language communication, and control the outcome of their effort. Providing high exposure to the target language enables language learners to have a broader perspective of the target language and its speakers (Bardovi-Harlig & Taylor, 2003).

Finally, pragmatics includes various dimensions that incorporate linguistic forms (*pragmalinguistics)* and sociocultural language use (*sociopragmatics*) (Kasper, 1997; Leech, 1983; Thomas, 1983). To be pragmatically competent, L2 learners need a great deal of linguistic knowledge and the ability to analyze contextual information, choose suitable resources, and use them effectively in a real interaction (Taguchi, 2019). She further states that learning pragmatics is complex due to the challenge in combining linguistic knowledge and sociocultural realization needed for a pragmatic act. This combination also shows that grammar and pragmatics are separate but interdependent while learning L2 (Bardovi-Harlig, 2000; Kasper & Rose, 2002; Taguchi, 2019). Knowing the formal features of language such as grammar and lexis does not guarantee better pragmatic performance; however, learning pragmatic aspects occurs with it. Taguchi (2019) summarizes her point on this by stating that "threshold linguistic knowledge is pre-requisite and serves as a means for pragmatic performance" (p. 2). Therefore, it can be said that without appropriate grammar knowledge, acquisition of pragmatic elements will not be achieved completely, and vice versa. These remarks suggest that acquiring L2 pragmatics is a

long-lasting process affected by multiple factors, including L1 pragmatic knowledge, proficiency level in L2, knowledge of social norms, and context (Taguchi, 2019). However, it should also be noted that research in SLA has also demonstrated that individual variations are also among the most essential elements impacting pragmatic acquisition. Accordingly, there are numerous studies showing a link between SLA, ILP, and personal characteristics, including age, gender, intelligence, aptitude, motivation, self-esteem, learning styles, and anxiety (Arnold, 1999; Dörnyei, 2005; Dörnyei & Skehan, 2003; MacIntyre et al., 2016; Robinson, 2005; Schmidt, 2010; Taguchi, 2012). Motivation plays a critical role in ILP acquisition and development as an individual factor. It is thought to be a key driver to allocate attention to certain features in the language (Crooks & Schmidt, 1991). However, whether motivation as a critical factor that affects ILP acquisitions has been analyzed in detail or not is still uncertain. Tajeddin and Zand-Moghadam (2012) highlight the importance of motivation in L2 pragmatic acquisitions, and further the researchers direct the attention to the inadequacy of the number of research in the field. Therefore, the following part will focus on the importance of motivation in SLA and a motivational theory proposed by Dörnyei (2005, 2009).

2.2. Affective factors in SLA

As the researchers have started focusing on different factors involved in the learning process, the affective factors have also been prioritized in SLA and the other fields, including maths, science, etc. (Gardner, 1985). According to language learning theories, surface-level learning requires mastering basic skills and the structure of the language. However, the deeper-level learning includes the affective factors related to learners' reactions towards learning situations such as attitudes, self-perception, anxiety, and motivation to learn (Atbaş, 2004). These factors have an essential connection with learning (Bown & White, 2010; Genç & Bilgin-Aksu, 2004). According to Krashen (1987), attitude, motivation, anxiety, and self-confidence are important elements in language learning. Additionally, these affective factors are connected (Aida, 1994; MacIntyre & Gardner, 1991; Yokochi, 2003). Among these affective factors, motivation has a crucial role in language learning in the foreign language classroom. Various studies have highlighted the relationship between motivation and language success, and several theories have been put forward to explain the effects of motivation on language learning. As motivation is one of the main themes of this thesis study, it will be explained in detail in the following section.

2.2.1. Motivation and Language Learning: Motivation has long been used and explained in various fields, including psychology and education. Therefore, it is possible to reach different definitions. Sansone and Harackiewicz (2000) state that the concept of motivation has been utilized to justify different behavior, such as the ones related to survival and basic biological needs. On the other hand, human behavior is triggered by the need to reach specific goals such as avoiding punishment, being recognized, and getting promoted. Therefore, motivation as a theoretical construct is used to explain the process that starts, guides, and sustains goal-oriented acts by directing and stimulating the behavior towards reaching a specific outcome (ibid.). The term may also explain the forces that affect people to control their behavior and the differences in the intensity of any given action, in which more intense behavior is the outcome of a higher level of motivation (Gibson et al., 2000). That is to say, motivation is both intentional and directive. It is regarded as intentional since it is related to how persistent the actions and personal choices are. It is also directive as it emphasizes the driving force to achieve a specific aim (Nel et al., 2001). Motivation is also defined as the willingness to do something. American Psychological Association defines motivation as "the impetus that gives purpose or direction to behavior and operates in humans at a conscious or unconscious level" (Motivation, n.d.). In other words, motivation is responsible for "*why* people decide to do something, *how long* they are willing to sustain the activity, *how hard* they are going to pursue it" (Dörnyei & Ushioda, 2011, p. 4).

Following the above conceptualizations and definitions, motivation has been regarded as a key factor to master in a second language. It is believed to cover other factors involved in L2 learning (Ghanizadeh & Rostami, 2015). That's why many scholars, researchers, and language teachers recognize motivation as an essential factor in foreign language learning because, different from acquiring the first language, some people are better at learning L2 than others (Ushioda, 2013). Therefore, SLA researchers have introduced several theories and models in order to explain how motivation can affect L2 learning (Dörnyei, 2005, 2009; Dörnyei et al., 2014; Gardner & Lambert, 1959, 1972; Ushioda, 2009, 2013). One of the most recent theories is the L2 Motivational Self-System (L2MSS) (Dörnyei, 2005, 2009). The term was first introduced by Dörnyei, who focused on self and identity and their relationship with motivation (Ushioda & Dörnyei, 2009).

2.2.2. L2 Motivational Self System: Dörnyei (2005) claims that even though the research on individual differences is mainly concerned with psychology, it is also significant to the studies regarding education. He further supports his claim by relating it to the fact that several studies have proven that individual differences are the most dependable and stable predictor in L2 learning. He puts forward a definition to clarify individual differences by saying "…anything that marks a person as a distinct and unique human being." (p. 3).

Dörnyei (2005) constructs the theory of the L2MSS based on two fundamental tenets of psychology: the possible selves theory (Markus & Nurius, 1986) and the self-discrepancy theory (Higgins, 1987). He is also affected by pioneering motivational researchers Gardner and Lambert (1972), who introduced the idea of integrative motivation. Although being affected by Gardner and Lambert's (1972) studies, Dörnyei (2005) also criticizes the integrative motivation in certain aspects. He states that definitions of 'integrativeness' and 'motivation' by Gardner and Lambert (1972) are vague. Additionally, he says that the idea of integrativeness that Gardner and Lambert (1972) created is ineffective and cannot be implemented as integrativeness may not be relevant to English as a foreign language (EFL) context. Therefore, he recommends altering these concepts and proposes the L2MSS.

As Dörnyei and Ushioda (2011) highlight, L2MSS is "a comprehensive synthesis of past research on the main dimensions of language learning motivation" (p.79) and "as a natural progression from Gardner's theory" (p. 80). The L2MSS shows a significant reformation of the previous motivational ideas. Its introduction can be regarded as a sign of the beginning of a new era in L2 motivation research, the "sociodynamic period" (Roshandel et al., 2018, p. 330). Several researchers have regarded this new term as the most promising framework to take L2 motivation research forward (Csizér & Kormos, 2009; Ortega, 2009; Taguchi et al., 2009).

2.2.3. Components of L2 Motivational Self System: From the inspirational grounding theories, Dörnyei (2009) suggests three pillars of the L2MSS: ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, and learning experience. *The ideal L2 self* represents the L2-specific aspect of one's "ideal self" (p. 29). It depends on the conception and evaluation of one's psychological and physical skills and the features that make us who we are. The ideal L2 self is the ideal person in the individual's mind who can speak an L2. In other words, if the person we dream of becoming can speak English, the *ideal L2 self* will motivate us to learn English as we will try to decrease the discrepancy between our actual not-English-speaking selves and ideal English-speaking selves. Dörnyei (2009) says that this kind of motivation is observed in "traditional integrative and internalized instrumental motives" (p. 29)

Ought-to L2 self, on the other hand, is more related to the attributes that the individual believes they *ought to* have to meet expectations of the others and to *avoid* possible negative results or outcomes. Higgins (1987; as cited in Dörnyei 2009, p. 29) explains that the ought-to self "concerns the attributes that one believes one ought to possess to meet expectations and to avoid possible negative outcomes such as representations, obligations, and responsibilities for someone." For example, as mastering a foreign language is a requirement for a job, we learn an L2 well. Thus, it can be said that the ought-to L2 self is more instrumental and extrinsic motivation, and it is less internalized.

Finally, the *L2 learning experience* includes the components related to "immediate learning environment and experience" (Dörnyei, 2009, p. 29). For example, teachers, classmates, the language learning materials, and the curriculum are among the motives affecting motivation, and these are called "executive" motives (Dörnyei, 2009, p. 29). It is powerful for both the learners and the factors around the students. The teacher has an effect on their students, and they can motivate the students with the help of their power and the teaching and learning environment they are in. The curricula and the language teaching material affect the motivation level of the students too (Dörnyei 2009). The figure 6 below summarizes the major elements that are effective and observable in L2MSS.

Figure 6

L2 motivation self system
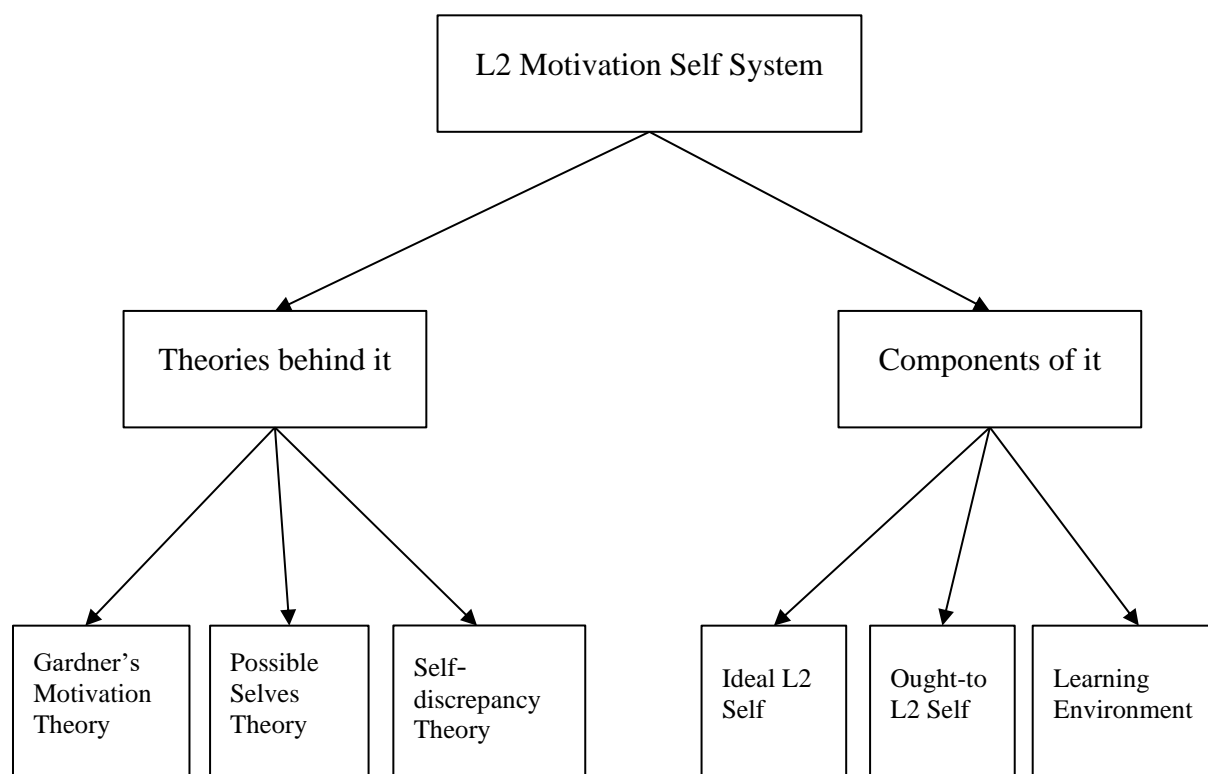
2.3. Previous studies on Pragmatic Awareness and L2MSS

There have been several studies conducted on both L2MSS and pragmatic awareness separately. There are also some studies analyzing the relationship between these two. Therefore, in this part, I will first provide some studies focusing on pragmatic awareness and L2MSS independently both from around the world and Turkey, and then will give some pioneering studies trying to explain the relationship between these two concepts.

Several researchers have tested L2MSS in many foreign language contexts around the world. In a study called Age-Related Differences in the Motivation of Learning English as a Foreign Language: Attitudes, Selves, and Motivated Learning Behavior, Kormos and Cziser (2008) analyzed the role of the three domains of L2 motivational self system with 623 participants in Hungary who were secondary school students, university students and adult learners. The researchers mainly aimed at contributing to the research on L2MSS by providing empirical support. In this study, the researchers utilized a questionnaire to collect data and the data were analyzed by Structural Empirical Modelling (SEM). The main factors affecting students' motivation to learn a second language were found to be the attitudes towards language learning and the Ideal L2 self, with which the researchers could support the main construct of the L2MSS. It was also found that motivated behaviors showed variation across the three learner groups in the study. While for the students at secondary school, interest in English-language cultural products was mainly influential on their motivation, international posture was an important predictive variable in the two older age groups. Additionally, the Ideal L2 self, the ought-to L2 self and L2 learning experience had very weak correlations with each other, which confirmed that three are independent motivational factors.

Ryan (2008) conducted a nationwide survey with 2397 participants and aimed to validate Dörnyei (2005)'s theory in terms of IL2S in Japanese context. In his study, he copied some concepts of the Hungarian study by Dörnyei. He also investigated the effects of IL2S and integrativeness on motivated behaviour in learning and compared the effect of both concepts to show the explanatory power of IL2S. According to the results, IL2S affected motivated behaviour more than integrativeness.

In Japanese, Chinese and Iranian context, Taguchi et al. (2009) conducted the largest of various quantitative studies with 5000 pupils and they compared the learners in these Asian contexts with the students in Hungary in Dörnyei's study. The main objective of the study was to test whether integrativeness could explain a significant part of L2 motivation. They concluded that context did not particularly impact the validity of L2 Motivational Self System. However, further investigation in different contexts can be required to shed some more light to

the applicability and validity of the system. Their study also demonstrated that instrumentality could be classified relating promotion rather than prevention. Learning experience, however, was found to be less effective in terms of L2MSS.

In his study, Papi (2010) tried to analyze the domains of L2MSS of Dörnyei (ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self and learning environment), the intended effort of learners to learn English and language anxiety. 1011 Iranian high school students participated in the study, and they were asked to complete a questionnaire which was designed for the Iranian context to collect data. The researcher run structural equation modeling for the analysis of the model. The findings of the study confirmed the validity of his model. All the variables had an influence on the intended effort to learn English. However, the researcher noted that ought-to L2 self caused more anxiety while ideal L2 self and attitudes towards language learning lowered students anxiety level.

Islam et al. (2013) conducted a study to confirm Dörnyei's (2005) L2MSS in Pakistani context and 1000 participants from various institutions participated in the study. The main aim of the study was to analyze the motivational level of participants to learn English. The researchers focused on the components of Dörnyei's L2MSS as well as a few context-specific factors. The data and the results provided further support for the validity of L2MSS empirically that specific context. Moreover, the researchers found that ideal L2 self strongly affected the learning effort.

In his study, Khan (2015) investigated the relationship between L2 success and L2MSS of Saudi university students. A structured questionnaire and semi-structured interview were employed in the study. The analysis of both data highlighted that ideal L2 self greatly impacted both L2 motivational level and L2 achievement as opposed to ought-to L2 self which significantly affected the level of motivation, intended effort. This study is significant because it both theoretically validated the motivational theory and provided pedagogical implications to strengthen the EFL learners' ideal L2 self of.

There have also been some studies investigating the effects of L2MSS on language learners in Turkish context. One of these studies was conducted by Arslan in 2017. The researcher particularly investigated the relationship among the three components of L2MSS and focused on how gender, type of school and intended effort affected these components. 170 EFL students from public and foundation schools participated in the study. The results of the study showed a correlation among the components of the system. It was also found that there was a correlation between these components and intended effort. Gender correlated with the components of the system, except for ought-to L2 self. However, type of school did not have any significant effect on the L2MSS components.

In another study in Turkey, Yapan (2017) also tried to discover the factors affecting the motivation of students in classroom positively and negatively. The researcher also aimed to find out the activities that students favored the most in the study. There were 385 participants who were university prep school students. It was found out that proficiency level, type of school, gender, fields of study, and their motives to study at prep school caused some differences in the motivation levels of the participants. The researcher concluded that future plans, attitudes to L2 community, instrumentality (promotion and prevention), and cultural interest were the main indicators of L2MSS. Additionally, it was also found out that classroom atmosphere, having fun during the class, sense of humour, teacher guidance, and English use in class positively affected student motivation.

In their study, Öz and Bursalı (2018) investigated the relationship between L2MSS and the willingness to communicate in L2. The researchers employed an L2MSS scale and Willingness to Communicate Inside the Classroom scales to 105 university students. According to the results, 32.4% of the participants were highly, 40% were moderately, and 27.6% were low motivated learners. Findings also demonstrated that there was a significant relationship between the Ideal L2 Self and learners' willingness to communicate in L2 classroom. However, ought-to L2 self did not significantly affect the willingness level of the participants.

Arslan and Çiftçi (2021) investigated the relationships among three components of the L2MSS and the variables of school type, gender, and intended effort. 170 students from two public and two private secondary schools in Turkey participated in the data collections. The results of data analysis showed a strong positive correlation between ideal L2 self and L2 learning experience. However, school type and gender did not make a difference according to the correlation analysis. Intended effort had a strong positive correlation with L2MSS components. According to the multiple regression analysis results, intended effort was found to be a significant predictor of L2MSS.

When we look at the studies into pragmatics and pragmatic competence, we can see that several researchers have paid attention to the pragmatic awareness of the learners. Pragmatic awareness has been studied in relation to a variety of speech acts, such as giving advice (i.e., Hinkel, 1997; Matsumura, 2001, 2003), requests and apologies (i.e., Al-Khaza'leh, 2018; İstifçi, 2009; Limberg, 2016; Olshtain & Blum-Kulka, 1985), suggestions (i.e., Gu, 2014; Koike, 1996), requests (i.e., Carrell & Konneker, 1981; Kitao, 1990; Suh, 1999; Tanaka & Kawade, 1982), and refusals (i.e., Bella, 2014; Chang, 2011; Demirkol, 2019; Farrokhi & Atashian, 2012; Han & Burgucu-Tazegül, 2016) . Also, some researchers such as Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnyei (1998), Niezgoda and Röver (2001) and Schauer (2006) focused on the comparison

between grammatical awareness and pragmatic awareness regarding speech acts including refusals, apologies, suggestions and requests.

In one of the pioneering studies in the field, Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnyei (1998) focused on L2 learners' grammatical and pragmatic awareness and analyzed the impacts of the environment and proficiency level. There were 173 ESL participants from the U.S.A. and 370 EFL participant from Hungary. As part of the study, participants were asked to watch 20 videos including brief conversations in English which elicited speech acts of requests, refusals, apologies, and suggestions. The final sentences of the conversations were assessed by the participants, and they had a pragmatic error, a grammatical error, or no error at all. After the participants watched each scene, they indicated whether the final utterance was "appropriate/correct" or not. If they thought the utterance was not appropriate/correct, they were asked to indicate how "bad" the "problem" was on a scale from "not bad at all" to "very bad." According to the results, English as a second language (ESL) learners realized more pragmatic errors and marked them as more severe than the grammatical errors. However, the EFL learners focused more on grammatical errors and rated them as more severe than the pragmatic errors. The study showed that setting is a major variable in the development of grammatical and pragmatic competence. While the foreign language (FL) setting boosted grammatical competence development, the second language (SL) setting facilitated the development of pragmatic competence.

In another study, Niezgoda and Röver (2001) tried to find out if the effect of environment found in Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnyei's (1998) study was relevant to all the learner groups, or if certain learners could show higher pragmatic awareness in the FL setting whereas some others might fail to do so. Therefore, the researchers replicated the Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnyei's (1998) study and used the same instruments in different contexts. The participants were 124 EFL learners in the Czech Republic and 48 ESL learners in the U.S.A. In line with original study, the researchers found that the ESL learners realized more pragmatic errors and judged them as more severe than the grammatical ones. On the other hand, the EFL learners found more pragmatic and grammatical errors and thought that both error types were more severe than the ESL learner participants. What's more, the researchers stated that the EFL learners in the Czech Republic showed higher level of pragmatic awareness than EFL learners in Hungary.

Schauer (2006) conducted a research to replicate Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnyei's (1998) study and investigated if the EFL and ESL learners show differences while recognizing and rating pragmatic and grammatical errors. The researcher also tried to find out if an extended

stay in the target environment could help SL learners increase their pragmatic awareness. The researcher recruited 16 German students who were studying at a British university, 17 German students who had enrolled in higher education in Germany, and 20 British English native-speaker. The results demonstrated that the German EFL participants had a lower level of pragmatic awareness than the ESL group. Additionally, it was concluded that the ESL learners could increase their level of pragmatic awareness during their stay in UK.

Kılıçkaya (2010) analyzed pragmatic awareness of Turkish EFL learners when they were asked to produce speech act of request. The data analysis and the findings showed that the EFL learners in the Turkish context can produce linguistically appropriate and correct speech act. However, they cannot use appropriate politeness strategies when needed. The researcher concludes that Turkish EFL learners own grammatical knowledge while they do not show pragmatic awareness towards how to use that grammatical knowledge.

According to Gardner (2001), motivation plays a crucial role in language learning firstly because the motivated learners will try to learn the language persistently and consistently by putting personal effort into the learning process. For example, they will be more willing to do homework and seize the opportunities to learn more. Furthermore, the motivated language learners will have a language goal and a strong desire to achieve that goal. Third, the motivated learners are open to participate in different tasks with eager. In a similar vein, Oxford and Shearin (1994) further state that motivated foreign learners will show active and personal participation in language learning unlike unmotivated L2 learners. Consequently, it is utmost important to analyze the relationship between motivation and pragmatic awareness; therefore, I will introduce some studies focusing on the relation between these two terms.

In his study, Schmidt (1983) designed a 3-year longitudinal study with his participant, Wes, a native speaker of Japanese who studied English in Honolulu. When Wes first came to America, he had low communicative competence. However, he was so motivated that he had several social interactions with native speakers; therefore, he could gradually develop appropriate sociolinguistic competence during this period. Also, Takahashi (2005) conducted a similar study and found out that there was a correlation between Japanese EFL learners' awareness and their motivation. Furthermore, in their study, Niezgoda and Röver (2001) concluded that motivation could be an effective factor that enhanced Czech EFL learners to develop grammatical and pragmatic awareness.

Another research conducted by Schmidt (1993) concludes that it is more probably for learners who are motivated to notice pragmatic features than the ones who are not really motivated. In her study, LoCastro (2001) also collects data through essays, group discussions

and language awareness assessment worksheets and performs a content analysis in order to fin out to what extent EFL learners in Japan try to adopt native norms in communication. The results show that individual differences, especially motivation, had an effect on the participants' willingness to accommodate to L2 communicative norms.

The studies conducted by Takahashi in 2001 and 2005 are thought to be the pioneers in analyzing the role of motivation in ILP. Takahashi (2001) considered motivation as one of the most powerful individual factors that affect learners' ability to notice target forms. Takahashi (2005) modified and utilized the motivation questionnaire developed by Schmidt et al. (1996) to analyze the relationship between Japanese EFL learners' motivation for language learning and the way they act upon L2 pragmatic input. The researcher asked the participants to complete three questionnaires: a metapragmatic awareness questionnaire, a general English proficiency test and a motivation questionnaire compromising of seven subscales of motivation. The researcher observed a strong correlation between motivation subscales and pragmatic awareness and motivation subscales, especially intrinsic motivation and pragmatic awareness. However, no correlation was found between their proficiency and pragmatic awareness.

While the majority of the research has focused on the concept of motivation in general, in their study Tajeddin and Zand-Moghadam (2012) studied EFL learners' pragmatic motivation. The researcher categorized ILP motivation into two: general pragmatic motivation and speech act specific motivation. While the former is related to "L2 learners' motivation to acquire pragmatic strategies, pragmatic routines, politeness strategies, turn-taking patterns, and cultural familiarity" (p. 353), the latter refers to learners' motivation to acquire the socio-pragmatic elements and pragma-linguistic tools required in various speech acts. Therefore, they collected data through General Pragmatic Motivation questionnaire (GPMQ), Speech-act-specific Motivation Questionnaire (SASMQ), and Written Discourse Completion Task (WDCT). The results showed that speech-act-specific motivation was an effective indicator of pragmatic production in EFL learners; however, there is no effect of general pragmatic motivation on L2 learners' pragmatic production.

In 2019, Arabmofrad et al. investigated the link between meta-pragmatic awareness of advanced Iranian EFL learners and their general and pragmatic specific motivation. The researchers focused on speech act of refusal due to the face-threatening feature of the speech act. The participants of the study were seventy-eight Iranian EFL learners and four American native speakers. A multiple-choice questionnaire consisting of 12 situations which aims to assess meta-pragmatic awareness of the participants were employed to all the participants and 48-item general and specific pragmatic motivation questionnaire adopted from Tajeddin and

Zand-Moghadam (2012) was employed to Iranian learners. A significant correlation between meta-pragmatic awareness of Iranian learners and the level of their general and pragmatic-specific motivation was found. Moreover, the researchers concluded that all sub-constructs of meta-pragmatic awareness predicted general and pragmatic specific motivation of the participants.

In their study, Yang and Ren (2020) analyzed to what extent L2 motivation affects the pragmatic awareness. The researchers conducted a mixed method study with 498 Chinese university students who were asked to complete a motivation questionnaire and an appropriateness judgement task, and 12 of the participants were later interviewed. The researchers employed Dörnyei's L2MSS, and the quantitative results revealed a positive correlation between pragmatic awareness and attitudes towards the L2 community and the intended learning efforts. Moreover, it was concluded that the intended learning efforts, attitudes towards learning English and attitudes towards the L2 community could predict pragmatic awareness. As part of qualitative data, the researchers highlighted a mismatch between learners' immediate learning needs and outcomes of pragmatic acquisition, which may support the absent correlation between pragmatic awareness and overall L2 motivation levels.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

This thesis had two main aims: 1) to determine the overall motivation level of Turkish EFL learners who registered in the preparatory program and their level of pragmatic awareness, and 2) to discover whether motivation affects the pragmatic awareness level of language learners.

This chapter presents information regarding the research procedure. Some information about the research design, context, participants, data collection tools, and data analysis will be provided.

3.1. Research Design

The current study took place in the spring semesters of the 2021-2022 academic year with preparatory program students studying English in A2, B1, B2, and above levels. The permission to conduct the study with language students was obtained from the Ethics Committee of Bursa Uludağ University and the Ethics Committee of Social Sciences of Istanbul University on the 25th February 2022 and the 21st February 2022 respectively (see Appendix 1). Because of the pandemic restrictions, the research was initially planned to be conducted via online platforms (Google Form). However, due to a low number of responses from the participants, the researcher had to visit the School of Foreign Languages in both universities to collect data on printed forms.

In the current study, a mixed-method research design is used to analyze the relationship between the motivation level and pragmatic awareness of university students in the preparatory program year. Both qualitative and quantitative methods provide some advantages for the researchers as well as disadvantages (Cohen et al., 2007). However, according to Ma (2015), problems that researchers may observe in quantitative or qualitative designs can be eliminated if the researchers follow a mixed-method research design. Similarly, Fraenkel et al. (2012) suggest that the mixed-method research design is a system in which researchers can use both quantitative and qualitative data collection. Accordingly, the research can benefit from the triangulation technique. Because of these advantages of mixed-method research, I decided to implement a mixed-method research design in the present study.

In the current thesis, the explanatory sequential design was used as a mixed-method research design. The purpose of the explanatory sequential mixed method is to present a detailed interpretation of events (Creswell & Clark, 2011). Caracelli and Riggin (1994) also support this by claiming that this specific method provides meaningful explanations and also

helps researchers find reliable answers. According to Creswell and Clark (2017), in explanatory sequential design, there are two steps involved. First, the researcher collects quantitative data through questionnaires. In the second step, qualitative data is gathered through interviews to provide more explanation for the quantitative results.

The study was conducted in two state universities in Turkey, one of which is in a metropolitan city while the other one is in an industrialized city located close to İstanbul. The students, who were enrolled in the preparatory program of both universities, were involved in the study. In the first stage, as part of the quantitative data collection phase, the participants were asked to complete a questionnaire in which they could express their ideas on their language learning motivations, and they also completed an appropriateness judgment task (AJT) to show their pragmatic awareness. In the second stage of data collection, semi-structured interviews, which were conducted either online through zoom or face-to-face, were performed. This phase formed the qualitative data of the triangulation technique, which was explained earlier. The main purpose of the interviews was to elicit more information regarding the motivational factors and the decisions the participants make about language use.

3.2. Participants

The research was conducted with the students who had been registered to study English preparatory programs at İstanbul University and Bursa Uludağ University. The researcher collected the data through an online Google form and from face-to-face classroom visits. All the participants were chosen via a convenience sampling strategy. According to Dörnyei (2007), convenience sampling is commonly used in L2 research, and it is based on the convenience of the researcher. The researcher chooses the participants "for the purpose of the study if they meet certain practical criteria" (p. 99). Convenience sampling is mostly purposeful. In the current research, a total of 250 participants who were in A2, B1, B2 and C1 levels contributed to the data collection process. All the participants were purposefully asked to have a certain level of English so that they could evaluate the appropriateness of the language used in the AJT part of the questionnaire. Therefore, A1 level learners in both universities were excluded from the current study. Furthermore, 15 participants were eliminated while the data coding and analysis, 5 of whom were from other universities, 7 of whom were non-Turkish students and 3 did not answer the items in the questionnaire completely. Therefore, data obtained from 235 participants were analyzed.

The participants were asked to provide demographic information to explore whether demographic differences affect motivation level and pragmatic awareness. Therefore, demographic information regarding their gender, age, the university they were studying in,

language level, and the high school they had graduated from were elicited. The information is presented in Table 1 below.

Table 1

Demographic information of the participants

	n	**%**
Gender		
Female	151	64.3
Male	84	35.7
Total	235	100
Age		
18-20	206	87.7
21-23	28	11.9
24-26	0	0
27+	1	0.4
Total	235	100
University		
İstanbul University	158	67.2
Bursa Uludağ University	77	32.8
Total	235	100
Language Level		
A2	67	28.5
B1	133	56.6
B2	27	11.5
C1	8	3.4
Total	235	100
High School		
Anatolian High School	146	62.1
Private High School	25	10.6
Science High School	18	7.7
Vocational and Technical Anatolian High School	18	7.7
İmam Hatip High School	15	6.4
Open Education High School	5	2.1
Anatolian High School with Multiple Programs	4	1.7

Social Sciences High School	4	1.7
Total	235	100

As seen in Table 1, more than 60% of the participants were female (N= 151) while 35% were male (N=84). The majority of the participants were between the ages of 18 and 20 while 28 participants were between 21 and 23. There was no participant between the age range of 24 to 26. Only one participant stated to be over 27. While the majority of the participants (56.6%, N= 133) stated that they were B1 level students during the data collection period, the rest were A2, B2 and C1 level, 28.5%, 11.5% and 3.4% respectively.

When the high schools in which the participants had studied were analyzed, it was observed that the participants had various backgrounds in terms of high school. While open education high schools allow students to study without physically attending school, students have to attend classes on regular basis in all the other high school types. Anatolian high schools and Anatolian high schools with multiple programs have subjects regarding numeric and social science. Social sciences high schools aim to educate students on social sciences and literature while science high schools targets to train them in numeric sciences. Vocational and technical Anatolian high schools offer lessons in various fields to educate students in various sectors and jobs while imam hatip high schools aim to educate students in mainly Islamic courses as well as fundamental courses. Private high schools, as the name refers, are the ones providing education in various fields and studies with an annual fee. As seen from the table, the majority of the participants graduated from Anatolian high schools (N= 146) which was followed by private high schools with 7.7%. The rest of the high school types make up almost one-third of the overall number.

As part of demographic information, the participants were also asked whether they had been abroad before or not. Furthermore, information regarding how long they had been abroad was also elicited (Table 2). Only 56 participants (23.8%) have been abroad before. When the distribution of these participants was analyzed, it was observed that the majority (N=31) spent less than 7 days abroad and 16 participants (29%) spent more than a month. Also, 4 participants were abroad for more than 4 months while only 2 participants spent more than 8 months in a country other than Turkey. It was also observed that the number of participants who spent more than a year abroad was quite low as only 1 participant spent 12 months and only 3 participants spent more than 24 months in another country.

Table 2

Information regarding experience abroad

	N	%
Been abroad		
Yes	56	23.8
No	179	76.2
Total	235	100
Duration		
Less than 7 days	31	55
For more than one month	16	29
For more than 4 months	4	7
For more than 8 months	2	3
For more than 12 months	1	2
For more than 24 months	3	4
Total	56	100

Finally, the participants were asked whether they had a foreign friend with whom they had to speak English in their lives, how often and how they kept in touch. The statistics regarding the questions are presented in Table 3.

Table 3

Information regarding having a foreign friend

	N	%
Have a foreign friend		
Yes	84	35.7
No	151	64.3
Total	235	100
Frequency of contact		
Rarely	39	46
Every week	21	25
A few times a month	16	19
Every day	3	4
Very frequently at the dorm	1	1
Very frequently at school	4	5

Total	84	100
How to keep in touch		
Through online social media platforms	53	52
While playing digital games	33	32
Face-to-face	16	16
Total	102	100
Congratulation on special days		
Yes	55	65
No	29	35
Total	84	100

Only 35.7% of the participants (N=84) stated that they had at least one friend with whom they had to speak in English while 151 students did not have any foreign friends during the data collection process. Of these 84 participants, 39 reported that they contacted their friends rarely and 21 participants stated that they saw their foreign friends every week. 16 participants contacted their friends a few times a month while only 3 of the participants kept in touch with their friends every day. Moreover, only one student stated that he/she contacted their friend very frequently at the dorm and 4 participants claimed to keep in touch with their friends very frequently at school. The participants were also asked how they could keep in touch with their foreign friends, and they had a chance to choose more than one option. As seen from the table, the participants stated that they contacted their friends through social media platforms, digital games and by meeting face-to-face, 52%, 32% and 16% respectively. Finally, as part of demographic information, the participants were inquired whether they would congratulate their foreign friends on any special days. While 55 participants expressed that they would, 29 of the participants stated that they would not congratulate any.

Of these 235 participants, 13 volunteered to participate in the qualitative data collection stage. There were 3 male participants and 10 females. They were asked questions which were chosen as part of a semi-structured interview protocol.

Table 4

Semi-structured interview participants

	N	%
Male	3	23
Female	10	77
Total	13	100

3.3. Data Collection Tools

In this part, information regarding the data collection tools is presented. Data triangulation was achieved with the help of different data collection tools. Both qualitative and quantitative data collection tools were used in the present study. A five-point likert scale questionnaire, an appropriateness judgment task (AJT) and a semi-structured interview were used to collect data.

3.3.1. Quantitative data collection instruments: For quantitative data collection, a 5-point motivation questionnaire and AJT were utilized. The first section of the quantitative data collection tool comprises questions used to find out some demographic information about the participants regarding their age and gender, the high school where they studied, whether they have been abroad or not and whether they have had any friends with whom they have to speak in English, etc.

In quantitative data collection process, the 5-point motivation questionnaire from Taguchi et al. (2009) was adapted and used in the current study. The original questionnaire includes three versions developed for English language learners in Japan, China, and Iran, respectively. Taguchi et al.'s (2009) questionnaire was chosen to be used as a part of data collection in the current study as their study has been a representative quantitative study carried out within Dörnyei's (2005, 2009) L2MSS framework. Necessary permissions were received from the researchers who created the original questionnaire and who adapted it to be used in different contexts (see Appendix 2). Furthermore, some items which were included in the original data collection tool were excluded since they were not found to be directly related to Dörnyei's L2 motivation theory and would not provide appropriate information about the participants of the current study. The part that was omitted in the current study is related to family influence as a motivational variable, which was not applicable to the participants of the current study. The language learners in the present study attend compulsory preparatory program to study English before their faculty, which eliminates the effects of parents. To illustrate, the items including "*My parents encourage me to practice my English as much as*

possible.", "*My parents/family believe that I must study English to be an educated person.*", and "*Studying English is important to me in order to bring honours to my family.*" were taken out of the questionnaire.

Therefore, from the 54 original items included in Taguchi et al.'s Iranian questionnaire, the total number of items was reduced to 33. The Cronbach alpha of the questionnaire is found to be 0.893, which is acceptable. The information regarding each motivational variable in the questionnaire, the items under each factor and their Cronbach alpha values can be found in Appendix 3.

The quantitative data collection tool adapted and used in the current study includes seven major factors. The first one is called *Criterion Measures* or *Intended Learning Efforts* which aims to assess the learners' intended efforts toward learning English. It tries to find out whether language learners would spend any effort to master a foreign language. The other motivational factor in L2MSS is *Ideal L2 self*, which refers to the "L2-specific facet of one's ideal self" (Dörnyei, 2005, p.106). The questionnaire items under this factor try to understand whether language learners see themselves as competent language users in an English-speaking community or country. Another factor is called *Ought-to L2 self* that tries to measure "the attributes that one believes one ought to possess (i.e. various duties, obligations, or responsibilities) in order to avoid possible negative outcomes" (Dörnyei, 2005, p.106). This factor focuses on the effects of other people on the motivation level of language learners. *Instrumentality* factor tries to measure the regulation of personal goals to become successful such as attaining high proficiency in English in order to make more money or find a better job. It also focuses on the regulation of duties and obligations such as studying English in order to pass an exam. The factor called *Attitudes to learning English* is more about the situation-specific motives related to the immediate learning environment and experience. It tries to measure whether language learners find learning English interesting and whether they enjoy learning English in the classroom. *Attitudes to L2 community* investigates the learner's attitudes toward the community of the target language and focuses on whether language learners would like to travel to English-speaking countries or learn more about people in target community. Finally, *Cultural interest* measures the learner's interest in the cultural products of the L2 culture, such as TV, magazines, music and movies.

In AJT part of the quantitative data collection instrument, there were ten short dialogues between Peter (an imaginary non-native English speaker) and his friends, his teachers and some strangers. The conversations in AJT were adapted from Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnyei (1998) by Yang and Ren (2020) and they covered a whole range of speech acts including requests,

suggestions, refusals and apologies. Of these ten conversations, there were pragmatic infelicities in seven and three were pragmatically appropriate (controls) (see Appendix 4; see the sample dialogue below). In the original study, Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnyei (1998) chose preferable native-speaker responses for the pragmatically appropriate conversations while they used "representative but nontarget-like learner responses" (Yang & Ren, 2020, p. 454) for the pragmatically problematic dialogues.

Sample dialogue:

> Peter needs directions to the library. He asks another student.
> A: Hi.
> P: Hi.
> !P: #Tell me how to get to the library.
> **Most inappropriate** 1 2 3 4 5 6 **Most appropriate**

In the studies conducted by both Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnyei (1998) and Yang and Ren (2020), the participants were asked to listen to the recordings of the descriptions and conversations with clear native English speaker pronunciation and evaluate the appropriacy of the language used. Because of a shortage of technological facilities such as computer laboratories where a high number of participants could complete the questionnaire and the AJT and pandemic restrictions in both universities, the AJT was employed without audio recordings. The participants were asked to read the descriptions and the conversations carefully and judge the appropriacy of last sentence in each scenario through a six-point scale.

3.3.2. Qualitative data collection instrument: The study group of the qualitative data collection phase of the current study consisted of 13 participants in total from both universities, who volunteered to take part in, and they were selected through a convenience random sampling method. The participants were asked semi-structured interview questions to help gain a deeper understanding of the motivation level of the learners, factors affecting their motivation and pragmatic awareness. Certain initiation and follow-up questions were asked to the participants to gather data. For example, "What are the main elements affecting your motivation?" and "Do you believe that pragmatic elements of the language are taught in the classroom?". The interview protocol is presented in Appendix 5.

To prevent any possible problems that are related to the content and clarity of the interview question, the researcher used peer debriefing with her thesis advisor before the interviews to enhance the validity of any interview questions as the researcher is "an instrument

of qualitative research designs" (Patton, 2001, p.14). Consequently, the questions that were most relevant to the purpose of the current study were defined. To achieve higher reliability, the researcher avoided using questions that would direct participants to any specific response, instead providing abundant details to clarify the interview questions. The participants were also asked to explain their ideas during the interviews to obtain accurate data, and the researcher stated how she had interpreted their expressions to confirm their comments.

3.4. Data Collection

The questionnaire and AJT used to gather quantitative data aim to uncover the motivation level of language learners, the factors influencing their motivation and the level of pragmatic awareness of the participants. Therefore, the participants were informed about the aims of the study. The qualitative data were gathered both online and on paper from the language learners studying English at A2, B1, and higher levels.

During quantitative data collection process, volunteering participants were informed about the semi-structured interviews. One-on-one interviews were conducted online on Zoom or face-to-face at a mutually agreed-upon time with those who agreed to do the interview. All of the participants were provided with the required information regarding the research design and the interview process once again before the interviews, and they were asked to give consent as well. Prior to the interview, the participants were also told that there were no correct or wrong responses, and that the interview had no time limit. The researcher asked the participants of their language choice, English or Turkish. Accordingly, all the semi-structured interviews were conducted in the mother tongue of the participants (Turkish) as they stated that they would feel more comfortable. The data collection period lasted around a month and each interview took around 20 to 30 minutes. The interviews on Zoom were video recorded while face-to-face interviews were recorded on the researcher's mobile phone and transcribed verbatim, and the interviews conducted in Turkish were translated into English by the researchers to code the data. The participants were given pseudonyms for ethical considerations. The students' pseudonyms included P1, P2, P3, P4, P5, P6, P7, P8, P9, P10, P11, P12, and P13.

3.5. Data Analysis

The quantitative data was analyzed through SPSS 26. Prior to analyzing the quantitative data, the test of normality was applied to see the distribution of the data. The Shapiro Wilk normality test was chosen to be done to see whether the data were normally distributed or not and to further decide whether to apply parametric or nonparametric tests. According to Shapiro

Wilk test, p value was found to be 0.00 for the motivation questionnaire, which shows that the data were not normally distributed. Therefore, nonparametric tests have been conducted.

The participants were asked to state to what extent they agreed or disagreed with each item on a scale of 1 to 5, with 1 denoting 'totally disagree' and 5 denoting 'totally agree'. Descriptive statistics such as Mean (M), Standard Deviation (SD) and Frequency Analysis have been used to understand the beliefs of the participants regarding the motivational factors of L2MSS. While interpreting the responses of the participants to the motivational scale, the distribution of means as shown in Table 5 was used.

Table 5

Level of motivational factors

Mean	Level
0 - 2.50	Low level
2.51 - 3.50	Moderate level
3.51 - 5.00	High level

In AJT part of the questionnaire, the participants were asked to evaluate the appropriacy level of the highlighted statement in each conversation on a scale of 1 to 6, with 1 denoting 'the most inappropriate' and 6 'most appropriate'. As stated before, seven of the ten sentences in the dialogues in the AJT were pragmatically inappropriate while only three were appropriate. Consequently, when the participants score higher on three pragmatically acceptable items, it can be said that their pragmatic awareness is high. However, for the other seven pragmatically inappropriate items, the participants are expected to score lower to show high pragmatic awareness. To ease data analysis, the researcher reversed the scores for the seven pragmatically inappropriate items. As a result, a score of 60 was the top score the participants could get. So as to analyze the relationship between the motivational factors and the pragmatic awareness of the participants, a Spearman Correlation analysis and Multiple Linear Regression were conducted.

When analyzing the qualitative data, qualitative content analysis was conducted to gain an in-depth understanding of the motivational factors and their effect on the participants' motivation as well as their pragmatic awareness and to detect common patterns of meaning following the constructivist paradigm (Braun & Clarke, 2006). The analysis phase of interview transcripts included a four-step analysis approach proposed by Holliday (2010) involving coding, defining themes, creating an argument and checking the data. Coding has been employed to investigate the participants' ideas and this technique was obtained as the strategy

to analyze the qualitative data as the codes will show the significance of the data when used frequently by the participants (Miles et al., 2014). However, not frequently repeated codes were also analyzed as they may demonstrate the exceptional ideas and conditions about the topic (Creswell, 2012). For this reason, not only the frequency of the repeated codes but also the relationship among different codes were under investigation. Therefore, in order to analyze the qualitative data inductively, MAXQDA 2020 was utilized, and various codes and themes emerged during the data analysis process. Once the codes were created for all the participants, the codes were cross-checked and some codes having similar meanings were merged, and themes were identified in relation to the codes. As shown in Figure 7, a code map was generated using a smart coding tool on MAXQDA. The researcher created a codebook that contains the names of the codes, an explanation of when to use the codes, and example sentences related to the codes to avoid bias in the coding process.

The analysis of the qualitative data regarding language learning motivation and subsequent themes emerged will be discussed as part of R1 and R2. Furthermore, the data related to learners' pragmatic awareness and the criteria considered during the evaluating of AJT will be further analyzed under the headings of R4 and R5.

Figure 7
Themes and categories of qualitative data analysis
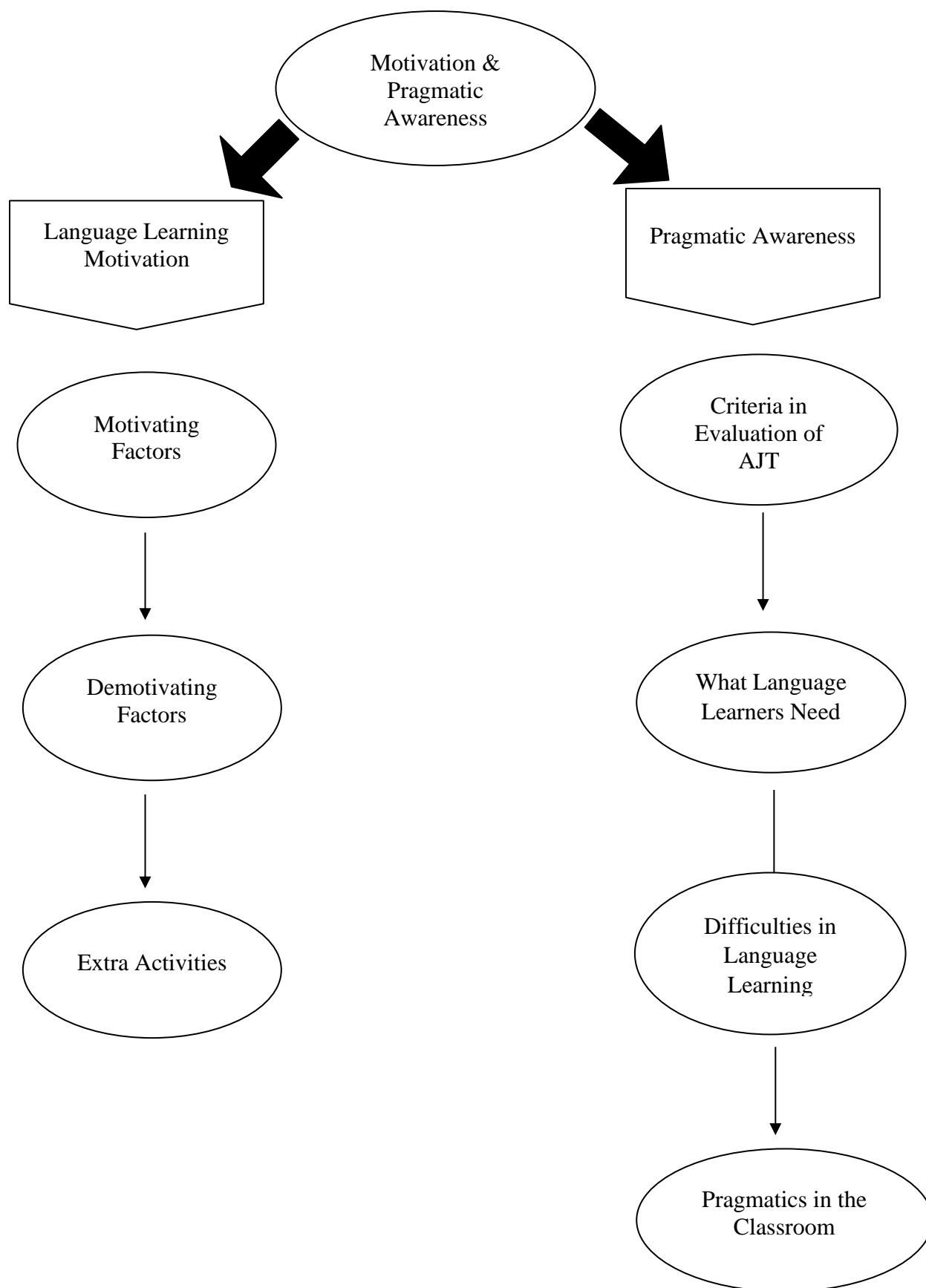
CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

In this chapter, qualitative and quantitative data analysis results were given in detail and presented in tables. The quantitative data were analyzed through SPSS Statistics 26, and the content analysis method was conducted to investigate the qualitative data. The analysis and the results have been presented in connection with the research questions. The participants' comments were presented in a comprehensible manner, and the qualitative data were organized using coding procedures. The quantitative data analysis included descriptive statistics and nonparametric tests such as the Mann-Whitney U test, Kruskal-Vallis Test, Spearman Correlation test, and multiple linear regression analysis.

4.1. Motivational Level of University Students to Learn English

The first research question aimed to determine the participants' overall motivational level while learning English. Table 6 presents the overall motivation level and the mean of each motivational factor. To further determine the motivation level of the learners regarding each item in the scale, frequency analysis was used, and the results were presented in Table 7.

Table 6

Means and standard deviations of motivational factors

	Overall	AL2C	INS.	IL2S	CI	ALE	CM	OL2S
Valid	235	235	235	235	235	235	235	235
Missing	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0
Mean	3.89	4.40	4.22	4.14	4.14	3.48	3.45	3.40
Std. Deviation	.47	.57	.50	.70	.70	.77	.68	.83

Note: AL2C = Attitudes towards the L2 community, CI = Cultural interest, INS = Instrumentality, IL2S = Ideal L2 self, OL2S = Ought-to L2 self, ALE = Attitudes toward learning English, ILE = Intended learning efforts

As seen in Table 6, the overall mean score of the participants regarding the motivation questionnaire was found to be 3.89, which shows a high level of motivation toward learning English. When the factors were analyzed individually, it was found that *attitudes to L2*

community (M=4.40), *instrumentality* (M=4.22), *ideal L2 self* (M=4.14), and *cultural interest* (M=4.14) yielded towards 5, and it can be said that students showed a high level of motivation regarding these factors. However, the mean scores for *attitudes to learning English* (M=3.48), *criterion measure* (M=3.45), and the *ought-to L2 self* (M=3.40) were below 3.5, which implies a moderate level of motivation in these motivational factors.

The analysis of the data gathered from the interviews with the participants also showed similar results regarding the overall motivation of the participants to learn English. Although all the participants were studying mandatory preparatory programs before their faculties, all of them (N=13) clearly stated that they would have studied English even if it was not a prerequisite of the programme where they studied. Two participants also declared that they had specifically chosen to study in the departments in which the English preparatory program was compulsory.

To answer the first research question with further detail, a 33 item-questionnaire, which targeted to identify the participants' beliefs regarding their motivation and the factors affecting their motivation towards learning English, was used. Table 7 demonstrates the mean and standard deviations of the answers from the participants, and the data presented in the table was used to interpret the results. The answers for strongly agree and agree and strongly disagree and disagree in the questionnaire were merged into single categories and were presented under the headings of agree and disagree, respectively. Scores for each sub-category were listed from the highest to the lowest. It was clearly shown that most items had high mean scores, and only some carried moderate levels.

The results of the overall analysis indicated a high level of motivation toward language learning. When the data are analyzed in detail, it is observed that the percentage of the students who stated that they would like to visit an English-speaking country was 97% (item 2), which is the highest level of agreement of all the items in the questionnaire. Following this, 96.1% of the participants stated that it was essential to learn English as they believed it would help them to find a decent job in the future (item 4). Furthermore, the students also thought that they would need English for their future studies (item 29), they could imagine themselves speaking English (item 31), and they enjoyed watching films in English (item 1), 94.9%, 90.2% and 90.2%, respectively.

Table 7

The motivation level of the participants

Factors	Items	Mean	SD	Frequencies (%)		
				Disagree	Neutral	Agree
ILE	33. I think that I am doing my best to learn English.	2.18	.744	21.3	42.5	36.2
	16. I would like to spend lots of time studying English.	2.60	.627	7.7	24.3	68.1
	24. I am prepared to expend a lot of effort in learning English.	2.63	5.96	6	26	68
	7. If my teacher would give the class an optional assignment. I would certainly volunteer to do it.	2.04	.73	24.7	46.4	28.9
IL2S	31. I imagine myself as someone who is able to speak English.	2.87	.414	3	6.8	90.2
	9. I can imagine myself speaking English with international friends or colleagues.	2.83	.445	3	10.6	86.4
	5. I can imagine myself living abroad and having a discussion in English.	2.81	.458	3	12.3	84.7
	25. Whenever I think of my future career, I imagine myself using English.	2.72	.558	5.5	16.6	77.9
	13. I can imagine myself speaking English as if I were a native speaker of English.	2.53	.680	10.6	25.1	64.3
	22. I can imagine myself studying in a university where all my courses are taught in English.	2.51	.747	15.3	18.3	66.4
OL2S	26. Studying English is important to me because an educated person is supposed to be able to speak English.	2.79	.523	5.5	9.4	85.1
	15. It will have a negative impact on my life if I don't learn English.	2.34	.878	27.2	11.5	61.3
	14. I consider learning English important because the people I respect think that I should do it.	2.22	.864	28.5	20.4	51.1

	32. Studying English is important to me in order to gain the approval of my peers/teachers/family/boss.	2.17	.850	28.9	25.1	46
	23. Studying English is important to me because other people will respect me more if I have a knowledge of English.	2.08	.865	33.2	24.7	42.1
	6. If I fail to learn English, I'll be letting other people down.	1.88	.879	44.7	21.6	33.6
INS	4. Studying English can be important to me because I think it will someday be useful in getting a good job.	2.95	.248	.9	3	96.1
	29. Studying English can be important to me because I think I'll need it for further studies.	2.93	.292	1.3	3.8	94.9
	21. Studying English is necessary for me because I don't want to get a poor score or a fail mark in English proficiency tests (TOEFL, IELTS,...).	2.82	.499	5.1	7.7	87.2
	20. Studying English is important to me because I am planning to study abroad.	2.74	.533	4.7	16.2	79.1
	12. Studying English is important to me in order to achieve a special goal (e.g. to get a degree or scholarship).	2.63	.663	10.2	17	72.8
	30. Studying English is important to me in order to attain a higher social respect.	2.25	.814	23.4	27.2	49.4
ALE	8. I really enjoy learning English.	2.62	.631	8.1	21.7	70.2
	3. I find learning English really interesting.	2.57	.670	10.2	21.7	68.1
	17. I always look forward to English classes.	2.0723	.727	23	46.8	30.2
	27. I think time passes faster while studying English.	2.0723	.789	27.7	37.4	34.9
AL2C	2. I would like to travel to English-speaking countries.	2.96	.203	.4	2.6	97
	11. I like meeting people from English-speaking countries.	2.83	.452	3.4	9.4	87.2

	19. I would like to know more about people from English-speaking countries.	2.70	.572	6	17.4	76.6
CI	1. I like English films.	2.89	.335	.9	8.9	90.2
	18. I like TV programmes made in English-speaking countries.	2.72	. 586	7.2	12.8	80
	28. I like the music of English-speaking countries (e.g. pop music).	2.67	.612	10.6	29.4	60
	10. I like English magazines, newspapers, or books.	2.49	.681	7.7	17.4	74.9

Note: AL2C = Attitudes towards the L2 community, CI = Cultural interest, INS = Instrumentality, IL2S = Ideal L2 self, OL2S = Ought-to L2 self, ALE = Attitudes toward learning English, ILE = Intended learning efforts

In line with the quantitative data, according to the data obtained through interviews, the main reasons why the participants were eager to learn English were to move and live abroad for social and educational reasons (N= 8), to have a better career or find better job opportunities (N=7), to improve themselves (N=4), to travel abroad for a short time (N=4), and to become academically successful (N=3). Apart from these reasons, 5 participants also mentioned that they needed English to communicate with people from other cultures and countries.

Most of the participants (N=7) stated that they would like to pursue a career in another country in order to find better job opportunities and would like to move and live abroad after their university. Additionally, they stated that having further academic training by attending master's or Ph.D. studies in a foreign country was a necessity to have a better life. This means that the participants showed an awareness of the importance of English in their future lives. P1 further clarified her opinion by stating:

> I love studying English, but my main reason for learning English is that I have to prepare myself for the future as you have to know English to find a job even now. I can't imagine how important English will be after six years at the university. It will be ordinary to speak English, and I will have to know English. That's why I know I have to learn English.

Apart from finding a job or getting ready for their future career, personal improvement and pursuing an academic career were the other main reasons. The participants believed that they could improve themselves personally, broaden their perspective, and become more open to differences by reaching some sources in English. P13 stated that the majority of the materials that might help them to improve themselves are published in English, and Turkish translations might not be available or may be in low quality if any. Also, some literary sources such as novels, comic books, films or music are primarily available in English. The participant further exemplified that when she wanted to watch an Italian movie, it might be challenging to access Turkish translation or subtitles, while it is usually pretty easy to find English translation or subtitles. Also, the participants said that accessing to academic sources would be easier for them if they knew English.

Being able to interact with people from other cultures stood out as one of the most commonly uttered reasons to learn English (N=5). The participants showed high interest in communicating with people from all around the world. P9 clarified their opinion by stating:

> I am a person who enjoys learning about new and different cultures. I mean new people. And English is the most common language to communicate with people. Almost everybody is learning English. Everybody in all the countries primarily

learns English. Therefore, I can make lots of friends when I visit new places. In fact, you don't even need to travel now. You can do everything online now.

Additionally, motivated to learn English, almost all the participants (N=12) stated in the interviews that they spent some time doing some activities to improve their English. Among these activities, the most popular ones were watching videos, films, or series online (N=8), following some online web pages to learn English or downloading applications on their phones (N=4), and communicating with people in English, especially with foreigners in other countries through online platforms such as games (N=3). All the participants were aware of the benefits of these activities. P2 clarified the main advantage of these activities with a personal experience. P2 stated that the activities had helped her to be placed in B1 level while a friend of hers, who was in almost the same level in high school, was in A2 level at the beginning of the academic year. The participant believed that the activities provided her many benefits to improve her language level even in a very short time. Moreover, P9 and P10 claimed that their self-confidence while speaking to tourists in the city increased, and they felt more comfortable talking to them. Rather than thinking about the correct grammar form or vocabulary, they felt they could speak fluently to the tourists when they asked for directions thanks to being exposed to English through these activities. Moreover, one of the participants stated that they practiced in front of a mirror to improve her language and speaking skills, but she had some hesitations regarding the correct language use.

On the other hand, when the items with the lowest agreement rate were analyzed, it is seen that only 28.9% of the participants would do an assignment voluntarily (item 7), which shows the lowest level of agreement. Also, 30.2% of the students believed that they looked forward to the English classes (item 17). In addition, the ones who claimed they would disappoint people around them if they couldn't learn English (item 6) and who did their best to learn English (item 33) made up 33.6% and 36% of the participants, respectively. This means that these items were among the ones that affect the language learning motivation of the learners the least in the current study.

Finally, in the qualitative data collection part, the factors affecting learners' motivation negatively were also researched. Although the participants had similar motives to learn English, demotivating factors varied greatly. The most common demotivational factor was personal reasons (N=4), such as low self-confidence and feeling shy or nervous while speaking. Also, P6 stated that language aptitude was a demotivating factor as it vastly affects language learning. The participant asserted that language learning would be quite easy if it were just about studying grammar and passing the tests. She admitted that language aptitude and personal traits such as

being shy made language learning harder for her. Besides, formal examination at school, previous language learning experiences, assignments, the differences between Turkish and English in terms of sentence structure, wrong vocabulary choice, and language form use were among the major demotivational factors (P 2, P5, P10, P11, P12 and P13). In addition, P3 also highlighted the lack of facilities in the language environments in terms of technological infrastructure such as the lack of personal computers provided to each student, especially the ones who had financial difficulties, internet connection problems during online classes, and lack of activities that would enable learners to have chances to practice language more out of the classroom. The participant also mentioned the scarce opportunities for learners to go abroad to improve their languages.

4.2. Differences Between the Motivational Level of University Students in Terms of Demographic Variables

The second research question aimed to find out whether the demographic variables caused any statistically significant differences in the motivation level of the participants. To find an answer to the question, some nonparametric tests, including Mann-Whitney U Test and Kruskal-Vallis Test, were employed as well as some post hoc tests to investigate the differences if any.

Table 8

Total motivation scale and gender

Groups	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	z	p
Male	84	116.10	17978.00	6502.00	-.320	.749
Female	151	119.06	9752.00			
Total	235					

Table 8 shows the overall motivation of the male and female participants of the study. According to the Mann-Whitney U Test result, there was no statistically significant difference between the male and female participants in terms of overall motivation (U=6502.00, p=.749, z=.320). This means that both male and female language learners of English in Turkish context are highly motivated towards language learning.

The qualitative data collection part of the current study included three male and ten female participants aged between 18 and 20. According to the overall outcomes of data analysis, it was found that although there were some differences in the primary motivation to learn the

language, all the participants were intrinsically motivated to learn English. They also had a high awareness of the importance of language learning in their personal, academic, and professional lives, as shown in the previous research question.

Table 9

The Mann-Whitney U test results for gender and motivational factors

Factor	Groups	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	z	p
CI	Male	84	107.40	18708.50	7232.500	1.798	.072
	Female	151	123.90	9021.50			
	Total	235					
ILE	Male	84	108.88	18584.50	7108.500	1.547	.122
	Female	151	123.08	9145.50			
	Total	235					
IL2S	Male	84	120.26	17628.50	6152.500	-.381	.703
	Female	151	116.75	10101.50			
	Total	235					
OL2S	Male	84	125.78	17164.50	5688.500	-1.311	.190
	Female	151	113.67	10565.50			
	Total	235					
INS	Male	84	110.41	18455.50	6979.500	1.284	.199
	Female	151	122.22	9274.50			
	Total	235					
ALE	Male	84	120.81	17582.00	6106.000	-.475	.635
	Female	151	116.44	10148.00			
	Total	235					
AL2C	Male	84	112.84	18251.50	6775.500	.889	.374
	Female	151	120.87	9478.50			
	Total	235					

Note: AL2C = Attitudes towards the L2 community, CI = Cultural interest, INS = Instrumentality, IL2S = Ideal L2 self, OL2S = Ought-to L2 self, ALE = Attitudes toward learning English, ILE = Intended learning efforts

The results of the Mann-Whitney U test, as seen in Table 9, demonstrated no statistically significant difference in the scores of intended learning efforts, ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, instrumentality, attitudes to learning English, cultural interest, and attitudes to L2 community, at the .05 level of significance ($p < 0.05$). In summary, there was no statistically significant difference based on the gender of the participants in terms of the overall motivation level and components of L2MSS ($p > 0.05$).

Another demographic component that was analyzed to see if there was a statistically significant effect on the motivation and motivational components was the participants' language level. To find an answer to the question, Kruskal-Wallis Test was employed.

Table 10

Kruskal-Wallis test results for motivation and language level

Factor	Groups	N	Mean Rank	χ^2	df	p
Overall Motivation	A2	67	116.91			
	B1	133	116.34			
	B2	27	111.04	6.655	3	.084
	C1	8	178.19			
	Total	235				
CI	A2	67	124.28			
	B1	133	113.29			
	B2	27	118.07	2.381	3	.497
	C1	8	143.56			
	Total	235				
ILE	A2	67	110.21			
	B1	133	117.36			
	B2	27	123.54	6.853	3	.077
	C1	8	175.25			
	Total	235				
IL2S	A2	67	118.34			
	B1	133	117.92			
	B2	27	102.61	5.822	3	.121
	C1	8	168.38			
	Total	235				

OL2S	A2	67	125.78			
	B1	133	115.54			
	B2	27	104.20	3.037	3	.386
	C1	8	140.31			
	Total	235				
INS	A2	67	122.57			
	B1	133	115.21			
	B2	27	108.43	3.948	3	.267
	C1	8	158.50			
	Total	235				
ALE	A2	67	105.03			
	B1	133	118.68			
	B2	27	129.89	9.054	3	**.029**
	C1	8	175.25			
	Total	235				
AL2C	A2	67	117.78			
	B1	133	117.30			
	B2	27	116.89	.555	3	.907
	C1	8	135.13			
	Total	235				

Note: AL2C = Attitudes towards the L2 community, CI = Cultural interest, INS = Instrumentality, IL2S = Ideal L2 self, OL2S = Ought-to L2 self, ALE = Attitudes toward learning English, ILE = Intended learning efforts

The results of the Kruskal-Wallis test for the relationship between language level and motivation showed no statistically significant difference in the scores of overall motivation level, intended learning efforts, ideal L2 self, ought-to L2 self, instrumentality, cultural interest and attitudes to L2 community, at the .05 level of significance ($p > 0.05$). However, a statistically significant difference is observed in the attitudes to learning English ($p = .029 < .05$). The Tamhane Post hoc test was applied to identify the difference between groups as the variances were not equal.

Table 11 shows the results of the Tamhane post hoc test. It was found that there was a statistically significant difference between A2 and C1 as well as between B1 and C1 level participants in terms of attitudes to learning English (H = 9.054, $p = .029$). The mean difference

for A2 and C1 level participants were -70.220 (p= .005). Furthermore, it was -56,573 for B1 and C1 groups (p= .021). When the mean ranks of the groups were investigated, it was found that C1 level participant students were more motivated in their attitudes to learning English. However, no statistically significant difference was observed between the other groups.

Table 11

The comparison of language level groups in terms of attitudes to learning English

Groups	Std. Test Statistic	Std. Error	p
A2 – B1	-13.647	10.127	.178
A2 – B2	-24.859	15.408	.107
A2 – C1	-70.220	25.285	**.005**
B1 – B2	-11.212	14.268	.432
B1 – C1	-56.573	24.607	**.021**
B2 – C1	-45.361	27.209	.095

Additionally, the data collected were analyzed to determine whether there was a statistically significant difference between the participants who had been abroad and those who had never been before the data collection. Therefore, the Mann-Whitney U test was conducted to find an answer to this question. As seen in Table 12, no statistically significant difference was observed between the ones who had experience abroad and those who had not. Therefore, no further test was applied to the data set regarding the relationship between motivation and experience abroad.

Table 12

The Mann-Whitney U test results for the experience abroad and sub-scales of the motivation questionnaire

Factor	Groups	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks	U	z	p
Overall	Yes	56	124.88	6993.00			
Motivation	No	179	115.85	20737.00	4627.000	-.867	.386
	Total	235					
CI	Yes	56	122.21	6843.50	4776.500	-.535	.593
	No	179	116.68	20886.50			

	Total	235					
ILE	Yes	56	118.21	6619.50	5000.500	-.026	.979
	No	179	117.94	21110.50			
	Total	235					
IL2S	Yes	56	130.71	7319.50	4300.500	-1.609	.108
	No	179	114.03	20410.50			
	Total	235					
OL2S	Yes	56	116.01	6496.50	4900.500	-.252	.801
	No	179	118.62	21233.50			
	Total	235					
INS	Yes	56	111.64	6252.00	4656.000	-.807	.420
	No	179	119.99	21478.00			
	Total	235					
ALE	Yes	56	125.31	7017.50	4602.500	-.928	.354
	No	179	115.71	20712.50			
	Total	235					
AL2C	Yes	56	127.17	7121.50	4498.500	-1.184	.236
	No	179	115.13	20608.50			
	Total	235					

Note: AL2C = Attitudes towards the L2 community, CI = Cultural interest, INS = Instrumentality, IL2S = Ideal L2 self, OL2S = Ought-to L2 self, ALE = Attitudes toward learning English, ILE = Intended learning efforts

Next, the data were analyzed to find out if the high schools where participants had studied before university caused any statistically significant difference. Kruskal-Wallis Test was employed to find this out, and the results are presented in Table 13. According to the data presented in the table, no statistically significant difference was observed in the overall motivation of the participants and the motivational factors except for attitudes to the L2 community component (H(7)= 20.929, p=.004).

Table 13

Kruskal-Wallis test results for motivation and types of high school

Factor	Groups	N	Mean Rank	χ2	Df	p
Overall Motivation	1	5	121.50			
	2	146	115.68			
	3	4	63.38			
	4	18	154.67			
	5	15	93.30	9.441	7	.223
	6	18	139.08			
	7	25	109.86			
	8	4	136.50			
	Total	235				
Cultural interest	1	5	76.70			
	2	146	122.24			
	3	4	63.13			
	4	18	148.31			
	5	15	89.77	5.848	7	.558
	6	18	101.11			
	7	25	112.30			
	8	4	150.88			
	Total	235				
Intended learning efforts	1	5	137.50			
	2	146	111.91			
	3	4	129.75			
	4	18	132.25			
	5	15	102.17	4.535	7	.717
	6	18	147.67			
	7	25	118.88			
	8	4	160.38			
	Total	235				
Ideal L2 Self	1	5	112.40			
	2	146	119.14			

	3	4	26.75			
	4	18	149.42			
	5	15	103.27	8.858	7	.263
	6	18	115.47			
	7	25	117.42			
	8	4	103.38			
	Total	235				
Ought-to L2 Self	1	5	130.10			
	2	146	114.50			
	3	4	111.75			
	4	18	147.97	4.762	7	.689
	5	15	108.00			
	6	18	129.64			
	7	25	112.94			
	8	4	118.63			
	Total	235				
Instrumentality	1	5	120.80			
	2	146	120.52			
	3	4	94.25			
	4	18	122.39			
	5	15	94.47	4.142	7	.763
	6	18	127.31			
	7	25	109.14			
	8	4	128.25			
	Total	235				
Attitudes towards learning English	1	5	122.60			
	2	146	113.34			
	3	4	115.38			
	4	18	151.44			
	5	15	99.23	13.607	7	.059
	6	18	159.53			
	7	25	101.56			
	8	4	120.88			

	Total	235				
Attitudes	1	5	103.00			
towards the L2	2	146	117.83			
community	3	4	77.63			
	4	18	168.58			
	5	15	79.90	20.929	7	**.004**
	6	18	119.78			
	7	25	104.74			
	8	4	173.50			
	Total	235				

Note: 1: Open Education High School, 2: Anatolian High School, 3: Anatolian High School with Multiple Programs, 4: Science High School, 5: İmam Hatip High School, 6: Vocational and Technical Anatolian High School, 7: Private High School, 8: Social Sciences High School

Finally, the Tamhane post hoc test was utilized to find the significant differences between the groups (see Table 14). The post hoc test results highlight statistically significant differences between the students who graduated from Science High School and İmam Hatip High School (p=.039) and those who graduated from Social Sciences High School and İmam Hatip High School (p=.024). The means of each high school type were 4.75, 4.08, and 4.83 for Science High School, İmam Hatip High School, and Social Sciences High School, respectively. This means that the student participants from Science High School and Social Sciences High School had more positive attitudes toward the L2 community when compared to the ones having studied at İmam Hatip High School.

Table 14
Post Hoc test for high school types and attitudes to L2 community

				95% Confidence Interval	
Groups	Mean Difference	Std. Error	p.	Lower Bound	Upper Bound
5 – 4	-.67037	.18776	.039	-1.3224	-.0184
4 – 5	.67037	.18776	.039	.0184	1.3224
5 – 8	-.74444	.18175	.024	-1.4235	-.0654
8 – 5	.74444	.18175	.024	.0654	1.4235

Note: 4: Science High School, 5: İmam Hatip High School, 8: Social Sciences High School

4.3. The Relationship Between the Components of the Motivation Scale

The third research question aimed at discovering whether there is a statistically significant relationship between components of L2MSS or not. In order to find an answer to the research question Spearman Correlation test was conducted, and the findings are presented in Table 15 below.

Table 15

Spearman correlation results for motivational scale

Scale	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.
1. CI	-						
2. ILE	.289**	-					
3. IL2S	.481**	.402**	-				
4. OL2S	.148*	.188**	.282**	-			
5. INS	.366**	.347**	.448**	.491**	-		
6. ALE	.415**	.594**	.453**	.217**	.312**	-	
7. AL2C	.560**	.337**	.508**	.264**	.367**	.437**	-

Note: AL2C = Attitudes towards the L2 community, CI = Cultural interest, INS = Instrumentality, IL2S = Ideal L2 self, OL2S = Ought-to L2 self, ALE = Attitudes toward learning English, ILE = Intended learning efforts

*** < .01   * < .05*

As seen in the correlation table, all the components of the motivation scale positively correlated with each other. The highest correlation levels were between *attitudes to learning English* and *intended learning efforts* (r= .594, p= .000), *attitudes to L2 community* and *cultural interest* (r= .560, p= .000), and *attitudes to L2 community* and *ideal L2 self* (r= .508, p= .000), which were moderate level of correlation. A moderate level of correlation was also depicted between *ideal L2 self* and *cultural interest* (r= .481, p= .000) and *attitudes to learning English* and *cultural interest* (r= .415, p= .000), *ideal L2 self* and *intended learning efforts* (r= .402, p= .000), *ideal L2 self* and *instrumentality* (r= .448, p= .000), *ideal L2 self* and *attitudes to learning English* (r= .453, p= .000). Also, *instrumentality* and *ought-to L2 self* correlated moderately (r= .491, p= .000) with each other.

Furthermore, some low correlations were observed in the analysis. First, the correlation level between *instrumentality* and *cultural interest* was low (r=.366, p=.000). Another low correlation level was observed between *attitudes towards L2 community* and the components of *intended learning efforts* (r= .337, p=.000) and *instrumentality* (r= .347, p=.000). Also,

instrumentality component demonstrated a low level of correlation with *attitudes to learning English* (r= .312, p=.000) and *attitudes to L2 community* (r= .367, p=.000). The correlation level was low between *intended learning efforts* and *cultural interest* (r =.289, p=.000). There was also a low correlation between *ought-to L2 self* and *ideal L2 self* (r= .282, p=.000), *attitudes to learn English* (r= .217, p=.001), and *attitudes towards L2 community* (r= .264, p=.000). Finally, a very low level of correlation was discovered between *ought-to L2 self* and *cultural interest* (r =.148, p =.023). Similarly, a very low correlation was observed between *ought-to L2* self and the component of *intended learning efforts* (r =.188, p=.004).

Briefly, although all the scale components correlated with each other positively, the correlation levels were very low, low, or moderate. There was no high or very high correlation observed between the components. The highest correlation was observed between *attitudes to learning English* and *intended learning efforts* (r=.594, p=.000), while the lowest was between *ought-to L2 self* and *cultural interest* (r =.148, p=.023). Overall, the *ought-to L2 self* showed the lowest correlation trend, but the *ideal L2 self* had the highest correlation.

4.4. The Level of Pragmatic Awareness of University Students

Research question four aimed to determine to what extent university students can judge the appropriateness of pragmatic (in)felicities in different speech act situations. To find an answer to this question and identify the pragmatic awareness levels of the learners, some descriptive statistical analyses were done, and the findings are presented in Figure 8.

As noted in the methodology part, seven pragmatically inappropriate tasks were reversed to make the data analysis process easier. Additionally, a student participant's highest overall score on the AJT was 60. According to the findings, the overall mean rating for the AJT was 39.63 (66.05%). This indicates that the student participants could detect the pragmatically appropriate and inappropriate forms. Thus, it could be claimed that levels of L2 pragmatic awareness of the Turkish territory level students were generally relatively high.

Figure 8

Scores of appropriateness judgment tasks
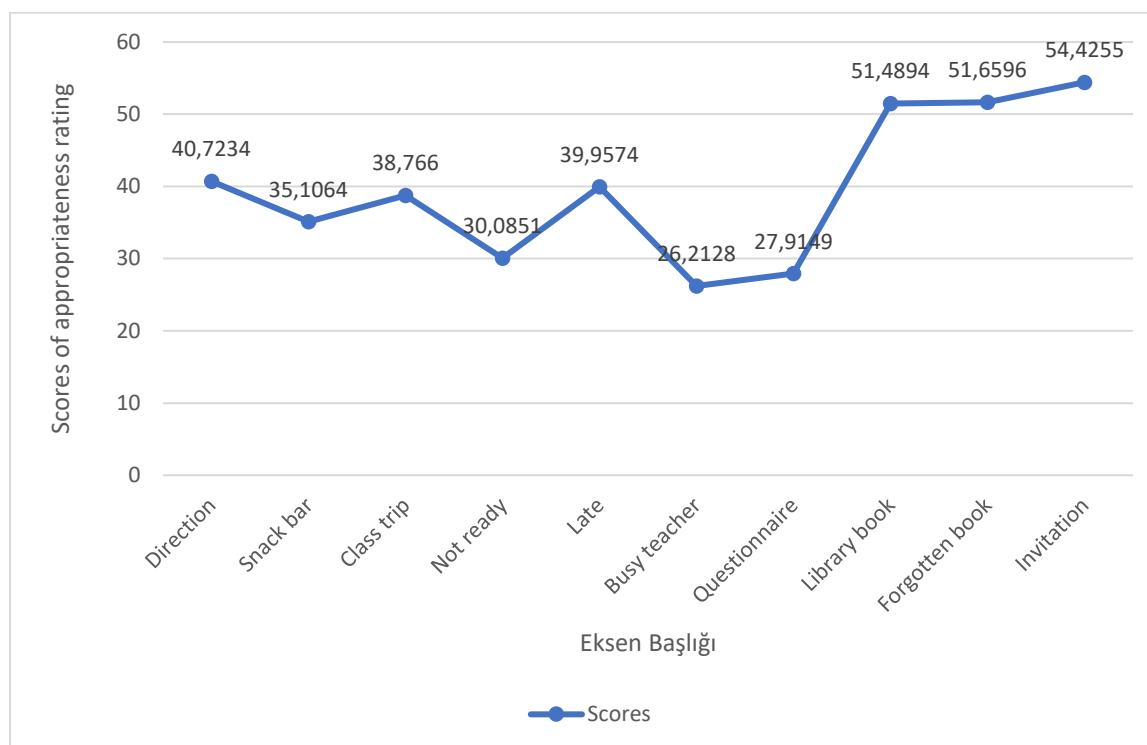
However, it can be seen from the figure that the judgments that the participants made in each AJT scenario demonstrate instability regarding the appropriateness of pragmatic statements. As Figure 8 shows, the mean score for each scenario varied throughout the task. Average scores for *Direction* (1), *Snack bar* (2), *Class trip* (3), *Late* (5), and *Not ready* (4) fell between 30 and slightly above 40 while they were below 30 for *Busy teacher* (6) and *Questionnaire* (7). The average judgement scores were found to be above 50 for *Library book* (8), *Forgotten book* (9), and *Invitation* (10). The higher the scores were, the better the participants performed while recognizing and rating pragmatically appropriate and inappropriate forms. On the contrary, low scores indicate that the participants faced some difficulties while identifying pragmatic inappropriacy given in the scenarios.

As part of the qualitative data collection process, the interview participants were asked to reflect back on the criteria they kept in mind while evaluating AJT. It was found that the participants considered several factors in assessing the appropriateness of the tasks and these factors are given in Table 16 below.

Table 16

The AJT evaluation criteria

Criteria	N	Interview Expressions
The other speaker in the dialogue	12	*"I evaluated the sentences considering the speakers in the dialogue and the context. I checked the forms used in line with these factors." (P13)* *"I paid attention to the other speaker in the dialogues because we can't treat everyone in the same way." (P1)* *"People may not realize or consider if the language they use is polite or not when they talk to someone that they are very close with. However, they need to pay attention to their language when they talk to someone they don't know or to their teachers." (P6)* *"I just paid attention to the wording in the sentences, or how Peter speaks to his teacher or strangers." (P11)*
Mitigation strategies	12	*"I think the expressions with 'Please' are polite, so I gave higher scores…" (P6)* *"I looked at the polite expressions and evaluated accordingly. For example, I thought using expressions such as sorry, could you tell me would make it less direct and more polite." (P2)*
Including an explanation or an excuse or providing a solution when refusing	10	*"I would find an alternative when I need to refuse my teacher." (P10)* *"I think directly refusing someone is rude. If you have an excuse, you should provide it, but not just refuse someone." (P2)*
Contextual clues	7	*"The context of the dialogue is important. For example, I would use imperative forms in a military context." (P3)*
Language form used	5	*"Using imperatives is not acceptable, and that's why …" (P6)*

		"I think using imperatives with strangers is not good. We should rather use question forms. For example, can you…" (P8)
Imagining similar dialogues in L1 (Turkish)	2	*"This is about myself and how I was brought up. I always apologize when I cause a problem for the others. So I would do the same in English. But it depends on…"* (P9)

The most frequently uttered factor that the students paid attention to was the other speaker in the dialogue (N=12). Almost all the participants in the interview admitted having paid attention to the speaker in the dialogues. Twelve participants stated that the language choice and the expressions used in different conversations depended on the hearers in the dialogues, such as a teacher, a friend, or a stranger. Therefore, depending on the relationship between Peter and the other party, the language choice had to be controlled. The power relationship would be evident in specific encounters, such as between a teacher and a student. P1 clarified her ideas with an example.

> When I speak to my friend Melek and when I speak to you, my teacher, my language choice differs. Melek and I are on the same level in terms of social power. We always share something and spend time together. I feel relaxed around her, so I do not have to choose specific expressions when speaking to her. However, you are my teacher and I attend your course. There is a certain level of sincerity between us, and it should be kept on a certain level. It is about our roles and the power of the roles.

Additionally, the participants claimed they paid attention to the language forms used. To illustrate, almost half of the participants admitted that they could have used question forms rather than imperative forms in scenario 1 (P3, P6, P8, P11, and P12). However, the participants also admitted that despite the question form used in scenario 2, it was not appropriate to ask such a question because of the politeness level and the power relationship between the speakers in the dialogue (P5, P7, P8, and P9). For both scenarios, the students stated they would have used "Can you… / Can I… / How can I… / May I…." to ask for directions and a drink.

Moreover, it was found that the participants paid attention to the expressions used or needed to increase the politeness level and mitigate the level of directness (N=12). Almost all the participants stated that some polite expressions should be used while asking for something (e.g., *Please*), while rejecting (e.g., *Sorry but…, I'm sorry but…*), and while thanking (e.g. *Thank you and Appreciate that).* Also, some grammatical forms including *Can you…? Could*

you…? Do you mind…? Would you mind…? could have been used to increase politeness in pragmatically inappropriate statements.

Furthermore, context and contextual clues such as the environment including the cafeteria, school or professor's room (N=7), and the relationship between the speakers were among the criteria when the participants evaluated the appropriateness of the dialogues. The participants also imagined a similar situation L1 (N=2) while making judgments. Finally, most participants highlighted the necessity of providing an excuse (N=10) or an alternative solution (N=3) when refusing someone. Almost all of the participants agreed that just refusing the speaker without providing any excuse or explanation sounded rude and inappropriate, especially in scenario 3 (class trip) and task 4 (not ready) (P2, P3, P6, P7, P8, P10, P11, P12, and P13). In both scenarios, Peter refused teachers' requests, and participants highlighted the need for an explanation, especially for someone with a higher social status and power. P10 clarified their ideas by stating:

> It is essential who I am talking to. Who am I refusing, or on what occasion? Can I do what the speaker is asking for or not? Under what circumstances can I not refuse the speaker? I quickly evaluate these in my mind. Refusing someone is not very okay for me, and I tend to be positive in such cases. However, if it is something I can't do, or there is really nothing I can do, therefore, I provide a reason or an excuse.

On the contrary, the participants were also aware of the appropriateness of the expression used in scenario 10 (invitation), in which Peter provided an excuse for not being able to attend his friend's party because of his exam. P5 stated that Peter kindly refused his friend by explaining his absenteeism. This shows that the level of pragmatic awareness of Turkish university students is pretty high in terms of the factors affecting pragmatic expression use.

4.5. The Relationship Between Motivation and The Pragmatic Awareness of University Students

Research question five tried to find out whether there is a relationship between the motivational factors and pragmatic awareness of university students. To find an answer to this question, a nonparametric correlation test was utilized. The results of the Spearman correlation test are given in Table 17 below.

Table 17

Spearman correlation test results between motivation and pragmatic awareness

Scale	1.	2.	3.	4.	5.	6.	7.	8.	9.
1. PA	-								
2. OM	.178**	-							
3. CI	.282**	.625**	-						
4. ILE	.020	.618**	.289**	-					
5. IL2S	.182**	.761**	.481**	.402**	-				
6. OL2S	.038	.601**	.148*	.188**	.282**	-			
7. INS	.056	.695**	.366**	.347**	.448**	.491**	-		
8. ALE	.097	.698**	.415**	.594**	.453**	.217**	.312**	-	
9. AL2C	.170**	.653**	.560**	.337**	.508**	.264**	.367**	.437**	-

Note: PA = Pragmatic awareness, OM = Overall motivation, AL2C = Attitudes towards the L2 community, CI = Cultural interest, INS = Instrumentality, IL2S = Ideal L2 self, OL2S = Ought-to L2 self, ALE = Attitudes toward learning English, ILE = Intended learning efforts
*** < .01   * < .05*

According to Table 17, there was a significant correlation between the students' levels of L2 pragmatic awareness and their overall levels of L2 motivation (*p=.006 <.05*). This indicates that when a university student in the Turkish context has a high motivation to study English, the motivation level will correlate with her L2 pragmatic awareness level.

Table 17 also shows the findings of the correlation coefficient test investigating the significance of motivational variables in connection with the participants' levels of L2 pragmatic awareness. It is observed that pragmatic awareness is positively correlated with *cultural interest* (Spearman rho= .282, p= .000), *ideal L2 self* (Spearman rho= .182, p= .005), and *attitudes towards L2 community* (Spearman rho= .170, p= .009). These findings indicate that learners having a more positive attitude toward L2 native speakers, who can imagine themselves as native-like speakers of the language and have a positive self-image, and who are interested in cultural products of the L2 community were more successful in judging whether the speech acts in the AJT were pragmatically appropriate or not compared to the others. However, it is important to mention that even though there are statistically significant relationships between these variables and pragmatic awareness, the effect sizes are found to be small (Cohen, 1988). On the other hand, it is also observed that there is no statistical correlation between the level of L2 pragmatic awareness and the motivational variables of intended

learning efforts (p=.755), ought-to L2 self (p=.567), instrumentality (p=.390) and attitudes towards learning English (p=.140).

In the qualitative data collection part, the researcher also asked the participants what language component a language learner should master, and the participants provided various answers. The responses from the interviews were categorized and presented in the Table 18.

Table 18

Language components to be learned

Language Component	N	Interview Expressions
Productive Skills	9	*"I think a learner must learn the practical part of the language. For example, in the elementary school, lists of vocabularies and grammar items were taught to us, but when there was no practice."* *(P6)* *"...in the first stage, it is important to speak and express yourself in the language. Not just learning the grammar or the vocabulary." (P2)* *"To be able to speak and write." (P11)*
Grammar Items & Vocabulary	4	*"I think students should firstly learn grammar. It is not just knowing the names of the grammar forms or just the rules…" (P12)*
How to Use Language Appropriately	3	*"I think they should learn how to use the language. I mean like the native speakers of that language. Like they use the language in their lives." (P1)*
Expressions From Daily Life & Field Specific Items	2	*"...Language items such as jargon can be taught…" (P13)*
Cultural Components	2	*"Firstly, I think they should learn the culture and the history…" (P4)*

As seen in Table 18, nine participants stated productive skills such as writing (P3 and P6) and speaking (P1, P2, P3, P6, P7, P8, P9, P10, and P11) should be the main areas to be taught in the language classroom. Although four participants mentioned that learning grammar and vocabulary might be necessary, most said that knowing how to use those appropriately was much more crucial. P12 stated that language learners should initially master grammar forms. But the participants also pointed out that learning grammar should not mean learning the term

or the rule itself, but language learners should be more concerned about how to use that language item. P12 further focused on vocabulary knowledge and said that "In fact it all starts with vocabulary knowledge." to mean that knowing grammar all alone would not benefit language learners.

Furthermore, P6 claimed that they had been taught grammar and vocabulary without practicing those language items. Because of rote learning, the participants still needed further practice with essential language items. P3 clarified his ideas by stating that:

> I think our education system forces learners to learn too much grammar. I don't think that an American or a British person would be using so many grammatical forms in their daily life. Even these people whose mother tongue is English do not focus on grammar as much as we do. Do we really need to pay too much attention on grammar? Of course, we need it when we write an essay. But I personally believe that we need to pay more attention on speaking in the first stage.

Similarly, P13 pointed out that sometimes language learners approach the language in the same way as they study math or physics, which makes their language production process difficult. The participant also stated that these language learners tend to have difficulties while communicating with people in their daily lives as they are more concerned about the language form than the content of the interaction. For this reason, the participant believes that language learners should be taught by using communicative language learning approach and techniques. Likewise, P1 also complained about the fact that language learners focus on too much grammar and correct language use rather than communication in daily life and in the language classroom settings.

A few students also said that expressions used in daily life and specific fields (P13) and some cultural items (P4 and P5) should be covered in language classrooms. According to P4, a language learner should learn about the history and the culture of the language as language is directly related to the history and culture. He further claimed that rather than focusing on the grammatical forms or vocabulary too much, cultural items and history of the language learned should be covered in the language classrooms. However, P4 also claimed their concerns related to whether the L2 culture should be dominantly taught in the classroom or not. The participant also suggested that the cultural component of the language could be assigned to the learners to do some research outside the classroom.

As part of qualitative data collection, the participants were also asked about the areas in which participants would like to improve themselves. The answers of the participants were categorized by the researcher and are presented in Table 19.

Table 19

What to master in language

Language Are	N	Interview Expressions
Productive Skills	10	*"I think as a shy person, speaking part of the language is a challenge for me" (P6)*
		"I definitely need to improve myself in speaking and writing." (P4)
		"Maybe writing. Although I can find creative ideas, I cannot express them well in English when I write."
Academic Skills & Academic English	4	*"I would like to improve the academic side of it." (P12)*
		"...I'd like to take notes in English." (P2)
How to Use Language Appropriately	1	*"I would like to sound natural and use the language appropriately as they do in their daily life." (P9)*

Although the participants' answers regarding the areas that a language learner should master vary, it is observed that there are only a couple of areas that the participants would like to focus on as language learners. Firstly, as it is seen in Table 19, the big majority of the participants (P1, P2, P4, P5, P6, P7, P9, P10, P11 and P12) admitted that they needed more practice to improve their productive skills, especially speaking. Almost all the participants knew that no matter how much grammar or vocabulary practice they did, their speaking skills were not as proficient as they should be. P11 stated that she would love to express her ideas directly in English without thinking and planning the sentences in Turkish first. She claimed that majority of language learners unfortunately try to translate their ideas from Turkish into English while speaking and this process would cause some communication problems and they could not improve their language.

P9 said that as an extrovert and talkative person, she really enjoyed talking to people. She believed that she could improve her writing skills even with self-practice, but the case was quite different for speaking. She confessed that she would like to talk and sound like a native speaker whom she saw in videos on the internet, and she would like to sound natural by using the appropriate language in specific situations rather than using formal English all the time. Because of this, she believed that using appropriate language and being able to communicate

with people is a priority. Similarly, P5 also stated that the participants could observe his improvement in writing, unlike in speaking. The participant claimed that he needed more practice to be fluent in speaking.

Moreover, the number of participants who were concerned about learning academic English and some language skills to be successful in their departments were 4. P7 said that the participant did not learn any academic vocabulary related to her field, and didn't possess any academic knowledge of English, which she regarded as a problem. P2 stated that she was well aware of the fact that her faculty courses would be taught and delivered in English, and therefore, she needed to be able to take notes in English during a course rather than trying to translate them into Turkish. Briefly, the English language learners in the Turkish context show awareness towards the importance of the productive skills and appropriate language use in their language learning process.

Finally, the researcher asked the participants whether it was crucial to use pragmatically appropriate language, if they could learn it in the classroom and how it could be mastered. Almost all the participants (P2, P3, P4, P5, P6, P7, P8, P10, P12, and P13) admitted that it is significant to use the language appropriately and pay attention to it in their language use. P13 said delivering feelings and ideas clearly to the hearer while speaking was of utmost importance. Yet, it would be challenging with only focus on correct grammar or vocabulary use. P5, P8, P10, and P12 also highlighted how important it was to use the appropriate language in their L1 (Turkish) and stated that this was not just about English. P8 clarified her ideas by saying that no matter what language they would be speaking, speakers had to pay attention to the factors such as the relationship between the participants in a dialogue and their power related to their social status.

In the final part of the interview protocol, the participants were asked a final question to find out whether it is possible to learn how to use language appropriately in the classroom context. The participants provided a variety of ideas, and the distribution of the responses to the question is given in Table 20, and the ideas generated are presented in Figure 9.

Table 20

Learning appropriate language use in the classroom setting

Answer	N	Participants
Yes, but hesitant	7	P2, P6, P7, P8, P10, P11, P12
No	2	P3, P5
Neutral	4	P1, P4, P9, P13

Figure 9
Mastery of appropriate language use in the classroom
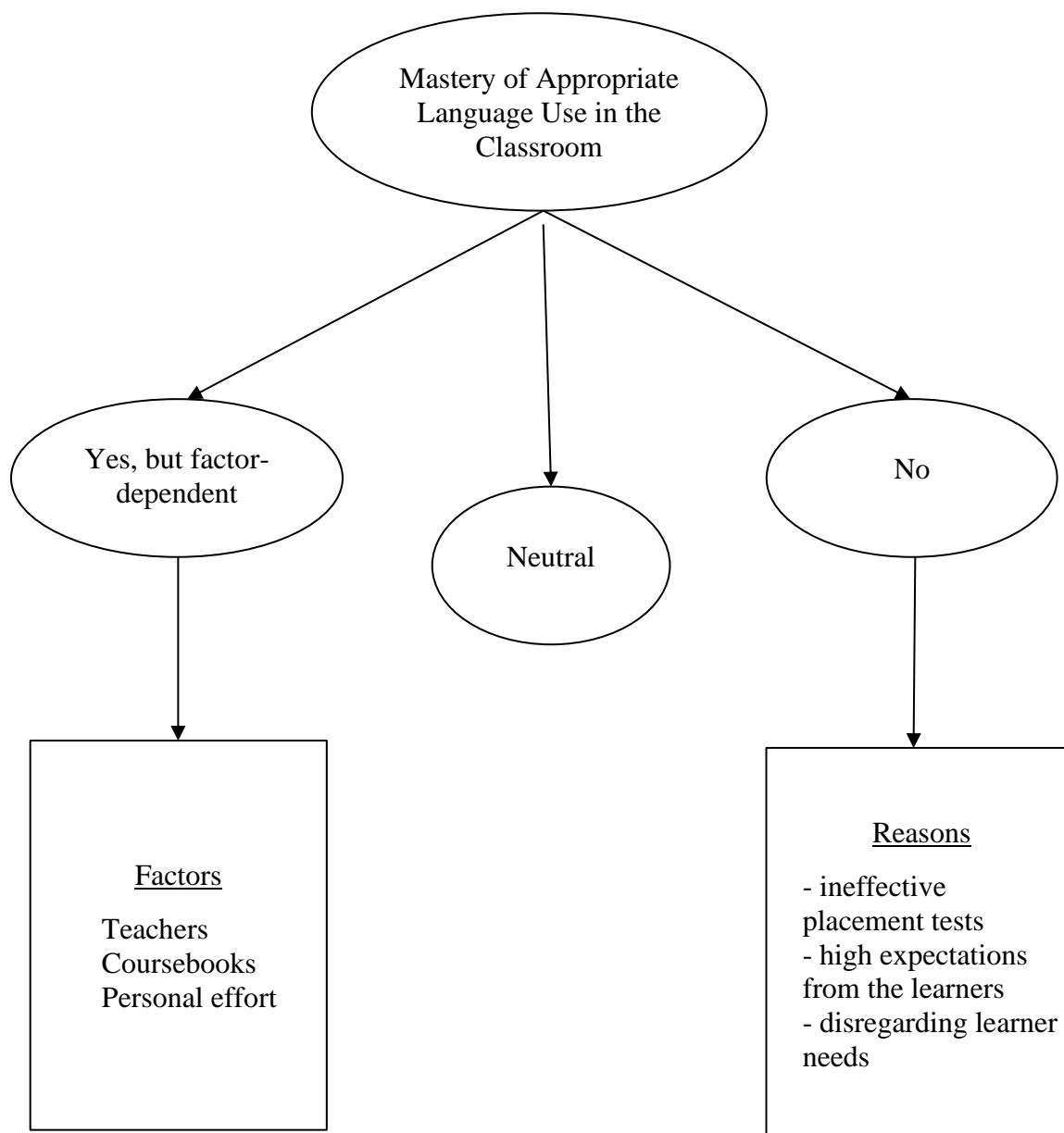
While some participants thought it was possible to master appropriate language use despite having some hesitations, most participants focused on the difficulties it involved. For example, P8 believed that language learners could learn how to use language appropriately in a classroom setting although the participant personally believed that it would be learned better in an L2 setting if language learners could go. However, P2, P6, P7, P10, P11, and P12 agreed that it was possible to learn appropriate language use in the language classroom, but it highly depended on different factors. P2 clarified her ideas and stated that the teacher was vital in learning appropriate language use and that if the teacher relied on the coursebook, it would be more grammar-focused root learning. Similarly, P11 claimed that coursebooks were more grammar-oriented, unlike real life, where people need more authentic language. P6 and P10 claimed that appropriate language use could be achieved to some extent in a language classroom, but it required an immense personal effort and learners needed to spend time mastering the language outside the classroom as well. P10 believed that classroom practices should focus on what language learners might need in their future life or careers. P6 also believed that personal practice and research would support language practices in the classroom. This means personal effort plays a crucial role when it comes to learning how to use language appropriately.

On the other hand, P3 and P5 argued that it would be almost impossible to teach appropriate language use in the classroom. According to P3, the number of students in each classroom was the main reason behind this difficulty, and it would be impossible for a language teacher to scaffold each learner in a 50-minute academic lesson. Overcrowded classrooms are a major hindrance that language teachers face when it comes to teaching more appropriate language use rather than focusing on grammar teaching. Also, P5 came up with some surprising factors that cause difficulties in language teaching. The participants claimed that placement exams were ineffective when detecting the level of learners, and therefore, students might be placed in the wrong language level groups, and due to this, they may not be able to learn English. The same participant also stated that schools and teachers had high expectations from language learners, and these expectations may guide the teachers to overwhelm learners with a high amount of language and linguistic input. Therefore, they argue that the main aim of the language teaching becomes teaching grammar. The participant also claimed that teachers might be unaware of what language learners actually need, and this might result in difficulties in language learning.

As the majority of the participants were aware of the language classroom deficiencies in appropriate language learning, the researcher asked them how it would be learned (see Figure

10 below). P3, P6, P8, P10, P11 and P12 believed that going abroad, living in another country (in the native countries of English language if possible), and getting exposed to language and culture would be the easiest and most efficient ways to observe and learn appropriate language use. Also, P1, P3, P9, P12 and P13 claimed that interacting with foreigners, especially native speakers of English, would enable language learners in this regard. Finally, cultural items such as films, books, TV series and newspapers would provide authentic language use for the language learners (P1, P4 and P13).

Figure 10

Ways to learn appropriate language use
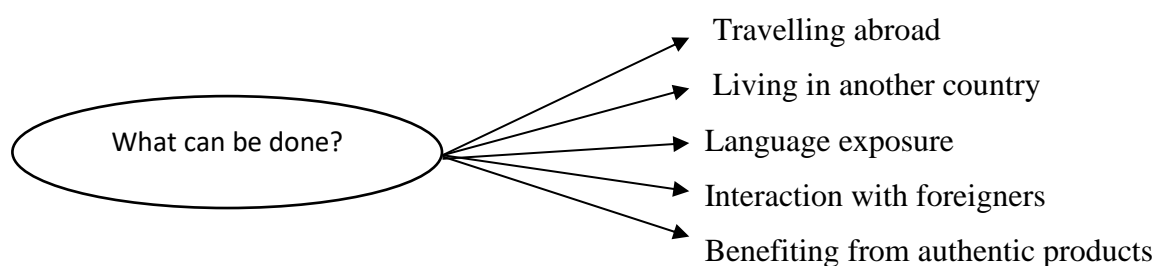
4.6. Predicting L2 motivational variables in L2 pragmatic awareness

Research question six attempted to reveal what motivational factors can be used to predict the l2 pragmatic awareness of language learners. The researcher conducted a multiple linear regression to identify the best linear combination of the motivational variables that mainly correlated with pragmatic awareness (cultural interest, ideal L2 self, and attitudes towards L2 community, respectively) and the others (instrumentality, ought-to L2 self, attitudes towards learning English and intended learning efforts), which were found to have no effect on predicting the level of awareness of pragmatics among the participants. The results are presented in Table 21.

Table 21

Stepwise regression model to predict l2 pragmatic awareness

Predictors of L2 pragmatic comprehension	β	F	$R2$	*Adjusted R2*
Model 1				
Cultural interest	.264	17.393	.069	.065
Model 2				
Cultural interest	.280	8.751	.069	.061
Ideal L2 self	-.031			
Model 3				
Cultural interest	.276			
Ideal L2 self	-.035	5.815	.070	.058
Attitudes towards L2 community	.012			

The multiple regression coefficient analysis findings demonstrate that cultural interest (β =.264, t = 4.171, p=.000) and attitudes towards the L2 community (β =.012, t = 2.355, p=.019) significantly predict levels of pragmatic awareness while ideal L2 self (β =-.035, t= 1.825, p= .069) cannot statistically predict the pragmatic awareness level of the students. The results indicate that when the students put more effort into learning about the cultural values and products of L2 and hold a positive idea towards being part of the L2 community, they show better performance in judging the AJT tasks. However, the effect sizes of the motivational factor in predicting pragmatic awareness are small. The contribution of the cultural interest to L2 was first found to be at 6.9% (Model 1) and then stayed in the same effect size of 6.9% in the second model, and slightly went up to 7% when ideal L2 self and attitudes towards the L2 community were included (Model 3). The findings imply that cultural interest, ideal l2 self, and attitudes towards the L2 community could only predict 7% of the variance in the learners' L2 pragmatic awareness levels.

To sum up, both qualitative and quantitative data showed that EFL learners in the Turkish context have a high level of motivation toward language learning. Also, the motivational factors of L2MSS play a crucial role in the language learning of Turkish EFL learners. Furthermore, the overall pragmatic awareness level of Turkish EFL learners was found to be high. Despite the low level of correlation, there was a statistically significant relationship between pragmatic awareness and the language learning motivation of the participants.

CHAPTER 5

DISCUSSION

In this chapter, the findings of the study obtained from qualitative and quantitative data analysis procedures were provided in line with the research questions. It was aimed to discuss, implement and illustrate the statistical findings of the current study in the light of previous research. Moreover, possible reasons affecting the statistical results were put forward by refraining from clear-cut or absolute answers. This chapter was organized following the order of the research questions.

5.1. Motivational level of the university students to learn English

The first research question attempted to determine how motivated the students were to learn English. The data indicate several results. First, Turkish tertiary-level language learners appear highly motivated toward language learning. The in-depth analysis of the quantitative and qualitative data also shows that the majority of the students have a strong ideal L2 self and highly positive attitudes toward the L2 community, the cultural products of the L2 community, such as books and films, and hold strong motivation to learn English as to pass an exam or find a better job in the future. The current study's findings echo several previous studies highlighting the importance of motivational factors such as *ideal L2 self, instrumentality*, *attitudes towards the L2 community*, and *cultural interest*.

'*Ideal L2 self*' affects learners' English learning experience, which seems to influence learners' motivated behavior (Bilhan, 2019; Papi, 2010). In other words, if students have a more positive future self-image of themselves and perceive themselves as proficient L2 speakers, they appear to benefit from their language learning experience more. On the contrary, learners with a less positive self-image do not tend to have the same beneficial awareness toward their learning environment since they will not realize the benefit of it. As Matusin (2014) specifies, the ideal L2 self is a strong motivational factor for language learners as it is prone to function to lower the discrepancy between the actual self and the ideal self of language learners. As a result, it can be said that university-level language learners in the Turkish context can possibly benefit from their language learning experience as long as they keep having a positive self-image.

Furthermore, '*instrumentality*' plays a vital role in language learning motivation. The quantitative data in the current study highlight that living and studying abroad and catching job opportunities in other countries are some fundamental factors affecting language learners' motivation. Yapan (2017) provides some similar findings on the role of the triggering factors

affecting language learning in her study and concludes that learners would like to learn English in order to find a job, to have further studies on their major, to work in a foreign country, to communicate with people from other countries or to live abroad, and all these reasons constitute instrumentality component. In addition, apart from the quantitative findings, the interview data in the current study present similar results regarding the main reasons to learn English: finding a decent job, having a successful academic life, and traveling or living abroad. Additionally, in line with the current study, Yapan (2017) states that the participants in her study show significantly high motivation to learn cultural elements of the target language. Similarly, the participants in the current study hold a positive attitude toward L2 culture and L2 community, which influence their language learning process positively.

On the other hand, the findings in the current study show that students have a moderate level of motivation in terms of 'ought to L2 self', 'their attitudes toward learning English', and 'their intended efforts to learn English'. The findings correspond with the study conducted by Khan (2015) who reports that 'ought-to L2 self' and 'intended effort' are not as strong as 'ideal L2 self' in affecting L2 motivational level and L2 achievement. Similarly, Bilhan (2019) finds out that the participants' motivation in terms of ought to L2 self is moderate, similar to that of the current research. Additionally, Yapan (2017) also clarifies that 'ought to L2 self' has the least significant role in L2MSS in her study. Although the participants in her study show really low motivation towards 'ought to L2 self', the ones in the current study have moderate motivation levels. This difference between these two groups of Turkish learners of English may derive from the difference between the number of participants and the contexts that students are studying. Along the same lines, Taguchi et al. (2009) finds that 'ought-to L2 self' is found to be an important contributor in the three Asian contexts in which learners were under their parents' or other family members' pressure. This also supports Kormos et al.'s (2011) idea that 'the ought-to L2 self' may be more important in the Asian context, unlike in other western contexts.

5.2. Differences between the motivational level of the university students in terms of demographic variables

The second research question has attempted to determine whether there are any statistically significant differences in the overall motivation level of the participants and the level of motivation for each component in terms of gender, high school studied, level of English, and overseas experience. Several tests were applied to find an answer to the research question, and the results were presented in the previous chapter.

The first demographic element analyzed in terms of its effect on motivation is the gender of the participants. Although researchers have focused on attitudinal and motivational elements in various social situations for years, gender could not find a place in the earlier research (Clement, 1980; Fillmore, 1991; Gardner, 1985; Schumann, 1986). In the last two decades, unlike the earlier periods, gender has been under the investigation of researchers in many motivational studies. The results usually tend to point out that female learners have higher motivation and hold a more positive attitude toward learning L2 when compared to males (Dörnyei et al., 2006; MacIntyre et al., 2002; Baker & MacIntyre, 2003; Mori & Gobel, 2006).

However, findings of the current study appear to indicate that gender does not play a significant role in determining overall motivation. Furthermore, no statistically significant difference is observed for any component of the L2MSS in terms of gender. Therefore, the findings do not correspond with the findings reported in Williams et al. (2002), MacIntyre et al. (2002), Baker and MacIntyre (2003), and Mori and Gobel (2006), which highlight the importance of gender as a motivational variable in second language learning. When we look at the studies in the Turkish context, the findings of the current research are not in line with the studies published by Arslan (2017), Polat (2011), and Yapan (2017). Moreover, some other studies in the Turkish EFL context also reported that female students display higher motivation than male students (Gördü-Aşıcı, 2016; Kızıltepe, 2003; Öz et al., 2015) unlike the present study. However, the findings regarding gender-based differences and motivation in the current research align with Engin's (2019) study which was conducted with Turkish university students, which concluded that gender did not cause any statistical difference between the motivation level of male and female learners. The differences between these various results may depend on the age of the participants as well as the context.

The other demographic variable investigated in the current study is the participants' language proficiency level. In the current study, the participants were already placed into appropriate level groups according to their proficiency and placement test scores at the beginning of the academic year namely A2, B1, B2, and C1 levels. The results suggest that almost all the participants appear highly motivated in terms of their overall motivation. The participants from all four proficiency levels are highly motivated regarding their 'ideal L2 self', 'ought to L2 self', and 'intended learning efforts'. The findings also indicate that they also tend to show high motivation to learn about the L2 community and their culture. Moreover, these findings indicate that our participants appear highly motivated to learn English for their future careers and studies. However, the participants' motivation level shows differences in the immediate learning environment and learning experience. The participants in the C1 group

seem to have showed have higher motivation towards their language learning experience and environment than that of the ones in the B1 and the A2 groups.

The third demographic difference which was taken into consideration was influence of the overseas experience of the participants on their motivation. In the current study, there is no statistically significant difference between the participants who have been abroad and those who have not. This means that both participant groups are highly motivated to learn English. The qualitative data supports this situation as the majority of the participants in the interviews highlight their desire to study or live abroad one day although they have never been abroad before. Their motivation is driven by their plans rather than their previous overseas experience. This finding does not correspond with the results of the studies conducted by Mezei (2008) and Engin (2019). According to Mezei (2008), the participants with overseas experience have more positive attitudes on the scale of attitudes toward L2 language and L2 community, similar to the findings of Engin's study, which is not observed in the current study.

The final demographic variable investigated in the current study was the type of high schools that the participants graduated from. Unlike the present study, most studies have focused on the difference between public and foundation schools. In this regard, Ghanizadeh and Rostami (2015) focused on the public and foundation school context. The researchers discovered correlations between Dörnyei (2005, 2009)'s model and the foundation school context, whereas no relationship was observed in the public-school context. On the other hand, Gördü-Aşıcı (2016) discovered some findings showing that students having graduated from state schools were more motivated to learn English than students with private school backgrounds, even though the study did not directly focus on the L2MSS. Unfortunately, Arslan (2017) and Engin (2019) did not investigate the correlation between high school types and L2MSS in the Turkish context. According to the findings of the current study, students from all the school categories show high motivation. However, there are some motivational differences between the students graduating from İmam Hatip High School and Science High School, as well as the ones from Social Sciences High School and İmam Hatip High School. According to the data analysis, students with İmam Hatip High School background show lower motivation levels than the students with Social Sciences and Science high school backgrounds.

5.3. The relationship between the components of the motivation scale

The third research question attempted to determine whether there was a correlation between the components of L2MSS. According to the Spearman correlation test findings, 'the ideal L2 self' correlated positively at a moderate level with 'attitudes to the L2 community', 'cultural interest', 'intended learning efforts', 'instrumentality', and 'attitudes to learning

English'. Although there was a moderate level of correlation between ought to L2 self and instrumentality, 'ought to L2 self' seem to have showed a low correlation compared to the other components. Additionally, 'intended learning efforts' exhibited higher correlation levels when compared to 'ought to L2 self'. Furthermore, 'the ideal L2 self' and 'intended learning efforts' showed a higher correlation between each other when compared to their correlations with 'ought to L2 self'. In this regard, the high correlation between the 'intended learning effort' and 'the ideal L2 self' appears to demonstrate that positive attitudes toward learning English may result in a better 'L2 self-image'. These findings are in line with Dörnyei's (2009) claim which proposes that those who desire to learn English and are motivated intrinsically to develop an 'ideal self-image' to become a competent L2 speaker will become more successful than the ones who learn English because of "duties and obligations imposed by friends, parents and other authoritative figures" such as school (ibid., p. 32).

The correlation between 'ideal L2 self' and 'attitudes toward learning English' in the present study goes parallel with some other studies carried out in different countries and contexts (Alshahrani, 2016; Csize'r & Kormos, 2009; Kormos & Csize'r, 2008; Kormos et al., 2011; Magid, 2011; Papi, 2010; Taguchi et al., 2009). In line with the previous research, the third research question show the positive effects of the 'ideal L2 self' and 'L2 learning experience' (attitudes to learning English) on motivated learning behavior of tertiary level students in the Turkish context. It means that the 'ideal L2 self' and 'attitudes to learning English' plays a significant role as one of the critical predictors of motivated behavior in comparison with the 'ought-to L2 self'.

Some researchers (e.g., Ghapanchi et al., 2011; Islam et al., 2013; Kim & Kim, 2014) have concluded that the 'ideal L2 self' is a crucial factor alone. According to the findings of these studies, there is a high positive correlation between the level of ideal L2 self and learners' language proficiency. Additionally, Islam et al. (2013) point out a crucial correlation between attitudes toward learning English and the 'Ideal L2 self', similar to the present study. Corresponding to the previous studies, the correlation between 'the ideal L2 self' and L2 learning experience in the present study demonstrates how the perceptions of language learners toward learning English and the learning environment are connected and how these two components can affect language learning motivation in an EFL context. As Papi (2010) concludes, 'the ideal L2 self' affects the English learning experience of students, which in turn affects their motivated behavior. In other words, learners possessing a positive future self-image of themselves take advantage of their language learning experience more. In contrast, students

having a low level of 'ideal L2 self' fail to make most of their learning environment as they might be unaware of the future benefits.

The 'Ideal L2 self' correlated positively at a moderate level with the components of attitudes to L2 community, cultural interest, and instrumentality. This means that having a more positive image of self may trigger learners' motivation to learn about the L2 culture and its community and might affect the reasons why they learn the language. In line with the current study, Yapan (2017) finds a high correlation between instrumentality, which focuses on the reasons to learn the language, and the ideal L2 self. Sung (2013) also states that when a language learner possesses a high instrumental motive to learn a language, the learner's ideal self may also increase.

Furthermore, different from the Asian context, authoritative figures or external factors do not stimulate the learners even though the English preparatory program is compulsory in the majority of universities in Turkey. The current study's findings contradict with Yapan's (2017) findings, which stresses the high impact of 'ought-to L2 self'. The differences between Yapan's study and the present research may result from the time difference between these two studies as language learners have become more self-regulated thanks to their technology use and the pandemic situation that they experienced. The participants in the currents study are mostly digital natives, which enables them to reach various resources online and people from all around the world. This might lead them to realize the importance of language for communication. Additionally, during pandemic lockdowns many young people could find the chance to become a world citizen without travelling around the world physically but travelling virtually. This virtual exposure to the international world might trigger the need for language learning and has made them more self-regulated individuals in terms of their language needs. It is also interesting that the contexts where and when the studies have been conducted seem to play a crucial role affecting the findings. Therefore, some motivational factors may produce contradictory results in different periods and contexts.

5.4. The level of pragmatic awareness of the university students

The research question four aimed to identify the participants' pragmatic awareness level. According to the statistical analysis, Turkish EFL learners, overall, have a high level of pragmatic awareness, indicating that English language learners at the tertiary level are successful in judging the appropriateness or inappropriateness of speech acts. This finding corresponds with previous results in the L2 pragmatics field, which claim that language learners can acquire pragmatic perceptions in an EFL environment despite limited exposure to L2 (Niezgoda & Röver, 2001; Ren, 2015; Taguchi, 2008; Yang & Ren, 2020). Additionally, EFL

learners in the Turkish context know the importance of pragmatically appropriate language use and consider several factors when judging statements.

However, further analysis of participants' AJT judgments indicates that their performance while judging the infelicities is inconsistent across different pragmatic scenarios. For instance, in Scenario 6 '*Busy teacher*', Peter responds to his teacher who asks 'Could you come later?' with OK, I'll be here tomorrow morning at 10. This response sounds impolite by using the phrase 'OK, I'll be here tomorrow morning at 10.' which makes Peter's reply pragmatically problematic in a professor-student encounter. Similarly, the participants scored low when detecting pragmatic infelicities in two other scenarios in which Peter talks to other professors. In Scenario 7 '*Questionnaire*', Peter asks one of his professors to fill in a questionnaire by saying 'Hello. My name is Peter. If you don't mind, I would like you to fill this in for me.'. Using 'would like', which is considered as a polite request form, does not make the statement polite in this scenario. Similarly, in scenario 4, Peter is not ready to give his presentation and explains this by saying 'I can't do it today, but I will do it next week.'. Furthermore, in scenario 2, Peter's "Would you be so kind as to give me a sandwich and a yogurt please?" to a waiter in a snack bar was not considered pragmatically inappropriate by the participants. Despite the pragmatic infelicities of the speech act in these scenarios, the low average scores suggest that the participants generally failed to notice pragmatic infelicities under these speech act scenarios because of various reasons. On the other hand, the participants performed better at detecting pragmatically appropriate utterances in scenarios 8 (*library book*), 9 (*forgotten book*), and 10 (*invitation*).

When each scenario is analyzed, it is observed that the participants could detect the appropriate forms used, including *can* and *would like* to deliver speech in line with the speakers in the conversations more easily, unlike in the pragmatically inappropriate ones. It may result from some reasons. First, the participants might not have possessed adequate L2 sociopragmatic knowledge, as seen in their failure to notice contextual cues such as the relatively high social power of the interlocutor (i.e., the professor and Peter). This result is consistent with Ren's (2014) remarks about Chinese students completing their master's degrees abroad and the findings of Yang and Ren (2020), who investigated the Chinese university context. Moreover, the current study's results align with the argument that EFL learners are less proficient at recognizing and considering contextualization cues in L2 before judging the appropriateness of utterances (Taguchi & Roever, 2017; Yang & Ren, 2020). Second, the participants might have had an unclear grasp of how to express politeness appropriately in English. This means there is confusion between appropriateness of the language use and politeness. The results demonstrate

that the students tend to link politeness with appropriateness, though a polite statement is not always appropriate. There could have been a misunderstanding regarding how politeness markers function in English. Participants in the current study seem to regard the expressions, including some politeness markers, such as '*would*, *could*, and *can*' as appropriate in any speech act regardless of context of situation. Apparently, participants thought that using these polite expressions could make the statement suitable without considering the contextual factors.

Learners' failure to realize how the contextual features work can be an indicator about their pragmatic awareness. According to Safont Jordà (2003), pragmatic awareness can be perceived as "the acknowledgment of those contextual features that determine the extent to which a given linguistic routine may be appropriate for a particular situation." (p. 48). Furthermore, Meier (1995) further highlights that some utterances may be polite but inappropriate. A linguistic form showing a high degree of respect or lexical items such as *please* and *thank you* may be appropriate or inappropriate depending on how interlocutors perceive a particular situation.

Therefore, the existence or absence of polite expressions or certain lexical forms in an utterance does not guarantee the appropriateness or inappropriateness of that utterance. It is rather related to the combination of the context and the linguistic form used. Meier (1997) confirms this idea by stating that "because appropriateness is highly situation-dependent, contextual factors become of utmost importance." (p. 27). Additionally, as Hinkel (2014) states invisible culture such as norms, values and assumptions should be implemented as part of language teaching even though it is difficult to be fully aware of and examine them intellectually unless instructed along with the language skills namely reading, writing, listening and speaking. These are the elements that define the linguistic and behavioral choices in any interaction. Consequently, it can be understood from the current study's findings that one of the main reasons for the low pragmatic awareness level among the students can be the inaccurate assumption that polite expressions are always suitable to use in any speech act situation without considering the contextual factors. A similar trend is observed in the interviews in which the participants were asked to offer some expressions to be used if they had been in Peter's shoes. Majority of the participants claimed that they would add *'please'*, or use '*would* or *could*' to sound more polite.

Some other reasons that lead to failure in realizing the appropriacy of linguistic forms may result from the lack of chances for language learners to use language in real life, test-based assessment of language, not sparing enough time for teaching speaking skills in EFL classroom and ineffective coursebooks in terms of pragmatic input (Karatepe, 1998; Karatepe & Civelek,

2021). In the SLA literature, it is possible to come across with some studies highlighting the importance and positive effects of in-class activities with communicative purposes and these activities can enable learners to enhance their pragmatic competence in ESL or EFL setting (see Hillard, 2017; Kasper & Schmidt, 1996; Kasper & Rose, 2002; Siegel, 2016; Soboleva & Obdalova, 2014). However, it should also be noted that language learners in EFL settings may have limited number of opportunities in which they can interact with native speakers of English and the activities provided in the classroom may not still be effective to overcome this limitation (Chi, 2017; Qiao, 2014; Thijittang, 2010). Therefore, the scarcity of chances to have an interaction in real life may prevent learners from developing a clear idea of pragmatic rules in English. Another issue related to the pragmatic awareness and factors affecting it is the assessment and evaluation of language learning in terms of pragmatic elements. Gesuato and Castello (2020) state that assessment include three main purposes as "raising awareness (informing), affecting behaviour (determining future courses of action), and allocating resources (assigning rewards)" (p.2). However, traditional testing methods including gap-filling, multiple choice questions or translation from L1 to L2 or vice versa may not be effective for the evaluation of pragmatic learning. Therefore, Cohen (2010) offers some ways to achieve efficient pragmatic assessment such as oral role play activities, using written discourse completion tasks as spoken tasks, multiple-choice or short answer completion tasks, and rating the performance and its key aspects and more (see Cohen, 2010 for detailed explanations). Moreover, teachers can guide their learners on how to increase their pragmatics awareness by using digital tools (Civelek & Karatepe, 2021).

Furthermore, although coursebooks used in the language learning process are invaluable source of information, the speech acts presented in the coursebooks are found to be limited, and how certain speech acts are presented in the coursebooks is based on the authors' intuition instead of the difficulty level of the speech act or corpus of native speakers (Karatepe & Civelek, 2021; Ren & Han, 2016; Vellenga, 2004). The variation of speech acts included in the textbooks shows no guiding principle regarding how speech acts are presented in ELT materials (Ren & Han, 2016). Also, textbooks often provide lists of linguistic expressions for speech acts without offering any metapragmatic explanation. Although some linguistic expressions may be listed according to the degree of formality, the students are rarely provided with an explanation regarding the formality of these expressions. Finally, as McConachy and Hata (2013) claim, coursebooks lack the sufficient metapragmatic information necessary for speech acts, including the pragmalinguistic (the form and function relationship) and sociopragmatic (the relationship between form and social considerations of language use) information. Apart from coursebooks,

teachers also play a vital role in pragmatic instruction. Unfortunately, the lack of pragmatic knowledge of the teachers in EFL settings (Karkmaz & Karatepe, 2023) may cause failure in pragmatic awareness and production.

5.5. The relationship between motivation and the pragmatic awareness of the university students

The fifth research question aimed to determine if there was a relationship between participants' language learning motivation level and their level of pragmatic awareness. Motivation is a significant factor in the EFL context as it provides stimulus and sustains the L2 learning process (Dörnyei, 2005). According to the findings in the current study, there is a positive relationship between the overall motivation level of the participants and their level of pragmatic awareness. This suggests that the more motivated a learner is toward studying English, the higher the level of his pragmatic awareness is. Similarly, Chiravate (2012) concludes that highly motivated learners demonstrate higher pragmatic awareness than their less motivated peers.

In a similar vein, Tagashira et al. (2011) also prove the relationship between pragmatic awareness and motivation and further state that motivation accounts for differences in the realization of pragmatic errors. The researchers further claim that when the learners are more intrinsically motivated, they can make more accurate judgments regarding the appropriacy of the linguistic form used. While the researchers cannot put forward how motivation affects the learners' pragmatic awareness, they claim that motivated learners tend to develop a better "selective attention" as learners with higher motivation "will value pragmatic aspects of language use, and they will be inclined to detect the stimuli containing pragmatic information and utilize this information for more elaborate analysis" (Tagashira et al., 2011, p. 20). Therefore, the current study corresponds with the findings of the previous studies conducted by Tagashira et al. (2011) as well as Niezgoda and Röver (2001) and Takahashi (2001), who highlight the positive effects of motivation on pragmatic awareness. However, the current study's findings contradict with the results of Yang and Ren's (2020) study. The varying results of these two studies, which followed similar designs, might be attributed to the difference between the participants and the factors related with cultural differences and educational environment affecting learner motivation.

Moreover, according to the findings of the current study, there is a relationship between the level of pragmatic awareness and the cultural interest and attitudes towards the L2 community, which indicates that Turkish language learners who have positive attitudes toward the L2 community are more prone to be more successful at evaluating the appropriateness of

the use of certain language features (see also Yang and Ren (2020)). To some extent, this result supports the acculturation model proposed by Schumann (1986), according to which the social and psychological distance of the language learners to the L2 community affects their L2 learning. The current study also demonstrates that even though Turkish EFL students have a high level of social distance to the L2 community, as observed in their limited contact with L2 speakers, which was also revealed in the interviews, they have little psychological distance as seen in their positive attitudes toward L2 speakers and L2 community alone, which can somewhat lead to higher pragmatic awareness. This high level of positive attitude toward L2 community and target culture may also correspond with speech accommodation theory (Giles, 1973). According to Ishihara (2010), students' "…attitude, motivations, feelings, values, and perceptions (i.e., their subjectivity) influence their social and psychological distance from the target community." (p.109). Additionally, as Hinkel (2014) states, visible culture is part of EFL classrooms and cultural elements such as music, art, films and architecture can be categorized as visible culture. Being interested in learning about visible culture may lead to higher awareness level of the learners of English in Turkish EFL setting toward pragmatics and its components. Briefly, when language learners have a positive attitude toward L2 community and English culture, it is more likely for them to be interested in the target language and grasp its usage.

Rafieyan et al. (2013) also claim a strong relationship between attitudes toward L2 culture and pragmatic comprehension. The researchers conclude that having a more positive view of learning the target culture results in a higher pragmatic comprehension. They find a strong correlation between achievement in pragmatic comprehension tasks and motivation to learn about L2 culture. On the other hand, learners with a neutral attitude scored moderately in their study. Furthermore, the researchers highlight that most language learners show interest in acquiring some cultural elements of the L2 community as part of language class.

5.6. Predicting L2 motivational variables in L2 pragmatic awareness

The current study also finds a correlation between cultural interest, attitudes toward the L2 community, and pragmatic awareness. Further, it implies that combining cultural interest and attitudes toward the L2 community may best anticipate students' pragmatic awareness levels. The statistical analyses demonstrate that having a high motivation to learn cultural elements of L2 and holding a positive attitude toward target language speakers and English somewhat indicates higher pragmatic awareness, even though the effect sizes were found to be small and the explanatory power of the motivational variables was weak (still significant).

Kasper (1996) puts forward three conditions to gain pragmatic knowledge: "There must be pertinent input, the input has to be noticed, and learners need ample opportunity to develop a high level of control" (p. 148). This means that input alone is not enough for pragmatic competence, but learners need to notice how linguistic forms are used, which is often more possible in English as a second language (ESL) than in English as a foreign language (EFL) context. Therefore, language learners can benefit from the ESL environment more than the EFL environment when it comes to developing pragmatic competence. However, this is not only because of greater exposure to authentic input in the ESL environment, but it is also about the intensity of interaction with native speakers that causes noticing (Bardovi-Harlig & Dörnyei, 1998; Kinginger, 2008; Schauer, 2006; Shimizu, 2009). An extended stay in the ESL environment can create opportunities for language learners to interact with native speakers and develop their language's pragmatic aspect. However, motivation to learn the L2 and showing interest in L2 culture and its cultural items can atone for the deficiencies of the EFL environment in developing pragmatic competence (Niezgoda & Röver, 2001; Rafieyan et al., 2013; Takahashi, 2001; Tagashira et al., 2011; Taguchi, 2011), although exposure to authentic interaction with native speakers is rare. Therefore, authentic input should not be considered the most or the only prominent factor in developing pragmatic competence.

Therefore, the findings of the present study support the idea that various factors, in addition to motivational intensity, can predict the achievement level in language learning (Noels et al., 2001). Consequently, it can be expected that when EFL learners are open to learning about the target culture and its lifestyle, show interest in the L2 products such as films, music and books, and are eager to socialize with English speakers or to travel to an English-speaking country, they may show higher level of interest to learn the appropriate use of English (Yang & Ren 2020) and their performance in pragmatic awareness tasks will be higher.

CHAPTER 6

CONCLUSION

In this chapter, the overall results regarding the motivation of language learners discussed in the previous chapter will be summarized and presented, and also the effects of the independent variables on motivation will be overviewed. Also, the findings related to the pragmatic awareness of the learners will also be reviewed in this chapter. Finally, implications regarding the results and recommendations for future research will be presented.

6.1. Summary and Implications

The world is evolving day by day in areas including transportation, technology, and communication, and innovations in communication technologies are constantly emerging. Therefore, it has been easier to communicate with people and travel to new places, and English has become the language for interaction due to globalization. Consequently, whether we can communicate well in English or whether we can use the language appropriately has been investigated in the SLA field.

The current study followed the explanatory sequential design as a mixed-method research design to determine the motivation level of tertiary-level language learners (N=235) in Turkey and their level of pragmatic awareness. The participants of the study were A2, B1, B2, and C1 level language learners who were studying preparatory programs in two universities in Turkey in the academic year of 2021-2022. A 5-point Likert scale questionnaire assessing the level of motivation and a 10-question appropriateness judgment task to assess their pragmatic awareness were delivered to the participants. The motivation scale included 33 items focusing on different components including *Criterion measures / Intended Learning Efforts (CM), Ideal L2 self (IL2S), Ought-to L2 self (OL2S), Instrumentality (Ins.), Attitudes to learning English (ALE), Attitudes to L2 community (AL2C) and Cultural interest (CI)*. Appropriateness judgment tasks focused on the speech acts of *requests, refusals, apologies,* and *suggestions* and included 7 pragmatically inappropriate task and 3 appropriate tasks. In the second phase of data collection, the volunteering participants (N=13) took part in semi-structured interviews which were designed to collect qualitative data to elaborate on quantitative data findings. After the interview data were transcribed, the collected data were coded by the researcher and the most common terms uttered by the participants during interviews were chosen, and codes were prepared to analyze the data in depth.

The six research questions in the current study are as follows: (1) What is the motivational level of university students in terms of language learning? (2) Are there any

statistically significant differences in the motivational level of the participants in terms of: (a) gender, (b) language level, (c) overseas experience, and (d) high school they have studied? (3) Is there a correlation among the motivational factors? (4) To what extent are university students able to judge the appropriateness of pragmatic (in)felicities in a range of speech act situations? (5) Are there any correlations between students' L2 motivation and levels of L2 pragmatic awareness? (6) Which motivational variable(s) can be used to predict students' levels of L2 pragmatic awareness?

6.1.1. Motivational level of the university students to learn English: The first research question focused on the overall motivation of language learners in Turkey and the level of motivation in each individual factor in the scale. It is found that the participants were highly motivated towards language learning and the participant students in the interviews showed their interest in language learning with clear language learning objectives. Apart from a high level of overall motivation, it is also observed that tertiary level language learners in the current study possessed a high level of *ideal L2 self*, which refers to the fact that when language learners have a positive image of themselves and their future selves, they will benefit from the learning experience more. It can be concluded that tertiary level language learners in Turkey tend to exhibit a high level of motivation in terms of their ideal selves. Consequently, this appears to result in higher awareness toward having specific goals to learn the language. Additionally, other influential motivational factors for the language learners in the current study were found to be *instrumentality*, *attitudes toward the L2 community*, and *cultural interest*. Both the quantitative and qualitative data obtained in the current study complement each other and highlight the importance of English for language learners for the purposes of finding a job, having a better academic career, being able to live and work abroad as well as being able to communicate with people from different countries and cultures. This means that the language learners in the Turkish EFL setting possess high motivation to learn English for various reasons.

However, the participants still exhibit to have a moderate level of motivation regarding their *ought-to L2 selves*, *their attitudes toward learning English*, and *their intended efforts to learn English*. Although some studies including Taguchi et al.'s (2009) and Kormos et al.'s (2011) argue that the ought-to L2 self, which refers to the self-image that one has to reach to satisfy others, is an important motivational component in language learning, it was not found to be highly important in the current study. Therefore, the moderate level of ought-to L2 self in the present study suggests that tertiary level language learners in the Turkish context are more likely to be intrinsically motivated to learn English rather than extrinsically. Also, it might be

concluded that EFL learners in Turkish context have a high level of awareness regarding their aims when it comes to language learning, rather than requiring an external motivating factor.

6.1.2. Differences between the motivational level of the university students in terms of demographic variables: The second research question focused on the influences of demographic variables on motivational level of the language learners. Firstly, it was found that gender, which is thought to have a major effect on language learning (see Baker & MacIntyre, 2003; Gördü-Aşıcı, 2016; Kızıltepe, 2003; MacIntyre et al., 2002; Mori & Gobel, 2006; Öz et al., 2015; Williams et al., 2002), had no statistically significant effect on the language learning motivation. Therefore, it can be concluded that the majority of both male and female tertiary language learners in Turkey seem aware of the importance of English learning for their personal, professional, educational and social lives.

Another demographic variable that was investigated in the present study was the language proficiency level of the learners and its effect on their motivation level. It was found that EFL learners in C1 levels were more motivated than their peers in B1 and A2 levels. Therefore, it can be concluded that the higher the English language level is, the higher the motivation level is toward English language learning environment and experience. It may be concluded that EFL learners with higher language proficiency can benefit from the environment and experiences more when compared to their lower-level peers.

Thirdly, whether overseas experience of the participants has any effects on their motivation was analyzed and no statistically significant difference between the participants who had been abroad and those who had not was observed. This means that all the participants were highly motivated to learn English. Furthermore, the qualitative data also suggested that although none of the interview participants lived or travelled abroad before, their positive attitude toward L2 community and culture results in higher motivation towards English learning. Consequently, it may be concluded that the desire to live, work and study abroad in the future creates a high level of motivation for EFL learners in Turkey even though they have only travelled in Turkey in their whole lives and haven't had any experience abroad.

Finally, the relationship between high schools that the participants graduated from and their motivation level was investigated. It was found that participants who graduated from İmam Hatip high schools showed lower level of motivation when compared to their peers from Science high schools and Social Sciences high schools. This difference may be resulted from the educational context and the differences in the course designs and context in these schools. While the courses in İmam Hatip High Schools mainly focus on religious and Islamic education, the contents are pretty different in Science High School and Social Sciences High Schools,

where subjects related to social and numeric sciences are taught. Therefore, it can be concluded that school context and the content of the instruction in different context may lead to differences in motivation level of learners toward learning English.

6.1.3. The relationship between the components of the motivation scale: Research question three aimed to find out whether the components of L2MSS correlated with each other or not. Consequently, a Spearman correlation test was implemented, and it was found that there was a moderate level of positive correlation between 'the ideal L2 self' and the components of *attitudes to the L2 community, cultural interest, intended learning efforts, instrumentality*, and *attitudes to learning English*. In addition, it was found that ought to L2 self mostly had a low correlation with the other components of L2MSS, except *instrumentality*. Furthermore, the *ideal L2 self* and *intended learning efforts* had a higher correlation between each other in contrast to their correlations with *ought to L2 self*.

The positive correlation observed between ideal L2 self and attitudes toward learning English in preparatory program students in two major universities in the current study may be interpreted as that these students in the Turkish EFL context tend to be intrinsically motivated to learn English. Their intrinsic motivation to language learning enable them to imagine themselves as competent and fluent English speakers. Therefore, it can be concluded that if the language learners hold positive attitudes toward learning English, they may have a better L2 self-image, which will lead better language learning experience. Additionally, according to the expectancy-value theory, the motivation of the students to learn a language may be influenced by the expectancies of success or failure (Oxford & Shearin 1994). Moreover, Dörnyei (2001) also notes that "people will only be motivated to do something if they expect success" (p. 12). Consequently, the students with a more developed ideal L2 self-image possess the expectancy of success in language learning, which influences the motivation to learn a language. As well as the ideal L2 self, the attitudes to learning a language or language learning experience can be associated with the expectancy-value theory. In other words, as Schmidt et al. (1996) put forward, learners "engage in activities that are relevant to their goals and at which they expect to succeed" (p. 54). It means that if language learners expect to succeed in learning English, they will be more likely to have higher motivation as they will enjoy the learning environment. Therefore, it can be concluded that the learners in the Turkish EFL context benefit from the learning environment and experiences. They are highly motivated to learn English due to the positive correlation between attitudes to learning it and 'the ideal L2 self'.

What's more, as Dörnyei (2009) states ideal L2 self plays a curial role in L2 learning process, and its positive correlation with the interest in L2 community and cultural figures and elements of the target language will boost language learning process. Therefore, it may be interpreted from the positive correlation observed in this study that EFL learners of English in the Turkish context will benefit from their language learning process more when they are open to learn about the target culture as well as the native community. Also, setting solid goals for their future such as passing exams, finding a decent job, or planning further academic career paths will motivate language learners to master in L2.

With regards to 'ought to L2 self', Taguchi et al. (2009) claim 'ought-to L2 self' to be a crucial contributor in their comparative study of three Asian contexts, where students experience higher pressure from their parents and other family members. It agrees with Kormos et al.'s (2011) claim that 'the ought-to L2 self' might be more observable in Asian countries than in Western ones. Therefore, we can conclude that the low correlation level of 'ought-to L2 self' with the other components in the present study might mean that the tertiary level learners of English in the Turkish context are more likely to have intrinsic motivation to learn English rather than being extrinsically motivated. This means extrinsic motivational factors such as responsibilities, obligations, parents, teachers, or friends may not have a significant effect on the learners' motivation. On the contrary, students seem to have realized the importance of having a positive attitude towards learning English personally.

6.1.4. The level of pragmatic awareness of the university students: The fourth research question tried to find out the pragmatic awareness level of the participants. It was found that the EFL learners in Turkish context show high pragmatic awareness, and therefore, it is possible to conclude that university level language learners in Turkey can successfully judge whether certain speech acts are used appropriately or not. Consequently, it may be concluded that language learners can learn pragmatic components even in EFL contexts such as Turkey.

However, it is also important to note that the level of awareness towards various speech acts vary through the scenarios. There are a few main reasons why language learners fail to detect some pragmatic infelicities. Firstly, their failure in recognizing the inappropriate language use in certain speech act scenarios may result from their lack of sociopragmatic knowledge. It may be said that EFL learners may not sometimes interpret contextual clues before judging the appropriateness of utterances. Additionally, language learners may not be really knowledgeable about politeness in English. That is, learners may assume that all the

polite expressions can be appropriate to use in any situation, which leads to misunderstanding regarding the appropriacy of the linguistic choices as contextual elements are disregarded. Moreover, not being able to implement the language learned in the classroom into the real life, test-oriented assessment of language and excluding speaking-based activities in the classroom are some other reasons why language learners fail to acquire pragmatics.

In this vein, the failure to judge the appropriateness of the utterances in the scenarios may be attributed to the scarcity of pragmatic information included in the coursebooks. As coursebooks are the primary source of language input in the classroom, the amount of pragmatic information should be enough to provide EFL learners with ample examples of various language exchange situations in which they can observe the language use and practice the appropriate linguistic item. However, Ren and Han (2016) state that pragmatic information presented in the coursebook makes up a very small amount of the content in the coursebooks. Similarly, Cohen and Ishihara (2013) also focus on the underrepresentation of pragmatics in ELT coursebooks. This shows that although communicative competence has long been the target of language teaching (Ren & Han, 2016), and the benefits of explicit instruction to improve pragmatic competence over implicit instruction (Ishihara, 2010; Taguchi, 2015) have been highlighted, pragmatic competence may still not be the guiding principle in the coursebook design.

However, it can be observed from the interviews with the participants that the participants are aware of the importance of the pragmatic elements when assessing the appropriateness of the language used. The language learners can notice the impact of the participants in a dialogue, power relationship between these participants and the linguistic items used to achieve certain speech acts. This means that although EFL learners in Turkish university context fail to realize certain infelicities in pragmatic production, they are aware of the fundamental points to pay attention. Additionally, despite insufficient amount of pragmatic content in coursebooks in the market, it is possible to find an abundance of literature focusing on the instruction of pragmatics of English, which provides plenty of teaching materials, resources, and suggested activities to be utilized to improve students' pragmatic competence in classroom setting (i.e., Ishihara, 2010). For instance, in her comparative study, Biesenbach-Lucas (2007) focuses on how native and non-native English speakers perform the speech act of request in emails. The researcher specifies that ESL coursebooks tend to pay attention to general email writing etiquette rather than how certain speech acts can be performed in emails. Therefore, she proposes a five-stage plan for pedagogical instruction which can be utilized to teach advanced learners explicitly how to write appropriate request emails to their instructors

or professors. The materials included a wide range of awareness-raising activities and productive activities emphasizing high-imposition and low-imposition requests and several writing emails tasks. Taguchi (2011) explains awareness-raising tasks as the ones usually involving activities in which the students listen to various dialogues and judge how appropriate the language choices are by using a rating scale. Other activities such as role-plays, guided writing tasks, close-tests, and discourse completion tasks are production oriented. They can be employed in the classroom to allow language learners to practice speech act production "by assuming specific roles in hypothetical scenarios and interacting with peers" (Taguchi, 2011, p.296).

Huth and Tleghani-Nikazm (2006) highlight the benefits of employing conversation analysis in L2 pragmatics teaching. They further propose five phases of instruction to carry conversation analysis in the classroom: "(a) in-class reflection about conversational practices, (b) contrastive in-class analysis of L1 and L2 sequence structure, (c) using written transcripts, audio, and video materials, (d) practicing sequence structures with role-plays, and (e) reflection and evaluation: discussing the cross-cultural differences" (Huth & Tleghani-Nikazm, 2006, pp. 66-69).

Briefly, it can be inferred that tertiary-level language learners in the Turkish context are aware of the pragmatic components in a speech and pay attention to these components when assessing the appropriateness of a speech act utterance in spite of the fact that they may fail to realize some pragmatic infelicities from time to time. Therefore, we can say that there seems to be a need for pragmatic instruction in the intensive English preparatory program to address the issues related to L2 pragmatics learning in the classroom. It is obvious that even learners with a higher level of L2 proficiency can take advantage of pragmatic instruction to improve their communicative skills, and numerous sources online and in print media will facilitate the process of pragmatic instruction.

6.1.5. The relationship between motivation and the pragmatic awareness of the university students: The research question five investigated the relationship between participants' language learning motivation and their level of pragmatic awareness. The data analysis in the current study unveiled a positive relationship between the motivation level of the participants and their pragmatic awareness. That is, when language learners are motivated to learn English, they will be more aware of the use of its elements of pragmatics. In addition, it can be said that when learners have a strong motivation to learn English, they will have a higher awareness toward the use of its components, which, in turn, may lead to more pragmatically aware learners.

On top of the overall motivation toward language learning, cultural interest and attitudes towards the L2 community appear to play crucial roles in pragmatic awareness. This means that learners tend to succeed in evaluating the language use in terms of appropriacy provided that they carry positive attitudes toward the L2 community and its culture. This is somehow related to the acculturation theory, according to which the success of the language learner is defined by the extent to which they can adapt themselves to the L2 culture, and speech accommodation theory, which highlights the impact of motivation on the distance of the language learner with L2 culture and the community. Therefore, it can be concluded that the EFL learners in Turkish context will be more aware of the pragmatic (in)felicities if they have a high level of motivation. Consequently, to what extent should cultural issues be included in the classroom content can remain at limbo anymore as recent research findings strongly indicate that knowledge about cultural issues enable learners to have an open mind and raise their language awareness on sociocultural issues is not a topic of discussion as it has been proven that culture plays a vital role in language learning. Therefore, it can be said that some features of the TL culture should be introduced in the EFL classroom. Those features should also be presented in textbooks, which are often regarded as the only direct access EFL learners have to the TL culture in the classroom (Civelek et al., 2021; Hinkel, 2014; Karatepe & Yilmaz 2018, McConachy, 2009; McConachy & Hata, 2013). Therefore, it can be said that some features of the TL culture should be introduced in the EFL classroom. Those features should also be presented in textbooks, which are often regarded as the only direct access EFL learners have to the TL culture in the classroom. Because of the lack of cultural content as part of pragmatic information in many coursebooks, language teachers are responsible for conveying pragmatic awareness (Vellenga, 2004). However, this is not always achieved, especially in EFL environments, since language teachers may not also be pragmatically competent in the target culture (Karatepe & Civelek, 2021). Therefore, coursebooks needs to be reviewed so that they can support and guide both

teachers and learners on the issues of pragmalinguistic and sociopragmatics (Hilliard 2017; McConachy, 2009; McConachy & Hata, 2013; Siegel, 2016).

Also, the Turkish EFL learners are also aware of their needs as language learners and they can identify the areas that they should be focusing on in their language learning process. One of these areas which carries a high importance in language learning process of the participants in this study is the productive skills, especially speaking. The Turkish EFL learners have realized that they need to improve their communication skills and to be able to interact efficiently in L2 rather than possessing excellent grammar knowledge or mastery of vocabularies stripped off their context. Therefore, the language learners nowadays are well aware of the importance of being pragmatically competent and that language classrooms can enable them to achieve pragmatic competence in FL settings through exposure to L2 by communicating with foreigners and with the help of authentic materials.

6.1.6. Predicting L2 motivational variables in L2 pragmatic awareness: The last research question aimed to find out if there is a correlation between cultural interest, attitudes towards the L2 community, and awareness on pragmatics as well as other motivational factors in the present study. The results show that cultural interest and attitudes toward the L2 community may best anticipate the level of pragmatic awareness of the learners. Despite the small effect size, being highly motivated to find out about cultural elements of L2 such as films, books, TV series and having a positive perspective toward L2 and its speakers indicate higher pragmatic awareness. Therefore, it is of vital importance to provide ample input in the classroom related to the English language, its speakers and its cultural issues to enhance the pragmatic awareness in the classroom. However, it is important to note that only providing the input related to these will not be enough as input will not be effective if it is not noticed. Therefore, language learners especially in EFL setting should be provided various authentic language input where they can explore the language and the linguistic items to become pragmatically competent learners.

6.2. Pedagogical Implications

The current study demonstrates that there is a relationship between the motivation level of language learners and their pragmatic awareness. Especially, the pragmatic awareness of the language learners in the Turkish EFL context heavily relies on the ideal L2 self that the learners create for themselves, their interests in the cultural elements of the language they are learning and their positive attitudes towards the language community. Therefore, there are several implications that are driven from the present study and its results.

Firstly, awareness is the first step to learn a new language, and therefore, language learners should be aware of the sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic elements of the language. Thus, information regarding the pragmatic components such as the setting, the interlocuters and their relationship should be highlighted in the language instruction. Additionally, learners should be provided with more input related to various speech act situations in which they can explore pragmatic elements in different speech scenarios. However, it is important to pay attention the authenticity of the input. The input provided to the learners in the L2 classroom should be real-life based. Additionally, inclusion of authentic language materials in the classroom practices may enable the language learners to analyze the language and create their own hypothesis regarding the appropriate language use in L2. Most importantly, language teachers and prospective teachers should be aware of the fact that coursebooks used in the classroom lack pragmatic information. That's why they should design their own materials for pragmatic instruction or adapt ready materials to increase the chances of language learners to become more aware of the pragmatics and pragmatic elements. Therefore, some training or courses might be provided to the language teachers and preservice teachers on the importance of appropriate language use, material adaptation and design to enable the language learners in EFL contexts to become communicatively competent.

6.3. Suggestions for Further Studies

As there are a few limitations in the current study, the researcher may consider these limitations and design their studies accordingly. Firstly, it is highly suggested that the number of universities and students should be increased to reach more elaborative extensive conclusions. Also, future researchers should invite more language learners to participate in the interviews as they provide more detailed insight into the participants and their decision-making process. Additionally, language learners with a foundation university background should be involved in the study to provide a clear picture of the effects of individual factors. Inviting students from different socioeconomic backgrounds can yield different results in a comparative study.

REFERENCES

Aida, Y. (1994). Examination of Horwitz, Horwitz, and Cope's construct of foreign language anxiety: The case of students of Japanese. *Modern Language Journal, 78*, 155-167. doi:10.2307/329005i

Al-Khaza'leh. B. A. (2018). Influence of social power on perception of speech act of apology by Jordanian second language speakers. Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies, 14(1), 211-229.

Alshahrani, A. (2016). L2 motivational self system among Arab EFL Learners: Saudi perspective. *International Journal of Applied Linguistics and English Literature, 5*(5), 145-152. : http://dx.doi.org/10.7575/aiac.ijalel.v.5n.5p.145

Arabmofrad, A., Derakhshan, A., & Atefinejad, M. (2019). An interplay between Iranian EFL learners' specific and general interlanguage pragmatic motivation and their meta-pragmatic awareness. *Iranian Journal of English for Academic Purposes*, *8*(3), 77-94.

Aribi, I. (2012). A socio-pragmatic study of the use of requests in English by Tunisian EFL learners. *Journal of Second Language Teaching & Research, 2*(1), 87-120.

Arif, H. (2016). A brief sketch on the origin and development of pragmatics. *Philosophy and Progress*, *53*(1-2), 25-42.

Arnold, J. (1999). *Affective language learning*. Cambridge University Press.

Arslan, T. (2017). *Investigating L2 motivational self-system of Turkish learners of English:* A correlational study. [Unpublished master's thesis]. Bahçeşehir University, Istanbul.

Arslan, T., & Çiftçi, H. (2021). Second language motivational self system of sixth graders in Turkey: A correlational study. *Tesol Journal*, *12*(1), 1-15.

Atbaş, E. E. (2004). *The effects of students' entering characteristics and classroom environment experiences on their language learning outcomes in an EFL setting in Turkey* [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. Middle East Technical University, Ankara.

Austin, J. L. (1962). *How to do things with words*. Harvard University Press.

Austin, J. L. (1975). *How to do things with words*. Oxford university press.

Bachman, L. F. (1990). *Fundamental considerations in language testing*. Oxford University Press.

Bachman, L. F., & Palmer, A. S. (1996). *Language testing in practice*. Oxford University Press.

Baker, S. C. & McIntyre, P. D. (2003). The role of gender and immersion in communication and second language orientations. *Language Learning, 53,* 56-96.

Balci, B. (2009). *A comparative study on the performance of requests and apologies by Turkish and American teenagers: A pragmatic competence point of view* [Unpublished MA thesis]. University of Çukurova, Adana.

Bardovi-Harlig, K. (1996). Pragmatics and language teaching: Bringing pragmatics and pedagogy together. In L. F. Bouton (Ed.), *Pragmatics and language learning* (Vol. 7). (pp. 21-39). University of Illinois at Urbana-Champaign.

Bardovi-Harlig, K. & Dörnyei, Z. (1998). Do language learners recognize pragmatic violations? Pragmatic versus grammatical awareness in instructed L2 learning. *TESOL Quarterly, 32*(2), 233-262.

Bardovi-Harlig, K. (2000). Pragmatics and second language acquisition. In R. B. Kaplan (Ed.), *Oxford handbook of applied linguistics* (pp. 182–192). Oxford University Press.

Bardovi-Harlig, K. (2010a). Exploring the pragmatics of interlanguage pragmatics: Definition by design. In W. Bublitz, A. H. Jucker, K. P. Schneider (Series Eds.), & A. Trosborg (Vol. Ed*.), Handbooks of pragmatics*: Vol. 7. Pragmatics across languages and cultures (pp. 219–259). Mouton de Gruyter.

Bardovi-Harlig, K. (2010b). Pragmatics and second language acquisition. In R. Kaplan (Ed.), *The handbook of applied linguistics* (2nd ed., pp. 232–243). Oxford University Press.

Bardovi-Harlig, K. (2013). Developing L2 pragmatics. *Language Learning*, *63*, 68-86.

Bardovi-Harlig, K., & Hartford, B. S. (1996). Input in an institutional setting. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *18*(2), 171-188.

Bardovi-Harlig, K., & Taylor, R. (2003). Introduction to teaching pragmatics. *English Teaching Forum*, *41* (3), 37-39.

Bardovi-Harlig, K., Hartford, B. S., Mahan-Taylor, R., Morgan, M. J. & Reynolds, D. W. (1991). Developing pragmatic awareness: closing the conversation. *ELT Journal, 45*(1), 4-15.

Barron, A. (2003). *Acquisition in interlanguage pragmatics: Learning how to do things with words in a study abroad context* (Vol. 108). John Benjamins.

Beebe, L. M., Takahashi, T., & Uliss-Weltz, R. (1990). Pragmatic transfer in ESL refusals. In C. Scarcela, E. Anderson & D. Krashen (Eds.), *Developing Communicative competence in a second language*, (pp. 55-73). Newbury House.

Bektaş-Çetinkaya, Y. (2012). Teaching English as an international language and its reflections in Turkey. *Journal of Human Sciences*, *9*(2), 378-391.

Bella, S. (2014). Developing the ability to refuse: A cross-sectional study of Greek FL refusals. *Journal of Pragmatics, 61*, 35-62.

Bialystok, E. (1993). Symbolic representation and attentional control in pragmatic competence. In G. Kasper & S. Blum-Kulka (Eds.), *Interlanguage pragmatics* (pp. 43–63). Oxford University Press.

Biesenbach-Lucas, S. (2007). Students writing emails to faculty: An examination of E-politeness among native and non-native speakers of English. *Language Learning & Technology, 11*(2), 59-81.

Bilhan, A. (2019). *L2 motivational self system of Turkish learners of English.* [Unpublished master thesis]. Çağ University, Mersin.

Blum-Kulka, S., & Olshtain, E. (1984). Requests and apologies: A cross-cultural study of speech act realization patterns (CCSARP). *Applied Linguistics*, *5*(3), 196-213.

Blum-Kulka, S., House, J., & Kasper, G. (1989). *Cross-cultural pragmatics: Requests and apologies.* Ablex Publishing Company.

Bou-Franch, P., & Garcés Conejos, P. (2003). Teaching linguistic politeness: A methodological proposal. *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching*, *41*(1), 1-22.

Bown, J. & White, C. (2010). A social and cognitive approach to affect in SLA. *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching, IRAL, 48*, 331-353. https://doi.org/10.1515/iral.2010.014

Braun, V., & Clarke, V. (2006). Using thematic analysis in psychology. Qualitative Research in Psychology, 3(2), 77-101.

Brock, M. N., & Nagasaka, Y. (2005). Teaching pragmatics in the EFL classroom? SURE you can!. *TESL Reporter*, *38*(1), 17-26.

Brown, B. R. (1970). Face-saving following experimentally induced embarrassment. *Journal of Experimental Social Psychology*, *6*(3), 255-271.

Brown, H.D. (1980). Principles of Language Learning and Teaching. Pearson.

Brown, P., & Levinson, S. C. (1987). *Politeness: Some universals in language usage*. Cambridge University Press.

Byram, M. (1997). *Teaching and assessing intercultural communicative competence*. Multilingual Matters.

Canale, M. (1983). From communicative competence to language pedagogy. In J. Richards & R. Schmidt (Eds.), *Language and communication* (pp. 2-27). Longman.

Canale, M., & Swain, M. (1980). Theoretical bases of communicative approaches to second language teaching and testing. *Applied Linguistics*, *1*(1), 1-47.

Caracelli, V.J., & Riggin, L.J. (1994). Mixed method evaluation: Developing quality criteria through concept mapping: Mixed-method collaboration. *Evaluation Practice, 15*(2), 139-162.

Carrell, P. L. & Konneker, B. H. (1981). Politeness: Comparing native and nonnative judgments. *Language Learning, 31*(1), 17-30.

Celce-Murcia, M. (2008). Rethinking the role of communicative competence in language teaching. In *Intercultural language use and language learning* (pp. 41-57). Springer, Dordrecht.

Celce-Murcia, M., Dörnyei, Z., & Thurrell, S. (1995). Communicative competence: A pedagogically motivated model with content specifications. *Issues in Applied linguistics*, *6*(2), 5-35.

Chang, Y. F. (2011). Refusing in a foreign language: An investigation of problems encountered by Chinese learners of English. *Multilingua, 30*, 71-98. Retrieved from https://www.researchgate.net/publication/276941276_Refusing_in_a_foreign_language

Chi, S. (2017). College students' English pragmatic competence analysis and college English teaching. *Advances in Social Science, Education and Humanities Research, 119*, 1140-1144.

Chiravate, B. (2012). The effects of motivation and proficiency on pragmatic and grammatical awareness in foreign language learning. In W. M. Chan, K. N. Chin, S. K. Bhatt & I.Walker (eds.), *Perspectives on individual characteristics and foreign language education*, (pp. 93–114). Mouton de Gruyter. https://doi.org/10.1515/9781614510932.93

Chomsky, N. (1965). *Aspects of the theory of syntax*. MIT Press.

Civelek, M., & Karatepe, Ç. (2021). The impact of student-paced pragmatics instruction through Nearpod on EFL learners' request performance. *Advances in Language and Literary Studies*, *12*(6), 67-78.

Civelek, M., Toplu, I., & Uzun, L. (2021). Turkish EFL teachers' attitudes towards online instruction throughout the COVID-19 outbreak. *English Language Teaching Educational Journal*, *4*(2), 87-98.

Clement, R. (1980). Ethnicity contact and communicative competence in a L2. In H. Giles, P. Robinson, & P. Smith (Eds.), Language: Social psychological perspective (pp. 67-91). Pergamon.

Cohen, A. D. (2005). Strategies for learning and performing L2 speech acts. *Intercultural Pragmatics*, *2*(3), 275–301. https://doi.org/10.1515/iprg.2005.2.3.275

Cohen, A. D. (2010). Strategies for learning and performing speech acts. In N. Ishihara, & A. D. Cohen (Eds.), *Teaching and learning pragmatics: Where language and culture meet* (pp. 227–243). Longman.

Cohen, A. D. & Ishihara, N. (2013). Pragmatics. In B. Tomlinson (ed.). *Applied Linguistics and Materials Development*. Bloomsbury

Cohen, A. D., & Olshtain, E. (1981). Developing a measure of sociocultural competence: the case of apology 1. *Language Learning*, *31*(1), 113-134.

Cohen, A. D., & Olshtain, E. (1993). The production of speech acts by EFL learners. *Tesol Quarterly*, *27*(1), 33-56.

Cohen, A. D., & Wang, I. K.-H. (2018). Fluctuation in the functions of language learner strategies. *System*, *74*, 169–182. https://doi.org/10.1016/j.system.2018.03.011

Cohen, J. (1988). *Statistical power analysis for the behavioral sciences*. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Cohen, A. D. (2010). Approaches to assessing pragmatic ability. *Teaching and learning pragmatics: Where language and culture meet*, 264-285.

Cohen, L., Manion, L., & Morrison, K. (2007). *Research methods in education*. UK: Routledge.

Cook, H. M. (2001). Why can't learners of Japanese as a foreign language distinguish polite from impolite speech styles? In K. R. Rose., & G. Kasper (Eds.). *Pragmatics in language teaching*. Cambridge University Press.

Corder, S. P. (1981). *Error analysis and interlanguage*. Oxford University Press.

Creswell, J. W. (2012). Educational Research: Planning, Conducting, and Evaluating Quantitative and Qualitative Research (4th ed.). Pearson Publication.

Creswell, J. W., & Clark, V. L. P. (2011). Choosing a mixed methods design. *Designing And Conducting Mixed Methods Research*, *2*, 53-106.

Creswell, J. W., & Clark, V. L. P. (2017). *Designing and conducting mixed methods research.* Sage.

Crooks, G., & Schmidt, R.W., (1991). Motivation: Re-opening the research agenda. *Language Learning 41*, 469-512.

Crystal, D. (1997). *The Cambridge encyclopedia of language* (2nd ed.). Cambridge University Press.

Csizé'r, K., & Kormos, J., (2009). Learning experiences, selves, and motivated learning behaviour: A comparative analysis of structural models for Hungarian secondary and

university learners of English, In Z. Dörnyei and E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Motivation, Language Identity and the L2 Self* (pp. 98-119). Multilingual Matters.

Çiftçi, H. (2016). Refusal strategies in Turkish and English: a cross-cultural study. *ELT Research Journal*, *5*(1), 2-29.

Derakhshan, A., Malmir, A., Greenier, V. (2021). Interlanguage pragmatic learning strategies (IPLS) as predictors of L2 speech act knowledge: A case of Iranian EFL learners. *The Journal of Asia TEFL*, *18*(1), 235–243. http://dx.doi.org/10.18823/asiatefl.2021.18.1.14.235

David, C. (1997). *English as a global language*. Cambridge University Press.

Demirkol, T. (2019). Refusal production via DCT and role play. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies, 15*(1), 200-209.

Derakhshan, A., & Malmir, A. (2021). The Role of Language Aptitude in the Development of L2 Pragmatic Competence. *TESL-EJ*, *25*(1), 1-31.

Dörnyei, Z. (2001). *Motivational Strategies in the Language Classroom*. Cambridge University Press.

Dörnyei, Z. (2005). *The psychology of the language learner: Individual differences in second language acquisition.* Lawrence Erlbaum. https://doi.org/10.1177/0261927X05281424

Dörnyei, Z. (2007). Research methods in applied linguistics. Oxford University Press.

Dörnyei, Z. (2009). The L2 motivational self system. In Z. Dörnyei and E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Motivation, language identity and the L2 self* (pp. 9-42). Multilingual Matters.

Dörnyei, Z., Csizér, K., & Németh, N. (2006). *Motivation, language attitudes and globalisation*. Multilingual Matters.

Dörnyei, Z., MacIntyre, P. D., & Henry, A. (2014). Introduction: Applying complex dynamic systems principles to empirical research on L2 motivation. In Z. Dörnyei, P. D. MacIntryre, and A. Henry (Eds.), *Motivational dynamics in language learning* (pp. 1-10). Multilingual Matters.

Dörnyei, Z., & Ushioda, E. (2011). *Teaching and researching motivation*. Pearson Education.

Dörnyei, Z., & Skehan, P. (2003). 18 individual differences in second language learning. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *13*(2), 275-298.

Duff, P. A. (2012). Identity, agency, and second language acquisition. In S. Gass & A. Mackey (Eds.), *The Routledge handbook of second language acquisition* (pp. 410–426). Routledge.

Ekin, M. Y., & Damar, E. A. (2013). Pragmatic awareness of EFL teacher trainees and their reflections on pragmatic practices. *ELT Research Journal, 2*(4), 176-190.

Ellis, R. (2015). *Understanding second language acquisition* (2nd ed.). Oxford University Press.

Engin, Ç. (2019). *A study on l2 motivational self-system of Turkish learners of English in tertiary education*. [Unpublished master thesis]. Bahçeşehir University, İstanbul.

Eslami-Rasekh, Z. (2005). Raising the pragmatic awareness of language learners. *ELT Journal, 59*(3), 199-208.

Farrokhi, F., & Atashian, S. (2012). The role of refusal instruction in pragmatic development. *World Journal of Education, 2*(4), 85-93.

Félix-Brasdefer, J. C., & Cohen, A. D. (2012). Teaching pragmatics in the foreign language classroom: Grammar as a communicative resource. *Hispania*, 650-669.

Fillmore, L. (1991). L2 learning in children: A model of language learning in social context. In E. Bialystok (Ed.), Language processing in bilingual children (pp. 49-69). Cambridge University Press.

Fraenkel, J.R., Wallen, N.E. & Hyun, H.H. (2012). *How to design and evaluate research in education?* McGraw-Hill Companies Inc.

Fraser, B. (1981). On apologizing. In F. Coulmas (Ed.), *Conversational routine. Explorations in standardized communication situations and prepatterned speech* (pp. 259-273). Mouton.

Fraser, B. (2010). Pragmatic competence: The case of hedging. In G. Kaltenbock, W. Milhatsch, & S. Schneider (Eds.), New approaches to hedging [Studies in Pragmatics, 9] (pp. 15–34). Brill.

Frodesen, J. (2001). Grammar in Writing. In Marianne Celce-Murcia (Ed.)., Teaching English as a Second or Foreign Language, 233-248, (3rd ed.). Heinle.

Gardner, R. C. (1985). *Social psychology and second language learning: The role of attitudes and motivation*. Edward Arnold.

Gardner, R. D. (2001). Integrative motivation and second language acquisition. In Z. Dornyei & R. Schmidt (Eds.). *Motivation and second language acquisition* (Technical Report #23, pp. 1-19). Honolulu: University of Hawaii, Second Language Teaching and Curriculum Center.

Gardner, R. C., & Lambert, W. E. (1959). Motivational variables in second language acquisition. *Canadian Journal of Psychology*, *13*, 266–72.

Gardner, R. C., & Lambert, W.E. (1972) *Attitudes and motivation in second-language learning*. Newbury House.

Genç, G., & Bilgin-Aksu, M. (2004). İnönü üniversitesi öğrencilerinin İngilizce derslerine ilişkin tutumları. XIII. Ulusal Eğitim Bilimleri Kurultayı, Malatya. Retrieved February 17, 2022, from https://docplayer.biz.tr/16535484-Inonu-universitesiogrencilerinin-ingilizce-derslerine-iliskin-tutumlari.html

Gesuato, S., & Castello, E. (2020). Assessing pragmatic aspects of L2 communication: Why, how and what for. *Lodz Papers in Pragmatics*, *16*(1), 1-13.

Ghanizadeh, A., & Rostami, R. (2015). A Dörnyei-inspired study on second language motivation: A cross-comparison analysis in public and private contexts. *Psychological Studies, 60*(3), 292–301.

Ghapanchi, Z., Khajavy, G., & Asadpour, S. F. (2011). L2 motivation and personality as predictors of the second language proficiency: Role of the Big Five Traits and L2 motivational self system. *Canadian Social Science, 7(*6), 148-155.

Gibson, J. L., Ivancevich, J. M., & Donnelly, J. H. (2000). *Organizations: Behavior, structure, processes*. McGraw-Hill.

Giles, H. (1973). Accent mobility: A model and some data. *Anthropological linguistics*, 87-105.

Goffman, E. (1955). On face-work: An analysis of ritual elements in social interaction. *Psychiatry, 18*(3), 213-231.

Gördü-Aşıcı, T. (2016). *The relationship between students' language learning motivation and self-efficacy: A private university case*. [Unpublished master thesis]. Bahçeşehir University, İstanbul.

Grice, H. P. (1975). Logic and conversation. In P. Cole & J. L. Morgan (Eds.), *Syntax and semantics 3: Speech acts*, (pp. 41–58). Academic Press.

Gu, T. (2014). Pragmatic development of Chinese EFL learners: A study on FL suggestions. *English Language Teaching, 7*(4), 147-157.

Hadley, A.O. (2003). *Teaching language in context*. Heinle & Heinle.

Han, T., & Burgucu-Tazegül, A. (2016). Realization of speech acts of refusals and pragmatic competence by Turkish EFL learners. *The Reading Matrix: An International Online Journal, 16*(1), 161-178.

Higgins, E. T. (1987). Self-discrepancy: a theory relating self and affect. *Psychological review*, *94*(3), 319.

Hilliard, A. (2017). Twelve activities for teaching the pragmatics of complaining to L2 learners. *English Teaching Forum, 55*(1), 2-13.

Hinkel, E. (1997). Appropriateness of advice: DCT and multiple choice data. *Applied Linguistics, 19*(1), 1-26.

Hinkel, E. (2014). Culture and pragmatics in language teaching and learning. *Teaching English as a second or foreign language*, *4*, 394-408.

Holliday, A. (2010). Analysing qualitative data. In Brian Paltridge & Aek Phakiti (eds.), *Continuum companion to research methods in applied linguistics*, 98–110. Continuum.

Holmes, J. (1898). Sex differences in apologies: One aspect of communicative competence. *Applied Linguistics, 10*(2), 194-213. doi: 10.1093/applin/10.2.194.

Holtgraves, T. (1986). Language structure in social interaction: Perceptions of direct and indirect speech acts and interactants who use them. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology, 51*(2), 305-314.

Houck, N. & D. Tatsuki (2011). Pragmatics from research to practice: New directions. *TESOL,* 1-6.

Huth, T., & Taleghani-Nikazm, C. (2006). How can insights from conversation analysis be directly applied to teaching L2 pragmatics*? Language Teaching Research, 10*(1), 53-79.

Hymes, D. (1972). On communicative competence. In J. B. Pride & J. Holmes (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics: Selected readings* (pp. 269–293). Penguin.

Ishihara, N., & Cohen, A. D. (2010). *Teaching and learning pragmatics: Where language and culture meet*. Pearson.

Ishihara, N. (2010). Theories of language acquisition and the teaching of pragmatics. In *Teaching and learning pragmatics: Where language and culture meet*, pp. 99-122.

Islam, M., Lamb, M., & Chambers, G. (2013). The L2 motivational self system and national interest: A Pakistani perspective. *System, 41*(2), 231-244.

İstifçi, İ. (2009). The Use of Apologies by EFL Learners. *English language teaching*, *2*(3), 15-25.

Jassim, A. H. (2016, April). EFL Arab students' apology strategies in relation to formality and informality of the context. *Ampersand, 3*, 117-125.

Kádár, D. Z., & House, J. (2020). Ritual frames: A contrastive pragmatic approach. *Pragmatics*, *30*(1), 142-168.

Kanık, M. (2017). Apology Speech Act Realization by NESTs and NNESTs. *International Online Journal of Educational Sciences*, *9*(1), 1-12.

Karatepe, Ç. (2016). Indirectness in requests in complaint letters to the higher institution by Turkish EFL students. Paper presented at International Conference on Teaching and Learning English as an Additional Language, GlobELT 2016, Antalya, Turkey.

Karatepe, Ç. (2001). Pragmalinguistic awareness in EFL teacher training. *Language Awareness*, *10*(2-3), 178-188.

Karatepe, Ç., & Civelek, M. (2021). A case study on EFL teachers' views on material adaptation for teaching pragmatics. *RumeliDE Dil ve Edebiyat Araştırmaları Dergisi*, (23), 894-910.

Karatepe, Ç., & Fidan, N. (2021). How do Erasmus students evaluate their language learning experience abroad. *Eurasian Journal of Educational Research*, *92*, 10-30.

Karatepe, Ç., & Ünal, F. (2019). Use of conventionally indirect strategies in requests by Turkish EFL learners. *Educational Sciences*, 23-45.

Karatepe, Ç., & Yilmaz, D. (2018). Promoting structured reflectivity in teacher education: An innovative approach. *Journal of Teacher Education and Educators*, *7*(1), 57-74.

Kasper, G. (1996). Introduction: Pragmatics in SLA. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 18,* 135-148.

Kasper, G. (1997, March). *Can pragmatic competence be taught?* Paper presented at the AAAL 1997 Conference, Orlando. Retrieved January 10, 2022, from http://www.nflrc.hawaii.edu/NetWorks/NW06/

Kasper, G. (2001). Four perspectives on L2 pragmatic development. *Applied Linguistics, 22*(4), 502-530.

Kasper, G. & Dahl, M. (1991). Research methods in interlanguage pragmatics. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 13*, 215-247.

Kasper, G., & Rose, K. R. (1999). Pragmatics and SLA. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics, 19*, 81-104.

Kasper, G. & Rose, K. (2002). *Pragmatic development in a second language*. Blackwell.

Kasper, G., & Schmidt, R. (1996). Developmental issues in interlanguage pragmatics. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 18*, 149-169.

Khan, M. R., (2015). Analyzing the relationship between L2 motivational selves and L2 achievement: A Saudi Perspective. *International Journal of English Language Teaching, 2,* 68-75. https://doi.org/10.5430/ijelt.v2n1p68

Kılıçkaya, F. (2010). The pragmatic knowledge of Turkish EFL students in using certain request strategies. Social Sciences Journal of Gaziantep University, 9(1), 185–201.

Kızıltepe, Z. (2003). Considering gender with attitudes and motivation of EFL Students. *Education and Science, 28* (130), 75-82.

Kida, I. (2011). Language distance across cultures as a way of expressing politeness and not only. In J. Arabski & A. Wojtaszek (Eds.), *Aspects of Culture in Second Language Acquisition and Foreign Language Learning* (pp. 183-191). Springer Berlin Heidelberg.

Kim, T. Y., & Kim, Y.K. (2014). A structural model for perceptual learning styles, the ideal L2 self, motivated behavior, and English proficiency. *System, 46*, 14– 27.

Kinginger, C. (2008). Language learning in study abroad: Case studies of Americans in France. *The Modern Language Journal*, *92*, 1-124.

Kitao, K. (1990). A study of Japanese and American perceptions of politeness in requests. *Doshida Studies in English, 50,* 178-210.

Koike, D. A. (1996). Transfer of pragmatic competence and suggestions in Spanish foreign language learning. In S. M. Gass & J. Neu (Eds.), *Speech acts across cultures* (pp. 257-281). Mouton de Gruyter.

Kondo, S. (2004). Raising pragmatic awareness in the EFL context. *Sophia Junior College Faculty Bulletin, 24*, 49-72.

Korkmaz, S., & Karatepe, Ç. (2023). Exploring the Pragmatic Awareness and Competence of EFL Instructors at Tertiary Level. *Anadolu Journal of Educational Sciences International*, *13*(1), 34-55.

Kormos, J., & Csizér, K. (2008). Age-related differences in the motivation of learning English as a foreign language: Attitudes, selves, and motivated learning behavior. *Language learning*, *58*(2), 327-355.

Kormos, J., Kiddle, T., & Csize´r, K. (2011). Systems of goals, attitudes, and self-related beliefs in second-language-learning motivation. *Applied Linguistics, 32*(5), 495-516

Krashen, S.D. (1987). *Principles and practice in second language acquisition*. Prentice-Hall International.

Lee, C. F. (2004). Written requests in emails sent by adult Chinese learners of English. Language culture and curriculum, 17(1), 58-72.

Leech, G. N. (1980). *Explorations in semantics and pragmatics*. Benjamins.

Leech, G. N. (1983). *Principles of pragmatics*. Longman.

LoCastro, V. (2001). Individual differences in second language acquisition: Attitudes, learner subjectivity, and L2 pragmatic norms. *System*, *29*(1), 69-89.

LoCastro, V. (2003). *An introduction to pragmatics: Social action for language teachers*. The University of Michigan Press.

Ma, F. (2015). A review of research methods in EFL education. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies*, *5*(3), 566-571.

McConachy, T. (2009). Raising sociocultural awareness through contextual analysis: Some tools for teachers. *ELT journal*, *63*(2), 116-125.

McConachy, T. & Hata, K (2013). Addressing textbook representations of pragmatics and culture. *ELT Journal*, *67*(3), 294-301.

MacIntyre, P. D., Baker, S. C., Clément, R., & Donovan, L. A. (2002). Sex and age effects on willingness to communicate, anxiety, perceived competence, and L2 motivation among junior high school French immersion students. *Language Learning, 52*, 537-564.

MacIntyre, P.D. & Gardner, R.C. (1991). Methods and results in the study of anxiety and language learning: A review of literature. *Language Learning, 41*, 85-114. https://doi.org/10.1111/j.1467-1770.1991.tb00677.x

MacIntyre, P., Gregersen, T., & Clément, R. (2016). Individual differences. In G. Hall (Ed.), *The Routledge handbook of English language teaching* (pp. 310-323). Routledge.

Magid, M. (2011). *A validation and application of the L2 motivational self system among Chinese learners of English.* [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. University of Nottingham, Nottingham, England.

Malmir, A., & Derakhshan, A. (2020). The socio-pragmatic, lexico-grammatical, and cognitive strategies in L2 pragmatic comprehension: The case of Iranian male vs. female EFL learners. *Iranian Journal of Language Teaching Research*, *8*(1), 1–23. https://doi.org/10.30466/IJLTR.2020.120805

Markus, H., & Nurius, P. (1986). Possible selves. *American Psychologist, 41*(9), 954-969.

Martínez-Flor, A. (2004). *The effect of instruction on the development of pragmatic competence in the English as a foreign language context: A study based on suggestions* [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. Universitat Jaume I.

Martínez-Flor, A. (2005). A theoretical review of the speech act of suggesting: Towards a taxonomy for its use in FLT. *Revista alicantina de estudios ingleses, 18,* 167-187.

Martínez-Flor, A. (2007). Analysing request modification devices in films: Implications for pragmatic learning in instructed foreign language contexts. In E. A. Soler & M. P. Safont Jordà (Eds.), Intercultural language use and language learning (pp. 245-280). Springer.

Martínez-Flor, A. & E. Uso-Juan (2006). A comprehensive pedagogical framework to develop pragmatics in the foreign language classroom: The 6Rs approach. *Applied Language Learning, 16*, 39–64.

Matsumura, S. (2001). Learning the rules for offering advice: A quantitative approach to second language socialization. *Language Learning, 51*(4), 635-679.

Matsumura, S. (2003). Modelling the relationship among interlanguage pragmatic development, L2 proficiency, and exposure to L2. *Applied Linguistics, 24*(4), 465-491.

Matusin, I. (2014). *Exploring the Ideal and Ought to Second Language Self in English as a Foreign Language.* [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. Josip Juraj Strossmayer University of Osijek, Croatia.

McConachy, T., & Hata, K. (2013). Addressing textbook representations of pragmatics and culture. *ELT Journal*, *67*(3), 294-301.

McLaughlin, B., T. Rossman, B. McLeod. (1983). Second Language Learning: an information-Processing Perspective. *Language Learning, 33*, 135-158.

Mede, E., & Dikilitaş, K. (2015). Teaching and learning sociolinguistic competence: Teachers' critical perceptions. *Participatory Educational Research (PER), 2*(3), 14-31.

Meier, A. J. (1995). Defining politeness: Universality in appropriateness. *Language sciences*, *17*(4), 345-356.

Meier, A. J. (1997). Teaching the universals of politeness. *ELT journal*, *51*(1), 21-28.

Mezei, G. (2008). Motivation and self-regulated learning: A case study of a preintermediate and an upper-intermediate adult student. *WoPaLP, 2*, 79-104.

Miles, M. B., Huberman, A. M., & Saldaña, J. (2014). Qualitative data analysis: A methods sourcebook. Sage Publications.

Mori, S., & Gobel, P. (2006). Motivation and gender in the Japanese EFL classroom. *System, 34*, 194- 210.

Motivation. (n.d.). In *APA dictionary of psychology.* Retrieved January 25, 2022, from https://dictionary.apa.org/motivation

Murray, N. (2009). Pragmatics, awareness raising, and Cooperative Principle. *ELT Journal, 64*(3), 293-301.

Nel, P. S., Gerber, P. D., Van Dyk, P. S., Haasbroek, G. D., Schultz, H. B., Sono, T., & Werner, A. (2001). *Human resource management* (6th Ed.). Oxford University Press.

Niezgoda, K., & Röver, C. (2001). Pragmatic and grammatical awareness: A function of the learning environment. In K. R. Rose & G. Kasper (Eds.), *Pragmatics in language*

teaching (pp. 63–79). Cambridge University Press. https://doi.org/10.1017/CBO9781139524797.008

Nikula, T. (2002). Teacher talk reflecting pragmatic awareness: A look at EFL and Content-based classroom settings. *Pragmatics, 12*(4), 447-467.

Noels, K., Clément, R., & Pelletier, L. (2001). Intrinsic, extrinsic, and integrative orientations of French-Canadian learners of English. *Canadian Modern Language Review*, *57*(3), 424-442. https://doi.org/10.3138/cmlr.57.3.424

Nunan, D. (1998). Teaching grammar in context. *ELT Journal 52*(2): 101-109.

Nureddeen, F. A. (2008). Cross cultural pragmatics: Apology strategies in Sudanese Arabic. *Journal of Pragmatics, 40*(2), 279- 306. doi:10.1016/j.pragma.2007.11.001.

Olshtain, E., & Blum-Kulka, S. (1985). Cross-cultural pragmatics and the testing of communicative competence. *Language Testing, 2,* 16-30.

Olshtain, E., & Cohen, A. D. (1983). Apology: a speech act set. In N. Wolfson & E. Judd, (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics and language acquisition* (pp. 18-35). Newbury House.

Ortega, L. (2009). *Understanding second language acquisition*. Hodder Arnold.

Otçu, B., & Zeyrek, D. (2008). Development of requests: A study on Turkish learners of English. In Jorden, P. (Ed.), *Developing contrastive pragmatics: Interlanguage and cross-cultural perspectives*, (pp. 265-299). Mouton De Gruyter.

Owen, M., (1983). *Apologies and remedial interchanges*. Mouton.

Oxford, R.L., & Shearin, J., (1994). Language learning motivation: Expanding the theoretical framework. *Modern Language Journal, 78*, 12-28.

Öz, H., & Bursalı, N. (2018). The relationship between L2 motivational self system and willingness to communicate in learning English as a foreign language. *Journal of Language and Linguistic studies*, *14*(4), 1-11.

Öz, H., Demirezen, M., and Pourfeiz, J. (2015). Willingness to communicate of EFL learners in Turkish context. *Learning and Individual Differences, 37*, 269-75.

Özdemir, E. (2011). L2 pragmatic-awareness-raising activities: teaching request strategies in a focus-on-form class.*Buca Eğitim fakültesi Dergisi*, 85-114.

Papi, M. (2010). The L2 motivational self system, L2 anxiety, and motivated behavior: A structural equation modeling approach. *System*, *38*(3), 467-479.

Patton, M. Q. (2001). Qualitative evaluation and research methods (3rd ed.). Sage Publications.

Polat, N. (2011). Gender and age differences in motivation and L2 accent attainment: An investigation of young Kurdish learners of Turkish. *Language Learning Journal, 39*, 19-41.

Prachanant, N. (2016). A cross-cultural study of apology speech act realisations. *Pertanika: Journal of Social Science & Humanities, 24*, 43-58.

Qiao, Y. (2014). A case study of pragmatic Failures committed by undergraduate [Paper presentation]. International Conference on Education, Language, Art and Intercultural Communication (ICELAIC), Luoyang.

Rafieyan, V., Majid, N. B. A., & Eng, L. S. (2013). Relationship between attitude toward target language culture instruction and pragmatic comprehension development. *English Language Teaching*, *6*(8), 125-132.

Ren, W. (2014). A longitudinal investigation into L2 learners' cognitive processes during study abroad. *Applied Linguistics* 35(5). 575–94. https://doi.org/10.1093/applin/amt019

Ren, W. (2015). *L2 pragmatic development in study abroad contexts*. Peter Lang. https://doi.org/10.3726/978-3-0351-0734-0

Ren, W. (2019). Pragmatic development of Chinese during study abroad: A cross-sectional study of learner requests. *Journal of Pragmatics*, *146*, 137-149.

Ren, W., & Han, Z. (2016). The representation of pragmatic knowledge in recent ELT textbooks. *Elt Journal*, *70*(4), 424-434.

Rintell, E. (1979). Getting your speech act together: The pragmatic ability of second language leamers. *Working Papers on Bilingualism, 17*, 97-106.

Robinson, P. (2005). Aptitude and second language acquisition. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, *25*, 46-73.

Rose, K. R. (2005). On the effects of instruction in second language pragmatics. *System*, *33*(3), 385-399.

Roshandel, J., Ghonsooly, B., & Ghanizadeh, A. (2018). L2 Motivational Self-System and Self-Efficacy: A Quantitative Survey-Based Study. *International Journal of Instruction*, *11*(1), 329-344.

Ryan, S. (2008). *The ideal L2 selves of Japanese learners of English.* [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. University of Nottingham, London.

Saadatmandi, M., Khiabani, S. M., & Pourdana, N. (2018). Teaching English pragmatic features in EFL context: A focus on request speech acts. *Theory and Practice in Language Studies, 8*(7), 829-835.

Safont Jordà, M. P. (2003). Metapragmatic awareness and pragmatic production of third language learners of English: A focus on request acts realizations. *International Journal of Bilingualism*, *7*(1), 43-68.

Sarani, A., & Malmir, A. (2020). Multiple intelligences as predictors of foreign language pragmatic knowledge: The case of five frequent English speech acts. *Teaching English Language*, *14*(1), 183–211. https://doi.org/10.22132/TEL.2020.107876

Sansone, C., & Harackiewicz, J.M. (2000). Looking beyond rewards: The problem and promise of intrinsic motivation. In C. Sansone and J.M. Harackiewicz (Eds.), *Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation: The search for optimal motivation and performance* (pp. 1-9). Academic Press.

Schauer, G. (2006). Pragmatic awareness in ESL and EFL Contexts: Contrast and development. *Language Learning*, *56*(2), 269–318.

Schmidt, R. (1983). Interaction, acculturation and the acquisition of communicative competence. In N. Wolfson & E. Judd (Eds.), *Sociolinguistics and second language acquisition* (pp. 137-174). Newbury House.

Schmidt, R. (1990). The role of consciousness in second language learning. *Applied Linguistics, 11*(2), 129-158.

Schmidt, R. (1993). Consciousness, learning and interlanguage pragmatics. In G. Kasper & S. Blum-Kulka (eds.), *Interlanguage pragmatic*s (pp. 21-42). Oxford University Press.

Schmidt, R. (1995). Consciousness and foreign language learning: A tutorial on the role of attention and awareness in learning. In R. Schmidt (ed.), *Attention and awareness in foreign language learning* (Technical Report 9, pp. 1-63). University of Hawaii, Second Language Teaching and Curriculum Center.

Schmidt, R. (2010). Attention, awareness, and individual differences in language learning. In W. M. Chan, S. Chi, K. N. Cin, J. Istanto, M. Nagami, J. W. Sew, T. Suthiwan & I. Walker (Eds.), *Proceedings of CLASIC 2010* (pp. 721-737). National University of Singapore, Centre for Language Studies.

Schmidt, R., Boraie, D., & Kassabgy, O. (1996). Foreign language motivation: Internal structure and external connections. *Language learning motivation: Pathways to the new century*, *2*, 9-70.

Schumann, J. H. (1986). Research on the acculturation model for second language acquisition. *Journal of multilingual & multicultural development*, *7*(5), 379-392. https://doi.org/10.1080/01434632.1986.9994254

Searle, J. R. (1969). *Speech acts*. Cambridge University Press.

Searle, J. R. (1976). A classification of illocutionary acts1. *Language in society*, *5*(1), 1-23.

Selinker, L. (1972). Interlanguage. *International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching, 10*, 209-231. https://doi.org/10.1515/iral.1972.10.1-4.209

Shimizu, T. (2009). Influence of learning context on L2 pragmatic realization: A comparison between JSL and JFL learners' compliment responses. In N. Taguchi (Ed.), *Pragmatic Competenc*e (pp. 167-198). Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.

Siegel, J. (2016). Pragmatic activities for the speaking classroom. *English Teaching Forum, 54*(1), 12-19.

Soboleva, A. V., & Obdalova, O. A. (2014). The methodology of intercultural competence development on the basis of a cognitive style inclusive approach. *Procedia – Social and Behavioral Sciences, 154*, 155-161.

Spencer-Oatey, H. (Ed.). (2008). *Culturally speaking second edition: Culture, communication and politeness theory*. Bloomsbury Publishing.

Stalnaker, R. (1972). Pragmatics. In G. Harman & D. Davidson (eds.): *Semantics of natural language*. (pp. 380-397). Reidel.

Suh, J. (1999). Pragmatic Perception of politeness in requests by Korean learners of English as a second language. *IRAL, 37*(3), 195-213.

Sung, K.,Y. (2013). L2 motivation in foreign language learning. *Journal of Language and Linguistic Studies, 9*(2), 19-30. Retrieved from http://www.jlls.org/vol9no2/19-30.pdf

Tagashira, K., Yamato, K., & Isoda, T. (2011). Japanese EFL learners' pragmatic awareness through the looking glass of motivational profiles. *JALT Journal*, *33*(1), 5-26.

Taguchi, N. (2006). Analysis of appropriateness in a speech act of request in L2 English. *Pragmatics*, *16*(4), 513-533.

Taguchi, N. (2008). The role of learning environment in the development of pragmatic comprehension: A comparison of gains between EFL and ESL learners. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *30*(4), 423-452. https://doi.org/10.1017/S0272263108080716

Taguchi, N. (2011). Teaching pragmatics: Trends and issues. *Annual Review of Applied Linguistics*, *31*, 289-310.

Taguchi, N. (2012). *Context, individual differences, and pragmatic competence*. Multilingual Matters.

Taguchi, N. (2014). Personality and development of second language pragmatic competence. *Asian EFL Journal*, *16,* 203–221.

Taguchi, N. (2015). Instructed pragmatics at a glance: Where instructional studies were, are, and should be going. *Language Teaching*, *48*(1), 1-50.

Taguchi, N. (2018). *Pragmatic competence in foreign language education: Cultivating learner autonomy and strategic learning of pragmatics. New perspectives on the development*

of communicative and related competence in foreign language education. Walter de Gruyter.

Taguchi, N. (2019). Second language acquisition and pragmatics: An overview. In Taguchi, N. (Ed.) *The Routledge handbook of second language acquisition and pragmatics*, (pp. 1-14). Routledge.

Taguchi, T., Magid, M., & Papi, M. (2009). The L2 motivational self system among Japanese, Chinese, and Iranian learners of English: A comparative study. In Z. Dörnyei & E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Motivation, language identity and the L2 self* (pp. 43-65). Multilingual Matters.

Taguchi, N. & Roever, C. (2017). *Second language pragmatics*. Oxford University Press.

Tajeddin, Z. (2021). Toward critical applied pragmatics: Moving from postcolonial hegemony to decolonial pragmatics pedagogy. *TESL-EJ*, *25*(1), 1-21.

Tajeddin, Z., & Malmir, A. (2015). The construct of interlanguage pragmatic learning Strategies: investigating preferences of high vs. low pragmatic performers. *The Journal of Teaching Language Skills (JTLS), 6*(4), 153–180. https://doi.org/10.22099/jtls.2015.3016

Tajeddin, Z., & Zand-Moghadam. A. (2012). Interlanguage pragmatic motivation: Its construct and impact on speech act production. *RELC Journal, 43*(3), 353-372.

Takahashi, S. (2001). The role of input enhancement in developing pragmatic competence. In K. R. Rose & G. Kasper (Eds.), *Pragmatics in language teaching* (pp. 171-199). Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Takahashi, S. (2005). Pragmalinguistic Awareness: Is it Related to Motivation and Proficiency? *Applied Linguistics*, (26)1, 90-120.

Tanaka, S., & Kawade, S. (1982). Politeness strategies and second language acquisition. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition, 5*, 18-33.

Terzi, C. (2014). *An analysis of the pragmatic competence of pre-service English language teachers: Appropriateness of forms of address* [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. Middle East Technical University, Ankara, Turkey.

Thijittang, S. (2010). *A Study of Pragmatic Strategies of English of Thai University Students: Apology Speech Acts.* [Unpublished doctoral dissertation]. University of Tasmania, Australia. https://eprints.utas.edu.au/10754/7/Thijittang_whole_thesis.pdf

Thomas, J. (1983). Cross-cultural pragmatic failure. *Applied Linguistics, 4*(2), 91-112.

Thomas, J. (1995). *Meaning in interaction: An introduction to pragmatics*. Longman.

Thornbury, S. (1999). *How to Teach Grammar*. Pearson Education Limited.

Ushioda, E. (2009). A person-in-context relational view of emergent motivation, self, and identity. In Z. Dörnyei & E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Motivation, language identity, and the L2 self* (pp. 215-228). Multilingual Matters.

Ushioda, E. (2013). Motivation and ELT: Global issues and local concerns. In E. Ushioda (Ed.), *International perspectives on motivation* (pp. 1-17). Palgrave Macmillan.

Ushioda, E. & Dörnyei, Z. (2009). Motivation, language identities and the L2 self: A theoretical overview. In Z. Dörnyei and E. Ushioda (Eds.), *Motivation, language identity and the L2 self* (pp. 9-42). Multilingual Matters.

Válková, S. (2014). A cross-cultural approach to speech-act-sets: The case of apologies. *Topics in Linguistics*, *13*(1), 99-123.

Vellenga, H. (2004). Learning Pragmatics from ESL & EFL Textbooks: How Likely?. *Tesl-Ej*, *8*(2). Retrieved from https://files.eric.ed.gov/fulltext/EJ1068091.pdf

Verhoeven, L., & Vermeer, A. (2002). Communicative competence and personality dimensions in first and second language learners. *Applied Psycholinguistics*, *23*(4), 361–374. https://doi.org/10.1017/S014271640200303X

Williams, M., Burden, R., & Lanvers, U. (2002). French is the language of love and stuff: Student perceptions of issues related to motivation in learning a foreign language. *British Research Journal, 28*(4), 503-508.

Wolfson, N. (1989). *Perspectives: Sociolinguistics and TESOL.* Heinle & Heinle.

Yang, H., & Ren, W. (2020). Pragmatic awareness and second language learning motivation: A mixed-methods investigation. *Pragmatics & Cognition*, *26*(2-3), 447-473.

Yapan, F. (2017). *A study on L2 motivational self-system of Turkish EFL learners*. [Unpublished master thesis]. Akdeniz University, Antalya, Turkey.

Yokochi, L. (2003). *Affective factors in second language acquisition: A critical review of the literature* [Unpublished master thesis]. West Virginia University, USA.

Yule, G. (1996). *Pragmatics*. Oxford University Press.

APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Research Ethics Committee Approvals

BURSA ULUDAĞ ÜNİVERSİTESİ
ARAŞTIRMA VE YAYIN ETİK KURULLARI
(Sosyal ve Beşeri Bilimler Araştırma ve Yayın Etik Kurulu)
TOPLANTISI

OTURUM TARİHİ	OTURUM SAYISI
25 Şubat 2022	**2022-02**

KARAR NO 12: Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü Müdürlüğü'nden alınan Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Ana Bilim Dalı İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Bilim Dalı yüksek lisans programı öğrencisi Ezgi KIYANÇİÇEK'in Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Çiğdem KARATEPE'in danışmanlığımda "Motivasyon ve Edimbilimsel Farkındalık Arasındaki İlişki: İngilizce Öğrenen Türk Öğrenciler Üzerine Bir Vaka Çalışması" konulu tez çalışması kapsamında uygulanacak anket, görüşme ve ölçek sorularının değerlendirilmesine geçildi.

Yapılan görüşmeler sonunda; Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü, Yabancı Diller Eğitimi Ana Bilim Dalı İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Bilim Dalı yüksek lisans programı öğrencisi Ezgi KIYANÇİÇEK'in Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Çiğdem KARATEPE'in danışmanlığımda "Motivasyon ve Edimbilimsel Farkındalık Arasındaki İlişki: İngilizce Öğrenen Türk Öğrenciler Üzerine Bir Vaka Çalışması" konulu tez çalışması kapsamında uygulanacak anket, görüşme ve ölçek sorularının fikri, hukuki ve telif hakları bakımından metot ve ölçeğine ilişkin sorumluluğu başvurucuya ait olmak üzere uygun olduğuna oybirliği ile karar verildi.

Prof. Dr. Feridun YILMAZ
Kurul Başkanı

Prof. Dr. Abamüslim AKDEMİR
Üye

Prof. Dr. Doğan ŞENYÜZ
Üye

Prof. Dr. Ayşe OĞUZLAR
Üye

Prof. Dr. Vejdi BİLGİN
Üye

Prof. Gülay GÖĞÜŞ
Üye

Prof. Dr. Alev SINAR UĞURLU
Üye

Tarih ve Sayı: 09.03.2022-799971

T.C.
İSTANBUL ÜNİVERSİTESİ REKTÖRLÜĞÜ
Sosyal ve Beşeri Bilimler Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu
Başkanlığı

Sayı   :E-35980450-663.05-799971
Konu :Ezgi KIYANÇİÇEK

Sayın Öğr. Gör. Ezgi KIYANÇİÇEK

İlgi   :   10.02.2022 tarihli, 748124 sayılı yazı

Sorumlu araştırıcılığını üstlendiğiniz 2022/41 dosya numaralı "The Relationship between Motivation and Pragmatic Awareness: A Case Study of Turkish EFL Learners (Motivasyon ve Edimbilimsel Farkındalık Arasındaki İlişki: İngilizce Öğrenen Türk Öğrenciler Üzerine Bir Vaka Çalışması)" başlıklı çalışma, Kurulumuzun 21.02.2022 tarih ve 02 sayılı toplantısında görüşülerek etik yönden uygun bulunmuş olup, karar ekte sunulmuştur.

Bilgilerinizi rica ederim.

Prof. Dr. N. Tolga SARUÇ
Başkan

Ek:Sosyal ve Beşeri Bilimler Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu Kararı

Tarih ve Sayı: 03.03.2022-788244

T.C.
İSTANBUL ÜNİVERSİTESİ
SOSYAL VE BEŞERİ BİLİMLER
ARAŞTIRMALARI ETİK KURULU BAŞKANLIĞI

İlgili makama,

Bursa Uludağ Üniversitesi, Eğitim Bilimleri Enstitüsü, İngiliz Dili Eğitimi Tezli Yüksek Lisans Öğrencisi **Ezgi KIYANÇİÇEK** "The Relationship between Motivation and Pragmatic Awareness: A Case Study of Turkish EFL Learners (Motivasyon ve Edimbilimsel Farkındalık Arasındaki İlişki: İngilizce Öğrenen Türk Öğrenciler Üzerine Bir Vaka Çalışması)" başlıklı, **2022/41** dosya numaralı 10.02.2022 tarih ve **748124** sayılı başvurusu ile İ.Ü. Sosyal ve Beşeri Bilimler Araştırmaları Etik Kurulu'na başvurmuştur. 21.02.2022 tarihinde gerçekleşen inceleme sonucunda, adı geçen çalışmada etik açıdan bir sorun olmadığına oybirliği ile karar verilmiştir. Gereğini bilgilerinize saygılarımızla sunarız.

Unvanı / Adı / Soyadı	Kurumu	Araştırma ile ilişki	Karar	İmza
Prof. Dr. Naci Tolga SARUÇ (Başkan)	İktisat Fakültesi	E ⦿ H ⦿	⦿ Onay ⦿ Katılmadı ⦿ Ret ⦿ M.Katılmadı	
Doç. Dr. Çiğdem Börke TUNALI (Başkan Yardımcısı)	İktisat Fakültesi	E ⦿ H ⦿	⦿ Onay ⦿ Katılmadı ⦿ Ret ⦿ M.Katılmadı	
Prof. Dr. Eray YURTSEVEN (Başkan Yardımcısı)	İstanbul Tıp Fakültesi	E ⦿ H ⦿	⦿ Onay ⦿ Katılmadı ⦿ Ret ⦿ M.Katılmadı	
Prof. Dr. Aydın TOPALOĞLU	İlahiyat Fakültesi	E ⦿ H ⦿	⦿ Onay ⦿ Katılmadı ⦿ Ret ⦿ M.Katılmadı	
Prof. Dr. Yasemin IŞIKTAÇ	Hukuk Fakültesi	E ⦿ H ⦿	⦿ Onay ⦿ Katılmadı ⦿ Ret ⦿ M.Katılmadı	
Prof. Dr. Selahattin KARABINAR	İktisat Fakültesi	E ⦿ H ⦿	⦿ Onay ⦿ Katılmadı ⦿ Ret ⦿ M.Katılmadı	
Prof. Dr. Seyhan NİŞEL	İşletme Fakültesi	E ⦿ H ⦿	⦿ Onay ⦿ Katılmadı ⦿ Ret ⦿ M.Katılmadı	
Prof. Dr. Mustafa Hamdi SAYAR	Edebiyat Fakültesi	E ⦿ H ⦿	⦿ Onay ⦿ Katılmadı ⦿ Ret ⦿ M.Katılmadı	
Prof. Dr. Selim YAZICI	Siyasal Bilgiler Fakültesi	E ⦿ H ⦿	⦿ Onay ⦿ Katılmadı ⦿ Ret ⦿ M.Katılmadı	
Prof. Dr. Rasim İlker GÖKBULUT	Ulaştırma ve Lojistik Fakültesi	E ⦿ H ⦿	⦿ Onay ⦿ Katılmadı ⦿ Ret ⦿ M.Katılmadı	
Prof. Dr. Enes KABAKCI	Edebiyat Fakültesi	E ⦿ H ⦿	⦿ Onay ⦿ Katılmadı ⦿ Ret ⦿ M.Katılmadı	
Prof. Dr. Haluk ZÜLFİKAR	İktisat Fakültesi	E ⦿ H ⦿	⦿ Onay ⦿ Katılmadı ⦿ Ret ⦿ M.Katılmadı	
Prof. Dr. Hanife Özlem SERTEL BERK	Edebiyat Fakültesi	E ⦿ H ⦿	⦿ Onay ⦿ Katılmadı ⦿ Ret ⦿ M.Katılmadı	
Doç. Dr. Şerife Sema KARAKELLE	Edebiyat Fakültesi	E ⦿ H ⦿	⦿ Onay ⦿ Katılmadı ⦿ Ret ⦿ M.Katılmadı	
Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Göklem TEKDEMİR YURTDAŞ	Edebiyat Fakültesi	E ⦿ H ⦿	⦿ Onay ⦿ Katılmadı ⦿ Ret ⦿ M.Katılmadı	
Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Bengi PİRİM DÜŞGÖR	Edebiyat Fakültesi	E ⦿ H ⦿	⦿ Onay ⦿ Katılmadı ⦿ Ret ⦿ M.Katılmadı	
Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Ayşe Elif YAVUZ SEVER	Edebiyat Fakültesi	E ⦿ H ⦿	⦿ Onay ⦿ Katılmadı ⦿ Ret ⦿ M.Katılmadı	
Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Mehmet Güven GÜNVER	İstanbul Tıp Fakültesi	E ⦿ H ⦿	⦿ Onay ⦿ Katılmadı ⦿ Ret ⦿ M.Katılmadı	

Appendix 2: Permissions to Use the Questionnaire and the AJT

EZGİ KIYANÇİÇEK <ezgi.icli@istanbul.edu.tr>   10 Aralık Cum 08:56   ☆   ↩   ⋮

Alıcı: mpapi ▾

Dear researcher,

I hope this email finds you well.

This is Ezgi Kıyançiçek from Turkey. I have been working as an English instructor at university level for more than 10 years now and I've been working on my MA in the ELT department. Currently, I have been focusing on my thesis and I would like to use one of your questionnaires from the article called "The L2 motivational self system

among Japanese, Chinese and Iranian learners of English: A comparative study." if possible. I need to get approval from one of the researchers who have written the questionnaire before I use it in my research.

I am looking forward to hearing from you.
Kind regards,
Ezgi

Mostafa Papi   📎 10 Aralık Cum 14:52   ☆   ↩   ⋮

Alıcı: ben ▾

Dear Ezgi, You have my approval to use the questionnaire. I'm also attaching my recent work in this area which also include new questionnaire scales.

All the best,
Mostafa Papi
PhD | Assistant Professor
Second & Foreign Language Education | School of Teacher Education
College of Education | Florida State University
1114 W. Call St
G129 Stone Building
Tallahassee, FL 32306
mpapi@fsu.edu
850.644.0370

Permission to use a questionnaire

Report message · Block user

‹ Back to list

Ezgi Kıyançiçek　　　　20 days ago

◄　Inbox
　　Read messages
　　Unread messages

━　Sent

━　Archive

Dear researcher,

I hope this email finds you well.
This is Ezgi Kıyançiçek from Turkey. I have been working as an English instructor at university level for more than 10 years now and I've been working on my MA in the ELT department. Currently, I have been focusing on my thesis and I would like to use the questionnaire that you adapted in your study called "Pragmatic awareness and second language learning motivation" if possible. I need to get approval from one of the researchers who have written the questionnaire before I use it in my research.

I am looking forward to hearing from you.
Kind regards,
Ezgi

Wei Ren to you　　　　20 days ago

Dear Ezgi,
Thanks for your message. I am happy for you to use our adapted questionnaire, as long as it is cited properly.

Best
Wei

Appendix 3: Questionnaire Factors and Items with Cronbach Alpha Values

Factors	Items	α
Criterion measures / Intended Learning Efforts (CM)	7. If my teacher would give the class an optional assignment, I would certainly volunteer to do it. 16. I would like to spend lots of time studying English. 24. I am prepared to expend a lot of effort in learning English. 33. I think that I am doing my best to learn English.	0.639
Ideal L2 self (IL2S)	5. I can imagine myself living abroad and having a discussion in English. 9. I can imagine myself speaking English with international friends or colleagues. 13. I can imagine myself speaking English as if I were a native speaker of English. 22. I can imagine myself studying in a university where all my courses are taught in English. 25. Whenever I think of my future career, I imagine myself using English. 31. I imagine myself as someone who is able to speak English.	0.842
Ought-to L2 self (OL2S)	6. If I fail to learn English, I'll be letting other people down. 14. I consider learning English important because the people I respect think that I should do it. 15. It will have a negative impact on my life if I don't learn English. 23. Studying English is important to me because other people will respect me more if I have a knowledge of English. 26. Studying English is important to me because an educated person is supposed to be able to speak English. 32. Studying English is important to me in order to gain the approval of my peers/teachers/family/boss.	0.747
Instrumentality (Ins.)	4. Studying English can be important to me because I think it will someday be useful in getting a good job.	0.554

	12. Studying English is important to me in order to achieve a special goal (e.g. to get a degree or scholarship). 20. Studying English is important to me because I am planning to study abroad. 21. Studying English is necessary for me because I don't want to get a poor score or a fail mark in English proficiency tests (TOEFL, IELTS,. . .). 29. Studying English can be important to me because I think I'll need it for further studies. 30. Studying English is important to me in order to attain higher social respect.	
Attitudes to learning English (ALE)	3. I find learning English really interesting. 8. I really enjoy learning English. 17. I always look forward to English classes. 27. I think time passes faster while studying English.	0.772
Attitudes to L2 community (AL2C)	2. I would like to travel to English-speaking countries. 11. I like meeting people from English-speaking countries. 19. I would like to know more about people from English-speaking countries.	0.621
Cultural interest (CI)	1. I like English films. 10. I like English magazines, newspapers, or books. 18. I like TV programmes made in English-speaking countries. 28. I like the music of English-speaking countries (e.g. pop music).	0.721

Appendix 4: Appropriateness Judgement Tasks (AJT)

Directions: In this part, there are ten short conversations between Peter and his classmates or teachers. Peter is from Italy. His English is sometimes proper but sometimes there will be a problem.

Your job is to grade Peter's performance and indicate your score on the rating scale between 1-6. How appropriate was Peter's use of English in different conversations? Please circle your score to indicate its appropriateness level.

Yönerge: Bu bölümde, Peter ve sınıf arkadaşları ya da öğretmenleri arasında geçen 10 kısa konuşma bulunmaktadır. İtalyan asıllı olan Peter'ın İngilizcesi bazen düzgün iken bazen sorunlu olabiliyor.

Bu kısımda yapmanız gereken, Peter'ın farklı diyaloglarda İngilizceyi ne kadar uygun kullandığını derecelendirme ölçeğini kullanarak 1 (en uygun OLMAYAN) ve 6 (en uygun OLAN) arasında değerlendirmektir. Lütfen uygunluk düzeyini gösteren sayıyı işaretleyiniz.

Most inappropriate   1 2 3 4 5 6   **Most appropriate**

En uygun olmayan   1 2 3 4 5 6   **En uygun olan**

1. Directions Peter needs directions to the library. He asks another student. A: Hi. P: Hi. ! P: #Tell me how to get to the library. **Most inappropriate** 1 2 3 4 5 6 **Most appropriate**
2. Snack bar Peter goes to the snack bar to get something to eat before class. W: May I help you? ! P: #Would you be so kind as to give me a sandwich and a yogurt please? **Most inappropriate** 1 2 3 4 5 6 **Most appropriate**
3. Class trip The teacher asks Peter to help with the plans for the class trip. T: OK, so we'll go by bus. Who lives near the bus station? Peter, could you check the bus

times for us on the way home tonight.

! P: #No, I can't tonight. Sorry.

Most inappropriate   1   2   3   4   5   6 **Most appropriate**

---

4. Not ready

It is Peter's day to give his talk in class, but he is not ready.

T: Thank you Steven, that was very interesting. Peter, it's your turn to give your talk.

! P: #I can't do it today but I will do it next week.

Most inappropriate   1   2   3   4   5   6 **Most appropriate**

---

5. Late

Peter is going to George's house. He is quite late.

P: Hi George.

G: Hi Peter. I've been waiting for over half an hour for you. Weren't we supposed to meet at 4?

! P: #I couldn't come earlier. And anyway, we don't have to hurry anywhere.

Most inappropriate   1   2   3   4   5   6 **Most appropriate**

---

6. Busy teacher

Peter goes to see his teacher at his office. When he arrives, his teacher is busy.

P: (knocks on the door)

T: Yes, come in.

P: Hello, Professor Millar. Are you busy?

T: Erm … I'm afraid so. Could you come back later?

! P: #OK, I'll be here tomorrow morning at 10.

Most inappropriate   1   2   3   4   5   6 **Most appropriate**

---

7. Questionnaire

Peter goes to ask his teacher to fill in a questionnaire. He knocks on the office door.

P: (knocks on the door)

T: Yes, come in.

! P: # Hello. My name is Peter. If you don't mind, I would like you to fill this in for me.

Most inappropriate   1   2   3   4   5   6 **Most appropriate**

8. Library book

George is going to the library. Peter asks him to return a library book.

G: Well, I'll see you later. I've got to go to the library to return my books.

! P: Oh, if you are going to the library, can you please return my book too?

Most inappropriate   1   2   3   4   5   6 **Most appropriate**

9. Forgotten book

Peter has borrowed a book from his teacher. His teacher needs it back, but Peter has forgotten to return it.

T: Peter, have you brought back the book I gave you yesterday?

! P: Oh, I'm very sorry, I completely forgot. Can I give it to you tomorrow?

Most inappropriate   1   2   3   4   5   6 **Most appropriate**

10. Invitation

George invites Peter to his house but Peter cannot come.

G: Peter, would you like to come over this afternoon?

! P: I'm sorry, I'd really like to come but I have a difficult history test tomorrow.

Most inappropriate   1   2   3   4   5   6 **Most appropriate**

Appendix 5: Interview Questions

The Relationship between Motivation and Pragmatic Awareness: A Case Study of Turkish EFL Learners (Motivasyon ve Edimbilimsel Farkındalık Arasındaki İlişki: İngilizce Öğrenen Türk Öğrenciler Üzerine Bir Vaka Çalışması)

1. Bir üniversite öğrencisi olarak İngilizceyi hangi amaç için öğreniyorsunuz? İngilizce öğrenmeyi gerçekten istiyor musunuz?

2. Hayatınızda İngilizcenizi geliştirmek için sizi yeterince motive eden etken var mı? Bir hayal veya gelecek için bir plan gibi. Dil öğrenme motivasyonunu en çok etkileyen faktörler nelerdir?

3. İngilizce öğrenme sürecinde, sizce öğrenciler öncelikli olarak dilin hangi öğelerini öğrenmeliler? Örneğin dil bilgisi, kelime, etkin dil kullanımı, konuşma, vb.

4. Yabancı dil öğrenme sürecinde en çok hangi alanda kendinizi geliştirmek istersiniz ya da hangi alanda geliştirmek için çabalıyorsunuz?

5. Bu amaç için ders dışında ne gibi çalışmalar yapıyorsunuz? Bunların dil öğrenme sürecinize etkisi nasıl olmuştur?

6. Sizce İngilizce konuşurken ya da yazarken duruma uygun şekilde bir üslup ve tarz kullanmak ne kadar önemlidir? Neden?

7. Kendinizin İngilizce yazarken ya da konuşurken duruma uygun şekilde bir üslup kullandığınızı düşünüyor musunuz?

8. İngilizce kullanarak iletişim kurduğunuz yabancı arkadaşlarınız var mı? Kendileriyle iletişim kurarken, duruma uyacak doğru dil yapıları ve sözcük kullanmadığınız için iletişim sorunları yaşadığınız oldu mu? Bir örnek verebilir misiniz?

9. İçinde bulunduğunuz duruma uygun dili kullanma becerisi nasıl öğrenilebilir? Hangi kaynaklar size yardımcı olabilir? Bu konuda neler yapmanız gerektiğini düşünüyorsunuz?

10. Sizin bu konuda kendinizi geliştirmenizi engelleyen faktörler nelerdir?

11. Ölçekte yer alan ifadelerin uygunluğunu değerlendirirken hangi kriterlere dikkat ettiniz? İfadelerin uygun olup olmadığına neye göre karar verdiniz?

ÖZ GEÇMİŞ			
Adı-Soyadı	Ezgi KIYANÇİÇEK		
Bildiği Yabancı Diller	Ingilizce		
Eğitim Durumu	Başlama	Bitirme	Kurum Adı
Lise	2003	2007	Tunceli Anadolu Öğretmen Lisesi
Lisans	2007	2011	İstanbul Üniversitesi
Yüksek Lisans	2020	2023	Bursa Uludağ
Çalışma Durumu	Başlama	Ayrılma	Çalışılan Kurumun Adı
1.	2011	2016	Nişantaşı Üniversitesi
2.	2016	-	İstanbul Üniversitesi
Yayınlar:	Kiyancicek, E. (2021). Can we really interact? *Professional English Magazine Online, 7,* 40-43. Kiyancicek, E., & Uzun, L. (2021). Gamification in English Language Classrooms: The Case of Kahoot!. *Bilim Eğitim Sanat ve Teknoloji Dergisi*, *6*(1), 1-13.		
			03.01.2023 Ezgi KIYANÇİÇEK