EFFECTS OF INTERACTION-BASED INSTRUCTION ON SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNER RECOGNITION OF SARCASM IN AMERICAN ENGLISH

By

Seval Karakoc

A Thesis

Submitted in Partial Fulfillment

of the Requirements for the Degree of

Master of Arts

In Teaching English as a Second Language

Northern Arizona University

May 2017

Approved:

Julieta Fernandez, Ph.D., Chair

Soo Jung Youn, Ph.D.

Nancy Barron, Ph.D.

ABSTRACT

EFFECTS OF INTERACTION-BASED INSTRUCTION ON SECOND LANGUAGE LEARNER RECOGNITION OF SARCASM IN AMERICAN ENGLISH

SEVAL KARAKOC

Sarcasm, also called verbal irony, is a prevalent pragmatic feature in English and it is important that second language learners learn how to recognize the use of sarcasm in order to better participate in the culture of their second language. However, sarcasm has only recently started receiving attention in the second language learning literature. In addition, to date very little research has focused on the effects of instruction on second language learners' recognition of sarcasm. Previous research on the instruction of sarcasm used Concept-Based instruction (Kim & Lantolf, 2016). The present study investigates whether interaction-based instruction has an effect on second language learners' recognition of sarcasm. The study involved 21 international studies enrolled in the Program of Intensive English at Northern Arizona University. Both the experimental group and the control group in the study were given a web-based pretest and a posttest to measure their recognition of sarcasm. The experimental group also received a 75-minute-long instruction using three tasks between the two tests while the control group did not receive any type of instruction. The current study has employed a quantitative approach in order to provide an objective view of the sarcasm construct in second language learning. Findings from the study revealed that the experimental group received higher scores on the posttest compared to the pretest. This shows that the participants benefited from interaction-based instruction and their awareness of sarcasm increased. The results of this study contribute to an understanding of the role of sarcasm instruction in second language classrooms. Practical suggestions for pedagogy and future research are also identified.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

First and foremost I would like to express my sincere gratitude to my advisor, chair, and professor Dr. Julieta Fernandez for the continuous support of my research and for her patience, motivation, enthusiasm and immense knowledge. Whenever I felt overwhelmed and thought I would not be able to finish this study, her guidance and encouragement helped me move forward. I cannot imagine having had a better advisor.

Besides my chair, I would like to thank another member of my committee, Dr. Soo Jung Youn, for her endless encouragement and support throughout the development of the instruments and analysis of the data, and also her insightful suggestions and comments.

I would like to thank Dr. Nancy Barron for being on my thesis committee and for giving me insights into the writing process and interdisciplinary writing.

I also like to thank my friends who gave me a shoulder to lean on. I have made some lifelong friends here and I could not have kept going without them.

Mike has been a never-ending source of love, encouragement and motivation. Thank you Mike, for always being there for me and also for contributing to this thesis with the comics and the videos for the intervention. Without you, I probably wouldn’t have kept my sanity this year.

Last but not least, I would like to thank my family: my father, my sister, and my brother-in-law, without whom I would not be here today, for their unfailing emotional and financial support.

DEDICATION

This thesis is dedicated to the memory of my beloved mother, Hale Karakoc. I miss her every day.

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

Chapter 1

Introduction

The recognition of pragmatic features in a conversation can be the difference between successful communication or a frustrating experience for the speaker and the listener. Sarcasm is a prevalent pragmatic feature in English, but is not often a focus of ESL classrooms. With sarcasm playing such a large role in communication, it is important that second language learners can recognize the use of sarcasm to better participate in the culture of their second language. As Schmidt (1993) argues, "for the learning of pragmatics in second language, attention to linguistic forms, functional meanings, and the relevant contextual features is required" (p.35). However, in many cases, even though L2 learners pay attention to the input, simple exposure to it might not be enough to develop pragmatic competence in the L2. Learners may fail to notice pragmatic features in interaction due to their limited processing abilities, or because the contextual factors might be non-salient for them or defined differently in their first languages. Therefore, teaching sarcasm can play an important role in language learning and interaction.

There is a paucity of studies on the effects of instruction on second language (L2) learners' recognition of sarcasm. Kim (2014) identified specific cultural schema that Korean L2 learners use to detect and understand sarcasm using video clips from the popular American TV show *Friends.* However, Kim and Lantolf's (2016) study is the first attempt to explicitly teach learners how to detect spoken sarcasm in English. Kim and Lantolf drew on Concept-Based Instruction (CBI) in order to help Korean learners of English develop conceptual knowledge of English sarcasm and functional ability to detect and understand speaker intent in sarcastic utterances. There is no study so far that has focused on the production of sarcasm by second language learners. Given the scope of the present study, it also focuses only on the recognition of sarcasm, not the use of sarcasm.

The purpose of this study is to explore whether an interaction-based approach is effective in increasing second language learners' awareness in sarcasm in American English. The study involved 21 international studies enrolled in the Program of Intensive English at Northern Arizona University. There were two groups in the study: an experimental group and a control group. Both groups were given a web-based pretest and a posttest to measure their recognition of sarcasm. The experimental group was given a 75-minute-long instruction between the two tests while the control group did not receive any type of instruction. The current study has employed a quantitative approach in order to provide an objective view of the sarcasm construct in second language learning.

While other studies on sarcasm used Concept-Based Instruction (CBI) to teach sarcasm (Kim, 2014; Kim & Lantolf, 2016), to the best of my knowledge, no other study has examined the effectiveness of an interaction-based approach and use of tasks on recognition of sarcasm. Therefore, this study uses the interaction hypothesis as a theoretical framework, which postulates that language learning is stimulated by communication (Gass, 2003). Given that the main purpose of language learning is to be able to communicate in that language, L2 learners need to interact and negotiate for meaning when learning. As a result, learning becomes both meaningful and authentic, maximizing learner motivation and the transferability of knowledge to new contexts. In addition, because sarcasm is very frequently found in interactions among L1 speakers of American English, and speakers make sense of the illocutionary force of an utterance by interacting with an interlocutor, it would appear that second language learners would benefit from engaging in interaction and the negotiation of meaning when learning sarcasm. This study contributes to an understanding of the role played by sarcasm in second language learning, through an exploration of how instruction, particularly interaction-based instruction, contributes to the learners’ recognition of sarcasm. The results of this study may therefore be of benefit in second language instruction if they convince instructors of the importance of sarcasm in second language learning.

This thesis consists of six chapters. Following this introduction, Chapter 2 reviews literature and research that motivates the research question addressed in this thesis. Chapter 3 describes the methodological approach, the participants, the instruments, constructs, and the procedures followed in collecting and analyzing data and instruction. Key findings from the analysis of the research data are presented in Chapter 4. Chapter 5 includes a detailed account and interpretation of the findings of the study and indicates its limitations. Finally, chapter 6 summarizes the study findings and focuses on pedagogical implications.

Chapter 2

Review of Literature

Pragmatics

Everyone knows that languages are different; language differences are quite often attributed to phonology, syntax, and the lexicon. As a result, a commonly-held belief is that learning the rules of grammar, the pronunciation and the vocabulary of a language is sufficient to succeed in learning it. One factor in successfully acquiring a second language which is quite often neglected, however, is that one must also learn the rules of interaction within a particular culture or speech community. An area of applied linguistics concerning this is pragmatics. According to Thomas (1983), pragmatics is “the place where a speaker's knowledge of grammar comes into contact with his/her knowledge of the world (p. 99). Crystal (2008) has a more comprehensive definition. According to him, pragmatics is

> 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. 379)

Pragmatic competence is part of a non-native speaker’s communicative competence. Thomas (1983) defines pragmatic competence as “the ability to use language effectively in order to achieve a specific purpose and to understand language in context” (p. 92). In Bachman and Palmer’s (2010) framework, “pragmatic knowledge” is defined as “how utterances or sentences and texts are related to the communicative goals of the language user and to the features of the language use setting” (p. 45). In their model, pragmatic knowledge is subdivided into two components: “functional knowledge” and “sociolinguistic knowledge.” Functional knowledge is comprised of the ability to interpret relationships between utterances and the intentions of language users, while sociolinguistic knowledge is comprised of “knowledge of the conventions that determine the appropriate use of genres, dialects, registers, natural or idiomatic expressions, cultural references, and figures of speech” (p. 47). It is essential for second language learners to acquire pragmatic competence in order to participate in the target culture effectively and appropriately.

Pragmatic competence is divided into two sub-areas: sociopragmatics and pragmalinguistics. Sociopragmatics focuses on "appropriate language use... social rules for 'what you do, when, and to whom', especially with regard to social variables as relative power, social distance, and degree of imposition”, whereas pragmalinguistics involves “linguistic strategies for implementing speech intentions and the linguistic items necessary to express these intentions” (Roever, 2006, p. 230). In order to communicate effectively, language learners need to know both the linguistic items to express their intentions (pragmalinguistics) and cultural knowledge about the appropriate contexts for using these items (sociopragmatics) (Ishihara, 2010a).

The concept of appropriateness is central to the model of communicative competence originally proposed by Hymes (1972), whose model was the basis for later models by Canale (1983) and Bachman and Palmer (2010). Hymes argued that appropriateness depends both on linguistic and sociolinguistic competence, which means that knowing what to say is never enough; it is also important to know “what to say to whom in what circumstances and how to say it” (p. 277). As Canale later pointed out while defining sociolinguistic competence, “appropriateness of utterances refers to [...] appropriateness of meaning and appropriateness of meaning concerns the extent to which particular communicative functions (e.g. commanding, complaining and inviting), attitudes (including politeness and formality) and ideas are judged to be proper in a given situation (p.7).

Pragmatic failure. The norms and values as to what is considered appropriate to say to whom and when varies from culture to culture and sometimes within the culture (Wolfson, 1989). Pragmatic failure occurs when people fail to learn these differences, which leads to miscommunication between language learners and native speakers of the language. It can be categorized in two ways: pragmalinguistic failures and sociopragmatic failures. In the case of pragmalinguistic failures, learners translate an utterance from their L1 into their L2, but the force of the utterance is lost during the translation as the illocutionary forces of the utterances, i.e., intended meanings, are not the same. Sociopragmatic failure occurs when a language learner does not know (a) what to say, (b) whom to say something to, or (c) when to say something. According to Thomas (1983), misunderstandings that cause sociopragmatic failure derive from differences in evaluating "size of imposition (stems from failing to acknowledge the social distance and relative power between the interlocutors, which require more tact)", "taboos", and "value judgements (pragmatic norms and values including regional, ethnic, political, and class differences)" (pp. 104 -106).

Sarcasm

An example of a speech act that might cause pragmatic failure is sarcasm. Sarcasm, also called verbal irony, is speech that has a semantic interpretation exactly opposite to its literal meaning (Tepperman, Traum, & Narayanan, 2006). For example, a speaker might say "Great weather" when there is a storm to express unhappiness with the weather. In English, sarcasm serves a variety of purposes depending on the intentions of the speaker. Sarcasm enables speakers to express hostility in a socially acceptable way (Kreuz, 2000; Ivanko, Pexman, &

Olineck, 2004), to save face by making the speaker appear less rude and unfair, especially when expressing criticism (Jorgensen, 1996), vent frustration, or build solidarity with humor (Slugoski & Turnbull, 1988; Kim, 2014; Peters, Wilson, Boiteau, Gelormini-Lezama, & Almor, 2016).

It is challenging for listeners to detect and understand sarcasm, given that, when a speaker chooses to be sarcastic, the literal meaning of their utterance is the opposite of the intended pragmatic meaning. There is a high probability that sarcasm might be misunderstood because it relies on the speaker and the listener having the same understanding of the meaning of the utterance (Marcello, 2012). Therefore, in order for successful communication to occur, the listener must identify a set of sarcasm cues. Prior research has shown that native speakers pay attention to several cues when determining whether an utterance is sarcastic or not. The first cue is the situational context in which the utterance is made. A disparity between the contextual information and the literal meaning of an utterance helps learners perceive the utterance as sarcastic (Creusere, 1999; Gerrig & Goldvarg, 2000). For instance, when a vegetarian who is invited to a friend's house for dinner finds a meat dish and says, "Oh boy, my favorite!", it is obvious from the situational disparity that they are being sarcastic. Vocal cues also have an important role in communicating sarcasm. Cheang and Pell (2008) found that the prosodic features associated with sincere expressions are quite different from those of sarcastic expressions (Cheang & Pell, 2008, 2011). Rockwell (2000) noted that sarcasm is conveyed by three aspects of prosody: slower tempo, greater intensity, and lower pitch level.

There are also certain facial cues and gestures that indicate that a speaker is conveying sarcasm. Rockwell indicates that a positive attitude may result in a "positive facial expression, characterized by an upward pull on the facial muscles of the mouth and a relaxation of the vocal mechanism." (p. 485). On the other hand, negative attitude may lead to a "negative facial expression, characterized by a downward pull on the facial muscles and a tightening of the jaw and vocal mechanism" (p.485). Facial cues, then, indicate not only the use of sarcasm but also the intent of sarcasm, either negative or positive. Common facial expressions and gestures indicating sarcasm may include a sneer, rolling eyes, deadpan expression, shoulder shrugging, or tilted head (Kim, 2014).

The final category of cues, lexical cues, does not have a consistent definition in research on sarcasm. Some researchers use the terms linguistic cues and lexical cues interchangeably to mean lexicon and syntax (Laval, & Bert-Erboul, 2005; Kim, 2014). Other researchers, however, have defined these cues as the "Pope-Q Implicature", an implicature type, (i.e. where the person implies the meaning instead of openly explaining it) in conversational implicature research (Bouton 1994; Kubota, 1995). In the Pope-Q implicature, a person responds to a question or a statement by asking a question, to which the answer is obvious; and the other person needs to recognize the functional relationship (or the disparity) between the situation and the question to understand the sarcasm. These formulaic expressions are frequently observable in scripted dialogue. This can be seen in Davies' (2016) Corpus of American Soap Operas. For example:

- Arianna: Hey, maybe it'll work out. Maybe you passed. Melanie: Yeah, and maybe the Pope's Catholic.
- Molly: So, do we have a deal? Craig: Do fish swim?

Research has shown that adult native speakers of English tend to rely more on contextual cues compared to prosody (Peters et. al, 2016; Tepperman, Traum, & Narayanan, 2006). However, this does not mean that native speakers do not use vocal cues at all. They use the prosodic information after contextual cues to "confirm context in an information mismatch situation" (i.e. when speakers find that the information provided by the context does not match the literal meaning of the utterance) (Peters et. al., 2016, p.412). Woodland and Voyer (2011) found that both the context and the tone of voice influence the perception of a sarcastic utterance. This shows that one particular cue may not be sufficient for the recognition of sarcasm. The presence of multiple cues might provide confidence to the listener that a sarcastic interpretation is intended (Kreuz, 2000).

Previous work suggests that children and adults may rely on different strategies to recognize sarcasm. Some studies have noted that between the age of 5-7, children pick up prosody cues, but cannot understand the contextual cues for sarcasm (Peters et. al, 2016; Laval, & Bert-Erboul, 2005; Capelli, Nakagawa, & Madden, 1990; Creusere,1999). This is attributed to the fact that children have more limited vocabulary, which might force them to rely on other available cues. Another possible reason might be that their working memory capacity is too low to be able to retain and integrate contextual information and vocal cues simultaneously (Peters et. al, 2016; Creusere, 1999). However, Aguert, Laval, Le Bigot, and Bernicot (2010) claim that children aged between 5 and 7 rely mostly on situational context to recognize sarcasm.

It would appear, then, that sarcasm is often difficult to recognize for native speakers of English too, who are immersed in the culture of the language and speak the language as their mother tongue. Considering the variation in the phonology, lexicon, and syntax among different dialects in English, it is not surprising that pragmatic differences exist as well. Dress, Kreuz, Link, and Caucci (2008) found that speakers of Northern American English self-reported using sarcasm more than Southern speakers, and that Northern speakers defined sarcasm as involving more humor than Southern speakers. Given the difference between speakers of the same language, we can assume that it might be harder for non-native speakers as well, especially if they have a limited range of vocabulary. Having a limited range of vocabulary possibly requires extra effort to process the discrepancy between the literal meaning of an utterance and the contextual information as well as the interface between phonology and pragmatics.

Sarcasm and Second Language Learners

The recognition of pragmatic features in an interaction can be the difference between successful communication or a frustrating experience for the speaker and the listener. With sarcasm playing such a large role in communication, it appears important that second language learners can recognize the use of sarcasm to better participate in the culture of their second language. However, sarcasm is very difficult to teach in language classrooms as it is context dependent, unlike speech acts, which are highly formulaic and relatively easy to teach. This might be the reason why there is limited research on sarcasm instruction.

Very little research has focused on how L2 learners recognize sarcasm and what type of cues they rely on. Cheang and Pell's (2011) study on the processing of prosody in non-native speakers of English suggests that non-native speakers rely on different cues than native speakers in order to recognize sarcasm. They found that monolingual speakers of English and Cantonese were not able to recognize phonological cues in the other language. It seems that recognizing sarcasm in a second language is not always possible on the basis of phonology. The findings of Peters et al. (2016) also support this result by suggesting that non-native speakers could detect contextual cues rather than phonological cues, which, in the case of native speakers is a preference rather than ability. In addition, Kim (2014) found that Korean speakers rely heavily on facial expressions and gestures while detecting sarcasm. Using video clips from the popular American TV show *Friends*, Kim identified specific cultural schema that Korean L2 learners use to detect and understand sarcasm.

Instructed Pragmatics

Researchers have explored and continue to explore the effectiveness of instruction in pragmatics and how to include pragmatics in classroom pedagogy. Some of the questions that researchers have been trying to answer are:

> "how to raise learners' awareness of pragmalinguistic forms and sociocultural norms of interaction; how to engage learners in producing pragmatically-focused output; how to provide meta- pragmatic opportunities in which learners can reflect on cross-cultural differences and their understanding of pragmatics; and how to guide learners' observations and discovery of pragmatic rules." (Taguchi, 2015, p.2)

These questions inspired many researchers to focus on the effectiveness of instruction in pragmatics, leading to many articles, chapters, and edited volumes to be dedicated to instructed pragmatics research (approximately 60 instructional intervention studies according to Taguchi (2015)). There are also many review papers on instructed pragmatics (Kasper & Rose 1999; Rose 2005; Jeon & Kaya 2006; Roever 2009; Takahashi 2010a, 2010b; Taguchi 2011, Taguchi, 2015).

These studies show that instruction in pragmatics is necessary and effective, and that providing metapragmatic information (including discussions of register, illocutionary force, social variables, politeness, appropriateness, and use) through certain forms of explicit intervention is most effective for learners' ability to develop pragmatic competence in their second language (Billmyer, 1990; Kubota, 1995; Rose & Ng Kwai-Fun, 2001; House, 1996; Tateyema et al., 1997; Tateyema, 2001; Rose & Kasper, 2001; Yoshimi, 2001; Takahashi, 2001; Koike & Pearson, 2005; Alcon, 2005; Jeon & Kaya, 2006; Alcon, 2008; Ishihara, 2010a). Additional research has found that it is difficult for learners to acquire sociopragmatic knowledge through implicit or less explicit instruction (Takahashi, 2010a; Alcon, 2008). It has been argued that is important to provide learners with explicit consciousness-raising instruction that will help them become aware of and understand pragmatic features and pragmatic differences between different cultures and languages. Although pragmatic information provided through explicit instruction does not guarantee the learners' pragmatic development, this type of instruction is important to avoid negative pragmatic transfer (McLean, 2004; Rose, 2000), as research shows that learners who do not receive instruction in pragmatics have different L2 pragmatic systems than native speakers (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001).

As for instruction in sarcasm, Kim and Lantolf's (2016) study is the first attempt to explicitly teach learners how to detect spoken sarcasm in English. Kim and Lantolf drew on Concept-Based Instruction (CBI) in order to help Korean learners of English develop conceptual knowledge of English sarcasm and functional ability to detect and understand speaker intent in sarcastic utterances. Claiming that verbal explanations are often difficult to understand, they used Gal'perin's (as cited in Kim & Lantolf, 2016) "schema for the orienting basis of action", or SCOBA, "which consists of a visual and materialized presentation of conceptual knowledge in the form of graphs, diagrams, and figures" (p. 9). Kim and Lantolf also used Gal'perin's learner verbalization approach, which postulates two forms of thinking: communicated thinking in which students express their understanding of a concept to their peers or teachers; and dialogic thinking, in which students express their understandings of a concept to themselves through private speech. As the learner develops control of a concept, learners rely less on external mediation provided by SCOBAS, teachers, and peers, and achieve mastery when they internalize the control. Kim and Lantolf focus mostly on the communicated thinking as the form of verbalization in their study. They formulated eight SCOBAS and paired them with video clips illustrating sarcastic cues. During the intervention, learners modified the SCOBAs by adding new interpretations that they identified in the video clips. Therefore, SCOBAs enabled participants to analyze sarcasm and explain cues they noticed through communicated thinking with the tutor.

As a result, Kim and Lantolf's participants showed evidence of development through their improved performance on the posttest, and the participants reported that their ability to comprehend sarcasm in their L1 also improved. The researchers state that they do not claim their instructional approach to be the only viable option to teach sarcasm; however, they say it has been proven to be successful in their study.

Noticing and interaction

Interventional studies of instructed pragmatic learning are based on three interrelated hypotheses: Schmidt's noticing hypothesis, Swain's output hypothesis, and Long's interaction hypothesis (Kasper, 2001). According to the noticing hypothesis, attention and awareness can be seen as two sides of the same coin (Schmidt, 1990; Kasper & Schmidt, 1996; Ishihara, 2010a). This hypothesis distinguishes between two levels of awareness: awareness at the level of noticing, and awareness at the level of understanding. Noticing refers to "registering the simple occurrence of some event", while understanding refers to "recognition of a general principle, rule, or pattern" (Schmidt, 1993, p. 26). With regard to learning pragmatics, learners need to attend to both linguistic forms (i.e., pragmalinguistics), and the factors that affect forms in the given context (i.e., sociopragmatics). Noticing occurs when learners notice a particular pragmatic feature in conversation, while understanding occurs when learners understand the reason behind the choice of that particular feature in the given context (Ishihara, 2010a).

In addition to noticing and understanding, opportunities for interaction also contribute to the learning of L2 pragmatic features. The interaction approach "takes as a starting point the assumption that language learning is stimulated by communicative pressure and examines the relationship between communication and acquisition and the mechanisms (e.g., noticing, attention) that mediate between them" (Gass, 2003, p. 224). Interactional tasks enable learners to learn to pay attention to not only their own utterances, but also to their partners' utterances and to respond appropriately in context (Long, 1996; Long, Inagaki, & Ortega, 1998; Ishihara, 2010a). Teacher-fronted classrooms offer few chances for students to interact with each other; most of the interaction occurs between teachers and students. Therefore, students have no chance to restructure interactions and to negotiate meaning, which is a necessary condition for increased language comprehension and production (Pica, 1987; Overfield, 1996). In addition, according to Long (1989), the amount of negotiation performed in interlanguage interaction is greater than native vs. non-native speaker interaction and the frequency of other-correction by students is not substantially different from native vs. non-native speaker interactions.

Tasks

The definition of a task varies considerably in the second language literature. These definitions depend on the purposes of researchers and the dimensions of task that they want to emphasize. For example, Long (1985) defines a task as

> a piece of work undertaken for oneself or for others, freely or for some reward. Thus examples of tasks are painting a fence, dressing a child. "Tasks" are the things people will tell you they do if you ask them and they are not applied linguists. (p. 89)

Here, Long emphasizes the "real world" orientation of tasks. Ellis (2003) provides a more comprehensive definition, which outlines some of the critical properties of a task:

- A task is a workplan.

- A task involves a primary focus on meaning.
- A task involves real-world processes of language use.
- A task can involve any of the four language skills.
- A task engages cognitive processes.
- A task has a clearly defined communicative outcome. (pp. 9-10)

A task is a holistic activity and differs from analytical activities like drills or exercises in one key way: analytical exercises involve the same operations from beginning to end; however, tasks involve different phases. These phases might include anything from searching for information to exchanging ideas, synthesizing the findings, and negotiating outcomes (Samuda & Bygate, 2008).

The concept of task has been of interest to second language researchers and teachers over the years as this type of learning emphasizes engagement with meaningful and relevant tasks and the difference between goal-based and process-based learning, which had been overlooked in many Communicative Language Teaching (CLT) materials in the past. Tasks can be used for different purposes: (a) they can be used to raise awareness of what learners need to know; (b) they can be used to encourage learners to use what they already know to communicate in an area they have problems with or to improve their knowledge in that area; or (c) they can be used as a point of comparison to contextualize other tasks (Samuda & Bygate, 2008).

There are many advantages of tasks. Interaction and communication through tasks provides opportunities for scaffolded learning as learners attempt to create and negotiate meaning through tasks. In addition, tasks enable learners to notice the gap between their own speech and their partners' and therefore foster language development. Tasks also improve learner motivation and promote learning, as tasks involve collaboration, require learners to use authentic language, and have a meaningful purpose (Richards & Rodgers, 2014).

The term *task-based* is either used as an umbrella term to refer to any context in which tasks are used, or only to a context where tasks are used as the central mode of instruction. However, there are three different ways that tasks can be used in a syllabus: *task-based*, *task-referenced*, and *task-supported*. "Task-based" learning and teaching (TBLT) refers to contexts where tasks are the central unit of instruction. In this type of teaching and learning, tasks define the curriculum, syllabus and mode of assessment. "Task-referenced" learning refers to contexts where tasks are used to set achievement targets and to evaluate learning, but different processes other than tasks might be used to achieve those targets. Finally, "task-supported" learning and teaching refers to contexts in which tasks are tools used to achieve language goals and objectives, and to provide additional opportunities for interaction. In this context, tasks are not necessarily used for assessment purposes (Samuda & Bygate, 2008). The distinction between these different approaches is notable because it shows that the use of tasks does not require adoption of one type of approach, and that tasks can be used flexibly in different ways depending on the purpose.

Inductive and Deductive Instruction

Instructional tasks can be used either with an inductive or deductive method, or combination of the two. *Inductive* and *deductive* teaching should not be confused with *implicit* and *explicit* teaching. As Takimoto (2008) explains, "inductive and deductive refer to the processing strategies in learning and instruction, whereas implicit and explicit refer to the levels of fostering awareness" (p. 370). In deductive teaching, learners are provided with explicit information about pragmatics before they are presented with examples. In inductive teaching, learners analyze examples to discover L2 pragmatic rules. Although researchers have different views on this matter, inductive teaching is believed to promote higher-order thinking and be more effective than deductive teaching (Ishihara, 2010a).

In reality, instruction does not have to focus on either an inductive or deductive approach; it can be a combination of both. After learners discover pragmatic norms in groups with an inductive approach, the teacher might provide them with metapragmatic information with a more deductive approach; or the teacher might guide students in the inductive process, in which case the information is co-constructed (Ishihara, 2010a).

Current Study

This study explores the effectiveness of the interaction-based approach on L2 learners' recognition of sarcasm. The aim is measure whether this approach is useful with explicit instruction. The explicit teaching of pragmatics is congruous with an awareness-raising approach, which is based on the Noticing Hypothesis (Ishihara, 2010a; Schmidt, 1990, 1993). The study is designed to facilitate learners' noticing and understanding of the form-context relationship, i.e. the relationship between pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics.

In this study, both the deductive and inductive approaches were combined for explicit teaching. The participants were first presented with examples of sarcasm (through the use of comics and video clips) and were expected to discover the features, rules and the contextual factors of sarcasm, and then the pragmatic knowledge was co-constructed with the instructor. Finally, metapragmatic information was provided in the form of a short lecture.

For this study, the interaction approach was chosen because interaction helps learners become aware of their problems and reflect on them by noticing the gap between their own speech and their partners' speech (Richards & Rodgers, 2014). Metapragmatic discussion enables them to negotiate and co-construct their knowledge of pragmatic rules. The tasks in the intervention part of this study aimed to have students discuss the pragmalinguistic forms (such as formulaic expressions like Pope Q implicature), contextual factors that play a role in sarcasm, the link between the pragmalinguistic forms and contextual factors, and students were expected to reach a joint decision and understanding of the pragmatic rules.

The intervention part of this study was a 75-minute-long instruction that included tasks that were completed by the students and explicit instruction of sarcasm provided by the researcher. The tasks used in this study are among the most common types of data collection procedures in interaction-based research (Mackey & Gass, 2015). The three tasks that were used are prompted production tasks which were used to engage students in interaction in which they need to work toward a goal and arrive at an agreement. More information about the tasks can be found in the methods section. After the students completed the tasks, the researcher provided explicit instruction on sarcasm. The explicit instruction included discussion of how important sarcasm is and how often it is used, how difficult it is to recognize sarcasm, the different types of cues to detect sarcasm, and when it is appropriate to use sarcasm.

The research question for the study is the following:

- Does interaction based instruction increase second language learners' ability to recognize sarcasm in American English?

Chapter 3

Methods

In this chapter the participants, measures, and procedures for the study are described.

Participants

The participants consisted of two intact groups taking the PIE 105 English Composition class at the Program in Intensive English (PIE) at Northern Arizona University (NAU). The study included 29 students originally, 16 in the experimental group and 13 in the control group. However, 8 participants did not take the posttest, and therefore had to be dropped from the study. As such, the results include 21 participants, 13 in the experimental group and 8 in the control group.

PIE 105 is a composition class composed of ESL speakers. Most of the students were native speakers of either Arabic or Chinese with one native Amharic speaker. The participants had a level 6 proficiency on the PIE scale, which is equivalent to a score of 70 to 100 on the TOEFL iBT. The maximum score that can be received is 120 in TOEFL iBT, which shows that these students were intermediate level learners of English. This population was chosen because it is assumed that only learners with high level of proficiency are able to undertake pragmatic tasks (Bouton, 1999; Takahashi, 2010a; Bardovi-Harlig, 2001). Consent to participate in research studies was received from these students at the beginning of the year.

The participants were given a background information survey before they took the pretest. The survey included questions about how many years and in what location(s) they studied English, and which American TV series they watch to see if they watch the series that are used in this study, which are *House MD, Friends,* and *The Big Bang Theory*. Only three participants had studied English in an English-speaking country. One of them studied in a high school in an English-speaking country for 4 years, and the other two studied in the United States for a semester. The mean year of study of English among the participants is 9. The bar chart (Figure 1) shows the number of the participants and the number of years of English study. Two participants did not answer this question; therefore, their data is missing.

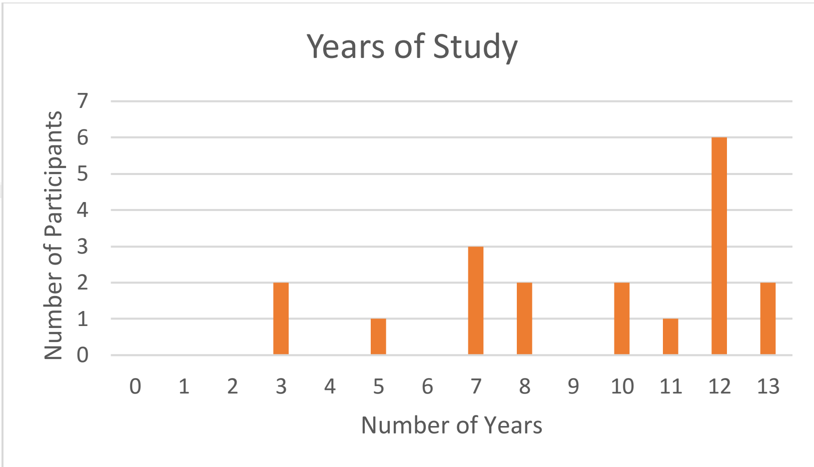


Figure 1. Number of years of study.

In terms of TV series, only two participants said they watch *The Big Bang Theory*, and three participants said they watched *Friends*.

Design

The study used a quasi-experimental research design because the participants were not chosen at random and were a sample of convenience. However, the participants were randomly assigned to the experimental group and the control group. The research question required a repeated measures design because the experimental group's scores on the pretest and the posttest were compared. This study took a pragmatic stance as any possible results from the study could benefit students. The alpha level was set at 0.05.

Construct Definitions

The main construct being measured is the ability to recognize sarcasm. This is defined by the ability to:

Recognize a sarcastic utterance. This sub-construct is the ability to recognize whether an utterance is sarcastic or sincere.

Recognize situational context cues. This sub-construct is the ability to recognize the disparity between the contextual information and the literal meaning of an utterance (Creusere, 1999; Gerrig & Goldvarg, 2000).

Recognize vocal cues. This sub-construct is the ability to recognize aspects of prosody that are associated with sarcastic expressions: (a) slower tempo, (b) greater intensity, and (c) lower pitch level (Rockwell, 2000).

Recognize facial expressions and gestures. This sub-construct is the ability to recognize facial expressions and gestures that are characteristic of sarcasm such as a sneer, rolling eyes, deadpan expression, shoulder shrugging, and tilted head (Rockwell, 2000).

Recognize lexical cues. This sub-construct is the ability to recognize formulaic expressions to indicate sarcasm such as *Is the Pope a Catholic?*, or *Do fish swim?*.

Recognize appropriateness of sarcasm. This sub-construct is the ability to recognize the appropriateness of sarcasm use in a situation, which is determined by social variables such as age, power, and social distance.

Measures

The pretest and the posttest were web-based and administered through Google Forms and were restricted to Northern Arizona University users only (i.e. only the participants' could access the test with their email addresses and passwords), and the results were automatically saved. The purpose of using a web-based test was to measure as many sub-constructs as possible in a short amount of time so as not to interfere with the class time. In addition, typing the answers on a computer makes it easier for the participants to take the test. Finally, auditory and visual features in the videos and audio files offer verbal and non-verbal information such as “intonation, pauses, hedges, gestures, facial expressions, and space” (Ishihara, 2010b, p. 247), which are essential in recognizing sarcasm.

The pretest consisted of 16 multiple choice and short answer items, and the posttest consisted of 16 multiple choice items. (See Table 1 for table of specifications). Eight questions of the posttest were the same as the pretest and 8 of them were new.

Table 1

Table of specifications

Sub-constructs	Number of Items
Ability to recognize a sarcastic utterance	6
Ability to recognize vocal cues	4
Ability to recognize facial cues	3
Ability to recognize situational context cues	4
Ability to recognize lexical cues	1
Ability to recognize the appropriateness of sarcasm	2
Total number	16

Note. There are four items measuring more than one sub-construct at the same time.

In each test, the first 12 questions measure vocal, facial, and situational context cues using six videos. The videos were taken from the popular American TV shows *House M.D., Friends,* and *The Big Bang Theory.* The length of the videos ranges between 30 seconds to 1 minute. The participants watched the videos and first identified whether the utterance is sarcastic or not. The relationship between the speakers, the description of the person that utters the sincere or sarcastic sentence, and the transcription of the sentences were provided in the instructions to both create context and to eliminate construct-irrelevant variance from listening comprehension. If the participants select the *sincere* option, the platform takes them to the next video question; if they select the *sarcastic* option, it takes them to another item asking what makes them think that the utterance is sarcastic. Since the participants were not expected to have had formal instruction on pragmatics, or more specifically cues, they might not have been familiar with the terminology. Therefore, for the pretest, a short answer item was used asking the participants to explain the clues that they identified to detect sarcasm, even for the questions where the correct answer is sincere, to eliminate the chance of guessing because the platform allows the users to go back in the test. For the posttest, the participants were provided with the types of cues using multiple choice items.

The next two questions are about situational context and lexical cues. Because sarcasm is not always conveyed with intonation and facial expressions, this part aims to measure whether the participants know about inferring the sarcastic meaning from situational disparity or formulaic expressions. For both questions, a scenario is given and the response to the situation or the question is left blank. The test takers were asked to select an option from four options. Three of the options include sincere answers while the third one includes a sarcastic answer. For example, in the pretest the correct answer to the lexical cue question is: *Is the Pope a Catholic?,* which is one of the formulaic expressions that are used frequently by native speakers to imply that the answer to the question is indubitably yes. The correct answer to situational context question can only be inferred from situational disparity. Given that any utterance can be perceived as sarcastic with the right intonation, there was a possibility that test takers might have chosen a distractor as the sarcastic option. To ensure that test takers choose the sarcastic option, two measures were taken. First, they were told to choose the most appropriate sarcastic reply in the instructions. Second, a native speaker of American English was asked to record the sentences in the options without a change in intonation so that it would be easier for the test takers to notice that the other options are not sarcastic. The example below is a transcript from one of the recordings annotated to show prosodic stress:

PLEASE, keep talking. I always yawn when I am INTERESTED.

In this example, stress and intonation are typical of a non-sarcastic utterance. In a sarcastic utterance, it would be expected that *please* and *keep* would be nearly equally stressed. In addition, *always* would be stressed more than *yawn*.

The last two questions measure whether the participants know when it is appropriate to use sarcasm. For these last two questions, scenarios ending with a sarcastic reply are provided and the test takers are asked to choose one of the options: (a) appropriate, (b) somewhat appropriate, (c) inappropriate. Figure 2 shows a sample appropriateness question from the pretest. (See Appendix A for the link to the test).

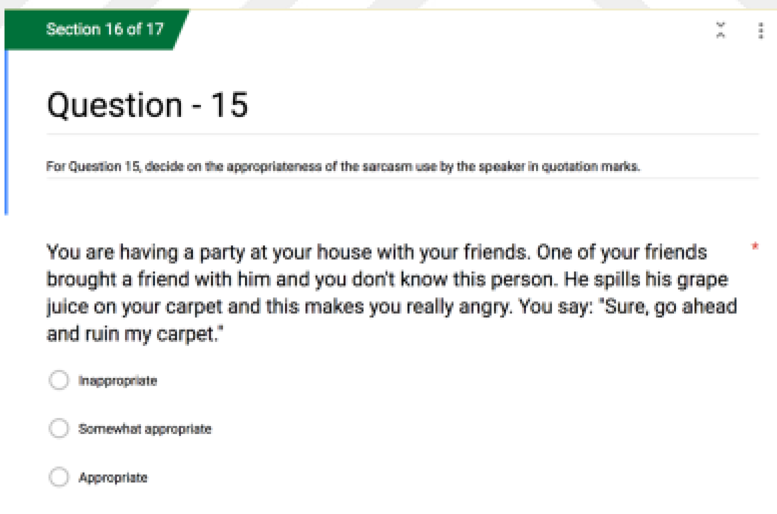


Figure 2. Sample Appropriateness Question

The test consists of dichotomous and polytomous items (See Table 2). Dichotomous items are the questions that are independent, and they were scored as 1 for correct answer, and 0 for wrong answer. Polytomous answers are the ones that require the participants to write a response if they choose the sarcastic option. The maximum score that participants can get is a 3.

The answers were scored as 1 if they only identified the sarcastic utterance, 2 if they identified the utterance and wrote down only one cue, and 3 if they identified the utterance and all the cues.

Table 2

Polytomous and dichotomous items in the tests

	Questions
Polytomous Items	1-2, 5-6, 9-10, 11-12
Dichotomous Items	3, 7, 13, 14, 15, 16

Procedures

Treatment.

Tasks. Three tasks were used for the intervention: a spot-the-difference task, a consciousness-raising task, and a consensus-reaching task. Participants worked in dyads with a partner to complete all the tasks.

In the spot-the-different task, partners were given comics that were identical except for one modification. One learner would have the comic that had a sarcastic comment to an utterance or a situation, while the other would have the comic that had a sincere comment. In each comic, there was also a different situation that would result in a sarcastic or a sincere comment. The participants needed to work toward the goal which was to talk about the reason behind the difference in meaning in both comics without showing their comics to each other. The comics used for this task were drawn by a colleague. Figure 3 shows the handout for the spot-the-difference-task. Figure 4 shows the two sets of comics before they were cut and given to each partner.

Spot-The-Difference Task

Look at the comics given to you. Follow the steps below for each comic.

1) *Describe your comic to your partner.*
2) *Try to find out what is different in each one.*
3) *Do both speakers mean what they are saying? Are they being sincere or sarcastic?*

Please write down your answers below

____

Figure 3. The handout for the spot-difference-task.

Figure 4. Comics for the spot-the-difference task

In the consciousness-raising task, participants watched three pairs of videos. The two videos in each set were identical except for the initial utterances (except for the last video, in which case a lexical cue was included). The replies to the utterances were the same, but the initial utterances and the contextual information determined whether the replies were sincere or sarcastic. For example, in the first pair, the person enters without knocking the door; therefore, the other speaker replies with a sarcastic tone: *Oh, hello Mike, it's open, come in.* In the second pair, the female participant is short, and when the other speaker says that her height will give their basketball team an advantage, it helps the listeners understand that she is sarcastic when she says: *THANKS Mike!.* The prosodic stress is also a cue in this reply, which is annotated in the example. In the third pair, the use of Pope Q question is a clue that the speaker is being sarcastic. Participants needed to work with a partner to answer questions and to list the cues that speakers used to convey sarcasm. The videos used for this task were made by videotaping three colleagues who volunteered to participate in this section of the study. Figure 5 shows the handout for the consciousness-raising task and Figure 6 shows a screenshot of one of the videos in the task.

Consciousness-Raising Task

You will watch 3 sets of videos. Each set is different. 1) Read the transcripts of the videos, 2) watch the videos, 3) and answer the questions below the transcripts.

Video 1) D: Who is it? Oh Hello Mike, it's open, come in
Video 2) D: Who is it? (*Mike)* Oh Hello Mike, it's open, come in

Video 3) M: Hey, reminder Ingrid, basketball tonight
I: Yea, I'll come
M: Your height will give us an advantage
I: Thanks Mike!

Video 4) M: Hey, reminder Ingrid, basketball tonight
I: Yea, I'll come
M: You're really good at team sports
I: Thanks Mike!
Video 5) I: Do you think I would fail if I had 8 absences in class?
D: Do fish swim?
Video 6) I: Do you think I would fail if I had 8 absences in class?
D: Of course you would!

1) *What is different in each set?*
2) *What kind of cues (signals, tips) do the speakers use in order to convey sarcasm? Make a list of the cues that you notice in all the videos.*

Figure 5. The handout for the consciousness-raising task.

Figure 6. Sample video from the consciousness-raising task

The consensus- reaching task was an appropriateness task. To complete this task, partners worked together to decide under which conditions they would consider the use of sarcasm appropriate or inappropriate. Then, they filled out a table, which included two variables: age and distance. Figure 7 shows the handout for the consensus- reaching task.

Consensus Task

You need to decide together with your partner.
Who can you use sarcasm with? Mark ✓ if you think it's **appropriate**, mark X if you think it's **inappropriate** in the box.

	OLD PEOPLE	YOUNG PEOPLE
CLOSE		
NOT CLOSE		

Explain your decisions:

Figure 7. Handout for the consensus-reaching task.

Intervention. Intervention in this study was 75 minutes of instruction to the experimental group about how to recognize sarcasm. In the first part of the intervention, the students completed the three tasks. During each task, students first worked in pairs and the researcher walked around to make sure students understood the instructions and were on the task. After students completed each task, a whole-class discussion was conducted. After all the tasks were completed, the researcher provided explicit instruction on sarcasm using a PowerPoint presentation. The instruction included discussing what sarcasm means, why it is important to know about sarcasm and why it is difficult to recognize, the cues that can be used to convey and recognize sarcasm, and when and with whom it is appropriate to use sarcasm. The researcher concluded the instruction by asking students to reflect on their own experiences with sarcasm. (See Appendix C for the PowerPoint presentation).

Variables and Hypotheses. The research question is the following:

- Does interaction based instruction increase second language learners' ability to recognize sarcasm in American English?

The independent variable, a nominal variable, was operationalized as time (between the pretest and posttest). The dependent variable, recognition of sarcasm, is the ability of students to detect the presence and use of sarcastic features. Recognition of sarcasm was operationalized as the scores received on the pretest and the posttest and was measured on an interval scale. The null hypothesis is the following:

- H_0: There is no difference between the experimental group's scores on the pretest and the posttest.

Piloting.

Pretest Piloting. The pretest was piloted with 38 native speakers of English to set baseline data. Out of 6 video questions, 95% of the participants chose the correct answer, while for one video question 48% chose the sarcastic option and 51% the sincere option. In the video, one of the speakers says that the person in question is black, and the other person asks her how long she has been sitting on that information. Apparently, there was not enough context for the participants to infer the sarcastic meaning in the video. Some of the participants stated that it was not clear whether the person asking the question knows that the other person is black or not. Therefore, that question was discarded from the test and a new video clip from the same show with more context was chosen.

The participants of the first piloting also had different answers for the appropriateness questions. One of the appropriateness questions was about an interaction with a person's grandmother and the other one was about an interaction with a stranger. These two relationships were chosen considering that they are at the two ends of the social distance spectrum. It is risky to use sarcasm with a stranger as it increases the possibility of being misunderstood (Marcello, 2012). Therefore, people usually choose to be sarcastic with people whom they have close relationships with. 56% of the test takers considered the use of sarcasm to be appropriate in the given scenario. This question was not discarded to see what the main study participants would choose as all of them are non-native speakers of English.

Task Piloting. The tasks that were used for the intervention were piloted with native speaker undergraduate students. The appropriateness task, task 3, was the first one to be piloted and it was piloted with a class of 21 students. Table 3 shows the responses to task 3. Since the responses to categories of gender and power relationships did not vary much, these categories were removed from the task.

Table 3

Responses to the Appropriateness Task

	Age		Familiarity		Gender		Power Relationship		
	older people	peers	friends/ family	strangers	male	female	equal	lower	higher
appropriate	1	12	12		12	12	12	7	3
inappropriate	11			12				5	9

After the first piloting of Task 3, all three tasks were piloted together with a class of X many students. The students suggested that the instructions for the consciousness-raising task, task 2, were not clear enough and the table was misleading, therefore the instructions of the task were changed. In addition, the sound quality in the videos were not very good and therefore even the native speakers had difficulty in hearing and understanding the dialogues in the videos. Transcripts of the videos were added to the handouts in order to solve this problem.

The students also suggested that the appropriateness task was too complicated for them. They said that it does not make sense to have separate sections for age and family, because even in family the sarcasm use depends on the age of the person and the closeness of the relationship. A new table was made to address this issue. (See table 4)

Table 4

The Final Version of the Table in Task 3

	Old People	Young People
Close		
Not Close		

Finally, the students suggested that more time should be given to work with partners in each task. This feedback was taken into consideration when doing the intervention.

Administration.

Pretest. Since the tests are web-based, they were administered in two labs. Students were also asked to bring headphones as the test included watching videos and listening to audio files. Students were allowed to use their dictionaries in case of any unknown vocabulary items in the test. Before the pretest, sarcasm was defined to ensure that the students knew what it means and what the test was about, and a set of instructions were given to make sure the students wrote their names and email addresses and read the instructions carefully. During the test, the proctors walked around to answer any questions and solve any technical problems that arose.

The test was expected to take 10 minutes; however, it took almost half an hour. This could be explained by the fact that the proficiency level of the students was not very high, and they needed to look at their dictionaries quite often (especially when they were writing down answers for short answer items) and to watch the videos more than once. There were also problems with the technology. Some students were not able to open the link to the test, and some of the participants' tests froze in the middle and they could not go on. In the end, everyone was able to complete the test.

Posttest. Since both the proctors and the students were experienced in taking the pretest, less problems were encountered in administering the posttest. In addition, it took less time for students to complete the test because there were no short items in the test this time. However, it still took the students around 20 minutes to complete the posttest.

Chapter 4

Results

In this chapter, the results of the study are discussed. Before proceeding to the research question, three issues are addressed: item analysis, reliability, and comparison of the groups on the pretest; next, descriptive statistics are shown. Finally, the results of the inferential statistical procedures are provided.

Preliminary analyses

Before the hypothesis testing, item analysis was conducted in order to assess the quality of the tests and test items. Two items with low *B*-index values in the pretest and the posttest were discarded due to poor item discrimination. After the item analysis, the instruments were checked for internal consistency by computing KR-20. Observed KR-20 value was 0.86 for the pretest and .80 for the posttest.

The QQ plot and the histograms showed that the pretest and posttest data are not normally distributed. Therefore, the Mann Whitney test was used to test for between group differences on the results of the pretest. No statistical difference was found between the experimental group and the control group (See Table 5).

Table 5

Mann Whitney Test for Comparing Groups on the Pretest

	Group	N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Pretest	Control	8	11.06	88.50
	Experimental	13	10.96	142.50
	Total	21		

Note. z_{crit} (2 tailed) = +/- 1.96; *p > 0.05; $z_{observed}$= -.037

Descriptive statistics

There were 21 participants, 13 in the experimental group and 8 in the control group. The control group's mean score on the pretest was higher than that of the experimental group. The mean pretest score of the control group was 7, whereas it was 6.92 for the experimental group. (see Table 6).

Table 6

Descriptive Statistics of the Pretest

		Control	Experimental
Pretest	Mean	7.00	6.92
	Median	7.00	7.00
	Variance	3.143	5.244
	Std. Deviation	1.773	2.290
	Minimum	5	3
	Maximum	10	11
	Range	5	8
	Interquartile Range	3	3
	Skewness	.615	.111
	Kurtosis	-.388	-.352

The experimental group outperformed the control group on the posttest. The mean posttest score of the experimental group was 9.38, while it was 8 for the control group. (See Table 7)

Table 7

Descriptive Statistics of the Posttest

		Control	Experimental
Posttest Total	Mean	8.00	9.38
	Median	7.00	10.00
	Variance	5.714	12.423
	Std. Deviation	2.390	3.525
	Minimum	5	1
	Maximum	12	14
	Range	7	13
	Interquartile Range	4	5
	Skewness	.586	-.971
	Kurtosis	-.826	1.400

Table 8 shows the comparison between the pretest and posttest scores of the experimental group.

Table 8

Descriptive Statistics of the Experimental Group on the Pretest and the Posttest

	Pretest	Posttest
N	13	13
Range	8	13
Minimum	3	1
Maximum	11	14
Mean	6.92	9.38
Std. Deviation	2.290	3.525
Variance	5.244	12.423
Skewness	.111	-.971
Kurtosis	-.352	1.400

Hypothesis testing

The research question was the following:

- Does interaction based instruction increase second language learners' ability to recognize sarcasm in American English?

The independent variable, a nominal variable, is explicit instruction. The dependent variable, scores, are the scores the experimental group got on the pretest and the posttest. The dependent variable is measured on an interval scale by summing the scores for each test. The null hypothesis was the following:

- H_0: There is no difference between the experimental group's scores on the pretest and the posttest.

To test this hypothesis, a non-parametric test, Wilcoxon Signed Ranks test, was used because QQ plots and histograms showed that the data is not normally distributed. The result is statistically significant with a p value of 0.028; therefore, the null hypothesis is rejected (see Table 9). An eta-squared value of 0.4 shows a large effect size.

Table 9

Wilcoxon Signed Ranks Test for the Experimental Group on the Pretest and the Posttest

		N	Mean Rank	Sum of Ranks
Posttest - Pretest	Negative Ranks	1	11.00	11.00
	Positive Ranks	11	6.09	67.00
	Ties	1		
	Total	13		

Note. T_{crit} (N=13, 2 tailed) = 17; *p < 0.05; eta^2=.4

Another Wilcoxon Signed Ranks test was used to see if the control group improved between the pretest and the posttest. No statistical difference was found between the pretest and the posttest scores of the control group (*p* = .216), which shows that the changes between the pre-and posttest scores of the experimental group are not attributable to test effect.

Chapter 5

Discussion and Limitations

This chapter provides a detailed analysis of key research findings presented in chapter 4 and addresses limitations of the study.

The study aimed to measure whether interaction-based instruction using tasks affects the second language learners' ability to recognize sarcasm in American English. The participants showed evidence of increased ability through improved scores in the posttest. The study was designed to facilitate learners' noticing and understanding of the form-context relationship in recognizing sarcasm and students achieved this by realizing the importance of focusing on sociopragmatic functions of utterances rather than focusing only on the literal meaning.

At the beginning of the study, the participants were given a background survey to eliminate the threat of confounding variables. The participants were asked if they had studied English in an English-spoken country, which might be a confounding variable because the participants who had been exposed to the target culture before this study was conducted might have already had prior knowledge of sarcasm compared to the participants who had not been exposed to it. Only three participants had studied English in an English-spoken country. One of them studied high school in an English spoken country for 4 years, and the other two studied in the United States for a semester. The participants were also asked which American TV series they watch to see if they watch the series that were used in this study. Being an avid watcher of these series would have made a difference because all three series that were used in this study (Friends, The Big Bang Theory, and House MD) are known to include characters that are sarcastic or characters that struggle with or complain about those characters' sarcasm use. The participants who watched these series would have had substantial knowledge of sarcasm. Only two participants said they watch *The Big Bang Theory,* and three participants said they watched *Friends*. The pretest and posttest scores of these participants who reported having studied in an English-spoken country and having watched the abovementioned shows were below the mean, therefore it is safe to say that their background did not have an effect on their scores in the study. The findings support Kim and Lantolf's (2016) study in that "exposure alone, including extensive residency, does not seem to be sufficient for learners to be able to recognize and comprehend indirect speech" (p.21). Therefore, it is important that learners get explicit instruction to help them develop an awareness of this important pragmatic feature.

Appropriateness questions in the pretest and the posttest

The answers to appropriateness questions in the pretest and posttest are notable in that native speakers had different answers (See Figure 8) compared to non-native speakers in the pretest (See Figure 9). One of the scenarios for appropriateness questions was about an interaction with a person's grandmother and the other one was about an interaction with a stranger. These two relationships were chosen considering that they are at the two ends of the social distance spectrum. It is risky to use sarcasm with a stranger as it increases the possibility of being misunderstood (Marcello, 2012). Therefore, people usually choose to be sarcastic with people whom they have close relationships with. Fifty-six percent of the participants considered the use of sarcasm is appropriate in the given scenario while twenty-five percent considered it as somewhat appropriate (See Figure 8).

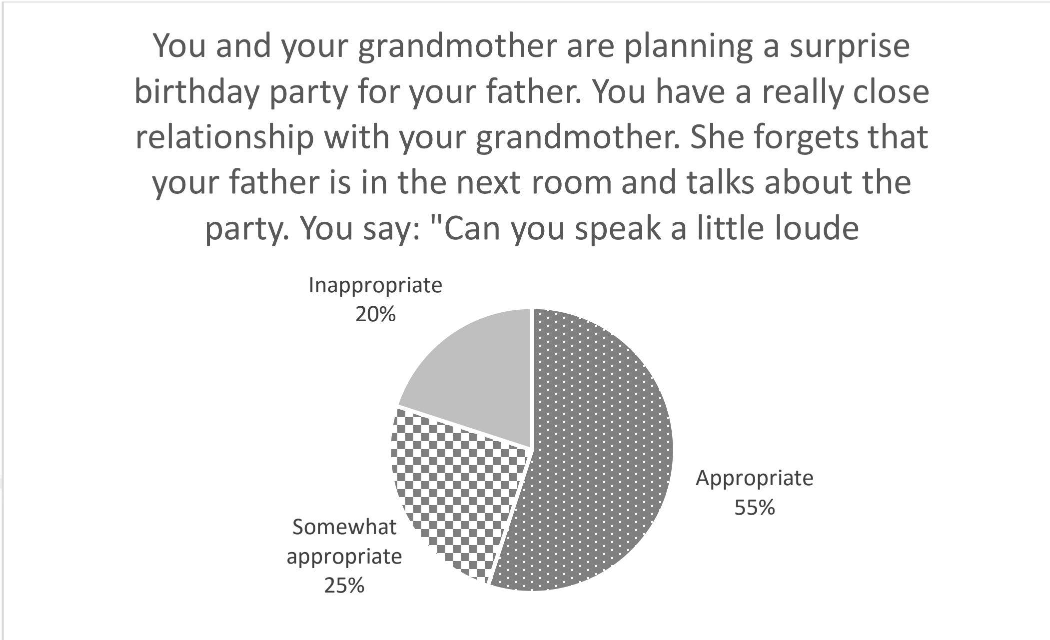


Figure 8. Native speaker responses to an appropriateness question.

However, the answers of non-native speaker participants are almost the opposite of what native speakers chose (see Figure 9). Fifty-five percent of the participants thought that the use of sarcasm is inappropriate in the given situation. This points to a potential cultural difference between the native speaker group of Americans and Chinese, Ethiopian, and Kuwaiti participants. During the intervention, participants stated that no matter how close the relationship is with an older family member, it is inappropriate to use sarcasm in their respective cultures. As cultural variables can influence the perceptions of the appropriateness of sarcasm, this might be an area requiring further research.

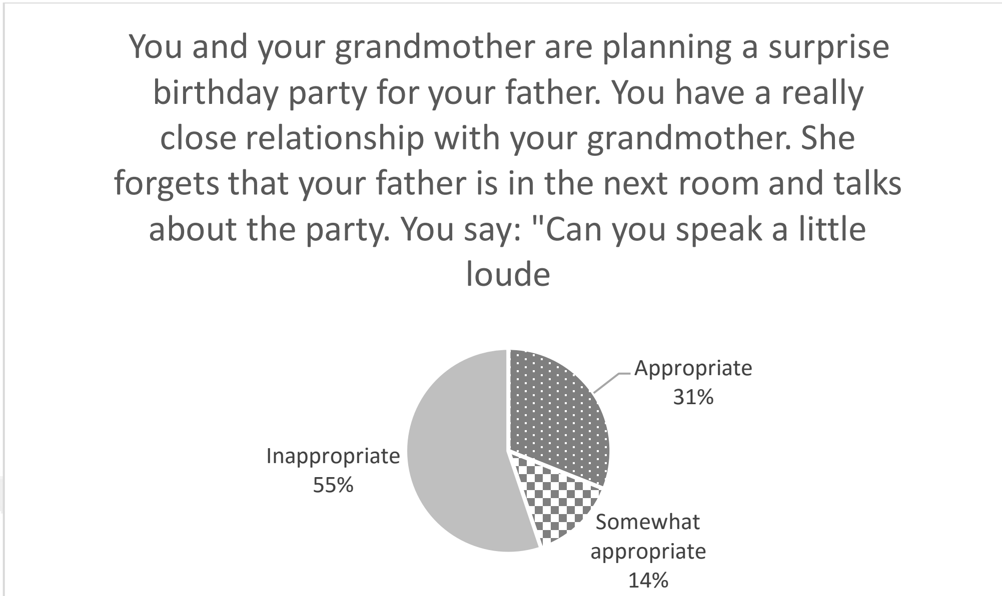


Figure 9. Non-native speaker responses to an appropriateness question in the pretest.

The purpose of focusing on the appropriateness of sarcasm during the intervention was to make the participants aware of the social variables that are part of the language and the culture so as to prevent misinterpretation. Another important point was to show the participants that the sarcasm does not always imply an offense; in American English, especially, it is used for humor so as to build solidarity. We can see the effects of instruction in the posttest. Figure 10 shows the answers to an appropriateness question in the posttest. This time, the majority of the participants chose “appropriate” and “somewhat appropriate” options rather than “inappropriate”. This indicates that the participants gained an understanding of how the social variables function in American culture.

Figure 10. The experimental group's responses to an appropriateness question in the posttest.

Limitations

This study is not one without limitations. The first and most important limitation is the design of the study. In this study, one group received instruction on sarcasm, while the other group did not receive any type of instruction. Therefore, it is not possible to assert with certainty that the interaction approach is better than the other pedagogical approaches to sarcasm. In order to be able to make this claim, future studies should use at least three groups where different types of instructions are used to measure which type of instruction is more effective. For this study, it is only possible to say that instruction on sarcasm is effective.

Another limitation is that the sample size makes it difficult to generalize the results to a larger population. However, it could set a good example for replication studies. In addition, the instruction was 75 minutes long. It is not possible to know if the participants will retain the awareness they gained through this instruction. However, as Takahashi (2010b) states, the effect of treatment length depends on the content of the treatment and how it is taught. Therefore, short periods of teaching pragmatics can be effective for ESL learners who have opportunities to learn outside the classroom as well as inside the classroom.

No matter how effective this study might be, I would still provide the students with a longer instruction if I conducted a similar study in the future as it would ensure that students are exposed to more examples and have a better understanding of how sarcasm is used in different contexts. To achieve this, examples from reality shows, news reports, political debates as well as social media can be used. This study used three videos including scenarios that might be encountered between friends in daily life, but sarcasm is also prevalent in other areas of life and it is highly subtle, which makes it harder to recognize, such as in political debates.

The appropriateness task in the intervention included discussion of situations in which sarcasm use might be appropriate or inappropriate. However, it might be difficult for students to imagine situations by looking at a table. Therefore, it might prove more effective if videos including different situations in which sarcasm use is appropriate and inappropriate in American culture are used.

There are threats to the validity in the tests itself that might have affected the results. The videos that were used in the tests might have helped the participants recognize sarcasm more easily because of the laugh track in sitcoms. In addition, the length of the videos ranges between 30 seconds to 1 minute, and the videos included short utterances with sarcasm only, which might have been easier to recognize. This does not guarantee that sarcasm would be recognized in a longer interaction. However, the length of the videos and the fact that they only include sarcastic utterances might only have helped the participants to determine whether the utterance is sarcastic or not; they would not have helped them identify the cues.

Furthermore, it is difficult to infer the personality of the speaker, the relationship between the speakers, or the situation, which are the most important sources to determine when recognizing sarcasm, in such short video clips. Another threat is that the test does not have equal numbers of questions representing each sub-construct, which affects the construct validity of the test. Moreover, the test has only 16 items due to time constraints stemming from using intact classes as the sample. In addition, web-based tests depend on the technological infrastructure of the hosting site, and even when it is in good working order, problems arise. The technological problems I had when administering the test, i.e., the time it took students to log on and access the test, might also have affected the results. Finally, this study used only on sarcasm in American TV series in the tests due to time constraints, but future studies should focus on sarcasm in different genres and modalities.

To address shortcomings of this test, more items would be needed to represent each construct adequately. In addition, videos with longer conversations might be chosen so that it provides more context and measures participants' ability to recognize sarcasm in longer utterances, as it occurs in real-life interactions. Sitcoms usually include exaggerated sarcasm with laugh track, therefore it might be better to write a script and make authentic videos, which would represent a more authentic conversation. Notwithstanding these limitations, this study is an important contribution to the literature on instructed pragmatics, and sarcasm in particular because it is the first attempt to use interaction approach and tasks to teach sarcasm.

Chapter 6

Conclusion

This chapter presents, firstly a summary of the key findings of the research followed by a brief summary of the preceding sections. The chapter concludes with a consideration of pedagogical implications.

This study set out to investigate the effect of interaction-based approach on second language learner recognition of sarcasm. The study was carried out at the program of intensive English at Northern Arizona University in Flagstaff, Arizona, in an intermediate level composition classroom. The students were randomly assigned to two groups: the experimental group and the comparison group. While both groups took the pretest and the posttest, only the experimental group received the 75-minute-long instruction. A quantitative approach was taken to analyze the data.

Although the quantitative analysis of the data indicated a statistically significant difference between the pretest and the posttest scores of the experimental group, and a large effect size, this effect could not be generalized beyond the specific learners and contexts involved in the present study. Furthermore, there are limits to the study. Since the control group did not receive any type of instruction, it is not possible to claim that the instructional effect is caused by the interaction approach. There are also threats to the validity of the web-based tests that need to be addressed for future administrations. First, more items representing each sub-construct must be included. Second, longer videos might be used to ensure that students can recognize sarcasm in authentic conversation without isolating sarcastic utterances. Finally, making videos appears to be a better option due to the fact that laugh tracks in TV series make sarcasm easier to recognize.

However, the results of this study support previous studies indicating that sarcasm can and should be taught and be a part of second language instruction. Increased knowledge and awareness of sarcasm in students' second language can help them communicate and interact better outside of the classroom. The results of this study could be helpful for future research on second language learner sarcasm or teachers who may wish to teach their students about recognition of sarcasm.

There is no evidence supporting the efficacy of any single method over another. However, this study reveals that sarcasm is teachable in the second language classroom and that, furthermore, it can be taught using tasks. Task supported learning emphasizes engagement with meaningful and relevant tasks, which enables learners to create and negotiate meaning through interaction. It is up to teachers to create different tasks or choose a different method when they teach sarcasm. Future research might also focus on teaching sarcasm using different methods.

References

Aguert, M., Laval, V., Le Bigot, L., & Bernicot, J. (2010). Understanding expressive speech acts: the role of prosody and situational context in French-speaking 5-to 9-year-olds. *Journal of speech, language, and hearing research, 53*(6), 1629-1641.

Alcon-Soler, E. (2005). Does instruction work for learning pragmatics in the EFL context? *System 33*, 417–435.

Alcon-Soler, E. (2008). Investigating pragmatic language learning in foreign language classrooms. *IRAL - International Review of Applied Linguistics in Language Teaching, 46*(3), 173–195.

Bachman, L. & Palmer, A. (2010). *Language assessment in practice.* Oxford, UK: Oxford University Press.

Bardovi-Harlig, K. (2001). Evaluating the empirical evidence. In K. Rose & G. Kasper (eds.), *Pragmatics in language teaching*. (pp. 13-32). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Billmyer, K. A. (1990). *The effect of formal instruction on the development of sociolinguistic competence: The performance of compliments.* (Unpublished doctoral dissertation). University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia.

Bouton, L. F. (1994). Conversational implicature in a second language: Learned slowly when not deliberately taught. *Journal of Pragmatics, 22*(2), 157-167.

Bouton, L. F. (1999). Developing nonnative speaker skills in interpreting conversational implicatures in English. In E. Hinkel (ed.), *Culture in second language teaching and learning.* (pp. 47-70). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Canale, Michael (1983). From communicative competence to language pedagogy. In J. C.

Richards & R. W. Schmidt (Eds.), *Language and communication* (pp. 2–27). London: Longman.

Capelli, C. A., Nakagawa, N., & Madden, C. M. (1990). How children understand sarcasm: The role of context and intonation. *Child Development*, *61*(6), 1824-1841.

Cheang, H. S., & Pell, M. D. (2008). The sound of sarcasm. *Speech communication*, *50*(5), 366-381.

Cheang, H. S., & Pell, M. D. (2011). Recognizing sarcasm without language: A cross-linguistic study of English and Cantonese. *Pragmatics & Cognition*, *19*(2), 203-223.

Creusere, M. A. (1999). Theories of adults' understanding and use of irony and sarcasm: Applications to and evidence from research with children. *Developmental Review, 19*(2), 213-262.

Crystal, D. (2008). *A dictionary of linguistics and phonetics.* (6th ed.). Oxford: Blackwell.

Davies, Mark. (2016). *Corpus of American Soap Operas: 100 million words*. Retrieved from http://corpus.byu.edu/soap/.

Dress, M. L., Kreuz, R. J., Link, K. E., & Caucci, G. M. (2008). Regional variation in the use of sarcasm. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology*, *27*(1), 71-85.

Ellis, R. (2003). *Task-based language learning and teaching.* Oxford, U.K.: Oxford University Press.

Gass, S. M. (2003). Input and Interaction. In C. J. Doughty, & M. H. Long (Eds.), *The handbook of second language acquisition* (pp. 224-255). Malden, MA: Blackwell Publishing

Gerrig, R. J., & Goldvarg, Y. (2000). Additive effects in the perception of sarcasm: Situational disparity and echoic mention. *Metaphor and Symbol*, *15*(4), 197-208.

House, J. (1996). Developing pragmatic fluency in English as a foreign language: Routines and metapragmatic awareness. *Studies in second language acquisition*, *18*(02), 225-252.

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

Ishihara, N. (2010a). Theories of language acquisition and the teaching of pragmatics. In N. Ishihara & A.D. Cohen (Eds.), *Teaching and learning pragmatics: Where language and culture meet.* (pp. 99- 122). Harlow, UK; Longman.

Ishihara, N. (2010b). Incorporating technology into pragmatics-focused instruction. In N. Ishihara & A.D. Cohen (Eds.), *Teaching and learning pragmatics: Where language and culture meet.* (pp. 99- 122). Harlow, UK; Longman.

Ivanko, S. L., Pexman, P. M., & Olineck, K. M. (2004). How sarcastic are you? Individual differences and verbal irony. *Journal of language and social psychology*, *23*(3), 244-271.

Jeon & Kaya. (2006). Effects of L2 instruction on interlanguage pragmatic development.

Jorgensen, J. (1996). The functions of sarcastic irony in speech. *Journal of Pragmatics*, *26*(5), 613-634.

Kasper, G. (2001). Classroom research on interlanguage pragmatics. In K. Rose & G. Kasper (eds.), *Pragmatics in language teaching*. (pp. 32-62). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

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

Kasper, G., & Schmidt, R. (1996). Developmental issues in interlanguage pragmatics. *Studies in second language acquisition*, *18*(02), 149-169.

Kasper, G., & Rose, K. (2002). The role of instruction in learning second language pragmatics. *Language Learning*, *52*(1), 237-73.

Kim, J. (2014). How Korean EFL learners understand sarcasm in L2 English. *Journal of Pragmatics*, *60*, 193-206.

Kim, J., & Lantolf, J. P. (2016). Developing conceptual understanding of sarcasm in L2 English through explicit instruction. *Language Teaching Research*, 1-22.

Koike, D. A. & Pearson, L. (2005). The effect of instruction and feedback in the development of pragmatic competence. *System*, *33*, 481–501.

Kreuz, R. J. (2000). The production and processing of verbal irony. *Metaphor and Symbol*, *15*(1-2), 99-107.

Kubota, M. (1995). Teachability of Conversational Implicature to Japanese EFL Learners. *IRLT (Institute for Research in Language Teaching) Bulletin*, *9*, 35-67.

Laval, V., & Bert-Erboul, A. (2005). French-Speaking Children's Understanding of Sarcasm: The Role of Intonation and Context. *Journal of Speech, Language, and Hearing Research*, *48*(3), 610-620.

Long, M. H. (1985). A role for instruction in second language acquisition: task-based language teaching. In K., Hyltenstam, & M. Pienemann. (eds.), *Modeling and assessing second language development.* (pp. 77-99). Clevedon, Avon: Multilingual Matters.

Long, M. H. (1989). Second language research: some implications for methodology and class size in teaching Japanese. *AJALT Journal*, *12*, 22-31.

Long, M. H. (1996). The role of the linguistic environment in second language acquisition. In W. R. Ritchie and T. J. Bhatia (eds), *Handbook of Second Language Acquisition*. (pp. 413-468). San Diego: Academic Press.

Long, M. H., Inagaki, S., & Ortega, L. (1998). The role of implicit negative feedback in SLA: Models and recasts in Japanese and Spanish. *Modern Language Journal*, *82*(3), 357-71.

Mackey, A., & Gass, S. M. (2015). *Second language research: Methodology and design*. Routledge.

Marcello, P. J. (2012). *Navigating Sarcasm as one Key to American Belonging: A Study of the Value of Sarcasm in America.* Unpublished manuscript, Communication Studies, University of Portland, Oregon, the United States.

McLean, T. (2004). Giving students a fighting chance: Pragmatics in the language classroom. *TESL Canada Journal*, *21*(2), 72-92.

Overfield, D. M. (1996). *Teaching Pragmatic Competence: Input, Interaction, and Consciousness-Raising.* (Doctoral Dissertation). Retrieved from ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global. (UMI No. 9727851)

Peters, S., Wilson, K., Boiteau, T. W., Gelormini-Lezama, C., & Almor, A. (2016). Do you hear it now? A native advantage for sarcasm processing. *Bilingualism: Language and Cognition*, *19*(02), 400-414.

Pexman, P. M., & Olineck, K. M. (2002). Understanding Irony How Do Stereotypes Cue Speaker Intent?. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology*, *21*(3), 245-274.

Pica, Teresa. (1987). Second Language Acquisition, Social Interaction, and the Classroom. *Applied Linguistics, 8*(3), 21.

Richards, J. C. & Rodgers, T. S. (2014). *Approaches and methods in language teaching* (3rd ed.). New York, NY: Cambridge University Press.

Rockwell, P. (2000). Lower, slower, louder: Vocal cues of sarcasm. *Journal of Psycholinguistic Research*, *29*(5), 483-495.

Roever, C. (2006). Validation of a web-based test of ESL pragmalinguistics. *Language Testing*, *23*(2), 229-256.

Roever, C. (2009). Teaching and testing pragmatics. In M. Long & C. Doughty (eds.), *Handbook of language teaching.* (pp. 560-577). Malden, MA: Wiley-Blackwell.

Rose, K. R. (2000). An exploratory cross-sectional study of interlanguage pragmatic development. *Studies in Second Language Acquisition*, *22*(01), 27-67.

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

Rose, K. & Kasper, G. (2001). *Pragmatics in language teaching*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Rose, K. & Kwai-Fun, C. N. (2001). Inductive and deductive teaching of compliments and compliment responses. In K. R. Rose & G. Kasper (eds.), *Pragmatics in language teaching*. (pp. 145-169). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Samuda, V., & Bygate, M. (2008). *Tasks in second language learning*. C. N. Candlin & D. R. Hall (Eds.) New York: Palgrave Macmillan.

Schmidt, R. W. (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 pragmatics*. (pp. 43-57). New York, NY: Oxford University Press.

Slugoski, B. R., & Turnbull, W. (1988). Cruel to be kind and kind to be cruel: Sarcasm, banter and social relations. *Journal of Language and Social Psychology*, *7*(2), 101-121.

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

Taguchi, N. (2015). Instructed pragmatics at a glance: Where instructional studies were, are, and should be going. *Language Teaching*, *48*(01), 1-50.

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

Takahashi, S. (2010a). Assessing learnability in second language pragmatics. In A. Trosborg (ed.), *Handbook of pragmatics* (vol.7, pp. 391-421). Berlin: Mouton de Gruyter.

Takahashi, S. (2010b). The effect of pragmatic instruction on speech act performance. In A. Martinez-Flor & E. U. Juan (Eds.), *Speech act performance: Theoretical, empirical and methodological issues.* (pp. 127-144). Amsterdam/Philadelphia: John Benjamins.

Takimoto, M. (2008) The effects of deductive and inductive instruction on the development of language learners' pragmatic competence. *The Modern Language Journal*, *92*(3), 369-386.

Tateyama, Y. (2001). Explicit and implicit teaching of pragmatic routiens. In K. Rose, G. Kasper (eds.), *Pragmatics in Language Teaching.* (pp. 200-222). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

Tateyama, Y., Kasper, G., Mui, L., Tay, H., & Thananart, O. (1997). Explicit and implicit teaching of pragmatic routines. In L. Bouton (Ed.), *Pragmatics and language learning,* monograph series vol. 8 (pp. 163-178). Urbana Champaign: Division of English as as an International Language, University of Illinoi, Urbana-Champaign.

Tepperman, J., Traum, D. R., & Narayanan, S. (2006). " Yeah right": sarcasm recognition for spoken dialogue systems. *Proceedings of INTERSPEECH and 9th International Conference on Spoken Language Processing, USA, 4,* 1838-1841.

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

Wolfson, N. (1989). *Perspectives: Sociolinguistics and TESOL*. New York: Newbury House/HarperCollins.

Woodland, J., & Voyer, D. (2011). Context and Intonation in the Perception of Sarcasm. *Metaphor and Symbol*, *26*(3), 227-239.

Yoshimi, D. R. (2001). Explicit instruction and JFL learners' use of interactional discourse markers. In K. R. Rose & G. Kasper (eds.), *Pragmatics in language teaching*. (pp. 223-244). Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press.

APPENDIX A

Instruments

Link to the pretest:

https://goo.gl/forms/YCHZSbQsmKda5wyI2

Link to the posttest:

https://goo.gl/forms/UOkZm8kpbYRNF0Vy2

APPENDIX B

Tasks

You will complete three tasks about sarcasm. Please read the instructions carefully.

1. Spot-The-Difference Task

Look at the comics given to you. Follow the steps below for each comic.

1. *Describe your comic to your partner.*
2. *Try to find out what is different in each one.*
3. *Do both speakers mean what they are saying? Are they being sincere or sarcastic?*

Please write down your answers

____
____
____

2. Consciousness-Raising Task

You will watch 3 sets of videos. Each set is different. 1) Read the transcripts of the videos, 2) watch the videos, 3) and answer the questions below the transcripts.

Video 1) D: Who is it? Oh Hello Mike, it's open, come in
Video 2) D: Who is it? (*Mike)* Oh Hello Mike, it's open, come in

Video 3) M: Hey, reminder Ingrid, basketball tonight
I: Yea, I'll come
M: Your height will give us an advantage
I: Thanks Mike!
Video 4) M: Hey, reminder Ingrid, basketball tonight
I: Yea, I'll come
M: You're really good at team sports
I: Thanks Mike!

Video 5) I: Do you think I would fail if I had 8 absences in class?
D: Do fish swim?
Video 6) I: Do you think I would fail if I had 8 absences in class?
D: Of course you would!

1. *What is different in each set?*
2. *What kind of cues (signals, tips) do the speakers use in order to convey sarcasm? Make a list of the cues that you notice in all the videos.*

3. Consensus Task

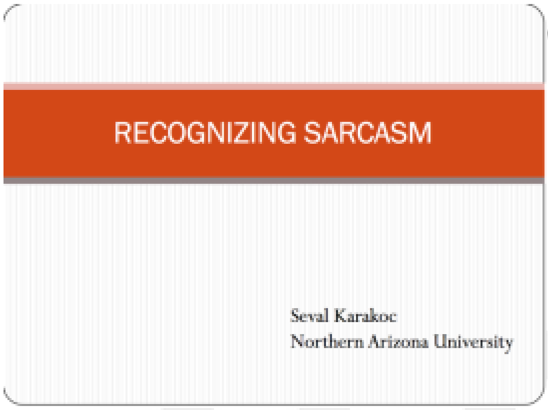
You need to decide together with your partner.
Who can you use sarcasm with? Mark ✓ if you think it's **<u>appropriate</u>**, mark X if you think it's **<u>inappropriate</u>** in the box.

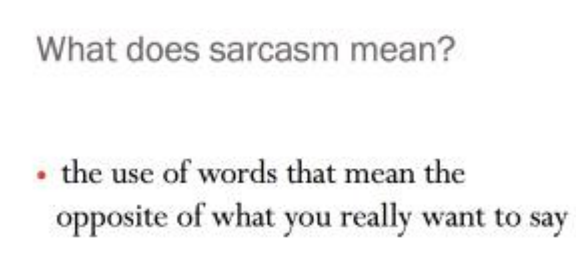
	OLD PEOPLE	YOUNG PEOPLE
CLOSE		
NOT CLOSE		

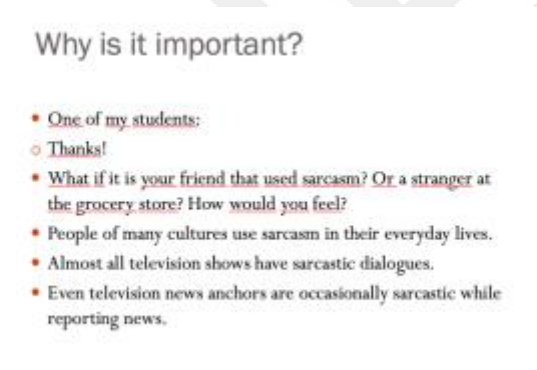
Explain your decisions:

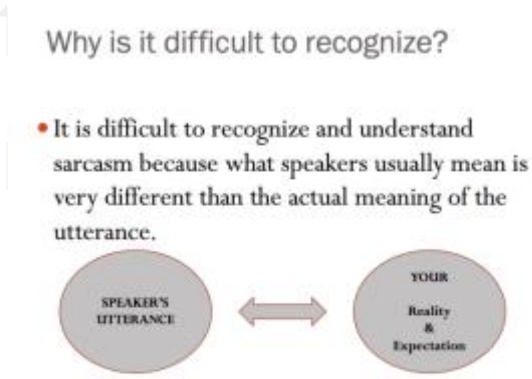
APPENDIX C

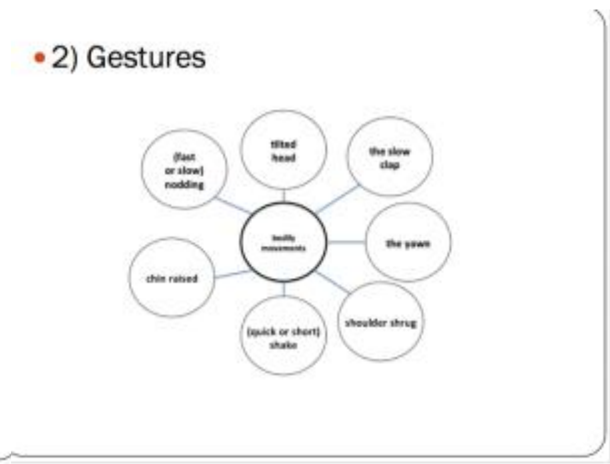
Instruction











3) Situational context

For example, you invite your friend over for dinner and when he comes, he tells you that he is a strict vegetarian. Then, when you tell him that you made steak for dinner, he says: "Oh boy, my favorite!" In this case, his previous utterance would lead you to infer sarcasm

Remember this?

- Your roommate comes in and starts talking about his relationship problems. This irritates you because this is the fourth time he is telling you this. You get bored and start yawning. He asks you why you are yawning and you say:
  - Sorry, I could not really sleep last night
  - Please, keep talking. I always yawn when I am interested
  - Because I don't want to listen to your stupid problems
  - Aww that's too bad, I am so sorry for you

Formulaic expressions

- You have a project due tomorrow morning and you still have not started. Your professor is very strict about deadlines. Your friend asks you:
  A: Do you think Dr. Karaoke would give us a zero on the project if we don't turn it in tomorrow? B:
  - Yes, I think she would definitely give us a zero
  - No, I don't think she would give us a zero
  - Are you out of your mind?
  - Is Pope a Catholic?

Other common formulas

- Do fish swim?
- Does a duck like water?

4) Vocal cues (stress & intonation)

"Thanks" In English, people often use a nasal tone to indicate sarcasm when saying the word "thanks". It is thought that the nasal tone shows a connection between sarcasm and extreme disgust

Elongating Words: "Well excuuuuuuuuuse me!"

Saying exciting words with flat affect: "Wow." "Great." "Yay."

Using a sing-song melody: "so-rrrryyy"

Inverse Pitch Obtrusion: The speaker often use lower pitch than the other words in the sentence to indicate sarcasm.

- High pitch: "GREAT weather, isn't it?" (sincere)
- Low pitch: "Great weather, isn't it?" (sarcasm)

APPROPRIATENESS

- When is it ok to use sarcasm?
- Who is it ok to use sarcasm with?

THANK YOU!