How Qualitative Inquiry Can Enlighten Instructional Pragmatics: An Example from a Case of Teaching Implicatures

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ABSTRACT
Pragmatic competence is a constituent of overall communicative ability, and within pragmatic competence, implicature comprehension is itself a constituent. This generates studies on teaching implicature comprehension, most of which are lacking in qualitative probes into how attributable the ensuing performance changes are to the instructional materials and procedures themselves. Nevertheless, effective assessment of pedagogical interventions/innovations would require experimental studies to be adopted along with qualitative research for in-depth understanding from participants’ perspective. In this regard, through semi-structured retrospective interviews, the current study investigated how far and in what ways the performance changes after a project on teaching implicatures via film could be ascribed to the treatment itself. The content analysis results indicate that the performance changes originated mainly from the instruction and illuminate the share of the filmic materials as the innovative component there. On account of these, with its epistemological approach enabling triangulation, the study contributes to instructional pragmatics by providing an exemplary practice of quality assurance in teaching implicature comprehension/interpretation.

KEYWORDS: English Language Teaching, Implicature, Pragmatic Comprehension, Pragmatic Instruction, Qualitative Method.

“She ought to have known that one can’t write like that to an idiot like you, for you’d be sure to take it literally” (Dostoyevsky, 2017, p. 338). The wisdom in those disparaging remarks in Dostoyevsky’s novel “The Idiot” addressed to Prince Myshkin by Aglaya Yepanchin relate to the significance of being able to comprehend the intended meanings when they are shadowed by the surface meanings of words. In decades, such precocious but insightful perspectives referring to pragmatics, the study of communicated and interpreted meaning in a particular context (Yule, 1996), became reflected in the conceptualizations of what is required by being a competent language user (Bachman, 1990; Bachman & Palmer, 1996; Canale & Swain, 1981). Within the current notion of communicative competence in languages, pragmatic competence, i.e., dynamic knowledge to comprehend and utilize intended meanings in variable contexts (Taguchi & Roever, 2017), is a vital constituent (Chen, 2017; Moghaddam et al., 2020). Accordingly, pragmatic competence is currently acknowledged as one of the descriptors in the Common European Framework of Reference for Languages (CEFR) (Council of Europe, 2001, 2018), a set of standards in foreign language education that has attained the status of a global language education policy (Nguyen & Hamid, 2020). These all make it also a worthy aim of teaching efforts for lecturers (Lwanga-Lumu, 2020).

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Within the study of pragmatics itself, the focus has been on speech acts (requests, refusals, apologies, compliments and so forth) and to a lesser extent on the other areas (Bardovi-Harlig & Shin, 2014; Hadiati, 2019; Rodgers, 2017) including implicatures, despite the fact that they have proved troublesome for learners even in L2 settings (Alsmari, 2020; Bouton, 1994; Nigar, 2019; Taguchi, 2011). When we limit the scope to the relatively few studies on implicature comprehension, we see that those with a qualitative focus on the processes that lead to the resulting interpretations (Köylü, 2018; Malmir & Derakhshan, 2020; Taguchi et al., 2016) are not in the majority. The even greater scarcity is related to studies that aim to teach comprehending implicatures, such as those of Abdelhafez (2016), Bouton (1994) and Derakhshan and Eslami (2020), in that they are not designed to qualitatively investigate the extent to which the post-treatment performance changes can be attributed to the instructional procedures themselves. Nevertheless, in order to effectively assess any pedagogical innovation, experimental studies need to be adopted along with qualitative research (Ryoo, 2013) for the grasp of a more in-depth understanding from the participants’ viewpoint (Baleghizadeh & Jafari, 2020). For such assessment work, single methods, either quantitative or qualitative alone, may prove inadequate given the complexity of quality assurance in educational institutions (Kígozi, 2020).

Regardless of whether the empirical focus is merely on interpretation or interpretation after instruction, provided that the under-researched nature of pragmatic comprehension and underlying processes are discovered in depth, it can be easier to facilitate the development of pragmatic competence (Malmir & Derakhshan, 2020) with intercultural training and policy making (Nigar, 2019). Accordingly, in order to have a role in bridging the abovementioned research gap, this qualitative study was carried out to investigate the pragmatic comprehension strategies launched after a project on teaching implicature (Cetinavci, 2018, 2019; Cetinavci & Ozturk, 2017) and to reveal how attributable the performance changes were to the instructional assets. These had been developed by the researcher as an innovative product meant to be useful for any English language teaching or teacher training program concerned to help students enhance their pragmatic competence.

**Literature Review**

Hymes’ (1972) formulation of communicative competence, which highlights the social aspects of language use against the abstract linguistic competence in Chomsky (1965), was expanded over the years by Canale and Swain (1981), Bachman (1990) and Bachman and Palmer’s (1996) sub-categorizations. Pragmatic knowledge took its prominent place there, referring to abilities needed to create and interpret discourse in due consideration of illocutions and language use contexts (Bagarić & Djuginović, 2007). Recent decades have strengthened the position of pragmatic competence in terms of the theories and practices on learning, teaching and assessment of languages. The CEFR (Council of Europe, 2001, 2018), which is widely used in the design of language curricula, teaching materials and examinations, includes it as one of the three basic components of communicative competence. Nevertheless, the pertinent literature suggests an air of neglect about handling pragmatics as a teaching/learning target (Hu, 2014; Nguyen, 2011; Segueni, 2014), despite the fact that pragmatic failures, unlike grammatical errors, are sometimes not recognized as such and attributed to impoliteness or unfriendliness (Economidou-Kogetsidis, 2015; Thomas, 1983). Within the study of pragmatics itself, the descriptive and instructional focus has been on direct and/or productive speech acts and to a lesser extent on the other areas (Bardovi-Harlig & Shin, 2014; Hadiati, 2019; Rodgers, 2017). Apart from this domain-specific perspective, when the dearth of research in the pragmatic literature is viewed from a skill- or construct-based standpoint, pragmatic comprehension proves to be an under-researched construct, mostly because it is not palpable and is more difficult to study when compared to pragmatic production (Malmir & Derakhshan,
When the scantiness of studies is examined in specific terms of pragmatic comprehension, comprehending implicatures/implied meanings/indirectness come to the fore as one of the main components of pragmatics (Levinson, 1983), referring to cases where what is meant is distinct from what is uttered (Davis, 2007). This scarcity is particularly worth noting in light of the fact that the few pertinent studies demonstrate a considerable number of variables operant on the processes of deciphering indirectness in any language. Pragmatic comprehension correlates with language proficiency level (Köylü, 2018; Nigar, 2019; Taguchi, 2002), pragmalinguistic knowledge, temporal/spatial features and sociopragmatic norms (Taguchi, 2011). In such a variety of determining factors, several bottom-up/top-down processing strategies for cognition (Malmir & Derakhshan, 2020) can facilitate the decoding of utterances, and various non-linguistic/linguistic assets are utilizable for the interpretation of implied meanings (Taguchi et al., 2016). Some of these are contextual information, who the initiator of the interaction is, what words are chosen to tap formality/informality, and why and how speech is left incomplete (Garcia, 2004). In terms of the variables that might specifically thwart pragmatic comprehension on the other hand, Perez (2017) found that linguistic markers to enhance or mitigate the effects of indirect refusals proved disadvantageous for Spanish-English bilinguals with a short period of stay in the L2 context.

As mentioned earlier, the literature reports an air of neglect about handling pragmatics as a teaching target. Predictably enough in view of the aforementioned research gaps, teaching implied meanings is not exempt from that. This scarcity could be deemed highly questionable on account of the fact that implicature can be an absolutely “unremarkable and ordinary” conversational strategy (Green, 1989, p. 92), far from being a rhetorical trick that only clever and accomplished writers and conversationalists use (Green, 1996). In the same vein, McTear (2004) asserted that indirectly conveyed meanings are a very important aspect of conversational competence because people often use indirect language for a variety of purposes such as being sarcastic or softening a request. In this regard, assisting learners in comprehending indirectness should be considered an action of fair play by giving them a fighting chance (Yoshida, 2013), for L2 learners often show an inclination for literal interpretation - that is, taking utterances at face value in lieu of deducing what is meant from what is uttered (Kasper, 1997a).

In terms of the relatively few studies on teaching implicatures (Abdelhafez, 2016; Blight, 2002; Bouton, 1994; Broersma, 1994; Derakhshan & Eslami, 2020; Kubota, 1995), the dearth of research parallels the studies on implicature comprehension (Bouton, 1988; Cetinavci, 2018; Lee, 2002; Mohammadzadeh et al., 2019; Rızaoğlu & Yavuz, 2017) in that their methodological scope tends to remain circumscribed with a quantitative approach. After an instructional treatment, they investigate how big the statistical difference is in participants’ comprehension of implied meanings. Consequently, the findings are understood with the etic (researchers’/readers’, thus outsider’s) view as opposed to the emic (participants’, thus insider’s) one, the latter of which can be provided by interpretive qualitative research (Merriam, 2009) necessary for gaining an understanding of the actors’ meanings for actions (Davis, 1995). The two views in question are not predestined to be mutually exclusive, however. Contrarily, their combination would meet the requirements of triangulation in social sciences research, i.e. the coexistence of qualitative and quantitative methods in the study of a phenomenon (Denzin, 1978), and provide an operational vehicle cross-validating that two or more distinct methods are found to be consistent with each other and present comparable data (Jick, 1979). This can help not only to obtain answers about frequencies but also to discover what occurs in what way (Honigmann, 1982). Implementing triangulation with mixed-method designs improves data reliability (Geluykens, 2007) as well, which would be a response to over-reliance on quantitative data also in pragmatics studies (Kasper & Rose, 1999), and in terms of research on instructional pragmatics, provide “a clearer insight into students’ perceptions of the benefits of the instruction” (Halenko & Jones, 2011, p. 243). As mentioned before, reliance on quantitative data is dominant specifically in comprehension- or instruction-oriented implicature studies as
well, which can be overcome by triangulation using retrospective interviews with participants to learn why they chose particular modes of interpretation in the quantitative instruments (Nigar, 2019). Given the aforementioned learner, contextual, linguistic and social variables that exert decisive influences upon pragmatic comprehension (Malmir & Derakhshian, 2020; Taguchi, 2017), such procedures with the potential of qualitative inquiry to identify unanticipated influences (Maxwell, 1998) can also help discover the issues of positive or negative transfer to comprehension arising from universal or first language conventions (Taguchi & Yamaguchi, 2019).

In view of what has been outlined heretofore, and given that the aim was to complement a project for teaching implicatures (Cetinavci, 2018, 2019; Cetinavci & Ozturk, 2017) with qualitative inquiry, the implied meanings designated to be covered for research were those defined as formulaic, thus teachable implicatures in Bouton’s (1994) seminal work. These are based on a formula of some sort crucial to effective interpretation, which might prove exceedingly difficult for learners and not susceptible to exposure effects (Bouton, 1994; Nigar, 2019). In accordance with this, Cetinavci’s (2018) study revealed significant differences between native speakers and teacher trainees of English in favor of the former in terms of both accuracy and speed in the interpretation of formulaic implied meanings. As documented earlier in the text, the related literature has been corroborative in that respect with the mention of a considerable number of interrelated variables operating on the processes of deciphering indirectness (Garcia, 2004; Malmir & Derakhshian, 2020; Perez, 2017; Taguchi, 2002, 2011; Taguchi et al., 2016). On the other hand, as hinted above, another key finding in Bouton’s studies (Bouton, 1994, 1999) was that formulaic implicatures can be taught, which would call for comprehensive instructional studies as the project in question is. In this regard, the covered implied meanings, which are Pope Questions, Indirect Criticism, Verbal Irony, Indirect Refusals, Topic Change, Disclosures, Indirect Requests and Indirect Advice (Bouton, 1994, 1999; Colston, 2000; Matsumura, 2001, 2007; Rinnert & Kobayashi, 1999; Roever, 2005; Taguchi, 2005), were either ones that had already been reported as formulaic in the related literature or those that were tested and mostly confirmed in terms of being formulaic and teachable (Cetinavci, 2019; Cetinavci & Ozturk, 2017) (see the Appendices for exemplificative figures on the steps taken to teach the covered implicatures).

Overall, most of the studies in L2 pragmatics have focused on direct and/or productive speech acts and to a lesser extent on the other areas including implicatures. In specific terms of pragmatic skills, the body of research has been reported to be underrepresenting pragmatic comprehension. When these inadequacies are viewed concurrently, the dearth of research on comprehending implicature comes to light naturally. From an instructional standpoint, the literature reports the neglect about making pragmatics a teaching target as another gap, from which teaching implicature is not excluded. In specific terms of the studies on teaching implicature, the dearth of research parallels the ones on comprehension because their methodological scope tends to remain restricted with a quantitative approach. Moreover, no comprehensive study can be referred to about how an instructional study on implied meanings can be triangulated with qualitative methods to investigate the participants’ post-treatment interpretation strategies (Nigar, 2019) with the purpose of crosschecking the effectiveness of instructional assets together with the identification of unanticipated influences (Maxwell, 1998) and diverse perspectives (Ivankova & Creswell, 2009). In order to effectively assess any pedagogical innovation, however, experimental studies need to be adopted along with qualitative research (Ryoo, 2013) for the grasp of a more in-depth understanding from the participants’ viewpoint (Baleghizadeh & Jafari, 2020; Halenko & Jones, 2011). This would facilitate having useful insights into the relationships between variables, generating theories and developing new instruments (Ivankova & Creswell, 2009), for which single methods, either quantitative or qualitative alone, may prove inadequate given the complexity of quality assurance in educational settings (Kigozi, 2020). Mixed methods research, on the other hand,
has a great potential in the quest for accountability for educational quality (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004). Accordingly, in order to contribute to filling the abovementioned research gaps with an exemplary practice of quality assurance in teaching implicature comprehension, this qualitative study investigated the interpretation strategies after a project on teaching implicature (Cetinavci, 2018, 2019; Cetinavci & Ozturk, 2017) and revealed how attributable the performance changes were to the instructional kit itself, which had been intended as a tangible innovative product for enhancing pragmatic competence.

**Purpose of the Study**

The current study was preceded by a large project. It harbors the development of an online test to investigate implicature comprehension (Cetinavci & Ozturk, 2017), comparing teacher trainees with native speakers in terms of implicature comprehension (Cetinavci, 2018) and teaching implicature via filmic materials (Cetinavci, 2019) (see the Appendices). The purpose of this complementary study was to reveal with a qualitative approach the extent to which the performance changes in the quantitative data (Cetinavci, 2019) could be attributed to the instructional phase. The basis of the treatment was explicit metapragmatic instruction, i.e. making a pragmatic feature the object of treatment through conscious explanation or discussion (Kasper, 2001), which had proved superior to implicit methods (Blight, 2002; Bouton, 1994, 1999; Cetinavci, 2019; Jeon & Kaya, 2006; Kubota, 1995; Taguchi, 2015; Takahashi, 2010). The reinforcement was provided with filmic materials as the innovation in teaching formulaic implicatures. Within this framework, the research questions that guided the study were formulated as follows:

1. How effective is the metapragmatic guidance of the instruction in helping learners to reach the favored interpretations?
2. How effective are the filmic materials in supporting learners to reach the favored interpretations?

**Method**

**Research Design**

With semi-structured retrospective interviews complementary to the aforementioned project (Cetinavci, 2018, 2019; Cetinavci & Ozturk, 2017), which had yielded a substantial number of quantitative results, the current study employed a qualitative approach. The rationale behind this was to bridge the gap that motivated this study — i.e. providing explanations as to “how” favored or disfavored interpretations arise, identifying the influences that affect the comprehension processes and substantiating the data on the efficiency of instructional studies. This is a challenge that can be met with research in the qualitative paradigm, for it helps discover what occurs in what way and the relationships between the occurrences (Honigmann, 1982). Interviewing, in more specific terms, promised to provide deep, descriptive data as it allowed participants to articulate their reasoning patterns throughout the course of solving multiple-choice questions (Kolomitro et al., 2020), which was the source of the abovementioned quantitative data. Finalizing the project with such qualitative steps also enabled triangulation with mixed-methods, which refers to the combination of qualitative and quantitative methods in the study of the same phenomenon with comparable data from different sources for improved validity and reliability (Creswell & Clark, 2017; Denzin, 1978).
Participants

The participants of the current study were 1st year EFL teacher trainees aged between 18 and 21 at a mid-size university in the north-western part of Turkey. They were chosen from the wider group of the project (Cetinavci, 2018, 2019) according to some particular criteria. The sampling strategy can be considered “purposeful”, where the investigator aims to select a sample that will provide information-rich cases from which a good deal can be learnt on the important issues for the purpose of the inquiry (Patton, 2002). Accordingly, the essential attribute for meeting the selection criterion was determined as being among the experimental group participants who had improved their performance on each implicature in terms of the pretest and posttest results. To specify the rationale behind this, we can state that the progress of such participants in each implicature type promised wider-ranging discussions on whether and how the instruction could help learners respond to the challenges.

When the selected participants were contacted two weeks after the posttest during their summer holiday, eight were found to be still staying in the city of the university. They were requested to meet for an in-depth interview. All complied and were interviewed in four days. One was for piloting, and the data provided by the rest were taken for analysis.

Data Collection

At the beginning of the interviews, the interviewees were informed that the talk would be taped, and their consent was obtained. The focus was on the test items from each implicature type where the interviewees did well in the posttest while they had failed in the pretest. The interviews were conducted mostly in Turkish, as the participants preferred it so. They all began with an introductory statement, as in the following:

...I have some items where you failed on your first try and did well in the second test. I aim to learn your reasoning process about each to see what made you select the favored options in the second go...

After the introduction above, the item-by-item queries were made based on the template below:

For item ..., you firstly chose option ..., but in the second test, you chose ... for it, which is the favored one. Now read the item once again. Try to remember as much as you can about it, and tell me the steps of thinking you followed to arrive at the conclusion on your second try.

After this stimulus, in line with the flexible and evolving design characteristics of qualitative studies where interviewing is dependent on open-ended questions that can be followed up with probes for more detail (Merriam, 2009), the rest of the conversation was shaped according to the response of each interviewee. When the participants explained the steps, they followed to reach a favored conclusion, no further explanation was demanded if their explanation matched the one given in the treatment about the implied meaning type under discussion. They were only asked if they remembered having obtained help from at least one of the clips that they saw as related implementations. When the answer was “Yes”, they were asked in steps to explain how the implicature worked in that particular example and how it applied to the one in the test item being discussed. When the participants tried but were not able to refer to any clip, they were given clues about one of the clips as to the characters and context in it. When they remembered, as in the abovementioned procedure, they were asked to explain
how the implied meaning worked in that example and how it applied to the one in the test item under discussion. When they did not remember, the other related clips were tried.

When the participants’ explanations of their route to a favored conclusion was thought to be significantly different from the one suggested in the treatment, they were asked if they could explain the route given in the treatment as well. In addition, just as in the way mentioned above, they were asked if they remembered having obtained help from at least one of the clips shown as related implementations. When the answer was “Yes”, they were asked in steps to explain how the implied meaning worked in that example and how it applied to the one in the test item being discussed. When none was recalled, the participants were given clues about one of the clips as to the characters and context in it. When the clip was remembered, the abovementioned procedure was followed for it. In case of no recollection, the other related clips were tried one by one.

When the participants directly mentioned an item of filmic material that they benefited from, they were asked in steps to elaborate on how the implied meaning exactly worked in that clip and in what way they drew a parallelism between the clip and the test item being discussed. In addition, they were asked whether it was possible for them to come up with the general explanation given in the treatment about the implied meaning in question.

The aim of the abovementioned queries was to crosscheck that the positive performance changes could be attributable mainly to the gains brought by the instruction. Questions for confirmation were asked, but special care was taken to avoid excessive technical jargon, to avoid asking multiple questions at one go, and to leave no “yes-no response” without a “probe” in the form of “asking for more details or clarification” (Merriam, 2009, pp. 100-101), which had already been tried out in the pilot interview.

**Data Analysis**

With the outline in mind provided by the queries for crosschecking, the records were transcribed, perused and coded to break the data down into self-contained units and then assign them to wider categories (Dey, 1993). During this content analysis process, where the saliency and frequency of semantic clusters were identified (Dey, 1993; Namey et al., 2008), the units (subcategories) were continually compiled in terms of being semantically related steps of reasoning and/or responding to queries, which provided the wider categories. For deciding to cease that phase of investigation, the criterion was for the data to become saturated in that the categories proved to be exhaustive, according to which the researcher was able to place all relevant data in a category or subcategory (Merriam, 2009). When they were all obtained and processed, an analysis template was also ready to tally the frequencies and calculate the percentages. In order to address the validity and reliability issues regarding those processes, the adopted strategy was “peer examination”, where a knowledgeable colleague is asked to scan some of the raw data and assess whether the findings are plausible (Merriam, 2009, p. 220). Accordingly, the colleague who had monitored the development of the quantitative data collection instrument of the project and was knowledgeable also about the rest of the research performed the acts of categorization and tallying on approximately half of the raw data. That step gave an agreement rate of over 94% with the researcher. The discrepancies were resolved with bilateral discussion, and the entire data were included for analysis.

The units (subcategories) and the ensuing categories defined with the abovementioned procedures are presented below in tables in order of frequency, together with the results related to which one of them occurred on how many occasions about which item type.
Results and Discussion

As displayed in Table 1, out of 19, eight occurrences were for “indirect criticism”, which had been found in the quantitative analyses as the most problematic implied meaning type for the participants. This is followed by “topic change” and “indirect request” with four and three occurrences, respectively. Two occurrences were for “irony”, and one each was for “indirect advice” and “Pope Questions”.

Table 1

| Category A | Frequency (f) and percentage (%) by implied meaning type (t) | Total frequency and percentage as to the sum of the items discussed (n= 57) |
|------------|-------------------------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Reaching the favored conclusion with steps (roughly) matching the ones given in the treatment + | f: 8, %: 42.1, Indirect criticism | f: 19, %: 33.3 |
| Remembering having obtained help from the filmic materials used in the instructional treatment + Explaining how the implied meaning worked in a particular filmic example as well | f: 4, %: 21.05, Topic change | |
| | f: 3, %: 15.7, Indirect requests | |
| | f: 2, %: 10.5, Irony | |
| | f: 1, %: 5.2, Indirect advice | |
| | f: 1, %: 5.2, Pope questions | |

With an overall look, we see that this category was established for one-third (n=19) of the total of the item-by-item interviews (n=57), which generates the most frequent occurrence of all. Moreover, it was employed for six of the seven implied meaning types about which the participants had quantitatively made progress in interpretation. Considering the argument that Category A would be the one with the most direct references to the instruction, the findings above could be viewed as being highly in favor of the benefits of the treatment. To make what has been presented clearer, a transcription from this route is given below (all the participant names in the text are used with permission). This is exemplified for an “indirect request” with the transcription of an interview extract where the talk turns to a scene from “Friends”, in which the character called “Ross” is preparing to fly to London to marry a British girl named “Emily” there. Emily liked a wedding dress in London, but she could not find one in her size. Ross learned from her that a store in New York has the dress in the right size; however, he thinks it is inauspicious for a groom to see the dress before the wedding ceremony. He is talking about all this to his close friends:
**Researcher:** So, you say this is an indirect request. Do you remember the logic behind the way indirect requests are made?

**Kubra:** Um...

**Researcher:** Well, as a matter of fact, we don’t make indirect requests by saying whatever we like. We use expressions with a certain logic. Do you remember anything about that?

**Kubra:** Well, what I think is ... you just talk about your problem .. or the object of it .. to ask for help.

**Researcher:** Ok. Do you remember any example about it? From the films, TV series or ..

**Kubra:** I do! I dare say ... we once again watched a scene from a TV series, from the TV series “Friends”. There we had ... he was about to get married ..

**Researcher:** Ross?

**Kubra:** Ross, that’s right! And, the wedding dress of the girl he was to get married to was in America, if my memory serves me correctly. Well, because he thought seeing the wedding dress before the ceremony would bring bad luck .. by just giving this excuse, he made a .. request. He didn’t say it directly, but once again, indirectly.

**Researcher:** Yes. Not by saying anything like “Could you go and get the wedding dress for me?” to anybody, but by just hinting or implying ..

**Kubra:** Yeah, by just hinting, implying.

**Researcher:** By just mentioning the problematic situation he is in ..

**Kubra:** He asked for help, in a way.

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**Table 2**

*Category B and the Item Types for which it was Adopted*

| Category B | Frequency (f) and percentage (%) by implied meaning type (t) | Total frequency and percentage as to the sum of the items discussed (n= 57) |
|------------|-------------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------|
| Reaching the favored conclusion (roughly) matching the ones given in the treatment | f | % | t | f | % |
| + Being unable to refer to any item of filmic material used in the instructional treatment, thus obtaining clues about one of these as to the characters and context in it | 3 | 23.07 | Indirect criticism | 13 | 22.8 |
| + | 3 | 23.07 | Irony | |
| + | 2 | 15.3 | Indirect requests | |
| + | 2 | 15.3 | Indirect advice | |
| + | 2 | 15.3 | Topic change | |
| + | 1 | 7.6 | Disclosure | |
As seen in Table 2, among the 13 occurrences, three were for both “indirect criticism” and “irony”. Two occurrences each were detected for “indirect requests”, “indirect advice” and “topic change”. One was found to have been used for “disclosure”.

With a wider perspective, one can see that this category emerged in about 23% of all the item-by-item interviews, which renders it the second best. Besides, we see that nearly half of its occurrences were for “indirect criticism” and “irony”, about which the quantitative analyses suggest that the treatment solved some really pressing interpretation problems. Considering the argument that Category B, like “A”, has direct references to the instructional treatment, the abovementioned findings could be deemed to be highly in favor of the treatment.

As a transcription from this route of reasoning, an interview extract is given below on a particular test item on “irony”, which includes a female speaker who profusely thanks the male listener for “doing almost nothing” when she needed help for her house move. As will be illustrated, the talk turns to a scene from “Friends” where the actor Charlie Sheen plays a naval officer called “Ryan” working in submarines. The group of close friends meets him at a café as the new lover of a friend of theirs. They ask questions to Ryan to learn about submarines; however, the problem is that Ryan is not talkative at all:

**Researcher:** And this item. You chose “B” in the first test. In the second one at the end of the semester, you went for “D”, which is OK. Once again, please tell me about the system of thinking that led you to the favored option, step by step.

**Onur:** Well, this time .. Um, I don’t know how I can explain it, but ... Um, it’s like saying “you’ve been of great help, thank you very much”. Saying just the opposite thing as if it were a good thing, she states her original intention. This is what I remember. Reading it again here, I am led straight to option “D” now.

**Researcher:** OK. This is called “verbal irony”, which is, just like you have mentioned it, “saying just the opposite of what you really mean.”

**Onur:** Uh huh.

**Researcher:** Well, while responding to the item, while you were being led to the favored option, did you remember any scene from the TV series or films that you had watched?

**Onur:** Um...

**Researcher:** Even if you don’t remember which specific scene, do you at least remember that you remembered a scene?

**Onur:** I do. There was a sentence .. from “Friends.” I’m not sure about it or if it is the right example, but I remember keeping that in mind.

**Researcher:** Uh huh. About this, I mean, about this implied meaning type .. irony, which is “saying just the opposite of what you really mean”, I let you watch some clips like this: The group in “Friends” met a submarine naval officer..

**Onur:** Yeah, one said “how enjoyable it’s been to learn things about submarines.” I don’t distinctly remember the words there in English, but the naval officer said nothing about submarines, he just kept saying “I can’t say”, “I can’t say.” That’s why Ross ... What was the name of that character?

**Researcher:** Ross!

**Onur:** Ross, yeah, he said that. That scene, yeah.. Saying “how enjoyable it is to learn this many things about submarines”, he actually meant they couldn’t pump the officer for any information at all.
Table 3
*Category C and the Item Types for which it was Adopted*

| Category C                                                                 | Frequency (f) and percentage (%) by implied meaning type (t) | Total frequency and percentage as to the sum of the items discussed (n= 57) |
|----------------------------------------------------------------------------|----------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| Reaching the favored conclusion with steps (roughly) matching the ones given in the treatment | f | % | t | f | % |
| Being unable to refer to any item of filmic material used in the instructional treatment, thus obtaining clues about one of these as to the characters and context in it | 3 | 30 | Irony | 10 | 17.5 |
| Not remembering it on the first try, thus obtaining clues about others as to the characters and context in them | 3 | 30 | Indirect criticism | |
| Remembering it on the second or third try and explaining how the implied meaning worked in that particular filmic example as well | 2 | 20 | Disclosure | |
|                                                                           | 1 | 10 | Indirect requests | |
|                                                                           | 1 | 10 | Topic change | |

As seen in Table 3, out of the 10 occurrences, three were for both “irony” and “indirect criticism”. “Disclosure” comes next with two occurrences. One occurrence each was for “indirect requests” and “topic change”.

Taking a closer look, we detect that this category was defined for 17.5% of all the interviews, which makes it the third most frequent one. Moreover, just like with the former two categories, we see that more than half of its occurrences were for “indirect criticism” and “irony”, which are two implicatures that the participants had been found to benefit from during the treatment when they were in real need of it. Taking account of the argument that this category is one with slow but clear references to the instruction, the findings above could be considered to be in favor of the benefits of the treatment. As an example of this route as well, a transcription is given below. It is on “indirect criticism” (damning with faint praise) with an interview extract about a test item where one speaker asks another one about how he found the dish served, and the latter comments on only the way its color looks. As will be illustrated, the talk ends with an important scene (in terms of the interview) from a Hollywood movie where a male speaker asks his friend whether the girl that he has just met is really beautiful and the latter responds with remarks only about her intelligence. Their dialogue comes to an end with the former coming up with the conclusion worded as “Ah, she’s not so very pretty then!”:

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Researcher: Item 15. Firstly “B”.. then you opted for option “D”, which is the correct one. What was it that correctly led you to “D” in the second test? What kind of a thinking system did you follow?
Havvanur: Um, for this too .. Um, like the one earlier in our talk .. I think I thought here like I did about that one. Well, you know we had an item on a student essay, a speaker asked about the content of the essay, and the other one mentioned only the way it was written. I think I likened the item here to that one, to some extent. Um, well, one asks about the taste of the dish, but the other one talks about its appearance by just saying “It’s colorful”.
Researcher: Uh huh.
Havvanur: This means that he didn’t like it. Well, if he had liked it, he would have mentioned it by saying something like “It tastes good”.
Researcher: Yeah. So you say he seems to be praising only a particular feature, but in fact, he ..
Havvanur: He doesn’t cover (the whole).
Researcher: He doesn’t cover, thus he doesn’t like the whole of it, the real questioned thing.
Havvanur: Yeah, he criticizes it.
Researcher: Ok. While arriving at this conclusion, did you remember any scene from the TV series or films that you had watched?
Havvanur: Um, I did indeed, but .. well ...
Researcher: Do you remember which one it was?
Havvanur: I’m trying to remember it...
Researcher: But you remember that you remembered a scene.
Havvanur: Yes. I do.
Researcher: You remember remembering a scene.
Havvanur: I remember that I remembered one, but I don’t remember it at the moment.
Researcher: Let me remind you of some appropriate scenes. Two friends were talking to each other, for example. One had met a new girl. The other one asked “Is she pretty?”
Havvanur: Ah teacher! I remember this.. Um, there we had, I can’t remember his name, but an actor, a person who is an actor. They came to their flat for sequestration..
Researcher: That was to exemplify a different, a different type of implied meanings.
Havvanur: Then I remember wrongly.
Researcher: Uh huh. Um, but you remember that you remembered a scene that exemplifies the type here.
Havvanur: I do remember that I benefited from one, but while listening to you here, that scene just came to my mind.
Researcher: I see ... What else did we have? Well, there was “Monica”, the master chef. Um, she cooked a dish with salmon. I don’t know if you remember it or not. And she asked that actor a question like “How is it?” or “How does it taste?” or “Does it taste good?” And he responded by saying “It’s creamier”, “It’s creamier than the ones before”, for example.
Havvanur: Yeah. I remember things when you tell me about them.
Researcher: Yeah. In another one, once again, a speaker questioned his friend about the looks of a girl he had just happened to meet. The
latter answered by saying something like “She has such a philosophical depth that ..”

Havvanur: He talked about her intellect, yeah. I remember it all when you talk about things. From that one, I understood that .. he didn’t like her looks much. If he had, he would have given information about the way the girl looked. That part-whole stuff, I mean.

Researcher: Yeah. Praising a part to speak ill of the whole, huh?

Havvanur: Yeah yeah.

Table 4
Category D and the Item Types for which it was Adopted

| Category D | Frequency (f) and percentage (%) by implied meaning type (t) | Total frequency and percentage as to the sum of the items discussed (n=57) |
|------------|------------------------------------------------------------|---------------------------------------------------------------|
|            | f   | %   | t                     | f   | %   |
| Directly mentioning an item of filmic material that was benefited from to reach the favored conclusion | 3    | 42.8 | Disclosure            | 7    | 12.2 |
| + Being able to elaborate on how the implied meaning worked in that clip and in what way a parallelism was drawn between the clip and the test item being discussed | 2    | 28.5 | Pope questions        |      |      |
| + Coming up also with the general explanation given in the treatment about the implied meaning in question | 1    | 14.2 | Indirect advice       |      |      |
|            | 1    | 14.2 | Indirect criticism    |      |      |

As presented in Table 4, out of the seven occurrences, three were for “disclosure”. “Pope Questions” come after it with two occurrences. One occurrence each was for “indirect advice” and “indirect criticism”.

With a wider perspective, we see that this category was established for about 13% of all the interviews. This renders it the fourth among all in terms of frequency, which is relatively low. However, considering the argument that it would be one of the routes with “direct and clear references to the treatment”, we could add it to the former three in that it is another one which supports the aforementioned findings in favor of the efficiency of the instruction. The related interview extract is about a “disclosure” item that includes a female speaker who abruptly asks a male friend of hers whether or not it is true that he has got divorced. The latter responds by just giving an excuse formulated with the fact that they got married at a very young age. Just in the beginning, the talk centers on a scene where a character has to watch his possessions being confiscated because he unthinkingly spent his first salaries on really needless things. A close friend arrives to save at least some of those possessions with his own money. Helplessly, he asks the extravagant character if he really gave large amounts for such pointless purchases. The answer is not with a direct “Yes” or “No”, but with just an excuse for those unnecessary expenditures:
Researcher: Now item 30. First you chose “A”, but in the posttest, you correctly went for “B”. Once again, tell me the thinking steps that led you to the favored option.

Asaf: Um ... Um, here is what I thought ... Um, well, teacher, I just remembered this: he (a character called “Joey” in Friends) bought a knick-knack. Something amazingly expensive.

Researcher: Uh huh.

Asaf: When he was asked the question “Did you really give that much money for this?”, he gave the answer “Yes” with an explanation just giving the excuse “Well, I’m a person who spends a lot on things like this, one who cannot know what to buy, one who buys almost whatever he sees.”

Researcher: Yeah. We can call this “disclosure”, or “indirect confession” in a way. What would you say about it considering the test item here?

Asaf: Um, well, when she pointedly asks there the question “Is it true that you’ve got divorced?”, he explains things not with a direct answer, but by just giving his excuse for the divorce.

Researcher: Absolutely.

| Table 5 |
|---------|
| **Category E and the Item Types for which it was Adopted** |
| Category E | Frequency (f) and percentage (%) by implied meaning type (t) | Total frequency and percentage as to the sum of the items discussed (n= 57) |
| | f | % | t | f | % |
| Reaching the favored conclusion with steps different from the ones suggested in the treatment + | 1 | 50 | Indirect criticism | 2 | 3.5 |
| + Remembering having obtained help from an item of filmic material used in the instructional treatment | 1 | 50 | Pope questions |
| + Explaining how the implied meaning worked in a particular filmic example with a consistent piece of rationalization |

As demonstrated in Table 5, out of the two occurrences, one is for “indirect criticism” while the other one is for “Pope questions”.

It is clearly seen that the route in this category, which makes up a small proportion of the interviews, tends with its starting point to avoid the reasoning suggested in the instruction, and thus could be considered to go against the aims of the treatment. Nevertheless, as they clearly remembered having obtained help from a clip and explained how, the teacher trainees who followed this route are not two participants who gained “nothing” from the treatment,
although they reported that their reasoning process began differently. As implemented for the previous ones, to provide “rich, thick description” for this category as well, the presentation “in the form of quotes from participant interviews” (Merriam, 2009, p. 227) is about a “Pope Questions” item where a speaker asks his friend if she really has a lot of relatives. The respondent, who has just talked about her mother urging her to stay at home to entertain the relatives during their summer visit, reacts with a question whose answer is a clear “Yes”. At a certain point, the talk with the participant comes to the wording of a scene from “Friends”, where “Phoebe” tells her close friends how she handles the situation of having two boyfriends at the same time. Upon hearing this, a friend asks whether the two boyfriends know about each other or not. She responds by asking if a dog’s lips move when he reads:

**Researcher:** How about item 14?
**Ayşenur:** Let me have a look at it. ... This is ... I understood this as the way to answer a question with another question.
**Researcher:** Uh huh.
**Ayşenur:** So she indicates that she has a lot of relatives.
**Researcher:** Yeah.
**Ayşenur:** It went like this..
**Researcher:** Ok. Answering a question with another question.. Well, that question, which is used to respond to another question.. Would it be just “any” question or have a special characteristic?
**Ayşenur:** Well, it would be an irrelevant one.
**Researcher:** Uh huh.
**Ayşenur:** So here, we understand .. “Yes.. she has a lot of relatives.” I understand it as a “Yes”.. And about this, we had ... he (Joey) asked that girl .. who was going out with two boys. “Are they aware of each other?” We had the answer “Does a dog move his mouth when he reads?” ... Well, with that system, I mean it was that which came to my mind while answering this item.
**Researcher:** So you considered this implied meaning type to be saying “Yes” or “No”.
**Ayşenur:** Yes.
**Researcher:** .. by asking an odd, totally irrelevant question..
**Ayşenur:** Yes.. The answer to the (first) question is so obvious that you don’t need to respond to it with a proper answer.
**Researcher:** I see. Okay.

### Table 6
**Category “F” and the Item Types for which it was Adopted**

| Category “F”                        | Frequency (f) and percentage (%) by implied meaning type (t) | Total frequency and percentage as to the sum of the items discussed (n=57) |
|-------------------------------------|-------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------------------------------------------------------|
| No reporting or clear explanation  | 2 f 33.3                                                   | Indirect criticism 6 f 10.5                                              |
| despite all the attempts at query  | 2 f 33.3                                                   | Disclosure 1 f 100%                                                   |
|                                     | 1 f 16.6                                                   | Indirect request                                                       |
|                                     | 1 f 16.6                                                   | Indirect advice                                                        |
As presented in Table 6; among the six occurrences, which in fact refers to the lack of a proper route, two each were for “indirect criticism” and “disclosure” while one each went to “indirect request” and “indirect advice”.

This case was decided to have occurred when a participant kept responding to the researcher’s attempts at query with such remarks as “I don’t remember what I thought while answering this”, “How should I know?”, “Well, I know the answer, but I can’t explain how”, “I just sense that this is the correct option” etc. or with prolonged silences or sometimes with broken, incomplete sentences. We detect that such cases amount to more or less 10% of the total of the interviews. This proportion can be considered relatively far from vitiating the aforementioned findings that prove to be highly in favor of the efficiency of the treatment. It is another fact that four of the six occurrences of this case came from a particular participant. In this light, besides the reasonable possibility that the treatment was really of no use to her, we might also think that factors such as fatigue, poor morale, sleeplessness and so forth played their part during the pretest and/or the interview.

In view of the abovementioned results, research question 1 can be responded to with a “Yes”. 86% (49 out of 57) of the reasoning processes proved pertinent to reaching the favored interpretations via routes with direct references to the explicit metapragmatic instruction, according to which the targeted implicatures had been made the object of treatment through conscious explanation and discussion (Kasper, 2001). This is in conformity with earlier reports on the superiority of explicit methods to implicit ones (Blight, 2002; Bouton, 1994, 1999; Cetinavci, 2019; Jeon & Kaya, 2006; Kubota, 1995, Taguchi, 2015, Takahashi, 2010). Moreover, most of the reasoning routes in that 86% were found to have been followed on the specifically problematic implicatures. “Indirect Criticism” for instance, about which 32% of the item-by-item talks in the interviews were conducted, had been revealed as the type for which the treatment was to solve the most pressing interpretation problems. These findings suggest that the instruction increased the participants’ pragmatic comprehension abilities as language users and their metapragmatic awareness as future language teachers, the latter of which would not have been revealed with a solely quantitative method. This is important also because raising teachers’ awareness of cross-culturally diverse patterns of linguistic action must have an essential role in the education of language teaching professionals (Kasper, 1997b) together with coursework in teaching pragmatics (Wyner & Cohen, 2015), so that they can help their own students develop pragmatic abilities. In that regard, the flexible nature of the interviews helped the teacher trainee participants of this study reveal more about themselves in a way that other methods would not allow (Alamri, 2019). They made unprompted comments that reflect their evaluations of their previous language learning experiences and their general overview on how the project had equipped them with metapragmatic awareness. Below are given some quotes that characterize those comments:

Asaf: We had always been taught as if a remark would have only one direct interpretation, and we just didn’t have the awareness of things like “satire” in English.

Münir: In your lessons, we were demonstrated some things about which we had just been told that people use them in English.

Ümit: Our awareness of all these increased greatly. I just need to congratulate you. It’s a really nice study. We would not know about these if you hadn’t taught them in that way... This (the instruction) was really good for us.

Rabia: (she had taken ELT courses in an Erasmus program at a German university before the interview was conducted) The experience in Germany confirmed that grammar is not enough to communicate. The language takes on different meanings according to the context and
discourse. In your lessons, we had a chance to get a perspective on using the language in a daily life context. I can say that the films contributed positively to the development of my English. Besides, they helped to make me more conscious in some courses about Semantics, Pragmatics and Intercultural Communication, which I took in Germany...

Research question 2 can be answered with a “Yes” as well. 89% of the comprehension processes were found to have been reinforced by the filmic materials in the instruction while 14% within that cluster reveal them as the initial step of reasoning. In the same way as the results about research question 1, these findings lend the support of qualitative data to the earlier quantitative findings of the project (Cetinavci, 2018, 2019), which suggest that the treatment was efficient to a significant extent in helping language learners to properly interpret implicatures. More importantly with regard to the purposes of the current study, the findings in question validate the share and role of the filmic materials in specific terms. As aforementioned, the film-based kit was the innovative component of the researcher-developed instruction program. Being a pedagogical innovation to be assessed in combination with quantitative experimental research (Ryoo, 2013), it was subjected to the qualitative scrutiny of the present study for the grasp of an in-depth understanding from the participants’ viewpoint (Baleghizadeh & Jafari, 2020). The aim was to provide quality assurance under the challenge of achieving it in the complexity of educational settings, which is another issue that would not have been addressed with a solely quantitative method. (Kigozi, 2020). In this regard, the abovementioned findings assure the quality of the filmic materials as an effective pedagogical asset in supporting learners to comprehend implicatures with accuracy and speed. In order to provide rich description (Merriam, 2009) from the comments that the participants made on their own initiative about the filmic materials this time, some typifying quotes are given below:

**Tuba:** If you had just verbalized things, instead of using scenes, they wouldn’t have stuck in my mind. What we studied put down roots in my mind with the visual quality.

**Onur:** What had just been written in the test was shaped in sounds and visions. It was really cool.

**Nagehan:** You may learn something, but its retention is different. Without the video clips, it would not be possible to retain all these.

**Rabia:** We took notice of the benefits of watching filmic materials. We should apply it in our own language classes by showing some sections of TV series or films to make our students aware of any kind of language use.

The performance changes after the instructional treatment could have originated merely from metapragmatic teaching, the filmic materials or any other factor(s). In this regard, along with the abovementioned findings on the two components of the treatment separately, it was once again the insightful nature of qualitative research (Polit & Beck, 2010) that revealed that only a small portion (10%) of the improvements would be attributed to such cases in category F, which refers to lack of any route expected to derive from the treatment. Consequently, while the quantitative data set of the project stood as an abstract, symbolic representation of the reality, a cluster of some promising numbers that needed a translator (Ratcliffe, 1983), it was the retrospective interviews that functioned as such and talked about the quality of the moves in the instructional facet (Cetinavci, 2019) with the emic (participants’, thus insider’s) view (Baleghizadeh & Jafari, 2020; Davis, 1995; Halenko & Jones, 2011; Merriam, 2009). Put in another way, it was the qualitative inquiry that helped to reveal the processes that led to the
outcomes, which survey research is often poor at identifying (Maxwell, 2004). From a broader viewpoint, such an approach should be set as a standard in both descriptive and instructional studies on implicatures given the fact that a considerable number of variables are influential in the processes of deciphering indirectness in a language (Garcia, 2004; Köylü, 2018; Malmir & Derakhshan, 2020; Nigar, 2019; Perez, 2017; Taguchi, 2002, 2017, 2011; Taguchi et al., 2016). Stated in practical terms, research on implied meanings should utilize qualitative methods to reveal why participants choose particular modes of interpretation in quantitative instruments (Nigar, 2019). The present study appears to have accomplished this, and thus lent the support of qualitative data to the earlier quantitative findings of the project (Cetinavci, 2018, 2019) that it is complementary to. In this regard, it is also in tune with the requirements of triangulation, which is a strategy for research validity and reliability (Merriam, 2009) and, in operational terms, a vehicle for “cross validation when two or more distinct methods are found to be congruent and yield comparable data” (Jick, 1979, p. 602). This is in conformity with its quality assurance dimension as well, in view of the fact that mixed methods research has a great potential in the quest for accountability for educational quality (Johnson & Onwuegbuzie, 2004).

Taking into account everything mentioned above, the present study can be considered to have confirmed that the positive performance changes of the participants on implicature comprehension are attributable to the metapragmatic explanation and film-based instruction they received. An overwhelming majority of them either directly mentioned an item of filmic material that they benefited from and elaborated on how; or, when given clues about the characters and context in it, they vividly recalled one and properly explicated how the implicature worked there and how it applied to the test item under discussion. In this regard, it can be postulated that the researcher-developed instructional kit is a quality asset in terms of teaching pragmatics. The project maintained the procedures to substantiate it also after the qualitative steps that are documented in this study. The delayed posttest taken nearly seven months later by 61% of the experimental group participants yielded statistically significant differences between the pretest/delayed posttest scores, which would confirm the efficacy of the instruction even further. Moreover, there did not emerge a significant difference between the posttest/delayed posttest scores, which could enable us to assert that the gains from the instruction were retained over time as well (Çetinavcı, 2019).

The investigation did not come to an end within the perspective of the current study either. In line with the quality assurance aspect of the research process, the data were reevaluated for additional rounds of interviews to shed light on why the instruction could not do more about the repeated mistakes. The conducting of those interviews with detailed procedures and the results require another academic report. For the purpose of this one, however, it can be mentioned that 15% of the mistakes in the posttest could not even be explained by their makers. They were just surprised and seemed sure that they would really choose the favored interpretations on any occasion. Some other factors indicated to have been in effect were momentarily mistaking a particular word, impetuousness and loss of concentration for no clear reason (19%) [italics added], against which it would not be fair for the instruction to fight effectively. Furthermore, as negative transfer due to first language conventions (Taguchi & Yamaguchi, 2019), whenever a participant chose a disfavored option while interpreting an indirect request for instance, the presumption of a ‘laf sokma (needling someone with indirect pejorative expressions)’ occasion in Turkish easily surpassed any other proper consideration that was supposed to derive from the instruction. Without the additional retrospective interviews, it would not have been possible to discover any of such points.
Conclusion

The proper comprehension/interpretation of implicatures represents an essential component of pragmatic competence, which is a constituent of overall communicative ability. These are under-researched, however, from the viewpoint of both comprehension and instruction. In specific terms of investigating comprehension after instruction, the pertinent studies tend to neglect mixed-method research designs, and thus fail to understand the effects of teaching from the participants’ perspective. Nonetheless, the quality assurance of pedagogical interventions would require that experimental studies be crowned with qualitative methods. Accordingly, as complementary to the earlier data provided by the experimental phases of the project that harbors the current study, the aim was to put the promising quantitative outcomes to the test of a qualitative crosscheck and confirm in depth that the positive changes in the implicature comprehension of the participants were attributable mainly to the gains that the instruction had brought. In this regard, the study was conducted as a response to the dearth of research on how pragmatic instruction studies on implied meanings can be triangulated with qualitative methods to investigate participants’ post-treatment interpretation strategies thoroughly and evaluate the effectiveness of instructional assets. To the best of the researcher’s knowledge, no other comprehensive study can be referred to as such a systematic practice of quality assurance in teaching implicature comprehension.

The results demonstrate that the overwhelming majority (86%) of the reasoning routes taken to arrive at the favored interpretations had some clear references to the instructional treatment. Thus, in terms of the scope of the project as a whole, the qualitative and quantitative data collection methods were found to give consistent results that were highly in favor of the instruction, which also attests to the fulfillment of triangulation in social sciences with the cross-validation that the two distinct methods yielded congruent data. More importantly in specific terms of the present study, while the earlier set of quantitative data stood as a cluster of some promising numbers lacking in depth and detail, the inherent strength of the qualitative design provided access to the participants’ interpretation processes and revealed the contributions of the innovative teaching materials developed to facilitate implicature comprehension. The rich description enabled by the retrospective interviews suggest that the film-based instructional kit is not only a quality asset to help learners achieve retained accuracy and speed in implicature comprehension but also an inspiring source of metapragmatic awareness for language teachers and teacher trainees. Corroborating this would not be as valid with a single-method design given the complexity of quality assurance in educational settings. In other words, a purely quantitative approach would have revealed the positive changes in the participants’ comprehension performance, but that would not have been informative enough about the complexity of the extent to which and the ways in which the changes were related to the metapragmatic instruction, the filmic materials or any other factor. Such segmented evaluation via qualitative methods merits recognition as a standard especially when pedagogical interventions/innovations in instructional pragmatics are multidimensional, of which the current study offers an exemplary practice.

For further research, in accordance with the interactive process of qualitative inquiry where emerging insights, tentative hypotheses and specific leads would result in subsequent phases of data collection (Bogdan & Biklen, 2007; Merriam, 2009), extra rounds of interviews can be conducted to understand why some particular occasions of miscomprehension/misinterpretation kept occurring even after the instruction. Such cases, when attesting to factors beyond impetuousness, loss of concentration and so forth, can illuminate the pragmatic failures originating from native language or culture, identify “some unanticipated phenomena and influences” (Maxwell, 1998, p. 221) and reveal diverse perspectives (Ivankova & Creswell, 2009). This would be complementary to the quality assurance aspect of such studies as the current one and light the way for related data collection.
and instruction procedures in the future. As even a further step, case studies can be done on both favored and disfavored occasions of implicature comprehension to gain insights to be construed as tentative hypotheses that help structure future research, for case study has proven particularly useful for studying educational innovation and evaluation thanks to its potential for a rich and holistic account of any phenomenon (Merriam, 2009). Moreover, studies that are similar to the current one can be designed to evaluate the effectiveness of instructional programs to facilitate the production of implicatures, which would provide a new perspective beyond the focus merely on comprehension/interpretation and contribute to learners’ overall communicative competence.

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Appendix A

The steps adapted from Ishihara (2010) to teach about the comprehension of the covered implicatures

**Figure 1**

*Introduction of the Implicature Type*

![Image](image)

*Note.* “Indirect requests” as the representative example.

As seen in Figure 1, the labeling was not realized with technical terms, which would not have made sense to the participants in the beginning. Instead, the labels always referred to the content and/or function of the implied meaning, which served also as definitions to a certain extent. Nonetheless, in the last week dedicated to the revision for all the types, technical terms like “Non-conventionally Indirect (Hinted) Requests” were provided as well so that the participants who needed them could have them. It can also be detected that, after providing the label as displayed above, introductory examples of the targeted implied meaning were given. After that, what happened in those specific contexts was provided so that the participants could see how the content in the label was put into practice.
Discussion as Based on the Examples

- In an episode of "The Walking Dead", where people try to stay alive under constant threat of zombie attacks, two members of the main survivor group, Aaron and Daryl, meet each other by chance.
- Their friend Rosita has been found injured, and another one called Eugene is missing!

**AARON**  **DARYL**  **ROSITA**  **EUGENE**

Aaron mentions this problematic situation and finishes by saying that the help of a tracker* would be good. And Daryl is a really good tracker...

*tracker: someone who finds other people by following the marks left on the ground

**Note.** Identifying the implicature - explaining how the literal meaning did not hold and how the implied meaning was noticed - identifying what is actually conveyed in the utterances - hearing the learners’ experiences with that implied meaning type if possible - identifying a similar implicature in learners’ L1s if possible.

As Figure 2 presents, the context of each example of filmic material was introduced in the first place. The characters were shown with their names in a screenshot, which were always taken from the scene to come so that the participants could gain familiarity with it. Moreover, any element likely to be new to the learners was pre-taught with definitions or visual aids (as with “tracker” above).

Figure 3

**Providing a Visual of a Scene in which the Related Example is Embedded**

Figure 3 shows the first frame of a scene that exemplifies indirect (implied) requests. With a video-editing software, each scene such as the one above was cut from the episode, movie, commercial etc. that includes it. The beginnings and ends of all the scenes were
determined in consideration of how much the participants would need for a good grasp of the context. After the participants saw the starting frame, the scene was played as a linked video so that everybody could watch it with the help of an amplifier. When the participants demanded it for any reason, the scene was played for the second or third time.

Figure 4
Identification of What is Actually Implied in the Example

Aaron: Oh. Good to see you, man. What you doin’ here?
Daryl: Something up?
Aaron: We found Rosita outside the walls yesterday. She’s pretty banged up.
Daryl: Is she here?
Aaron: Yeah. And, uh, Eugene’s missing. We’re headed out to go find him. We could use a good tracker.

Daryl: Yeah. Of course.

WHAT HAPPENED?

• Aaron did not use a direct statement like “Would/Could you help us find Eugene (please)?”

• He just mentioned the problematic situation they were in, which made the need for help: Eugene was lost, and it would be easier to find him with the help of a tracker. It does not make much sense to think that his one and only aim was to give such information while Daryl was around, who is known for being a good tracker.

• In this way, he indirectly made the request that Daryl as a good tracker would help so that they could find Eugene.

Daryl got the message immediately and agreed to help…

As displayed in Figure 4, after a slide introducing the context of the upcoming scene and then watching the scene itself, the participants saw the conversation as transcribed. The primary aim was to clear up any persisting mishearing or misunderstanding. The figure might give the impression that everything in the slides was shown in one go, which was, by contrast, not the case. First, the conversational turns appeared with the one harboring the targeted
implicature as emphasized so that the participants were able to produce their preliminary ideas on its identification. What followed was the metapragmatic explanation of how the literal meaning would not hold, and thus how the implicature was to be detected. If sought, any further discussion and/or clarification was provided. Later, the explanation to identify what was actually implied in the utterance was given. These steps were followed just as described for two or three additional examples about all the implied meaning types. Illustration of the learners’ experiences with the targeted implicature, identification of any similar possibilities in their L1, if any, and playing the related filmic material once again were utilized as the concluding steps.

Appendix B

The steps to teach about the comprehension of “indirect criticism (damning with faint praise)” as another representative example

Figure 5

Introduction

As presented in Figure 5, being the other procedure than labeling the implicature and providing introductory examples after that, the participants were invited to imagine themselves in a general context first, and then their thoughts were directed with questions before being provided with examples for elaboration and discussion.
In the film called “The Parent Trap”, Meredith is a greedy, child-hating woman planning to marry Nick just for his money.

Hallie, Nick’s daughter, does not like Meredith at all. She is doing her best to stop the marriage with some clever tricks.

One day, Nick asks for Hallie’s opinion on Meredith as a person.

See how Hallie implies that she does not like Meredith:

Figure 6
Discussion

Figure 7
Providing a Visual of a Scene in Which the Related Example is Embedded
Figure 8
Identification of What is Actually Implied in the Example

- **Nick**: ... just what do you think of her ...as a person?
- **Hallie**: Well, she's cute. She has nice hair, good teeth. She can spell the word "you"...

- As we see, Nick asks about his daughter’s opinion on Meredith as a person (in terms of character traits).
- However, Hallie comments only on some secondary features of Meredith although Nick does not ask anything about them.
- In this way, seeming to say good things about some specific qualities of Meredith, Hallie indirectly criticizes her personality. In other words, she damns her with faint praise.