REPUBLIC OF TURKEY
ERCIYES UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
DEPARTMENT OF ENGLISH LANGUAGE AND LITERATURE

A CROSS-CULTURAL PRAGMATICS APPROACH TO SPEECH ACTS IN AMERICAN ENGLISH AND TURKISH: THE CASE OF REFUSALS IN TV SERIES

By
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Supervisor
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MASTER OF ARTS

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KAYSERİ

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AMERİKAN İNGİLİZCESİ VE TÜRKÇE DİLLERİNDEKİ SÖZEYLEMLERE KÜLTÜRLERARASI EDİMSEL YAKLAŞIM: TELEVİZYON DİZİLERİNDEKİ REDDETME SÖZEYLEMLERİNİN DURUMU

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ÖZET

Sözlü iletişim sürekli akış halinde olan ve içerisinde birçok dilsel ögeyi barındıran bir süreçtir. Günlük konuşmalarda en çok karşılaşılan anlam formüllerinden birisi sözeylemlerdir. Birçok sözeylem türü içerisinde davet, öneri, teklif ve rica sözeylemleri bir kabul ya da red sözeylemi gerektirirler. Reddetme sözeylemini tetikleyici sözeylemlerine yönelik oluşturulan reddetme sözeylemi dinleyici üzerinde öz imge talebi oluşturduğu için, edimbilimsel ve toplumbilimsel açılardan uygun reddetme sözeylemlerinin oluşturulması iletişimi ve katılımcılar arasındaki gelecek yönlü ilişkiyi devam ettirmek adına önemli bir hal almaktadır. Eğer konuşmacılar benzer kültürlerden geliyorlarsa, reddetme sözeylemini tetikleyen sözeylemlere karşı oluşturulan reddetme ifadeleri hem toplumbilimsel hem de edimbilimsel açılardan genellikle uygun olur.

Kültüre özgü ölçünler sözeylemlerde, özellikle reddetme ifadelerinde, rahatlıkla gözlemlenebilir. İki kültür arasındaki benzerlik ve farklılıkları ortaya çıkarmada sözeylem kullanımları etkili bir yöntem olabileceği için, bu çalışmanın temel odak noktası aile durum komedilerinde anadili Amerikan İngilizcesi ve Türkçe olan katılımcıların kullandıkları reddetme sözeylemleri olmuştur. Bu tezin temel hedefi, Amerikan İngilizcesi ve Türkçe'de reddetme sözeylemlerinin kültürlerarası iletişim odağında nasıl kullanıldığını ortaya çıkarmak olmuştur. Bu amaçla, doğal veri kaynağı olarak kabul edildiği için televizyon dizilerinden dört aile komedisi seçilmiş ve her bir dil için 690 reddetme sözeylem durumu belirlenmiştir. Reddetme sözeylemleri, Beebe, Takahashi and Uliss-Weltz (1990) tarafından önerilen sınıflama vasıtasıyla analiz edilmiştir. Reddetme sözeylemi türleri açısından iki dil arasındaki farklılıkları bulmak adına, hem Amerikan İngilizcesi hem de Türkçe'deki üç temel reddetme sözeylem türünün genel sıklıkları ve yüzdelikleri tablolar halinde paylaşılmıştır. Daha sonra, reddetme sözeylem türleri bağımsız değişkenler olan statü, cinsiyet ve reddetme

sözeylemini tetikleyici sözeylemler açısından incelenmiştir. Amerikan İngilizcesi ve Türkçe'de reddetme sözeylemlerinin türleri açısından tercih farklılığı olup olmadığını bulmak amacıyla ki-kare testi kullanılmıştır. Reddetme sözeylemi türlerinin Amerikan İngilizcesi ve Türkçe'deki dağılımları karşılaştırıldığında, gruplar arasında istatistiksel farklılık olduğu ortaya çıkmıştır. Ayrıca, statü, cinsiyet ve reddetme sözeylemini tetikleyen sözeylemlerin, hem dillerin içerisinde hem de diller arasında yapılan karşılaştırmasında, reddetme sözeylem türü tercihi açısından önemli rol oynadıkları görülmüştür.

Amerikan İngilizcesi ve Türkçe dilleri arasındaki benzerlik ve farklılıkları anlamsal formül tercihleri açısından bulabilmek için, kullanılan formüller Beebe ve diğerleri (1990) tarafından paylaşılan onsekiz formülden oluşan sınıflandırma yardımıyla belirlenmiştir ve her iki grup için ortaya çıkan tercih sıklıkları ve yüzdelikleri tablolar halinde paylaşılmıştır. Genel karşılaştırmaya ek olarak, anlamsal formüller bağımsız değişkenler olan statü, cinsiyet ve reddetme sözeylemini tetikleyici sözeylemler açısından da incelenmiştir. Elde edilen veride bazı anlamsal formüllere rastlanmadığı için ki-kare testi yerine, diller ve anlamsal formül tercihleri arasındaki ilişkiyi ortaya koymak için Spearman Sıra Korelasyon Katsayısı testi uygulanmıştır. Sonuçlar Amerikan İngilizcesi ve Türkçenin anlamsal formül terichleri açısından her zaman farklılık göstermediğini ortaya koysa da, tercih edilen ilk üç anlamsal formüllerin sıralamasının iki dilde farklılıklar oluşturduğu görülmüştür. Daha detaylı olarak bakıldığında, bir çeşit doğrudan reddetme sözeylem stratejisi olan edimsizlik (durum) Amerikan İngilizce'sinde en sık rastlanan anlamsal formülken, bir çeşit dolaylı reddetme sözeylem stratejisi olan mazeret-sebep-açıklama anlamsal formülü Türkçe'de en çok karşılaşılan reddetme sözeylem yöntemi olmuştur. Ayrıca, bağımsız değişkenler statü, cinsiyet ve reddetme sözeylemini tetikleyici sözeylemleri açısından da kısmi farklılıklar gözlemlenmiştir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Sözlü Etkileşim, Aile Durum Komedisi, Sözeylem, Reddetme Sözeylemi, Reddetme Sözeylemi Türü, Anlamsal Formül, Amerikan İngilizcesi, Türkçe

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ABSTRACT

Spoken interaction is a continuously flowing process in which various types of linguistic elements could be observed. One of the most frequently encountered semantic formulas in daily conversations is speech acts. Among various speech acts, invitation, suggestion, offer and request require an acceptance or a refusal. As refusals convey face wants on the side of the hearer, formulation of pragmatically and socially appropriate refusals to refusal stimulating speech acts becomes important to maintain the conversation and future relations of the interlocutors. If the interlocutors come from similar cultures, the reactions to refusal stimulating speech acts are generally more appropriate both socially and pragmatically.

Culture-specific norms could be easily observed in speech acts, refusals in particular. Since speech acts could be an effective tool to reveal the similarities and differences between two different cultures, this study mainly focused on the use of refusals by American and Turkish native speakers in family sitcoms. The main purpose of this dissertation was to find out how refusals were employed cross-culturally in American English (AE) and Turkish (TUR). With this purpose, 690 refusal situations for each language were selected from four different family sitcoms as TV series are accepted as natural data. The refusals were analyzed through the taxonomy suggested by Beebe, Takahashi and Uliss-Weltz (1990). To find out the differences between two languages in terms of refusing strategies, the overall frequencies and percentages of three main refusal types in both AE and TUR were given in tabular form. Then, the distribution of refusal types were analyzed in terms of the independent variables of status, gender and refusal stimulating speech acts. Chi-square test was run to reveal whether there were statistical differences between AE and TUR in terms of the preferences of refusal types. The results regarding the overall preferences of refusal types indicated that AE and

TUR differ significantly. Also, it was found that status, gender and refusal stimulating speech acts played paramount roles in the selection of refusal types within and across language groups.

To find out the similarities and differences between AE and TUR regarding the semantic formula for refusal preferences, formulas in each refusal were identified depending on the eighteen semantic formulas shared by Beebe et al. (1990) and the frequencies and percentages of the preferences in both groups were given in tabular forms. In addition to overall comparison, the semantic formulas were also analyzed with regard to the independent variables of status, gender and refusal stimulating speech acts. Since there were semantic formulas that we did not encounter in our data, instead of Chi-square test, Spearman Rank Order test was employed to find out the relationship between language and refusal semantic formula preferences. The results indicated that even though AE and TUR did not always differ in terms of refusal semantic formula preferences, it was found that the order of first three refusal semantic formulas showed differences. More specifically, use of non-performative, a kind of direct refusal strategy, was the most frequently preferred semantic formula in AE while excuse-reason-explanation (ERE), labeled as an indirect refusal type, was observed to be the most frequently preferred formula in TUR. It was also found that partial differences were observed regarding the independent variables of status levels, gender and refusal stimulating speech acts both within and across languages.

Key Words: Spoken Interaction, Family Sitcom, Speech Act, Refusal, Refusal Type, Semantic Formula, American English, Turkish

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ABBREVIATIONS

AE	– American English
CC	– Communicative Competence
DCT	– Discourse Completion Task
ERE	– Excuse-reason-explanation
F	– Female
M	– Male
P	– Power
rho	– Spearman Rank-Order Correlation
SAT	– Speech Act Theory
SPSS	– Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
TUR	– Turkish

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1. Presentation

This chapter includes background to the study, statement of the problem, significance of the study, research questions, limitations of the study and operational definitions.

1.2. Background to the study

Communication is an ongoing process and over thousands of years human beings have contributed to the way of communication we use today (Moaveni,2014); and language, known as the tool for communication, has been formed and reformed through socialization and culturalization processes (Ochs,1996). In each culture, there are different perceptions and these perceptions shape the way language is used; or as indicated in Sapir-Whorf hypothesis, the language shapes the culture and perceptions of a community. Even though whether culture shapes the language or the language puts a frame to the boundaries of culture is a controversial issue, it is evident that the relationship between language and culture could not be ignored or denied. As indicated by Wierzbicka (1985), the culture of a language highly influences the way language is used. For this reason, as a natural result of the progress in the technology, the effects of TV and media on people and their culture are evident in this era. The relationship between the way language is exploited and culture has been highlighted as an indisputable fact in a various number of studies (Can, 2011; Dastjerdi & Nasri , 2013; Merdin, 2013).

As the relationship between language and culture has been highlighted in the literature, differences among people coming from different cultures and languages might affect the process of inter-cultural communication and cross-cultural communication. Goodwin (1979) indicates that the interlocutors need to have the ability

to make some changes in order not to cause misunderstandings in the course of communication. Especially in cross-cultural communication, the interlocutors have difficulty to solve the problems of barriers they encounter. People from different cultures even perceive the world differently, hence not only the language but also the ideas might overlap. These cross–cultural differences might emerge and cause problems especially when people from different status levels interact. As people from different cultures might not have an idea about the way how people in other cultures communicate, they might have some challenges. For instance, in Turkey, people in low status cannot voice her/his opinions directly to the higher status person. This could be easily recognized when s/he makes use of speech acts such as request, offer or refusals. So, having an idea about the culture of the interlocutor is a significant factor not to have a failure in communication.

Among the various linguistic segments appearing in daily conversation, speech acts play crucial roles in the establishment of successful communication. Also, as speech acts require interlocutors to perform an action, misunderstandings of these linguistic segments in the process of communication might cause breakdowns. For this reason, to have a better understanding of speech acts, various speech act theories (henceforth SAT) have been developed by many scholars (Austin, 1962; Searle, 1976; Leech, 1983). Either explicitly or implicitly produced, the utterances that force people to perform an action are labeled as a kind of speech act. Thus, the abovementioned scholars came up with various types of speech acts.

Speech acts are the minimal part of linguistic communication and have three different features that are locutionary, illocutionary and perlocutionary acts (Austin, 1962). Locutionary acts refer to the literal meanings or meaningful utterances. Illocutionary acts refer to the intended meaning which is followed by the final act. Perlocutionary acts, however, deal with the consequences and effects of the expression(s), which have been performed by the speaker, on the feelings, beliefs and actions of the hearers. Following Austin's work, Searle (1976) continued to work on speech acts and classified them into five categories as representatives, commissives, directives, expressives and declarations. By taking these theories as a basis, some scholars conducted studies on the use of different types of speech acts like refusals (Beebe et al., 1990; Bulut, 2000, Nelson, Carson, Al Batal, & El Bakary, 2002),

requests (Clark & Lucy 1975; Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984; Tabar, 2012; Sattar, Qusay, & Farnia, 2014), apology (Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984; Kondo, 1997; Beckwith & Dweaele, 2008; Aydın, 2013; Parsa & Mohd Jan, 2015), complaint (Tanck, 2004; Bikmen & Martı, 2013) and advice (Hinkel, 1994; Matsumura, 2001; Martinez-Flor, 2003). Each of these acts causes face-threatening act on the side of the hearer. For this reason, the way speakers exploit these speech acts in the course of conversations, daily conversations in particular, might affect not only the smooth continuation of the ongoing conversation but also the future relationship between the interlocutors. Even though each speech act is accepted as a face want or a face threatening act, refusals seem to be one of the most challenging ones as the interlocutors need to reject or refuse a refusal stimulator speech act in an appropriate way so as not to cause a tension. For this reason, the use of refusals given by interlocutors in cross-cultural communication has grabbed many scholars' attention (Bulut, 2000; Nelson et al., 2002; Şahin, 2011).

Although culture affects the way people refuse each other, gender, status and age might become important variables in the designation of the refusal strategies adopted by interlocutors (Chamani, 2014). To illustrate, in Wolfson's (1986) *bulge theory*, it has been highlighted that Americans preferred different refusal strategies for refusing people from different status levels. In addition, effects of social status on the use of refusal strategies in different cultures have been examined (e.g. Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford, 1990; Beebe et al., 1990; Bulut, 2000; Nelson et al., 2002; Tekyıldız, 2006; Allami & Naimi, 2011; Hassani, Mardani, & Dastjerdi, 2011; Şahin, 2011; Merdin, 2013). These studies indicated that the effects of social status on using refusals were found to be different in each culture. Gender is another issue having an effect on the use of refusal strategies. To illustrate, Hatipoğlu (2010) claimed that the relationship between gender and the use of refusals cannot be ignored. Hence, many studies (Bulut 2000; Sadler & Eröz, 2002; Hassani et. al 2011; Moaveni 2014) have focused on gender issue and found the effects of gender on using refusals.

To sum up, refusals in cross-cultural communication have been meticulously studied. In most of these studies, scholars mainly used discourse completion task (DCT) and/or role-play which are known as elicited data, and the results revealed variations on the use of refusals and refusal strategies. These variations might occur due to the effects

of culture, gender, age, status and refusal stimulating speech acts on the preferences of refusal strategies.

1.3. Statement of the problem

According to Fetzer (2011) "communication has frequently been conceptualized as an exchange of factual information, and references to its interpersonal and interactional domains have been considered to be used in an almost arbitrary fashion" (p. 255). Thanks to globalization, both cross-cultural and inter-cultural communication types have been gaining importance. As the rate of cross-cultural communication increases, the use of first language is reshaped along with the culture. As a result of cross-cultural and inter-cultural interactions, the differences among people, languages and cultures directly affect the quality of the communication. One of the most paramount ways of revealing these differences could be contrastive language and culture analysis. With this analysis, the purpose is not to find out grammatical differences between languages, but to figure out the pragmatic and socio-linguistic similarities and differences between languages. Once these varieties are revealed, the interaction among people coming from different language and cultural backgrounds could be more effective.

People generally gather around English, accepted as the lingua franca of this era, in their intercultural communication settings. The supporters of English as a lingua franca (Jenkins, 2007; Seidlhofer, 2011) claim that this new approach to language eliminates the importance of standard English including the grammar and pronunciation in daily conversations. Contrary to creating idiosyncrasies, the variations on the use of mechanical side of the language do not necessarily affect the ongoing conversation. However, replies and/ or reactions given to speech acts affected by home culture might cause communication problems. As speech acts are known to bear face-wants and are labeled as face threatening acts on the side of the hearer, this might result in miscommunication, misunderstandings and even communication breakdowns if the cultures of the interlocutors are not related or totally different from each other.

As speech acts play important roles in the construction and continuation of conversations, the previously mentioned (see background to the study) scholars in the field of pragmatics studied the use of speech acts, including refusals, in intercultural or

cross-cultural communication settings by gathering elicited data through DCTs and/or role-plays.

As mentioned above, there might be pragmatic and sociolinguistic failures in cross-cultural communications. To achieve the mentioned aims, this present research, as a cross-cultural speech act study, might help to figure out these failures. If the interlocutors have awareness about pragmatic and sociolinguistic issues, they might be able to avoid some misunderstandings and communication failures.

According to Fraser (1990), during the communication, gender, status or age might be an effective factor in refusing a statement so focusing on these issues are necessary for the studies. There are few studies focusing on status, gender or stimulating speech acts of refusals in TUR and AE. Hence, there is a need for further research in examining the refusals in TUR and AE in terms of gender, status and stimulating speech acts.

Collecting data is another issue in this field as data collection procedure preferences might yield different results. Most of the studies, which focused on speech act of refusals, have used DCT (Nelson et al. 2002; Allami & Naeimi 2011; Şahin, 2011; Merdin, 2013; Çiftçi, 2016). However, according to Kasper and Dahl (1991) and Quaglio (2009), TV series could serve the functions of natural data for researchers. On the other hand, DCT was criticized by many researchers (Houck & Gass, 1996; Wolfson, 1983) as it does not provide the actual usage of speech. While collecting data through DCT, the participants have enough time to think and change the replies so this might be a problem for the researchers collecting the data. Thus, the scripts collected from TV series, accepted as natural data, constituted the database of this study since the use of elicited data such as DCT might not represent the actual refusals that could be encountered in real-life conversations.

1.4. Significance of the study

Similar to many of the previous studies, this dissertation also focuses on refusals, one of the most challenging speech acts to deal with in impromptu conversations, in TUR and AE. However, contrary to the previous studies in the field, the researcher in this dissertation tried to find out the exploitation of refusals and refusal types by collecting data from American and Turkish TV series accepted and known as natural data (Quaglio, 2009). TV series were accepted as natural data by many

researchers (Kasper & Dahl, 1991; Rey, 2001) as the speeches are closer to real life. One of the difference of this study from the previous ones is using the TV series which are closer to natural language as main corpus.

The differences and similarities in the use of refusals in American English (AE) and Turkish (TUR) in terms of language, gender, status and refusal stimulator speech acts were analyzed through Bebee et al.'s (1990) taxonomy of refusal types. In the previous studies, the gender and status issues were focused on only in one way, for example; the refusals of male and the refusals of females. However, in this research, the roles of the refusers and refusees with regard to their genders (M-M, M-F, F-F, F-M) and status levels (E-E, H-L, L-H) are taken into account to check whether speakers shape or formulate their refusals depending on the gender and status of the refusee. To have a better understanding of the refusals in AE and TUR, refusals are not analyzed from a general perspective, but their occurrences and patterns depending on the refusal stimulator speech acts (invitation, suggestion, offer, request) along with the other independent variables mentioned above were analyzed in this research since there have been few studies that analyzed gender, status and refusal stimulator speech acts in TUR and AE (Bulut, 2000; Aksoyalp, 2009; Şahin 2011). Furthermore, the refusals given in TUR and AE were explored depending on the positions of the refusal strategies in a refusal situation. To be more specific, in a refusal situation speakers might resort to more than one refusal strategy and each strategy needs to be labeled depending on its occurrence order in the utterance. The first refusal strategy used in a refusal situation is tagged as position 1 while the second and the third ones are labeled as position 2 and position 3 successively.

The results of this cross-cultural study shed light to the pragmatic and sociocultural similarities and differences between American and Turkish cultures. By benefiting from these similarities and differences the quality of the interaction between these two communities in intercultural settings could be improved. Also, the examples given in the study and the frames and the order of semantic formulas shared at the end of the study might help language teachers, who teach not only English but also Turkish as a second or a foreign language, develop activities to teach formulaic language (Weinert, 1995) which could be employed while giving refusals to different refusal stimulating speech acts in the course of interacting with different people from different

status levels and genders. The examples of refusal statements in the research might be used by language teachers to show the similarities and differences in the use of refusal types in both languages which might help the students to figure out the pragmatic and sociolinguistic differences and similarities. If the native speakers of Turkish want to go or live in the USA or people from the USA want to go to Turkey or live there, they might get help from these studies not to come across some language and pragmatic failures. Especially the refusal of speech act, which is a more challenging issue due to face threatening nature of this speech act, in addition to gender, status differences might cause big problems in different cultures. This present study explores the usages of refusals types in different statuses in both cultures.

From daily conversations to institutional discourse, we need to know appropriate use of language in every part of our lives. As the status is a significant issue in business, having an awareness about the other culture is important. Even a smallest mistake in intercultural communication while making business might ruin even a million-dollar deal. For this reason, the results of this study could be of great help for intercultural communication

1.5. Research questions

This study aims to answer the following research questions:

1. Do AE and TUR statistically differ with regard to the overall ratio of main refusal types?
    a. Do AE and TUR statistically differ with regard to the ratio of main refusal types across the independent variables of status levels, genders and stimulating speech acts?
    b. Do AE and TUR statistically differ with regard to the ratio of main refusal types in Position 1, 2 and 3?
2. Are there differences/similarities between AE and TUR with respect to the overall order of semantic formula preferences of refusals?
    a. Are there differences/similarities between AE and TUR in the semantic formula preferences of refusals with respect to the independent variables of status, gender and refusal stimulator speech act?

3. Are there differences/similarities between AE and TUR with respect to the overall order of semantic formula preferences in Position 1 and 2?
    a. Are there differences/similarities between AE and TUR in the semantic formula preferences of refusals with respect to the independent variables of status, gender, and refusal stimulator speech act in Position 1 and 2?

1.6. Limitations of the study

This present study has limitations in two main aspects. First of all, 690 refusal situations for each language were analyzed for the study. Even though the situations reflect the refusal strategies used in natural data, the results might not be generalized to occurrences of refusal strategies in all parts of daily life conversations. The second limitation is in selecting the TV series as the only criterion was to find refusals in family sitcoms. Due to this fact, different refusal strategies with different frequency counts might be encountered in other types of TV series. Based on the findings and limitations of this study, refusals have their own dynamics and further study may explore these dynamics.

1.7. Operational definitions

Pragmatics: Pragmatics is "the study of context to make inferences about meaning" (Fasold, 1990, p.119).

Corpus pragmatics: "Corpus pragmatics, as a combination of pragmatics and corpus linguistics, combines the key methodologies of both fields" (Aijmer *&* Rühlemann, 2015, p. 9).

Speech acts: The language is not only used for encoding a message but used as a tool to *do* things. So, "the actions that are carried through language are called speech acts" (Finegan, 2008, p. 283).

Refusal: A kind of speech act which describes the situation or act of not accepting to perform an action.

Semantic formula: "A particular speech act is accomplished, in terms of the primary content of an utterance, such as a reason, an explanation, or an alternative" (Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford, 1991, p. 48).

TV series: All of the episodes of a program which has a continuing plot in the broadcast which last during the year or more than a year.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Introduction

This study focuses on the differences and similarities between AE and TUR regarding the use of the speech act of refusal. This chapter begins with the pragmatics and the communicative competence (CC) and goes on with the explanation of the SAT, as being part of pragmatics. Classification of speech acts, direct and indirect speech acts are given before criticisms of the SAT. This is followed by an overview of refusals, refusal stimulator speech acts (request, offer, suggestion, invitation), and the classification of refusals. Since the study focuses on the speech act of refusals, studies on refusals in AE and TUR are given in detail. As this present study investigates the effects of status and gender on using refusals, the last section focuses on the relationship between language and culture.

2.2. Pragmatics

The emergence of pragmatics as a scientific term within the field of linguistics dates back to the 1980s and it has concerned with the effects of utterances on the interlocutors and use of language and linguistic devices with underlying meanings in communication. Until that time, scholars, such as Chomsky (1957) and Saussure (1959), did not focus on the intended meaning of utterances within certain contexts. They were mainly interested in the structures and semantic meanings of the utterances. Hence, according to Levinson (1983), the birth of the pragmatics is a kind of reaction to Chomsky.

As can be observed in our daily interactions, instead of conveying the message through direct utterances, speakers might resort to the power of pragmatic meanings of the forms so as to hide the actual meaning (Şahin, 2011). Since the context is mutually known by the interlocutors, the speaker might prefer the pragmatically loaded

utterances to be more economical. Those pragmatically loaded utterances might seem irrelevant for an outsider, but they are relevant and perspicuous for the interlocutors. Also, since those utterances give the intended meaning economically, clearly and relevantly, the maxims of Grice (1975) are not flouted.

Levinson (1983) points out the difficulty of giving the exact definition of pragmatics. For this reason, a number of different definitions have been proposed for pragmatics. However, one of the most remarkable one was done by Crystal (1985) who defines the pragmatics as:

> the study of language from the point of view of users, especially of the choices they make, the constraints they encounter in using language in social interaction and the effects their use of language has on other participants in the act of communication (p.240).

Although it is highlighted in the definition given above that pragmatic meanings could only be realized by taking the views of the interlocutors and the context into account, it is also highlighted by philosopher Morris (1938) that pragmatics is the subfield of semiotics with three branches: syntax, semantics and pragmatics. As pragmatics benefits from many subfields of linguistics, it could have various definitions depending on the view of the scholars. However, contrary to various definitions of pragmatics, the common point highlighted in the definitions is its feature of showing the importance of the relationship between the speaker and hearer in understanding the underlying meaning of an utterance.

Mey (1993) considered pragmatics as "the study of the conditions of human language uses as these are determined by the context of society" (p.42). Also, Leech (1983) highlights that pragmatics is a way of using language by the speaker in communication which has an effect on the hearer. In his book length study, Leech divides pragmatics into two categories as *sociopragmatics* and *pragmalinguistics*. The first term coined by Leech (1983) deals with the "more specific local conditions on language use" (p.10). The other term, pragmalinguistics, deals with the "particular resources which a given language provides for conveying particular illocutions" (p.11).

Pragmatics is a popular area for research due to the fact that it requires context for the understanding, interpretation of meanings and meaning potentials depending on different discourse types (Archer, Aijmer & Wichmann, 2012). As it is emphasized in the abovementioned statement, the context and users of language are essential in

pragmatics based studies.

According to the Kecskes (2012), studies in pragmatics have mostly focused on two areas: cognitive-philosophical line and sociocultural-interactional line. In cognitive-philosophical pragmatics, intention is significant between the hearer and the speaker. The main focus is hearer's inferences from the speaker. On the other hand, sociocultural-interactional view points out the difficulty of understanding the intention of speaker, hence the understanding of the dynamics of conversation is given more importance in this area. According to Kecskes (2008) and Kecskes and Zhang (2009), it is possible to combine these two approaches as sociocognitive line since there is a logical relationship between 'priori intention and emergent intention'. Priori intention occurs at the beginning of the conversation which is initial intention. On the other hand, emergent intention can be seen during the conversation.

Since pragmatics deals with the intended speaker meaning, the competences of the interlocutors play a very important role in explaining the efficiency of the interaction in a specific context.

2.3. Communicative competence

Chomsky (1965) first proposed the term of competence as a linguistic knowledge. This knowledge helps language users to figure out the meaning of the utterances produced by the interlocutors.

According to Hymes (1972), Chomsky's linguistic competence is limited as language can be used effectively in social contexts and through interaction. Hence, he first used the term CC which enables language users to convey the messages to the other interlocutor(s) smoothly and appropriately. Having the ability of using language appropriately is necessary. Meaning is more important than usage of rules in interaction. Hymes (1972) claimed that language learners get the "competence as to when to speak, when not, and as to what to talk about with whom, when, where, and in what manner" (p.277). According to Hymes, CC has four different features that a person needs to acquire to be able to have smooth interaction with the interlocutors:

1. Whether (and to what degree) something is formally possible;
2. Whether (and to what degree) something is feasible in virtue of the means of implementation available;

3. Whether (and to what degree) something is appropriate in relation to a context in which it is used and evaluated;
4. Whether (and to what degree) something is in fact done, actually performed, and what it is doing entails (p.281).

Brown (2007) supports Hyme's claim and states that to convey the message, language should be used appropriately and the CC ability helps the interlocutors communicate in a specific context. As the concept of CC gained popularity after Hymes, Canale and Swain (1980) and Canale (1983) defined the term with their perspective and categorized CC into four main subcategories:

1. *Grammatical competence:* using the structures appropriately. Grammatical rules, syntax, sentence grammar semantics, pronunciation, etc. are important.
2. *Sociolinguistic competence:* using the sociocultural rules of language. It helps language users to use appropriate language in specific contexts.
3. *Discourse competence:* using sentences combining the form and meanings. 'Intersentential relationship' is necessary in this approach (Brown, 2007).
4. *Strategic competence:* using the sentences combining the verbal and non-verbal strategies. Hence, it helps language users to overcome the difficulties of language breakdowns.

A considerable amount of research has been conducted on CC across different languages on the use of different speech acts to present the examples of patterns used in given languages (Merdin, 2013). To show the importance of social aspects on CC, Berns (1990) claimed that CC is shaped by every aspect of social life. Savignon (1997) supported this view and divided the CC into four elements:

1. Communicative competence is a dynamic concept, not a static concept
2. It applies to both spoken and written language and other symbolic systems
3. It is context specific
4. It is relative and depends on the cooperation of all participants (pp.14-15).

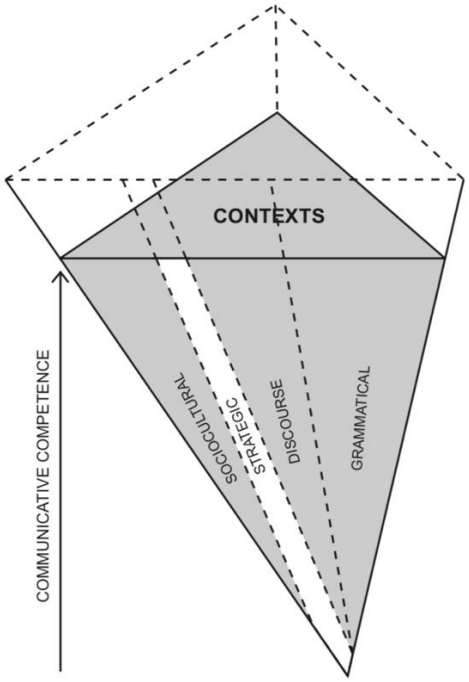

Figure 1. Savignon's components of communicative competence

Savignon (2002, p. 8).

As the Figure 1 shows, Savignon divides the communicative components into four dimensions which is different from the components that she put forward earlier. The difference from the previous model of CC by Savignon (1983) is that this model has a sociocultural line instead of sociolinguistics line.

Depending on Savignon's explanation and classification of CC, it could be understood that due to the sociocultural aspects, discourse and the specific context, pragmatic competence of an interlocutor gains importance in explaining the effectiveness of an interaction.

As for pragmatic competence, the relationship between CC and pragmatic competence cannot be disregarded. As an important constituent of CC, Bachman (1990) divided the pragmatic competence into 'illocutionary and sociolinguistic competence'. The first one is interested in the communicative action while the second term is interested in the use of language in an appropriate way in specific contexts with different people from various statuses (p.87).

As Dastjerdi and Nasri (2013) stated, pragmatic competence refers to being able to exploit pragmatically acceptable speech act in a specific speech event. Also, Fraser

(1983) highlights that pragmatic competence is the awareness of getting the meaning of the speaker by the hearer (p. 29). As can be understood from Fraser's definition, contrary to Dastjerdi and Nasri (2013), who focused on the production of the speaker, he points out the hearer's perspective in pragmatic competence. However, Taguchi (2008) supports Dastjerdi and Nasri (2013) by defining pragmatic competence as the "ability to perform language functions in a context" (p.34). As can be understood from the abovementioned statements, pragmatic competence is required for a successful interaction between the interlocutors since the speaker needs to use the language appropriately to reach the pragmatic goals of the message in mind, whereas the hearer has to comprehend the intended meaning and decipher what the speaker tries to convey.

The importance of CC could be observed in any aspect of the interaction. However, since speech acts require interlocutors' immediate reactions that are grammatically, socially and pragmatically appropriate in the given context, these action requiring forms bring to light the level of CC of the interlocutors. Having a high level of CC yields to a successful and smooth interaction since the interlocutors could be able to obey the maxims of Grice (1975), and be polite and save the face of themselves (Brown and Levinson, 1987) and the other interlocutors with their words or actions. Since CC's having intricate relationship between forms requiring actions, the theory of speech act has gained popularity since the 1960s.

2.4. Speech act theory

SAT was pioneered by Austin (1962). According to him, we use language to 'do things and we perform the acts'. Austin states that language is not just for saying something but also performing it. Yule (1996) defines speech act as "actions performed via utterances" (p.47). These actions that are triggered by the utterances are distinguished by Austin as locutionary, illocutionary and perlocutionary acts. A locutionary act is what is said. Literal meaning of the utterance is important. Yule (1996) indicates that in locutionary act there is a 'meaningful linguistic expression' (p.48). Performative verbs are used to indicate that the speaker of the utterance ask for an action explicitly, for instance "prepare something to eat". On the other hand, as in the sentence "I am hungry", the requirement of performance is uttered implicitly and it requires an action thus it is labeled as an illocutionary act. Saying something implicitly and performing it using the particular language functions are significant. In the third

aspect, we are looking from the hearer's side in which "the hearer will recognize the effect you intended" (Yule, 1996, p.49). The effect of the utterances on participants is crucial. Austin (1962) gives a simple example to make it more clear:

> Act (A) or Locution
>
> He said to me 'shoot her!' meaning by 'shoot' shoot and referring by 'her' to her.
>
> Act (B) or Illocution
>
> He urged (or advised, ordered) me to shoot her.
>
> Act (C) or Perlocution
>
> He persuaded me to shoot her (p. 101).

In the examples given above, Austin (1962) separated the acts from each other. In the first example "He said….", the literal meaning is taken into consideration like "shoot, her". In these two words the locution is thought. On the other hand, in the second example "He urged….", the illocution is "urged" (advised, ordered...). Someone is forced to do something. In the last one, the perlocution is basically "persuaded, pulled up..." the hearer. He persuades the hearer to do the action (pp. 101-102).

According to Austin (1962), performative utterances need certain conditions to consider them to be successful and these conditions are called as "felicity conditions". If these conditions are met, the performative utterances will be appropriate otherwise, it is a complete failure. These conditions are:

1. There must exist an accepted conventional procedure having a certain conventional effect, that procedure to include the uttering of certain words by certain persons in certain circumstances, and further, the particular persons and circumstances in a given case must be appropriate for the invocation of the particular procedure invoked.
2. The procedure must be executed by all participants both correctly and completely.
3. Where, as often, the procedure is designed for use by persons having certain thoughts or feelings or for the inauguration of certain consequential conduct on the part of any participant, then a person participating in and so invoking the procedure must intend so to conduct themselves, and further must actually so conduct themselves subsequently (pp.14-15).

According to Searle (1976), speaking a language needs to be governed by certain rules. Searle (1976) continued to systematize Austin's work and improved the details of Austin's 'felicity conditions'. The four felicity conditions are propositional content conditions, preparatory condition, sincerity condition and essential condition.

Propositional content conditions are the acts fulfilled by the speaker as a result of an act done by the hearer. The preparatory content condition includes background circumstances (Schiffrin, 1994). The sincerity content condition includes the speaker's intentions and the essential condition is a connection between what is said and what is performed.

In addition to the explanation, theories and the conditions of the realization of speech acts, due to their being various in language, speech acts have been classified according to the perspective adopted by the scholars.

2.4.1. Classification of speech acts

Speech acts have been classified by scholars in different ways. Austin (1962), who is one of the most prominent ones in the field has five classes of illocutionary verbs: verdictives, exercitives, commissives, behabitives, expositives.

- *Verdictives:* As it is understood from the name, giving a verdict is essential. Judicial acts are more important than exercitives. The truth has a connection with this act. (e.g., reckon, describe, analyze, rate, calculate).
- *Exercitives:* Giving decisions against or for to an action. The authority gives the decision. Arbitrators prefer using exercitives. (e.g., appoint, dismiss, order, sentence)
- *Commissives:* Committing the speaker to do an action. It does not only include promising or undertaking the action also declarations and announcements. (e.g., promise, undertake, oppose, swear)
- *Behabitives:* There is a reaction to other people's attitudes and acts. Austin states that we have many terms to express the attitudes like apologizing, congratulating.
- *Expositives:* clarifying the views or involving the expositions like 'I repeat that, I cite, I recapitulate' (p.151)

According to Searle (1976), it is possible to broad this illocutionary verbs and he classified this abovementioned category into five part and they are based on the "direction of fit", "illocutionary point", "content" and "expressed psychological state". Searle (1977) criticized the taxonomy of Austin since a clear distinction of the categories was not made (p.34). There is not a clear principle among the categories. Even some basic words like "describe" can be seen in more than one category. Hence, he created his own basic categories and their descriptions.

The five categories are:

- *Representatives:* Speakers' utterances as a claim, suggestion, beliefs etc. the direction of fit is 'word to world' which means the utterances match the realities. (e.g., asserting, concluding, complaining, deducing)
- *Commissives:* Committing the speaker to do some future actions. The speaker believes that the utterances used in language exist in the world. This fit is from 'world to word'. This is same with Austin's Commissives. (e.g., promises, threats, vows)
- *Directives:* Attempts by the speaker to get the hearer to do something. The utterances might be asking, ordering, inviting. This category is 'word to world' fit.
- *Expressive:* Showing a psychological state to hearer. In this category, expression of feelings and attitudes are used. Thanking, congratulating, welcoming are some of the examples.
- *Declarations:* Immediate changes in the institutional state of affairs. All of the utterances have a power to change the world. Baptizing, declaring war, firing etc.

According to Archer et al. (2012) the examples specifically formed to explain the features of speech acts within the boundaries of SAT illustrate optimal or 'prototypical' exploitations of the speech acts. However, occurrences in real life are not as clear as the ones appearing in the theory. Due to overlaps with other speech acts and their having unclear boundaries, deciding on the exact type of a speech act could be burdensome.

One of the other classifications created by scholars was done by Bach and Harnish (1979). They stated that their taxonomy is large in scope and very clear. Most

of the illocutionary acts can be found in their taxonomy and one of the main purposes of this taxonomy is to 'express attitudes' and 'illocutionary intents'. Bach and Harnish (1979) divide "communicative illocutionary acts" into four kinds: constatives, directives, commissives and acknowledgments.

- *Constatives* express the speaker's belief and his intention or desire that the hearer have or form a like belief (e.g, descriptives, ascriptives, confirmatives)
- *Directives* express the speaker's attitude toward some prospective action by the hearer (e.g., questions, prohibitives, permissives)
- *Commissives* express the speaker's intention and belief that his utterance obligates him to do something (e.g., promises, offers)
- *Acknowledgements* express feelings regarding the hearer or, in cases where the utterance is clearly perfunctory or formal (e.g., apologize, greet, reject) (pp. 40-41).

Even though refusals are put under the category of acknowledgements by Bach and Harnish (1979), the taxonomy of refusals suggested by Beebe et al. (1990) clearly indicate that it could be possible to categorize speech acts, refusals in particular, under more than one main category suggested by Bach and Harnish. For instance, "I can clean the table instead of washing the dishes" is an indirect refusal and it falls into the category of commissives. Also, the example "Could you share the details of the survey?" may function as a refusal given as a response to the request "Would you like to fill out the questionnaire?", yet this response is a requestive under the category of 'directives'. Although Bach and Harnish suggest that refusals should be categorized only under the category of acknowledgements, the examples indicate that refusals could be categorized under more than one of the four main categories. For this reason, the classification offered by Bach and Harnish (1979) contradicts with the complex nature of speech acts and the taxonomy of refusals offered by Beebe et al. (1990). Thus, Bach and Harnish's classification will not be implemented into our study.

Bach and Harnish (1979) stated that the classification of speech acts should be principled. Because of this reason, Searle's criteria were adapted to this study. As pinpointed by Bulut (2000), the criteria for the classification of speech acts offered by Searle are designed in a basic way by removing the potential effects of crosscultural boundaries. Since this study is a crosscultural one aiming to explore the refusals in Turkish and English, the criteria offered by Searle were used to label speech acts as

refusals and the speech acts of requests, invitations, suggestions, and offers that trigger the use of refusals.

2.4.2. Direct and indirect speech acts

According to Archer et al. (2012), deciding on the type of speech acts, considering directness and indirectness, is an issue (p. 41). In the indirect utterances, the speakers do not say what they mean literally but hearers can infer what he/she means.

As Searle (1979) indicates, the utterances of the speaker may convey different meanings, for example the sentence "I want you to do it" could be meant as a statement and a request (p. 30). Hence "indirect speech acts, cases in which one illocutionary act is performed indirectly by way of performing another" (p.31).

According to Searle (1979), while the conversation is going on, with the help of indirect speech acts, the speaker means more than what he/she utters depending on their backgrounds that they have shared before (p. 32). As in the example of Searle (1979):

Example 1

A: Let's go to the movies tonight

B: I have to study for an exam (p. 33)

Normally, the answer of the B is not a rejection. Hence, Searle (1979) asks these questions "How does A know that the utterance is a rejection of the proposal?", "How is it possible for B to intent or mean the utterance of B as a rejection of the proposal?" (p.33). As a result of these questions, Searle came up with some terminologies like *primary illocutionary use (not literal)* and *illocutionary use (literal)* (pp.33).

According to Finegan (2008) to get a successful indirect speech act, the interlocutors should have a common background to understand each other well. For instance; *Are you done with your sociology paper?*, and the other replies *Is Rome in Spain*?. In this example, the answer is given according to their background which is based on geography (p. 291). Moreover, using the indirect speech act in interrogative structures is very common as in the example below:

Example 2

Kayla: Is the boss in?

Ryan: The light is on in her office.

Kayla: Oh, thanks (p.290).

This example clearly shows the indirect speech act in Ryan's utterance. They also share the same background knowledge as they understand each other well. That is, Kayla is interpreting Ryan's utterance like the boss studies in light not in the dark so if the lights are on, she is in her office (p.290).

If the speaker utters what he /she means literally (illocutionary use), we have a direct speech act. According to Yule (2010), using the structures like "Did you…? Are they…? or Can we….?" in interrogative structures, make them direct speech act in which there is a connection between the form and the function (p. 134). Verbs can be used while using the direct speech acts in the utterances explicitly has an illocutionary force (Allan, 1986).

2.4.3. Criticism of the speech act theory

Even though the popularity of speech act studies seems to be decreasing, in reality using the SAT in research is increasing day by day. According to Verschueren (1999) "speech act analyses are reasonably accurate approximations of the prototypical instances of verbal behavior describable by means of the English verbs used as Labels" (p.132). Moreover, Verschueren (1999) claimed that it is important to regard this theory as a kind of 'salvation operation' or else attempting to criticize the theory might be easier (p.132). Especially the aspects of the criticisms mainly focus on Austin and Searle's theories of speech acts. Geis (1995) claims that these theories give special attention to one word not the concept, that is, intuitions stand out in their theory. Applying the speech act to the more complex structure is very difficult (Archer et al., 2012). Some researchers (Leech, 1983; Thomas, 1995; LoCastro, 2003) suggest that using the functional factors is necessary for speech acts.

Another criticism to Searle is that the theory pays attention to the speaker's role not the hearer's role in the communication which is very crucial in empirical studies (Archer et al., 2012). The following utterances are not given importance. As only the speaker's first utterance is taken into account, the rest of the conversation's utterances are neglected.

Since the theories of speech acts do not focus on one specific speech act at a time, insufficient attention might be given to explanation of specific speech acts. For this reason, studies generally focus on individual speech acts to be able to draw a more concrete picture of the characteristics of the speech act that is under scrutiny.

2.5. Refusals

Refusing somebody's request, suggestion, offer or invitation is an important issue as they may lead to troubles among the interlocutors if the proper refusal strategies are not used during the communication (Hassani et al., 2011). The breakdowns or misunderstandings occurring as a natural result of the misuse of refusal strategies could be observed not only in second language communication but also in native language interaction. Refusals have attracted researchers' attention from a sociolinguistic point of view as they are complicated. So they might be risky and the choices of refusal strategy vary according to stimulator speech acts (Beebe et al., 1990).

Having the pragmatic competence of refusals and being able to use them appropriately in specific contexts have paramount importance for smooth interaction both socio-pragmatically and pragma-linguistically. Hence, this specific type of speech act has been one of the most frequently studied topics in the field of speech act related pragmatic research (Ghazanferi, Bonyadi & Malekzadeh, 2013) . Sharing the same view, Sadler and Eröz (2001) claimed that the reason of conducting studies about refusals is due to their 'complex structure' and they involve indirectness (p. 53). The importance of using appropriate refusal strategies and the results of not exploiting those strategies appropriately were explained by Gass (1996):

> In some cultures, to refuse an offer of something may necessitate much 'hedging' or 'beating around the bush' before an actual refusal might be made. In other cultures, a refusal may not necessitate as much mitigation. The result may, in some cases, be a misinterpretation of whether or not an actual refusal has been made, but may also be a misunderstanding of intentionality of the refuser. In these latter instances, an individual may be labeled as 'rude', not because of the fact of refusal, but because of the way refusal was executed (p. 1).

Gender and status are the factors that dynamically influence the use of refusals. The studies that focused on the speech acts of refusals mostly analyzed the influence of gender and status on using refusals. There are many studies (Chao-Chih & Bresnahan, 1996; Bulut, 2000; Sadler & Eröz, 2001; Hatipoğlu, 2010; Hassani et al., 2011; Moaveni, 2014) that paid attention to the effects of gender on using the refusal strategies. However, this will be the first study focusing on the effects of the genders of the speaker and the hearer on the use of refusal strategies in AE and TUR. That is, the preferences of males to males and females, or females to females and males while using refusals will be analyzed in this study. Previous studies focused on only the genders that

used refusals not the effects of the refusal hearers. Social distance is another issue that should be considered while analyzing the ways of refusal strategies. Status of the interlocutor can be a determining factor on the way of choosing refusals (Liao & Bresnaham, 1996). So various number of studies have focused on social status of the interlocutors (Beebe et al., 1990; Beckers, 1999; Bulut, 2000; Tekyıldız, 2006; Wannaruk, 2008;Allaimi & Naimi, 2011; Şahin, 2011; Merdin, 2013) . There are few studies analyzing the effects of status on using TUR and AE while refusing someone.

2.6. Refusal stimulator speech acts

According to Beebe et al. (1990), refusals are important as their form and content vary depending on the stimulator speech act (e.g., invitation, request, offer, or suggestion). Refusals are uttered as a result of these stimulator speech acts to direct the conversation according to the needs and preferences of the speaker giving the refusal.

2.6.1. Request

Request is one of the utterances that people usually use in everyday encounters. It is asking something in a polite way like asking to get mobile phone from a friend. It is an important fact in people's daily conversation as it can increase the social relationship between interlocutors (Sattar et al., 2014). Moreover, it expresses the interlocutors' desire to do something. Bach and Harnish (1979) express that "hearer takes speaker actually to have the desire and the intention he is expressing and that hearer perform the action requested of him" (p.48).

Requests can be used in daily life for different purposes like getting information, help or favor from each other. Hence, requests have been studied by many researchers (Clark & Lucy, 1975; Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984; Schauer, 2004; Tabar, 2012). According to Jan, Lin and Li (2015) when the requests are preferred 'cultural norms and contextual factors' play an important role in the conversation flow (p.179).

According to Bulut (2000), requests have been understood or uttered in different ways and commented in a variety of ways so he defined it as:

> pre-event acts: they express the speaker's expectation of the hearer with regards to prospective action, verbal or nonverbal. Hearers have different interpretations of requests: they may take them as intrusive impingements on freedom of action, or even as a shown in the exercise of power. On the other hand, speakers may also hesitate to make request for fear of exposing a need or risking the hearer's loss of face (p. 44).

Requests are risky to some extent as they might be understood as a command given by the speaker which might lead to misunderstandings. Also, in some cultures even some words uttered or used as a request might have different meanings in different societies. As Bulut (2000) highlighted, a request might be interpreted differently in 'two differently oriented societies' for instance, order from higher to lower status person might be seen as a request in an American context (p.46).

2.6.2. Offer

Offers can be thought as commissives since the speaker is forced to perform an action if the reaction of the hearer to the proposal given by the speaker is positive (Bulut, 2000). Commissive is a part of illocutionary acts and it obligates the speaker to do something. So, when the hearer accepts the proposal or commitment of speaker, it means that the speaker has an obligation as a result of the hearer's acceptance of offer (Bach & Harnish, 1979).

Nelson et al. (2002) define the offers as asking the hearer whether he/she wants something like a piece of cake (p.169). However, this proposal has different meanings in various cultures for instance offering a piece of cake might be kind in Turkey while it might be rude in another culture which might mean "you are eating much and your are fat so Do you want a piece of cake?". Moreover, in Turkey, this offer is accepted as a very kind offer when you are a guest. Hence, cross- cultural studies are born as a result of these differences among the societies.

According to Searle (1979), committing someone to do something can be thought as offers and speaker's role is significant by making an offer. However, Hancher (1979) highlighted the importance of hearer who can direct the conversation with the utterances to the speaker. For instance, offering someone a juice might result in with the acceptance of hearer. So, if the hearer accepts the offer, he/she directs the conversation and speaker will have an obligation to perform his/her offer.

2.6.3. Suggestion

Suggestions are results of ideas that are used to suggest something to someone to think about that issue (Nelson et al., 2002). The hearer is thinking about the beliefs of speaker and is also deciding to perform it or not. Bach and Harnish (1979) took this act

under the category of ‘constatives’ in which there is a reason to do something or there is a belief but not enough reason (p.44).

2.6.4. Invitation

Invitation is a kind of attempt to get the hearer an event or an action by the speaker, and is thought to be good for the hearer. It is a type of request but the hearer gets the invitation for himself at this time (Bulut, 2000; Nelson et al., 2002). Inviting someone is very kind if you do not insist on doing something so the direction of fit is ‘world to world‘ (Searle, 1976).

This act is related to cultural norms like the other acts which can be easily understood by the example of Abbood (2016). When the Arab speakers want to invite someone, they insist on to the invited person many times or else it might be thought that he/she does not want to host. This way is the polite way of inviting someone. On the other hand, if you insist on or force someone to accept the invitation many times from Western culture, it will cause a problem as it is not polite way of inviting. Inviting someone by insisting many times is not welcomed in that culture.

Since these four speech acts, request, offer, suggestion and invitation, might trigger use of refusals by the interlocutors, depending on the context, status, gender and many other variables, the type of the refusal and refusing strategy might differ in order to save face and be polite. To have a better understanding of the relationship between abovementioned variables and types of refusals interlocutors prefer, refusals have been classified by scholars.

2.7. Classification of refusals

Most researchers (Bulut, 2000; Nelson et al., 2002; Allami & Naeimi, 2011) have preferred using the taxonomy of Beebe et al. (1990) to analyze the refusal strategies. Beebe et al. divide this taxonomy into three parts as direct, indirect and adjunct to refusals. The direct part includes performative like “I refuse” and non-performative like “no”. Indirect part includes eleven headlines and fifteen subheads. As an alternative to first two parts, adjunct to refusals offer different choices to the researchers (See Appendix 1). Since the taxonomy of classification of refusals given by Beebe et al. is a comprehensive one, many studies have been conducted to observe the types of refusals used by users or learners of a specific language by taking this

taxonomy as a base.

2.8. Studies on refusals

According to Wannaruk (2008), examining refusals is very popular topic for years. Numerous scholars have conducted studies on refusals in terms of comparing different languages. For example, Ghazanfari, Bonyadi and Malekzadeh (2013) compared refusals of Persian and English speakers, Guo (2012) compared Chinese and English.

Research on the speech act of refusals falls into two categories in this section: first part includes the studies that investigate refusals across different languages, the other part includes studies that compare the refusals of Turkish and English.

In their seminal work, Beebe et al. (1990) conducted research by collecting data from native speakers of Japanese, native speakers of English and Japanese learners of English. They used DCT and refusal-stimulating speech acts of requests, invitations, offers and suggestions. There were sixty subjects in the study (20 Japanese speaking English (JSE), 20 Japanese speaking Japanese (JJS), 20 American speaking English (AES)). They used the taxonomy of Beebe and Cummings (1985). Americans preferred indirect refusals in the given situations no matter what the status of the person giving the refusal stimulating speech acts is, but Japanese used indirect forms while they were refusing a person of higher status and used direct forms while refusing a lower person. Moreover, Japanese learners of English made pragmatic transfers and these are lined up: the order of strategies, the frequency of strategies, and the content of the reasons.

As a further study in refusals, Nelson et al. (2002) compared the refusals of American English and Egyptian Arabic. Fifty-five subjects participated in the research. Frequency of refusal strategies and types, direct and indirect strategies, effect of interlocutor's status were examined. Modified version of DCT in written form was employed and then an interviewer read the situations loudly to the participants and their answers were recorded. The instrument had ten situations including suggestions, offers, invitations, and requests. The reliability of the language used in the DCT was assessed by many translators since the same DCT was used both in English and Egyptian Arabic. They found that Americans used more refusal strategies than Egyptians but in the use of indirect refusal strategies, they seemed nearly similar. Giving reason was the most preferred strategy by the participants. In terms of the status, the researchers found the

same results similar to what previous scholars found which could be summarized as status had an important effect on deciding the refusal strategies while communicating.

Al-Eryani (2007) investigated the refusal strategies used by Yemeni native speakers of Arabic, Yemeni learners of English and Americans native speakers of English. A DCT with six different situations was used to collect the data. The taxonomy of Beebe et al. (1990) was preferred to classify the data. When the results of native speakers' utterances in this study were analyzed, the effects of cross-cultural issue could easily be observed as the two groups used different semantic formulas to refuse invitation, suggestion, offer and advice. When the status was equal, the groups preferred using the same strategies 'excuse'. When the refuser was higher, however, Yemeni native speakers of Arabic tended to use more direct strategies. In the position of lower refuser, Yemeni native speakers of Arabic uttered 'excuse' much. The results showed that native speakers of Americans used the same strategies, that is, the status did not affect their usage of strategy.

Another study compared the use of refusals between Chinese and American participants. Guo (2012) investigated the frequency of utilizing refusals between Chinese and Americans. 60 Chinese and 60 American subjects participated in the research. The data were elicited by means of a DCT consisting of eight situations of invitations, offers, suggestion and requests for the different status participants. In this study, the researcher took "the frequency of strategy uses, the distribution of refusal strategies and effect of interlocutor status and social distance between interlocutors" (p. 249) into account. She found that Americans used more refusal strategies and utilized indirect refusals like *"I would prefer to take care of it (statement of alternative), thank you (consideration of interlocutor's feeling)"*. However, the Chinese subjects utilized a greater proportion of indirect strategies than Americans. The most preferred strategies were reason, statement of alternative and regret by the participants. There was not a great difference in using refusals between American and Chinese groups as the frequencies and percentages of the indirect strategies exploited by both groups were close to each other. However, some of the refusal stimulator speech acts were declined with the help of different refusal strategies by the groups. For instance, exploitation of direct strategies was the most frequently preferred one while giving refusals to requests by Americans.

Ghazanfari et al. (2013) compared refusal strategies performed by native Persian and English speakers. Refusal utterances and gender differences between two languages were examined. The way of collecting data is different from most of the previous studies as the researchers used movies. In this particular study, 50 English and 50 Persian movies were watched to gather data. The findings of Ghazanfari et al. reveal that Persian speakers used refusals more frequently. Moreover, requests were the most frequently refused stimulator by Persian and English speakers while suggestion was the least. When the gender differences were taken as an independent variable, both Persian and English speakers used excuse-reason-explanation (ERE).

Allami & Naeimi (2011) conducted a study analyzing the cross-linguistic differences between Persian and American speakers. The language proficiency of participants, status of interlocutors and stimulating speech acts were taken into consideration in the study. DCT was given to the participants and the answers were classified by using the taxonomy of Beebe et al. (1990). The results indicated that the status of the interlocutors affects the use of semantic formulas. Moreover, while refusing in the second language, the participants had difficulty in transferring the language.

2.9. Refusal studies in American and Turkish contexts

Even though the investigations into the speech act of refusals in Turkish have been limited, some significant studies are chronologically shared below.

The first of them belongs to Bulut (2000) aiming to explore refusals in Turkish, English and Turkish learners of English. In this study, there were three groups, American subjects (AE), Turkish subjects (TT) and Turkish speakers of English (TE). He used DCT and its oral closed role-play version. First, the groups took DCT and three weeks after they participated in closed role play phase. While coding the data, the refusal taxonomy of Beebe et al. (1990) was adopted for the study. In this cross-cultural study, refusals were analyzed in terms of semantic formulas, order of semantic formulas, politeness strategies, gender, stimulating speech act and status. The results indicated that (ERE) was the most preferred semantic formula among the groups both in written and oral data. Although all of the groups preferred using indirect refusals, the frequency and percentage of the direct strategies showed that American participants used more direct strategies than the Turkish participants which could be related to

collectivism and individualism. With regard to the gender, it did not have a significant effect on refusals while the stimulating speech acts and status were more influential.

In Sadler and Eröz (2001), three different groups were participated in the research: American, Lao and Turkish. DCT was employed in the study consisting of twelve situations. While participants were refusing invitation, suggestion, offer and request, the distinction between the relationships of participants was considered (lower, higher, equal status). Although the results of the study mainly focused on the pragmatic transfer issue, the scholars compared the use of refusals in terms of status and gender among the groups as well. The analyses indicated that in AE and TUR, the participants used the same order of semantic formulas while refusing. Among the four refusal stimulator speech acts, request was refused much. The numbers of using refusals in utterances were very high in female participants. In the issue of status, the scholars indicated that the Turkish women were much politer while refusing higher status.

As the studies in this part showed, majority of studies related to the speech act of refusals focus on the pragmatic transfer. One of these studies belongs to Aksoyalp (2009) who used DCT with 16 native speakers of English (NSEs), 16 native speakers of Turkish (NSTs) and 150 Turkish-speaking EFL learners as interlanguage group (IL). She analyzed the frequency of refusing invitation, suggestion, offer, and request from higher, lower and equal statuses. In the end, it was seen that NSEs utilized more direct strategies than NSTs. However, the percentages of using indirect strategies were nearly the same. Moreover, cross-cultural differences and similarities were observed among the groups. The results showed that the social status of the interlocutors played an important role while choosing the refusal strategies.

Another study examining the speech act of refusal from a cross-cultural perspective is Çimen's (2009) research. It investigated the extent to which they show variation depending on the strategy choice, refusal types, and status across native speakers of American English, Turkish native speakers and Turkish learners of English as a foreign language. She analyzed the results adapting the DCT developed by Beebe et al. (1990). The analysis of the sixty subjects showed that there were not big differences among the groups in terms of using refusals in each situation.

Another study which was conducted to analyze the refusal strategies belong to Genç and Tekyıldız (2009) who were interested in Turkish EFL learners from different

regions. The participants were Turkish EFL learners and native speakers of English from urban and rural regions. While using DCT, the researchers compared these two groups in terms of speech act of refusals. The groups preferred using nearly the same strategies. Turkish EFL group preferred using direct speech acts to equal and lower groups while native speakers of English preferred indirect strategy. However, overall percentages showed that there were few differences among the groups.

With the purpose of comparing refusals, Şahin (2011) conducted a study getting data from a DCT which includes 12 situations. The subjects were Turkish speakers of English (69), native speakers of American English (40) and native speakers of Turkish (58). "Gossip Girl", a famous American TV series, was examined to gather data. Lovers, close friends, classmates and acquaintances were included in the study to analyze their refusals to invitations, requests, suggestions and offers. TV series were transcribed and analyzed after the pilot studies. The results indicated that Americans utilized indirect refusals to equal-status people. Moreover, Americans' indirect refusal strategy preference was also observed in their refusals to the close friends, acquaintances and classmates because they did not utilize indirect strategies to them. "Excuse/reason/explanation" had the highest percentage of semantic formula. Americans used them to equal-status interlocutors. Turkish speakers' preference for refusing was indirect strategy. However, there were big differences of preferences while refusing invitation, suggestion, offer and requests. "Excuse/reason/explanation" had the highest percentage for Turkish interlocutors as it is generally used to maintain the relationship well.

Aiming to analyze the refusal strategies of Turkish, Polish and Latvian participants, Asmalı (2013) utilized DCT and found that Turkish subjects used indirect strategies more frequently in their native language. But the interesting result of this study was that the participants' total numbers of using strategies were similar in all groups. Not only the strategies that they used but also the frequency of strategies they used were similar and ERE was the most frequently preferred one in indirect strategies. In a similar study, Çapar (2014) investigated the refusal strategies of Turkish female EFL learners. It yielded the same results with Asmalı (2013) as the participants favored the ERE most. Additionally, status of the interlocutors had a big effect on preferring the strategy of refusals.

In a more recent study, Merdin (2013) investigated the refusal strategies preferred by Turkish and American English speakers while refusing email invitations. DCT and emails were used to collect data, and 60 refusals from emails and 120 refusals from DCT were collected. Emails were separated into three parts as the opening, body and closing parts. However, opening and closing parts of the email were not analyzed as the focus was refusals. The taxonomy of Beebe et al. (1990) was used in the study while coding the data. Results indicated that Turkish speakers exploited more strategies when compared to Americans. While refusing the invitations, participants preferred using the strategy of giving reason. Moreover, the status of the interlocutors affects the use of refusal strategy as the speakers of both languages used more strategies while refusing the people who they knew well.

As a recent study, Çiftçi (2016) investigated refusals by comparing Turkish native speakers, American native speakers and Turkish EFL speakers of English. She collected the data by using DCT in which there were six situations. The results indicated that ERE was the most frequently used refusal strategy. Although the status of the interlocutors changed, the refusal strategy that participants preferred did not change, they used ERE to all status levels. The researcher claimed that Turkish speakers used more varied strategies and specific explanations to the high status interlocutors. Moreover, refusing a high status person was very difficult for Turkish speakers.

2.10. Culture and language

According to Kramsch (2011), language was thought to be different from literature and anthropology in 1900s. The departments in the universities and the scholars were distinct from each other. Saussure and Levi-Strauss were the pioneers of the fields at that time so linguists, grammarians and cultural anthropologists followed these scholars' way (p.305). Over time, the ideas about culture and language relation have altered. As Kramsch stated, "culture was to make its way into applied linguistics through the study of language as discourse" (p. 306). Moreover, Kramsch claimed that culture is a kind of 'context' and is affected by 'tradition, convention, fashion and ideology' of the culture that speakers share. Culture represented the 'national or ethnic groups' in that time however, after World War II, the ideas have changed and 'one standard national linguistic system' was headed in the same way with 'one national culture' (p.306). Those changes were the results of changing technology, revolutions in

ideas or alterations in societies. As the technology has started to have access to everywhere, it is possible to change the culture which effects language. Culture is a kind of social identity of people as they can easily represent their culture through language. Even the ideas of the community, social norms or values have an effect on language that might be seen through the interaction.

According to Gass and Selinker (2008) "languages have a means of performing speech acts and presumably speech acts themselves are universals, yet the form used in specific speech acts varies from culture to culture" (p. 288). This fact is significant in every society. Another explanation of the relation between language and culture was done by Yule (2010) who defines it as "ideas and assumptions about the nature of things and people that we learn when we become members of social groups" (p.267). So, people get all the things from the social groups which they belong to, not only the ideas, fashion and tradition but also the language that is shaped by these things. These forms give a shape to the language that people use in that culture and the changes are seen unconsciously in the language. For instance, in some cultures, parents are authority in the family while in the other culture children are equal to their parents, there is no authority but there is individualism. Hence, in the first family in which the parents are authority, children will use different types of refusals to their parents from the family that the parents are not authority. The children might use indirect speech acts of refusals while the others might prefer direct speech acts of refusals without any explanation while expressing their opinions. Beebe et al. (1990) confirmed that "refusals are sensitive to sociolinguistic variables, such as status of the interlocutor" (p. 56). Because of this situation, language is shaped also by sociolinguistic variables.

As Yule (2010) stated, the culture we have shape the language that we use like the Pacific in which there was no *horse* so they did not have this word in their language as they did not need a word like *horse (*p. 267). According to Goddart (2006), "people in different cultures speak differently because they think differently, feel differently, and relate differently to other people" (p. 14). To figure out these differences and similarities, cross cultural and intercultural settings could be analyzed. According to Kecskes (2017), intercultural pragmatics deal with the common language used by different cultures in interaction while in cross-cultural pragmatics, the use of cultures' own language is analyzed separately. There is no interaction in cross- cultural study but the use of language is compared.

Culture was analyzed and studied by many scholars especially in cross cultural pragmatics (Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper, 1989; Beebe et al., 1990; Bulut, 2000; Nelson et al., 2002; Şahin, 2011). The aim of these cross-cultural studies was to find the differences and similarities among the languages that were used in specific cultures so the conversations or the utterances were analyzed to find out these exchanges. The common results of these studies indicated that each culture has its own understanding of speech acts. Even though the use of refusal strategies in cross-cultural and intercultural communication settings were investigates previously, the current study has focused on the uses of refusal strategies in TUR and AE which were extracted from TV series. Hence, the uses represented actual preferences of native speakers of TUR and AE as the data compiled from TV series are accepted to be natural. Furthermore, in addition to the previous studies, the possible effects of hearer's gender on the use of refusal strategies have also been explored in this study.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

3.1. Introduction

This chapter presents the design of the research, data collection procedure and the data analysis. The main focus of this research is to find out the differences and similarities between AE and TUR in terms of using refusal strategies. Gender, status of the interlocutors and stimulating speech acts are also investigated.

3.2. Research design

This study is designed as a contrastive analysis study aiming to find the similarities and differences between AE and TUR with regard to speech act of refusal. According to Granger (2003), contrastive analysis "consisted in charting areas of similarity and difference between languages and basing the teaching syllabus on the contrastive findings" (p.17). Therefore, the ultimate aim of this study is to figure out the differences and similarities between AE and TUR, and find patterns of refusals between the two cultures. Also, a corpus based approach, also known as top-down approach, to refusals was adopted in this dissertation since the refusals found in AE and TUR TV series were classified depending on an already existing taxonomy, the taxonomy of Beebe et al. (1990).

3.3. Data collection

While collecting the data, deciding the most appropriate data collection tool is one of the most challenging parts of the research as the data collection tool helps us to make the study more effective (Şahin, 2011). According to Cohen and Olshtain (1994) and Cohen (1996), there are lots of methods for collecting speech act data like interviews (Al-Issa, 1998), role play (Bulut, 2000; Vaezi, 2011; Demirkol, 2015) questionnaire (Hinkel, 1997), films (Rose,1997), DCT (Beebe et al., 1990; Nelson et al., 2002, Wannaruk, 2008), TV series (Culpeper, Bousfield, & Wichmann, 2003; Şahin,

2011) and movies (Ghazanfari et al., 2013). Each of them has its own limits. For instance, DCT is one of the most preferred data collection tools but the questions in the test might direct the participants to prefer specific refusal strategies which is not acceptable while conducting a study. For instance, Houck and Gass (1996) criticize DCT as "sandwiches between an opening statement and a follow up statement" (p.47). Moreover, Wolfson (1983) claimed that DCT does not provide the actual usage of speech. Since DCT is a written form of possible speech situations that interlocutors might encounter in real life, the answers given in DCT only reflect the ideas or thoughts that speakers might give in real life situations (Çiftçi, 2016). The biggest problem with DCT seems to be its written form since participants of a DCT could have quite a lot of time to consider on their replies to specific situations. However, in daily conversations, as the nature of spoken interaction requires, interlocutors have to respond to situations as fast as possible to avoid breakdowns in the construction of the conversation. Also, the number of situations given in a DCT is generally limited. For this reason, participants are confined to show their reactions to those limited situations. However, in real life people come across various types and numbers of speech acts that they need to handle.

Hymes (1962) and Wolfson (1983)remarked the importance of collecting natural data for speech act studies. In a similar vein, Kasper and Dahl (1991) also emphasized the importance of natural data in speech act studies, and they suggested that movies and TV series could be a paramount source for scholars to scrutinize speech acts as their being close to real life situations could not be disregarded. Hence, due to the shortcomings of DCT and the advantage of TV series being close to real life conversations, the corpus collected from TV series constituted the data of this dissertation. In addition to the abovementioned advantage, data gathered from scripts represent the features of face to face conversation (Quaglio, 2009). Moreover, since gender and status are considered as the independent variables in this research, the sociolinguistic variations between American and Turkish cultures could be found in TV series. To support this view, Rey (2001) indicated that "while the language used in television is obviously not the same as unscripted language, it does represent the language scriptwriters imagine that real women and men produce" (p. 138). Moreover, as Şahin (2011) stated, the producers or film makers analyze and represent the society

and their language efficiently. Thus, the more they represent the society in a real way, the more they have high ratings (p.34). Hence, TV series represent the natural data.

Among various types of TV series, the family sitcom genre was chosen because as stated by Quaglio (2009), who compared the language used in *Friends* with natural conversation, family sitcoms are quite close to real life interactions, and the characters generally reflect people that we can come across in the street. Also, Bernan (1987) points out that

> the sitcom, which has displaced most other forms of video comedy, is supposed to "relate" to its audience. It does so in a number of ways, first by creating characters who are supposed to resemble and to represent the audience. Second, it dramatizes events or conditions (for example the conflict of female liberation with male chau- vinism) that provide motivation for a plot. Third, the sitcom suggests an attitude toward things, and toward ourselves. (p. 13)

As it was stated above, there are very few studies that conducted the research by using the TV series (Culpeper et al., 2003; Şahin, 2011). Hence, the contribution of this study to the field is the data collected from TV series to label the refusals.

The data was gathered from famous American and Turkish TV family sitcom series named *'The Middle'*, *'How I Met Your Mother'*, *'Avrupa Yakası'* and *'Çocuklar Duymasın'*. These four TV series were very popular in their own countries and they represent their society realistically. In order to collect the data, the episodes of the TV series were randomly chosen and a total of approximately 500000 word corpus for each language was created. By analyzing the scripts and actual performances, 690 refusal situations were found in TUR. Thus, the researcher chose 690 refusal situations in AE to have equal numbers of occurrences. Refusal situations were labeled in terms of refusal types, semantic formulas, status, gender and refusal stimulating speech acts, namely 'offer', 'invitation' 'suggestion' and 'request'.

Even though 690 AE and 690 TUR refusal situations were labeled, more than one semantic formula in most of the refusal statements was observed. Thus, the numbers of the refusal types that we observed go up to 1098 in AE and 1068 in TUR.

3.4. Data analysis

The data was collected from two American and two Turkish TV family sitcom series. The collected data (refusal patterns) was analyzed by using the taxonomy of

Beebe et al. (1990) (see Appendix 1). In this taxonomy, there are 18 semantic formulas and the refusal patterns were coded according to these semantic formulas.

Since the annotation of the refusal types is rather a subjective issue, to increase the validity of the coding process, ten percent of the refusal situations were randomly selected for inter-rater reliability test. As highlighted by DeVellis (2005), reliability refers to "the proportion of variance in a measure that can be ascribed to a true score" (p.317). Therefore, to be able to run reliability analysis in addition to the researcher herself, another rater coded the types of refusals in the selected data by referring to taxonomy of Beebe et al. The results gathered from both raters were entered into the SPSS reliability analysis test and the result indicated that the Cronbach's Alpha level was p=.91. The correlation results of the other rater indicated that there were some minor differences in terms of the types of refusal strategies. However, as indicated above, the comparison of two raters in terms of their coding revealed a high consistency.

After gathering the reliability test results, refusal semantic formulas were found and coded by the researcher herself according to the taxonomy as "direct refusal", "indirect refusal", and " adjuncts to refusals", order of semantic formulas, gender, refusal stimulating speech acts (invitation, suggestion, offer, advice) , statuses (high, low, equal), Position 1, 2 and 3. Refusals as speech acts in this corpus were taken as a whole but in one refusal type, there are different semantic formulas like statement of alternative , gratitude, attempt to persuade the interlocutor, verbal avoidance etc. Hence, the first three semantic formulas in a refusal were taken and coded as Position 1 (first semantic formula), Position 2 (second semantic formula) and Position 3 (third semantic formula). In the example below, there are three positions. There might be less than three semantic formulas or more than three semantic formulas in a refusal. However, the researchers took until three semantic formulas in one refusal statement. By using the coded data, the frequencies were examined both within and across languages. To illustrate the annotation process of the data, an example is given below:

Example 3

Barney: "well, let's go to pub then"

Lily:"NO, I'm tired, why don't you sleep here on the couch."

<RF> <A2+B5+B6> <F-M> <E> <INV>

As shown in the example, Lily uses three different refusal strategies in this refusal situation. Since there are three semantic formulas in this situation, the refusal strategies are labeled depending on their order. The refuser uses a non-performative semantic formula in position 1, while ERE and statement of alternative were used successively in positions 2 and 3. According to the scenario, Barney and Lily are friends and thus their status is labeled as 'equal'. Since the refusal is given by a female (F) to a male (M) the genders of the interlocutors are given as 'female-male'. The refusal stimulator speech act is coded as 'invitation' since the interlocutor invites the other one to a place.

After the coding process, the data were entered into SPSS to run the descriptive statistics. The overall distribution of main refusal types (direct, indirect and adjunct to refusals) across languages was given in tabular form. Then, the frequencies and percentages of refusal types across languages in terms of independent variables of status, gender and refusal stimulating speech acts were given through cross-tabulation. Finally, the distribution of refusal types across languages depending on positions was given in tabular form.

Larson-Hall (2010) stated, Chi-square "calculates the differences between the scores you observed and the scores you would expect" (p.206) Thus, to reveal whether the preferences of refusal types statistically differ in both overall distributions across languages and in terms of independent variables, chi-square test was run. Hence, the effects of not only the language but also the independent variables on the preferences of refusal types were analyzed through the Chi-square test. As we have more than one variable, group-independence test was preferred.

In addition, to reveal the distribution of semantic formulas, the frequencies and percentages of semantic formulas found both in AE and TUR were found through descriptive statistics. After giving the overall results, the distributions of semantic formulas across languages regarding independent variables were also calculated. Since there were semantic formulas that were not observed in the data, we were not able to

run Chi-square test in explaining the differences between the preferences of AE and TUR. For this reason, the overall semantic formula preferences of both groups depending on the percentages were sequenced to decide whether the order of the preferences in AE and TUR are similar or not. To find out whether the orders of preferences between languages are similar or different, the test of Spearman Rank-Order Correlation (rho) was run. The preferences in AE and TUR were discussed by using the rho as it helped us to see the results across and within languages. After the overall comparison, the effects of independent variables on using refusals were analyzed by using rho as well. Finally, position based semantic formula preferences between languages and the effects of independent variables on the preferences of refusal semantic formulas in each position were compared using rho.

In the qualitative part of the research, the results were supported by the examples and the results were concreted. For example, in a typical AE and TUR refusal statement;

Example 4

M: Give me!

S: I can't give it to you. It is one of my best friend's……

<A2+B5> <F-M> <L-H> <OF>

Example 5

H:..ya boşverin gelin bir mangal yemeye gidelim (..let's go barbecue…)

E: ..teşekkür ederiz, bir daha ki sefere (..thank you, next time..)

<C16+B8 > <F-M> <E> <INV>

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS AND DISCUSSIONS

4.1. Presentation

In this chapter, the results of the study are presented, analyzed and discussed. This present study investigates refusals in TUR and AE by analyzing data collected from American and Turkish TV series. The aim is to find out the differences and similarities between two languages in terms of refusals by identifying the status, gender and type of the refusal eliciting acts (request, suggestion, offer and invitation).

From four different TV series, 1380 cases of refusal situations were found and analyzed by using the taxonomy of Beebe et al. (1990) (See Appendix 1) in which the semantic formulas were coded and analyzed with regard to direct, indirect, and adjunct to refusals to find out the similarities and differences between two languages. In addition to overall comparison of refusal types and sub-types within and across languages, semantic formulas within and across AE and TUR were analyzed in terms of status, gender, stimulating speech acts and positions.

In subsections 4.2, 4.3, 4.4, 4.5, and 4.6 below, refusal strategies like direct, indirect and adjunct to refusals and refusal stimulator speech acts were presented in AE and TUR. The rest of subsections (4.7, 4.8, 4.9, 4.10, 4.11, 4.12, 4.13, 4.14, 4.15, 4.16 and 4.17) dealt with the semantic formulas in AE and TUR. In the analyses of semantic formulas (sub-categories of refusal types), the most preferred three semantic formulas are given in tabular form. However, the whole distributions of the frequencies and percentages of all semantic formulas found in each case are given in Appendices part since the Spearman-rank order correlation tests were run according to whole lists of distributions.

4.2. Refusal types in American English and Turkish

Refusals were analyzed by using the taxonomy (Beebe et al.1990) in which there are three broad categories (direct, indirect and adjunct to refusals). In this part of the study, these refusal types used in AE and TUR were shown in a quantitative way.

Table 1. Distribution of refusal types

	AE		TUR	
Refusal Types	N	%	N	%
Direct	402	36.6	330	30.9
Indirect	636	57.9	669	62.6
Adjunct to Refusals	60	5.5	69	6.5
Total	1098	100.00	1068	100.00

The general picture of refusal types in Table 1 shows that indirect strategies were the most frequently employed ones both in AE (57.9 %) and TUR (62.6 %) which is similar to the results of Nelson et al. (2002) who found that indirect strategies were preferred more than the direct ones in AE. The indirect strategies in the current study was followed by direct (AE=36.6 %, TUR=30.9 %) and adjunct to refusals (AE=5.5 %, TUR=6.5 %) successively. Although our findings and Boynueğri's (2018) results exhibit similarities regarding the most frequented refusal type in Turkish and English, the second and the third most frequented refusal strategies in Boynueğri and the current study do not resemble. She found that adjunct to refusals was the second most frequently preferred strategy among native speakers of Turkish and British English while direct refusal strategies were in the third order. In addition, Aksoyalp (2009) and Şahin (2011) reported that the most frequented refusal strategy was the indirect strategy revealing an agreement with the current study. However, similar to Boynueğri (2018) their results also unraveled that adjunct to refusals was in the second order and the direct strategies were the least frequented types of refusal strategy with varying frequencies. Interestingly, the abovementioned studies except the current study drew their results depending on the data collected through DCT known as elicited data while our data was extracted from TV series accepted as a kind of natural data. The difference between the results of this dissertation and the previous studies might emerge due to the different data collection procedures.

Even though the order of preferences in both groups was the same, the percentages of the distributions in the groups had differences. As the results indicated, indirect refusal strategies were employed by 57.9 % by Americans while it was 62.6 % in Turks. Similarly, adjunct to refusals was preferred more frequently by Turks when compared to Americans. However, the preference of direct strategies in AE was higher than TUR. To check whether the difference in the distribution of the refusal types in both groups was statistically significant, for group independence, Chi- square test was run at $p<.05$ level and the results were statistical ($X^2=8.13$, df=2, p=.017) with an effect size of .061.

4.3. Refusal types across status levels

Social distance of the interlocutors were taken as an independent variable in this present study as the social distance has an effect on using language like the familiarity or social similarity and differences (Spencer-Quatey, 1996).

Table 2. Distribution of refusal types across status levels

Status	Refusal Types	Language			
		AE		TUR	
		N	%	N	%
	Direct	201	34.5	186	31.0
E	Indirect	348	59.8	402	67.0
	Adjunct to refusals	33	5.7	12	2.0
Total		582	100.0	600	100.0
	Direct	123	50.0	87	38.7
H-L	Indirect	114	46.3	108	48.0
	Adjunct to refusals	9	3.7	30	13.3
Total		246	100.0	225	100.0
	Direct	78	28.9	57	23.5
L-H	Indirect	174	64.4	159	65.4
	Adjunct to refusals	18	6.7	27	11.1
Total		270	100.0	243	100.0

There are many studies that analyzed the effect of status on using refusal strategies (e.g. Beebe et al., 1990; Bulut 2000; Nelson et al., 2002; Şahin 2011). The aim of those studies was to figure out whether status was an influential factor or not. To

see the effects of status in the preference of refusal strategy, we made a comparison test and the percentages of the results showed that the status was significant at p<.001 level while refusing an equal status person.

Both groups (AE and TUR) had the same order of preferences while refusing an equal status hearer. That is, indirect refusal was the most preferred strategy in both AE and TUR (AE=59.8%, TUR=67). In parallel with the findings of Bulut (2000) and Nelson et al. (2002), if the status of the interlocutors were similar, the informants preferred indirect strategy. In this present study, the most frequently preferred strategy was indirect in AE. In AE (34.5%) and TUR (31%), the second most preferred strategy was direct refusal strategy in refusing an equal status person and was followed by adjunct to refusals (AE=5.7 %, TUR=2 %). The X^2 value is 13.99 with 2 degree of freedom with a value of p=.001 level. The effect size of the test is .10 and language across equal status people makes statistical difference according to Chi-square test result.

In refusing a lower status person by a higher status person, the orders of preferences in both groups were different. For example, while the direct refusal strategy (50%) had the highest percentage while refusing a lower status person in AE, indirect refusal strategy (48%) had the highest percentage in TUR. In the study of Nelson et al. (2002), Americans preferred indirect strategy mostly at every status level which was different when compared to our results for lower status. Adjunct to refusals had the lowest percentage in both AE (3.7%) and TUR (13.3%). The results revealed that, direct refusal strategies in this category were used from the higher status person to lower status person with a frequency of 38.7%. Direct strategy which had the highest percentage in AE was followed by indirect strategy (46.3%) in refusing a lower status person. The chi-square analysis revealed a statistically significant difference in the dispersion of using strategies to lower status person both in AE and TUR (X^2=16.73, df=2, p=.000), with an effect size of .18.

Regarding the distribution of frequency, AE and TUR had the same order in refusing a higher status person by a lower status one. Within the group of AE, in refusing a higher status person, indirect refusal strategy (64.4%) was the most preferred strategy. Americans' preferences after indirect strategy were followed by direct (28.9%) and adjunct to refusals (6.7%). Similarly, in TUR, the most commonly used strategy

was indirect (65.4%) that was followed by direct strategy (23.5%) and adjunct to refusals (11.1%). An overall Chi-square test result (X^2=4.33, df=2, p=.115) indicated that a statistical difference was not observed as the p-value is above .05. The effect size of the test is .09.

The results of the tests showed that, in refusing an equal status person and lower status person, there were significant differences at p<.05 level. The results for the frequency of refusal strategies in refusing a higher status person by a lower one did not yield any significant difference (p=.115). Comparisons of the tests indicated that indirect strategy was mostly preferred by both Americans and Turks while refusing an equal status person (AE=59.8%, TUR=67%). According to Şahin (2011), Americans employed indirect refusals if they want to refuse an equal status person, that is, their relationship is important in this stage and their "level of closeness has control over the semantic formulae preferences" (p.59). On the other hand, the findings of Beebe et al. (1990) indicated that Americans preferred indirect strategies in all situations. However, the results in our study showed that Americans refused a lower status person by using a direct strategy (50%) while Turks employed indirect strategy (48%) most. Last, in both languages, refusing a higher status person by a lower status one was mostly performed by using indirect strategy (AE=64.4%, TUR=65.4%).

The overall results regarding the relationship between the status levels of the interlocutors and refusal types preferred by the interlocutors in AE and TUR revealed that indirect strategies were the most favored one against the direct and adjuncts except the refusals directed to lower status people by higher-level status participants in AE. In giving refusals to lower status participants, direct strategies were more frequented when compared to the occurrences of indirect and adjunct to refusals. Şahin (2011) found that status was not an influential factor in refusal strategy selection since the indirect refusal was the default refusal strategy both in AE and TUR. However, she also found that Americans employed adjunct to refusals with close frequency counts to indirect refusals when they gave refusals to acquaintances.

4.4. Refusal types across genders

Gender is one of the social variables that influences the preference of refusal types. Thus, it is essential to analyze effects of gender while analyzing the refusal strategies (Fraser, 1990; Hassani et al., 2011).

Table 3 presents the frequencies and percentages of refusal strategies preferred by males and females while refusing people from the same or different sexes. While the previous studies (Bulut, 2000; Sadler & Eröz, 2002; Hosseini & Talebinezhad, 2014) focused on only the gender of the person giving refusals, the possible effects of the genders of both the refuser and the refusee are taken into account in this present study.

Table 3. Distribution of refusal types relative to interlocutors' gender

Gender	Refusal Types	Language			
		AE		TUR	
		N	%	N	%
M-M	Direct	123	33.6	96	30.8
	Indirect	222	60.7	186	59.6
	Adjunct to refusals	21	5.7	30	9.6
Total		366	100.0	312	100.0
M-F	Direct	111	36.3	114	34.9
	Indirect	165	53.9	204	62.4
	Adjunct to refusals	30	9.8	9	2.8
Total		306	100.0	327	100.0
F-F	Direct	45	39.5	18	22.2
	Indirect	63	55.3	57	70.4
	Adjunct to refusals	6	5.3	6	7.4
Total		114	100.0	81	100.0
F-M	Direct	123	39.4	102	29.3
	Indirect	186	59.6	222	63.8
	Adjunct to refusals	3	1.0	24	6.9
TOTAL		312	100.0	348	100.0

Table 3 revealed that in male to male (M-M) interaction, both in AE and TUR, the highest percentage of refusal in the first order was that of indirect strategy (60.7% and 59.6 % respectively) which was followed by direct strategy (33.6% and 30.8% respectively) while these percentages decrease to 5.7% and 9.6% with adjunct to refusals in AE and TUR consecutively. The percentages of adjunct to refusals were higher in TUR (9.6%) than AE (5.7%) though they were the least preferred one in both

languages. The Chi-square test results of M-M refusals revealed that the difference was not big enough to be significant: X^2=3.81, df=2, p=.148. The effect size is .075.

In male to female (M-F) interaction, males preferred the indirect strategy most while refusing the females in both languages (AE=53.9%, TUR=62.4%). Similar to the Americans, Turks preferred adjunct to refusals (AE=9.8%, TUR=2.8%) after direct strategy (AE=36.3%, TUR=34.9%). In TUR, while males refuse males, the percentage of preference of adjunct to refusals was higher than AE (AE=5.7%; TUR=9.6%). On the other hand, the percentage of adjunct to refusals in refusing females by males was higher in AE (9.8%) than in TUR (2.8%). While the statistical analysis of male-male did not yield any statistically significant difference, it is to be reported that there is a statistically significant difference at p=.001 level between M-F in AE and TUR. The X^2 value is 14.78 with 2 degree of freedom and the effect size of this test is .153.

The orders of preferences in female-female refusals were similar to those of the M-M and M-F refusal strategies. Females preferred indirect strategy most in both AE (55.3%) and TUR (70.4%) while refusing females. The order of preference in female-female was similar in both languages. Females employed direct strategy (AE=39.5%, TUR=22.2%) as the second mostly used refusal strategy in AE and TUR which was followed by adjunct to refusals (AE=5.3%, TUR=7.4%). The statistical results showed that the gender affects the refusal strategy selection at p<.039 level (X^2=6.47, df=2). The effect size is .182.

In the last part of the Table 3, we can see that females preferred indirect speech act (AE=59.6%, TUR=63.8%) mostly in their use of refusals to males. While the percentage of direct strategy in AE was 39.4%, this number is 10 percent less in TUR. The third category of refusal strategy, adjunct to refusals, was frequently used by TUR to refuse males (6.9%). However, the percentage of AE in using adjunct to refusals is less in the same group. The statistical analysis reveals a significant result: X^2=.172 with 2 degree of freedom and the effect size is .172.

As Table 3 reveals, all groups had the same preferences for the most and the least used refusal strategy in both languages. However, it can be extrapolated that refusal strategies that males used to refuse males in AE and TUR did not yield any significant difference. It showed that even though this present study is cross cultural, the language is not effective in the preference of refusal strategy in males' interaction. On

the other hand, we can see that there are significant differences in the other groups in terms of the independent variable of gender.

4.5. Refusal types across refusal stimulator speech acts

Refusal stimulator speech acts are accepted as one of the variables that might affect the preference of refusal type (Blum-Kulka et al.,1989)

Table 4. Distribution of refusal types across refusal stimulator speech acts

Speech Act	Refusal Types	Language			
		AE		TUR	
		N	%	N	%
Invitation	Direct	48	30.2	18	20.0
	Indirect	102	64.2	63	70.0
	Adjunct to refusals	9	5.7	9	10.0
Total		159	100.0	90	100.0
Suggestion	Direct	66	34.4	27	31.0
	Indirect	114	59.4	48	55.2
	Adjunct to refusals	12	6.3	12	13.8
Total		192	100.0	87	100.0
Offer	Direct	153	39.2	144	38.7
	Indirect	201	51.5	216	58.1
	Adjunct to refusals	36	9.2	12	3.2
Total		390	100.0	372	100.0
Request	Direct	135	37.8	141	27.2
	Indirect	219	61.3	342	65.9
	Adjunct to refusals	3	0.8	36	6.9
Total		357	100.0	519	100.0

In refusing an invitation, a distinctive use of adjunct to refusals was observed in AE (5.7%) and TUR (10%). The most preferred strategy was indirect both in AE (64.2%) and TUR (70%). While refusing invitations, Americans (30.2%) preferred more direct strategies than Turks (10%). The chi-square test which was used to locate the possible difference between the AE and TUR in the use of refusal strategies while refusing one's invitation revealed that: X^2=4.04, df=2, p=.132 with .127 effect size. The results showed that it did not yield any significant results like the strategies used to

refuse the suggestion (x^2=4.34, df=2, p=.114). This difference was found to be insignificant, too. However, the most preferred strategies were similar across the groups in refusing suggestions to what we found in refusing invitations.

In refusing offers, Americans (51.5%) preferred fewer indirect refusal strategies than Turks did (58.1%). Regarding the refusals given to the offers, the percentage of Turks was higher than Americans in the use of adjunct to refusals but in refusing an offer, the percentage of Americans (9.2%) regarding the employment rates of adjunct to refusals was higher than Turks (3.2%). Regarding the preferences of refusing an offer, a significant difference was found at p<.002 level with .128 effect size (X^2=12.39, df=2). The most preferred strategy while refusing a request was found as indirect one (AE=61.3% and TUR=65.9%) while direct strategy was the second (AE=37.8% and TUR=27.2 %). It was followed by adjunct to refusals with low percentages especially in AE (0.8 %). In TUR (6.9%), the results were a bit higher than AE. When we look at the statistical analysis, the results revealed that there is a significant difference at p>.000 level. The X^2 value is 25.95 with 2 degree of freedom. The effect size is .172.

As Table 4 shows, while giving refusals to stimulator speech acts like invitation, suggestion, offer and request, indirect strategies were preferred most and the order of strategies were found similar in both languages. The chi-square test revealed that refusing invitation and suggestion did not yield any significant results while the others (offer and request) yielded statistically significant differences at p<.05 level.

As indicated in Table 4, the most frequented refusal type in all refusal stimulating speech acts was the indirect refusal in AE and TUR with varying frequency counts. Direct strategies followed the indirect strategies and the adjunct to refusals was the least frequented refusal type in the two groups. The results obtained in the current study partially agree with Şahin's (2011) findings. Similar to our findings, Şahin also found that indirect strategies were the most frequently preferred refusal type while refusing requests, suggestions and invitations in AE and TUR. However, the second most frequented refusal type was adjunct to refusals even though their frequency counts in AE and TUR were slightly higher against direct strategies which were found as the least frequented refusal type. Interestingly, indirect strategies in this study constituted at least 50.0% of all refusal types in all refusal stimulating speech acts in both languages

and this result is in line with Şahin's findings. However, the uses of adjunct to refusals in our study is distinctively lower against Şahin in all refusal stimulating speech acts.

4.6. Refusal types across positions

Positions in a refusal response are identified according to the number and order of semantic formulas produced by the refuser. In this study, the first three positions have been analyzed to observe and compare the preferences of three main refusal types by Americans and Turks. Table 5 shows the overall distribution of refusal types in the first three positions across AE and TUR.

Table 5. Distribution of refusal types across positions

Position	Refusal Types	Language			
		AE		TUR	
		N	%	N	%
I	Direct	363	52.6	297	43.0
	Indirect	285	41.3	357	51.7
	Adjunct to Refusals	42	6.1	36	5.2
	TOTAL	690	100.0	690	100.0
II	Direct	27	7.9	33	9.6
	Indirect	300	87.7	294	85.2
	Adjunct to Refusals	15	4.4	18	5.2
	TOTAL	342	100.0	345	100.0
III	Direct	12	18.2	0	0.0
	Indirect	51	77.3	18	54.5
	Adjunct to Refusals	3	4.5	15	45.5
	TOTAL	66	100.0	3	100.0

As can be seen in Table 5, the most frequently used refusal type in Position 1 was direct strategy (52,2%) in AE. However, for TUR group, the most preferred strategy in Position 1 was indirect strategy (51.7%). In both languages, adjunct to refusals was preferred less in position 1 (AE=6.1%, TUR=5.2%). In order to see whether there was a significant difference or not between the two languages regarding the refusal type preferences, the chi-square test was run and the results indicated that there was a significant difference in AE and TUR in terms of using refusal types in Position 1 ($p=.001$). The X^2 value is 15.13 with 2 degree of freedom and the effect size

of the test is .105. This significant difference came from the results of the percentages of direct and indirect usages in AE and TUR which were different in both languages, that is, Americans preferred direct while the Turks preferred indirect in Position 1.

In Position 2, the order of preferences was similar in both languages as the indirect (AE=87.7%, TUR=85.2%) was the most preferred one in the two groups and direct strategy (AE=7.9%, TUR=9.6%) as the second and it was followed by adjunct to refusals (AE=4.4%, TUR=5.2%). As Table 5 reveals, the results did not yield any significant difference across the groups (X^2=.92, df=2, p=.631, V=.037).

In Position 3, the results revealed that there is a significant difference at p=.000 level in both groups. In AE, the order of preference was different from the order of Turks. Indirect strategy was the most preferred one in both languages in Position 3 (AE=77.3%, TUR=54.5%). However, for the next two strategies, Americans preferred direct (18.2%) and then adjunct to refusals (4.5%) while Turks preferred adjunct to refusals (4.5%) only. That is, in Position 3, Turks used just two strategies and thus they did not prefer the direct one. (X^2=27.88, df=2, V=.531).

Regarding the distributions of refusal types across the positions, the previous studies aiming to explore the uses of refusal types in English and Turkish did not report the dispersions of position based direct, indirect and adjunct to refusals (Bulut, 2000; Aksoyalp, 2009; Çimen 2009; Şahin, 2011; Çapar, 2014; Çiftçi, 2016; Boynueğri, 2018). For this reason, the current study seems to be the first study presenting the overall distributions of refusal types across positions in English and Turkish.

4.7. Overall distribution of refusal semantic formulas

Table 6 shows the most preferred three semantic formulas in AE and TUR without considering the positions of strategies (see Appendix 2 for details).

Table 6. The overall distribution of semantic formulas

	AE		TUR	
Sequence Preference	Semantic Formula	%	Semantic Formula	%
1	Non-per.	36.1	ERE	34.3
2	ERE	33.1	Non-per.	30.9
3	Verbal Avoidance	8.7	Attempt to Per. int.	11.8

The orders of semantic formula preferences were different across AE and TUR. In AE, *non-performative* (36.1%) was the most frequently preferred semantic formula as in *"No"* and *"I can't…"*. This result did not support the finding of Nelson et al. (2002) as they found that Americans preferred *reason* as the most frequent semantic formula. The second most preferred semantic formula was *ERE* (33.1%) as in the examples of:

Example 6

a. I have to work…

b. I have plans for tomorrow…

c. She will think I am a bad babysitter…

The third most preferred semantic formula was *verbal avoidance* (8.7%). For example:

Example 7

a. Mom, what does it mean?

b. Next year?

As Table 6 revealed, there was a different order in the selection of semantic formulas in TUR. While it was *non-performative* in AE, similar to the results of Sadler and Eröz (2002), Turks uttered *ERE (34.3%)* semantic formula mostly in their responses and the typical examples are:

Example 8

a. Benim param yok … 'I don't have money'

b. Doktor tozutursun dedi... 'Doctor said I would go nuts'

Non-performative was the Americans' most preferred semantic formula. However, in TUR, it (30.9%) was the second most preferred semantic formula as in:

Example 9

a. Yok kardeşim almayacağım… 'No, I will not buy it'

b. Hayır anne, evlenemem. 'No mommy, I cannot get married'

The last part of Table 6 for TUR was *attempt to persuade the interlocutor* (11.8%) as in:

Example 10

Babacığım, bu hiç iyi bir fikir değil… 'This is not a good idea, daddy'

Bu işler böyle olmaz 'That is not how things work'

According to the findings (see Appendix 2), there was a high correlation between AE and TUR at p=.01 level (rho=.73) which means that these two groups' preferences of semantic formula showed similarities for all over 18 semantic formulas. Despite this fact, *statement of philosophy and clarifying relationship* were not used by Americans while they were preferred by Turks. On the other hand, *performative, statement of empathy* and *removal of negativity* were not preferred by Turks while they were preferred by Americans.

The results obtained in this study revealed that *non-perfomative* was the most frequented semantic formula in AE while *ERE* was the most preferred one in TUR. *ERE* and *verbal avoidance* were in the second and the third order of preferences in AE successively. However, *non-performative* and *attempt to persuade the interlocutor* were the second and the third most favored formulas in TUR. The comparison of the results of the current study with the previous studies exhibited interesting results. Bulut (2000) found that *ERE, non-performative* and *attempt to persuade the interlocutors* were the most frequented three semantic formulas both in AE and TUR according to the results obtained through the DCT. Even though his results are in line with our findings regarding the Turkish speakers' preferences, the orders of preferences across AE speakers revealed differences. Furthermore, Çiftçi (2016) reported that *ERE* was the most frequented individual refusal strategy both in English and Turkish. *Statement of alternative* followed *ERE* in both languages. However, *statement of regret* was in the third place among English speakers whereas *refusing through requesting* was the third most frequented formula among Turkish speakers. In Boynueğri's (2018) study, *ERE* was the most frequented formula in the two groups while it was followed by *pause-fillers* and *non-performative* refusals successively.

Even though the orders of overall preferences revealed differences between our study and the abovementioned studies, *ERE* was the most frequented one in English and Turkish in all the studies. Moreover, *non-performative* was among the most preferred semantic formulas in the abovementioned studies except the study carried out by Çiftçi (2016).

4.8. Refusal semantic formulas across status levels

According to the previous studies (Beebe et al.1990; Bulut 2000; Nelson et al., 2002, Şahin 2011), social status affects the preferences of semantic formula while refusing someone. Table 7 revealed the most preferred 3 semantic formulas for different statuses in AE and TUR. When we looked at the distribution of semantic formulas, it was figured out that the first three semantic formulas preferred by Americans and Turks were different but this Table did not show the overall distributions (see Appendix 3).

Table 7. Distribution of refusal semantic formulas across status levels

		Sequence Preference						
		1		2		3		
Lang.	Status	Semantic Formula	%	Semantic Formula	%	Semantic Formula	%	Total
AE	E	Non-per.	34.0	ERE	33.5	Verbal Avoidance	10.3	77.8
	H-L	Non-per.	48.8	ERE	31.7	Statement of Alternative	6.1	86.6
	L-H	ERE	33.3	Non-per.	28.9	Attempt to per. int.	12.2	74.4
TUR	E	ERE	32.5	Non-per.	31.0	Attempt to per. int.	15.0	78.5
	H-L	Non-per.	38.7	ERE	30.7	Clarifying Relationship	9.3	78.7
	L-H	ERE	42.0	Non-per.	23.5	Attempt to per. int.	9.9	75.4

Table 7 revealed that while refusing an equal status person in AE, the most preferred semantic formula was *non-performative* (34%) as in the typical example of

saying *"No"*. On the other hand, in TUR, the most preferred one was *ERE* (32.5%), for example:

Example 11

a. O filme ben de gitmedim 'I didn't go that film, too'

b. Arkadaşım ile buluşacağım için… 'As I will meet with my friend…'

As the second most preferred semantic formula while refusing an equal status person, *ERE (33.5%) was* preferred in AE as in "*I was born there*…" while it was *non-performative (31%)* in TUR as in the typical example of *"Hayır, teşekkür ederim" 'No, thank you'.* The third semantic formula was *verbal avoidance* in AE (10.3%) as in:

Example 12

a. Do you want to drink something? (topic switch)

b. I am not sure about it (hedging)

In TUR, the most frequently preferred semantic formula in the third place was *attempt to persuade the interlocutor* (15%) as in:

Example 13

a. Üzülme, her şey olacağına varır… 'Don't worry, whatever will be, will be…'

In Bulut's study (2000), he found that Americans mostly preferred *ERE* while refusing an equal status person while it was *non-performative* in our study. In TUR, Bulut's findings were similar to our results as he found that Turks preferred *ERE* in the first place as a semantic formula to refuse equal status person in their utterances. To reveal whether there was a correlation among the orders of semantic formulas preferred while refusing equal persons across AE and TUR in our study, a spearman rank order correlation test was run and the result indicated that in refusing an equal status person, there is a strong correlation (rho=.79) across the language groups at $p<.05$ level.

In refusing a lower status person by a higher one both in AE and TUR, the first two preferred semantic formulas were the same as they were *non-performative* (AE=48.8%, TUR=38.7%) *and ERE* (AE=31.7%, TUR=30.7%) successively. Uses of these two strategies are illustrated in the following example.

Example 14

a. *No… (non-performative in the form of 'direct no')*

b. *Hayır, ben o yemeği yapamam… 'No I cannot cook that meal…' (non-performative in the form of negative ability)*

c. *I stopped believing (ERE)*

d. *Hastayım, yoksa seni kıracağıma kafamı kırarım… 'I am ill or else … (ERE)*

However, the third preferred semantic formula was different in both languages which was *statement of alternative* (6.1%) in AE and *clarifying relationship* (9.3%) in TUR as in:

Example 15

a. *I can make you a sandwich …. (statement of alternative)*

b. *Bakın doktorum…, 'look my doctor…' (clarifying relationship)*

While in the results of Bulut's (2000) study, *ERE* was preferred mostly in refusing a lower status person, *non-performative* was preferred as the first semantic formula in our study. The comparison of semantic formula preferences while refusing a lower status person across languages indicated that even though the first two preferences were the same, the orders of all the formulas across languages did not show a significant correlation between AE and TUR (rho=.38). This result clearly demonstrates that while refusing a lower status person, language plays a paramount role on the preferences of the semantic formulas of the refuser.

While refusing a higher status person both in AE and TUR, the most frequented three semantic formulas were in the same order in both languages. *ERE* (AE=33.3%, TUR=42%) was the most frequently employed strategy while it was followed by *non-performative* (AE=28.9%, TUR=23.5%) and *attempt to persuade the interlocutor* (AE=12.2%, TUR=9.9%). As in:

Example 16

a. We love pancakes… (ERE)

b. Yarın sınav var anne 'mommy, I have an exam tomorrow' (ERE)

c. I didn't like your behaviors to the teacher (attempt to persuade the interlocutor)

d. Beni hiç düşünmüyorsun… 'You don't care about me…' (attempt to persuade the interlocutor)

Similarly, Beebe et al. (1990) found that *ERE* was the most preferred semantic formula by Americans while refusing the lower one. For TUR, the result of Bulut (2000) and our study were different in the findings of preferences of Turks while refusing a lower status person. *Attempt to persuade* had the highest percentage in his study whereas it was *ERE* in our study.

The relationship between status groups within AE in the order of semantic formula preferences indicates that even though the orders of the first three preferences differ across different status groups, the spearman rank order correlation test results indicated that there were strong correlations among refusing equal and lower status people ($rho=.67$, $p<.05$), and equal and higher status people ($rho=.88$, $p<.01$) in AE. It could be deduced from the results that status does not affect the order of preferences of refusal strategies in AE while refusing equal and higher and equal and lower status people. However, a statistical correlation between refusing a lower and higher status person was not found. The results showed that status affects the order of semantic formula preferences while refusing lower and higher statuses within AE.

When it comes to the comparison of status groups within TUR, the spearman rank order correlation test results remarked a strong correlation in refusing equal and higher statuses ($rho=.76$, $p<.01$), equal and lower statuses ($rho=.82$, $p<.01$) and higher and lower statuses ($rho=.88$, $p<.01$). The results indicated that the order of semantic formula preferences across groups within TUR show significant correlations meaning that the independent variable, status in this case, does not affect the interlocutor's preference of refusal strategy.

The refusal strategy preferences regarding the independent variable of status showed both similarities and differences across and within the languages. According to the results obtained in this study, AE speakers preferred *non-performative* refusal strategy most frequently while refusing equal and lower status interlocutors. Turkish native speakers, however, recruited *ERE* more frequently while refusing equal and higher status interlocutors while *non-performative* was the most frequented strategy in the course of refusing lower status people. Broadly speaking, *ERE* and *non-performative* were always the most frequented two strategies in AE and TUR. The results of the current study contradict with Bulut's (2000) findings regarding the individual strategy preferences while refusing equal and lower status people in AE and

lower status people in TUR. According to his findings, *ERE* was the default strategy while refusing all status levels in AE and TUR. In addition, similar to Bulut, Çiftçi (2016) also administrated DCT to find out the refusal strategy preferences of English and Turkish speakers in terms of the independent variable of status and she found the same results with Bulut regarding the most frequently employed refusal strategy in English and Turkish.

4.9. Refusal semantic formulas across genders

Table 8 represents the overall semantic formulas that in AE and TUR with regard to the independent variable of gender. According to Hosseini and Talebinezhad (2014), gender plays an important role in the preference of semantic formula while refusing an utterance. In this part of the study, use of semantic formulas by genders were analyzed in detail. The possible effects of speaker's and hearer's genders on the use of refusal strategies were investigated in this study and the relationship between the use of refusal strategy and hearer's gender has not been previously explored. For this reason, the current study is different from the previous studies (Bulut,2000; Sadler & Eröz,2002; Hosseini & Talebinezhad 2014).

Table 8. Distribution of refusal semantic formulas relative to interlocutors' genders

Sequence Preference								
		1		2		3		
Lang.	Gender	Semantic Formula	%	Semantic Formula	%	Semantic Formula	%	Total
AE	M-M	Non-per.	32.8	ERE	27.0	Attempt to per. int.	14.8	74.6
	M-F	Non-per.	35.3	ERE	30.4	Attempt to per. int.	9.8	75.5
	M Total	Non-per.	33.9	ERE	28.6	Attempt to per. int.	12.5	75.0
	F-F	Non-per.	39.5	ERE	36.8	Verbal Avoidance	10.5	86.8
	F-M	ERE	41.3	Non-per.	39.4	Verbal Avoidance	8.7	89.4
	F Total	ERE	40.1	Non-per.	39.4	Verbal Avoidance	9.2	88.7
TR	M-M	ERE	38.5	Non-per.	30.8	Attempt to per. int.	7.7	77.0
	M-F	Non-per.	34.9	ERE	31.2	Attempt to per. int.	11.9	78.0
	M Total	ERE	34.7	Non-per.	32.9	Attempt to per. int.	9.9	77.5
	F-F	ERE	33.3	Non-per.	22.2	Attempt to per. int.	18.5	74.0
	F-M	ERE	33.6	Non-per.	29.3	Attempt to per. int.	13.8	76.7
	F Total	ERE	33.6	Non-per.	28.0	Attempt to per. int.	14.7	76.3

The orders semantic formula preferences were different across AE and TUR. For example, in AE, while the males were refusing the same gender (males), they preferred *non-performative* (32.8%), *ERE* (27%) and *attempt to persuade the interlocutor* (14.8%) respectively. On the other hand, in TUR, the order was different as the males preferred *ERE* (38.5%) mostly in their refusals to males and *non-performative* was following it with the percentage of 30.8%. *Attempt to persuade the interlocutor* was the

least preferred one (7.7%). When we regard all the semantic formulas (see Appendix 4 and 5), the rho had the expected result. The rho result showed that there is a strong correlation between AE and TUR in terms of refusing males by males (M-M) at $p<.05$ level (rho=.65).

In the use of semantic formulas by males while refusing females (M-F) in AE and TUR, both groups had the same orders of preferences: *non-performative* (AE=35.3%, TUR=34.9%), *ERE* (AE=30.4%, TUR=31.2%) and *attempt to persuade the interlocutor* (AE=9.8%, TUR=11.9%). When we compare the semantic formulas across the languages, the results indicated that even though the order of the first three preferences were the same, the orders of all the semantic formulas (see Appendix 4 and 5) across the languages did not yield any significant correlation (rho=.33).

For females refusing females (F-F) part, as it was shown in Table 8, a different order of preference was observed between AE and TUR. In AE, females uttered *non-performative* (39.5%) as the most preferred one and *ERE* (36.8%) as the second and *verbal avoidance* (10.5%) as the third semantic formula while refusing females. However, in TUR, the most preferred semantic formula was *ERE* (33.3%) which was followed by *non-performative* (22.2%) and *attempt to persuade the interlocutor* (18.5%). For this group, the correlation results showed that there is not a strong correlation across the languages (rho=.30).

In AE and TUR, the first two semantic formulas were similar while females were refusing males (F-M). Females preferred *ERE* (AE=41.4%, TUR=33.6%) mostly in the refusals given to the males. *Non performative* (AE=39.4%, TUR=29.3%) was uttered as the second semantic formula by females. While female Americans preferred *verbal avoidance* (8.7%) as the third most frequented semantic formula in their refusals, female Turks preferred *attempt to persuade the interlocutor* (13.8%) while refusing males. The spearman rank order correlation test results remarked a strong correlation in refusing males by females between AE and TUR (rho=.70).

When we looked at the correlations within languages, in AE, the highest correlation was found between M-M and F-F at $p<.01$ level (rho=.85) and the lowest one was M-F and F-M (rho=.59) but still significant at $p<.01$ level. In TUR, the correlation between M-F and F-F was found to be very strong at $p<.01$ level (rho=.85) and the correlation between F-F and F-M was the lowest (rho=.56) and did not yield any

significant difference. Overall results unraveled that males and females frequently preferred *ERE* while refusing someone and this is in line with the findings of Sadler and Eröz (2002).

4.10. Refusal semantic formulas across refusal stimulator speech acts

Table 9 shows the distribution of the most preferred semantic formulas in AE and TUR with regard to refusing the stimulator speech acts (see details in Appendix 6).

Table 9. Distribution of refusal semantic formulas across refusal stimulator speech acts

		Sequence Preference						
		1		2		3		
Lang.	What is Ref.	Semantic Formula	%	Semantic Formula	%	Semantic Formula	%	Total
AE	I	ERE	34.0	Non-per.	30.2	Verbal avoidance	9.4	73.6
	S	ERE	34.4	Non-per.	32.8	Attempt to per. int.	10.9	78.1
	O	Non-per.	38.5	ERE	33.1	Attempt to per. int.	8.5	80.1
	R	Non-per.	37.8	ERE	31.9	Verbal Avoidance	12.6	82.3
TUR	I	ERE	36.7	Non-per.	20.0	Attempt to per. int.	13.3	70.0
	S	ERE	37.9	Non-per.	31.0	Clarifying relationship	13.8	82.7
	O	Non-per.	38.7	ERE	26.6	Attempt to per. int.	13.8	79.1
	R	ERE	38.7	Non-per.	27.2	Attempt to per. int.	11.0	76.9

Americans preferred *ERE (*34%) while refusing invitations which was followed by *non-performative* (30.2%) like *'No'* and *verbal avoidance* (9.4%) as in:

Example 17

a. *I have a date tonight ... (ERE)*

b. *Football? ... (verbal avoidance)*

In TUR, there was the same order in the preference of the first two semantic formulas, *ERE (*36.7%) and *non-performative* (30.2%), while the third one was found different as it was *attempt to persuade the interlocutor* (13.3%). The followings are the examples of first three semantic formulas respectively that Turks preferred while refusing the invitations.

Example 18

a. Zamanım yok… 'I don't have time…' (ERE)

b. Hayır , gelemem… 'No, I can't come.' (non-performative)

c. Endişelenme dostum… 'Don't worry, buddy.' (attempt to persuade the interlocutor)

Even though the order of the first three semantic formulas had some differences, the overall quantitative comparisons showed that there was a significant correlation (rho=.70) between AE and TUR in using semantic formulas while refusing invitations.

In refusing suggestions, *ERE (*34.4%), *non-performative* (32.8%) and *attempt to persuade the interlocutor* (10.9%) were the most frequently exploited three semantic formulas in AE. *Attempt to persuade* was seen in the form of self-defense as in:

Example 19

a. *I will be the best in this field…*

In TUR, the most preferred semantic formulas were similar to the ones in AE in the first two choices. The first two most frequented semantic formulas in TUR were *ERE (*37.9%) and *non-performative* (31%). Contrary to the similarities in the usage rates of first two semantic formulas across the two languages, the one in the third order was different as *clarifying relationship* (13.8%) was in the third order in TUR. The correlation test result indicated that there is a weak correlation (rho=.50) between AE and TUR in terms of using semantic formulas while refusing suggestion. The use of *clarifying relationship* is illustrated in example 20 below.

Example 20

a. Tatlım, öyle düşünmediğimi biliyorsun… 'Sweetie, you know I don't think so…'

While refusing offers, the order of the first three preferred semantic formulas were found to be the same in both languages as the order was *non-performative* (AE=38.5%, TUR=38.7%), *ERE (*AE=33.1%, TUR=26.6%), and *attempt to persuade the interlocutor* (AE=8.5%, TUR=13.8%). The spearman rank order correlation test results revealed a strong correlation (rho=.61) at p<.05 level in semantic formulas while refusing offers in AE and TUR.

While refusing requests in AE, the most preferred semantic formulas were *non-performative* (37.8%), *ERE* (31.9%) and *verbal avoidance* (12.6%) as shown in the following examples respectively:

Example 21

a. *No, I have different plans...*
b. *I need to drink something…*
c. *I really don't know about space…*

The order of the semantic formulas while refusing requests in TUR was different from AE. *ERE* (38.7%), *non-performative* (27.2%) and *attempt to persuade the interlocutor* (11%) were the most preferred semantic formulas in refusing requests in TUR. For example:

Example 22

a. *Bilgisayar bozuk demiştim… 'As I said before, my computer is broken…' (ERE)*
b. *Hayır, yiyemem… 'No, I cannot eat it' (non-performative)*
c. *Normalde çok yemem… 'Normally, I do not eat a lot…' (attempt to persuade the interlocutor)*

The correlation between AE and TUR in using semantic formulas in refusing requests was high (rho=.60) at p<.01 level even though the orders of the first three preferences differed across languages.

Within AE, the highest correlation belongs to suggestion and offer (rho=.97) while the correlation between the request and invitation is the strongest one at p<.01 level in TUR.

The results of this study regarding the use of refusal strategies across the refusal stimulator speech acts were different from Bulut's (2000) findings. Even though he also

found that the first preferences of native speakers of Turkish and native speakers of American English were *excuse-reason and explanation*, there were differences between his study and the current study in the use of *non-performative* refusal strategy. In addition, the findings of Şahin (2011) revealed that *ERE* was the most frequently resorted strategy among Turkish and English speakers while refusing invitation, suggestion and request. In Çapar (2014), however, *ERE* was the most frequented strategy while giving refusals to all refusal stimulator speech acts in English, that individual strategy was the most frequently emerged strategy in the refusals given to invitations and requests in Turkish. The speech acts of suggestion and offer were mostly declined through *criticism* and *off hook* strategies successively among Turkish speakers.

4.11. Refusal semantic formulas across positions

Table 10 shows the distribution of semantic formulas in AE and TUR (see details in Appendix 7). The first two positions of refusals were identified but the spearman rank order correlation could not be applied to the third positions due to the limited numbers of occurrences in position 3. Hence, Table 10 did not include Position 3 (see details in Appendix 10).

Table 10. Distribution of refusal semantic formulas across positions

		Sequence Preference						
Lang.	Position	1 Semantic Formula	%	2 Semantic Formula	%	3 Semantic Formula	%	Total
AE	I	Non-per.	51.7	ERE	13.9	Verbal avoidance	12.6	78.2
	II	ERE	71.9	Attempt to per. int.	9.6	Non-per.	7.9	89.4
TUR	I	Non-per.	43.0	ERE	17.4	Attempt to per. int.	15.2	75.6
	II	ERE	69.6	Non-per.	9.6	Attempt to per. int.	5.2	84.4

As it was understood from Table 10, in the first positions of the refusals, Americans and Turks' first two preferences were similar which were *non-performative* (AE=51.7%, TUR=43 %) and *ERE* (AE=13.9%, TUR=17.4%). Yet, in the third place,

there was a different selection. However, in Sadler and Eröz's (2002) study, the findings indicated that in AE, *statement of regret* was preferred mostly at the beginning of the sentence and *ERE* was preferred at the end of the sentence which was different from our results.

In AE, *verbal avoidance* met us with 12.6% while *attempt to persuade the interlocutor* (15.2%) took place in the third order in TUR. In the overall comparison across languages in position 1, there was a strong correlation (rho=.64) at p<.01 level.

In position 2, the first preferences in both languages were identical which was *ERE* (AE=71.9%, TUR=69.6%). In AE, the second preference in position 2 was *attempt to persuade the interlocutor* (9.6%) which was followed by *non-performative* (7.9%). In TUR, *non-performative* (9.6%) and *attempt to persuade the interlocutor* (5.2%) were preferred respectively. The correlation test did not yield any significant results (rho=.58) between two languages in terms of using semantic formulas in position 2.

4.12. Refusal semantic formulas across status levels in Position 1

Table 11 shows the distributions of the most frequented semantic formulas in Position 1 with regard to the status of the interlocutors (see details in Appendix 8). The status of the interlocutors coded as E, H-L, L-H (which shows who gave refusals to whom).

Table 11. Distribution of semantic formulas across status levels in Position 1

		Sequence Preference						
		1		2		3		
Lang.	St.	Semantic Formula	%	Semantic Formula	%	Semantic Formula	%	Total
AE	E	Non-per.	53.0	Verbal avoidance	14.5	ERE	12.0	79.5
	H-L	Non-per.	66.1	ERE	16.1	- Statement of Alternative	3.6	93.0
						- Verbal Avoidance	3.6	
						- Statement of positive opinion/feeling or agreement	3.6	
	L-H	Non-per.	35.1	Verbal avoidance	17.5	- ERE	15.8	84.2
						- Attempt to per. int.	15.8	
TUR	E	Non-per.	41.7	Attempt to per. int.	19.7	ERE	15.9	77.3
	H-L	Non-per.	55.1	ERE	12.2	-Attempt to per. int.	8.2	91.9
						- Verbal avoidance	8.2	
						- Clarifying relationship	8.2	
	L-H	Non-per.	34.7	ERE	26.5	Attempt to per. int.	10.2	71.4

As indicated in Table 11, in AE, the most preferred semantic formula while refusing an equal status person was *non-performative* (53%) as in:

Example 23

a. *No, I can't…*

The second most preferred semantic formula in Position 1 was *verbal avoidance* (14.5%) which was followed by *ERE* (12 %) in AE. The extracts given below embody the use of *verbal avoidance* and *ERE* successively.

Example 24

a. *I will read it later…*

b. *I have been there three times…*

When refusing an equal status person in TUR, the preferences were different from AE in Position 1 except the first one which was *non-performative* (41.7%). Actually, in all statuses, the first choice was found similar in both languages. They all preferred *non-performative* as the first semantic formula in their utterances. *Non-performative* was followed by *attempt to persuade the interlocutor* (19.7%) and *ERE* (15.9%) in TUR as shown in the examples below respectively.

Example 25

a. *Hayır, o çocuk gelmeyecek… 'No, that man will not come…' (non-performative)*

b. *Eğer beni seçmezsen bir daha sana tost ısmarlamam… 'If you don't elect me, I will not order you toast anymore…' (attempt to persuade the interlocutor)*

c. *Ona güvenmiyorum… 'I don' believe him…' (ERE)*

Although the orders of the most frequently preferred semantic formulas were different between AE and TUR, there was a strong correlation at $p<.05$ level (rho=.65) while refusing an equal status person in Position 1.

While refusing a lower status person, the most frequented two semantic formulas were similar in both AE and TUR. They were *non-performative* (AE=66.1%, TUR=55.1%) and *ERE* (AE=16.1%, TUR=12.2%) as in the examples below:

Example 26

a. *No, I am not gonna get it… (non-performative)*

b. *I love it so… (ERE)*

c. *Hayır, istemiyorum … 'No, I don't want…' (non-performative)*

d. *Onun zaten var… 'She already has…' (ERE)*

As a third choice in AE, there were three semantic formulas that were preferred at the same percentages; *statement of alternative, verbal avoidance, statement of positive opinion, feeling or agreement* (3.6%) as in the examples respectively:

Example 27

a. *I prefer fashion… (statement of alternative)*
b. *I will inform you… (verbal avoidance)*
c. *That is perfect… (statement of positive opinion, feeling or agreement)*

In TUR, the third most preferred semantic formulas were *attempt to persuade the interlocutor, verbal avoidance* and *clarifying relationship* (8.2%). There were three semantic formulas in the third order as the Turks preferred them with the same percentage in Position 1 while refusing a lower status person, for example:

Example 28

a. *Duyduğum en kötü fikir…. 'This is the worst idea ever…' (attempt to persuade the interlocutor)*
b. *Dahası da mı var… 'Does it have more?' (verbal avoidance)*
c. *Tatlım… 'Sweetie …' (clarifying relationship)*

To reveal whether there was a correlation in the orders of semantic formula preferences in Position 1 across AE and TUR, a spearman rank order correlation test was run and the results indicated that in refusing a lower status person, there was not a correlation (rho=.39) across the languages.

AE most frequently started their refusals using *non- performative* (35.1%) as the first mostly preferred semantic formula in Position 1 while refusing a higher status person as in *"No, thanks"*. *Verbal avoidance* (17.5%) was the second most preferred semantic formula in Position 1 while refusing higher status person as in:

Example 29

a. *We will call you later…*

ERE and *attempt to persuade the interlocutor* (15.8%) were the third most preferred ones in Position 1 as in:

Example 30

a. *But it won't be any fun without you… (attempt to persuade the interlocutor)*

In TUR, semantic formulas had the highest frequency counts in *non-performative* (34.7%) and it was followed by *ERE* (26.5%) and *attempt to persuade the interlocutor* (10.2%). Extracts taken from the Turkish TV series illustrate the use of the most frequented three strategies.

Example 31

a. *Hayır teşekkürler… 'No, thanks…' (non-performative)*
b. *Okumak vakit kaybı… 'Reading is a waste of time…' (ERE)*
c. *Koca Beyoğlu, binlerce insan var orada… 'Beyoğlu, a big place, there are millions of people there…' (attempt to persuade the interlocutor)*

Even though the orders of the first three preferences in Position 1 were different across AE and TUR while refusing higher status person, there was a strong correlation (rho=.60) across language groups at $p<.05$ level.

When we look at the correlations within language, it was observed that there was a high correlation (rho=.96) between refusing an equal status person and higher status person in AE at $p<.01$ level. The correlation between refusing a lower and a higher status person had the weakest one (rho=.58) in AE. In TUR, the strongest correlation was between refusing a lower status person and a higher status person (rho=.95).

4.13. Refusal semantic formulas across status levels in Position 2

Table 12 displays the cross tabulation of semantic formulas in Position 2 across different status levels in AE and TUR.

Table 12. Distribution of refusal semantic formulas across status levels in Position 2

		Sequence Preference						
		1		2		3		
Lang.	St.	Semantic Formula	%	Semantic Formula	%	Semantic Formula	%	Tota l %
AE	E	ERE	70.6	Attempt to per. int.	13.2	- Non-per. -Gratitude/ appreciation	4.4 4.4	92.6
	H-L	ERE	76.2	Non-per.	9.5	- Stament of alternative - Statement of principle -Gratitude/ appreciation	4.8 4.8 4.8	100. 0
	L-H	ERE	72.0	Non-per.	16.0	Attempt to per. int.	8.0	96.0
TUR	E	ERE	67.2	Non-per.	10.9	Statement of principle	7.8	85.9
	H-L	ERE	73.9	Clarifying Relationship	13.0	Non-per.	8.7	95.6
	L-H	ERE	71.4	Attempt to per. int.	14.7	- Non-per. - Clarifying Relationship	7.1 7.1	100. 0

Table 12 reveals that *ERE* had the highest frequency counts in both AE and TUR in all statuses. However, in the second and the third preferences, there were differences.

In AE, the most preferred two semantic formulas while refusing an equal status person were *ERE* (70.6%) and *attempt to persuade the interlocutor* (13.2%). The third most preferred semantic formulas were *non-performative* and *gratitude/appreciation* (4.4%). The scripts taken from the American TV series exemplify the uses of most frequented refusal strategies in AE with successive order.

Example 32

a. *I am not missing the game… (ERE)*

b. *You can't do this to us… (attempt to persuade the interlocutor)*

c. *No, I can't solve it… (non-performative)*

d. *Thanks for your support… (gratitude/appreciation)*

In TUR, while refusing an equal status person, the most preferred semantic formula was *ERE* (67.2%), which was followed by *non-performative* (10.9%) and *statement of principle* (7.8%). The followings embody the uses of most frequented semantic formulas in TUR.

Example 33

a. *Müşteri daireyi görmeden satın almaz Türkiye de… 'Customers in Turkey do not buy the flat without seeing it …' (ERE)*
b. *Çalışamayacağım… 'I will not be able to study…' (non-performative-negative ability)*
c. *Çocuk klüplerine asla gitmem… 'I will never join the kids clubs…' (statement of principle)*

According to the results obtained through the comparison of the two languages, the correlation was (rho=.42) not strong in the use of semantic formulas in Position 2 while refusing equal status person.

In refusing a lower status person, Americans used *ERE* (76.2%), *non-performative* (9.5%) and *statement of alternative, statement of principle, gratitude/appreciation* (4.8%) as the most preferred semantic formulas in Position 2. The followings are typical examples of these semantic formulas.

Example 34

a. *I have an aisle, and that is a middle … (explanation)*
b. *You can't go there… (non-performative in the form of negative ability)*
c. *If I take you home, I gotta take everybody else with me… (statement of alternative)*
d. *I never stop… (statement of principle)*
e. *Thank you for your nice offer… (gratitude)*

In TUR, *ERE* (73.9%), *clarifying relationship* (13%) and *non-performative* (8.7%) were the most preferred semantic formulas in Position 2 while refusing a lower status person and they were illustrated in the following examples respectively.

Example 35

a. *Annem, sen…. 'Mommy, you….' (clarifying relationship)*
b. *Hayır yok artık sana para … 'No, you will not have money anymore …' (non-perfomative)*

The spearman correlation test results indicated that there was a weak correlation (rho=.23) across languages in terms of refusing lower status person which was supported by the different orders of the preferences of semantic formulas (see details in Appendix 9).

In refusing a higher status person, Americans preferred *ERE* (72%) as the most frequented semantic formula in Position 2 as in "*we were at the party at that time…". Non-performative* (16%) followed it with the example of *"No, thanks". Attempt to persuade the interlocutor* (8%) was the third most preferred semantic formula as in *"It is not a big problem for me".* On the other hand, in TUR, the first three semantic formulas were *ERE* (71.4%), *attempt to persuade the interlocutor* (14.7%), and *non-performative* and *clarifying relationship* (7.1%) and they are exemplified below through the extracts taken from the Turkish TV series.

Example 36

a. *Kedi olduğu için…. 'As there is a cat…' (ERE)*
b. *Bıraksaydın dövseydim bugün bu hale gelmezdi bu çocuk… 'If you let me to beat this son, he would not be like this today…' (attempt to persuade as negative feeling, opinion, criticize)*
c. *Oynayamazsın … 'you cannot play …' (non –performative-negative ability)*
d. *Abiciğim, sen … 'my brother, you are…' (clarifying relationship)*

Correlation test results indicated that there was a weak correlation (rho=.66) between refusing high status person in AE and TUR in Position 2.

4.14. Refusal semantic formulas across genders in Position 1

Table 13. Refusal semantic formulas across genders in Position 1

		Sequence Preference						
		1		2		3		
Lang.	Gender	Semantic Formula	%	Semantic Formula	%	Semantic Formula	%	Total
AE	M-M	Non-per.	47.5	- ERE - Attempt to per. int. - Verbal avoidance	11.3 11.3 11.3	- Statement of principle - Gratitude/ appreciation	5.0 5.0	91.4
	M-F	Non-per.	47.0	ERE	13.6	- Attempt to per. int. - Verbal avoidance	12.1	72.7
	M Total	Non-per.	47.3	ERE	12.3	- Attempt to per. int. - Verbal avoidance	11.6 11.6	71.2
	F-F	Non-per.	54.2	ERE	20.8	Verbal avoidance	16.7	91.7
	F-M	Non-per.	61.7	ERE	15.0	Verbal avoidance	13.3	90.0
	F Total	Non-per.	59.5	ERE	16.7	Verbal avoidance	14.3	90.5
TUR	M-M	Non-per.	44.6	ERE	18.5	Attempt to per. int.	9.2	72.3
	M-F	Non-per.	52.9	Attempt to per. int.	14.7	ERE	11.8	79.4
	M Total	Non-per.	48.9	ERE	15.0	Attempt to per. int.	12.0	75.9
	F-F	Non-per.	27.3	- ERE - Attempt to per. int.	22.7 22.7	Statement of principle	18.2	90.2
	F-M	Non-per.	37.3	ERE	20.0	Attempt to per. int.	18.7	76
	F Total	Non-per.	35.1	ERE	20.6	Attempt to per. int.	19.6	75.3

When we compare the semantic formulas that were used by males and females in AE and TUR cross-culturally, the findings showed that there were differences in the orders of the most preferred semantic formulas in Position 1 except the first semantic formula, *non-performative*. According to Table 13, in the first choice of semantic formula in Position 1, gender was not an influential factor, but for the rest, there were differences. For example, while the most preferred semantic formula was *non-performative* (AE=47.5%, TUR=44.6%) in both languages in Position 1 in M-M

interaction, the second and the third most preferred ones were found in different orders. In AE, the second most preferred semantic formulas were *ERE, attempt to persuade the interlocutor, verbal avoidance* (11.3%) and they were followed by *statement of principle* and *gratitude-appreciation* (5%). The followings are the examples in AE M-M interaction:

Example 37

a. *I am going to Orlando for a week on Friday … (ERE)*
b. *Actually, I know everything about this topic… (attempt to persuade the interlocutor)*
c. *Healthy communication? (verbal avoidance)*
d. *I'll never wear this suit … (statement of principle)*
e. *Thanks for your offer but… (gratitude/appreciation)*

In TUR, the second most preferred semantic formula in M-M was *ERE* (18.5%) and the third most frequented one was *attempt to persuade the interlocutor* (9.2%) in the form of *statement of negative consequences*. The findings of spearman correlation test indicated a strong correlation (rho=.63) at p<.05 level between M-M interaction in terms of using semantic formulas in Position 1 (see details in Appendix 11). In the extracts *a* and *b* below, the uses of *ERE* and *attempt to persuade the interlocutor* strategies are exemplified successively.

Example 38

a. *Kızımla ilgilenmem gerekiyor … 'I need to take care of my daughter…'*
b. *Senin bu kafe açma hevesinden yoruldum…'I am tired of your desire to open a cafe…'*

In AE, males preferred using *non-performative* (47%) as in *"No, thanks…"* in Position 1 while refusing females. The percentages of the second and the third most preferred semantic formulas were found nearly close as *ERE* was employed with 13.6% (e.g. "*I have already plans with Frankie…")* while *attempt to persuade the interlocutor* and *verbal avoidance* were used with 12.1%. In Position 1, the third most preferred semantic formulas included two different formulas as in:

Example 39

a. *It is your responsibility, not mine … (attempt to persuade the interlocutor)*
b. *This week? But that's…. (verbal avoidance)*

In TUR, while males refusing females, they mostly preferred *non-performative* (52.9%) *attempt to persuade the interlocutor* (14.7%) and *ERE* (11.8%) in Position 1. The gender variable was effective as a result of the correlation test which indicated that there was not a strong correlation (rho=.40) between AE and TUR. The following are the examples of TUR males used while refusing females.

Example 40

a. *Hayır, ben yiyemem…'No, I cannot eat…' (non-performative)*
b. *Yüzmenin kitap olmadan hiç keyfi çıkmıyor ki… 'Swimming is not fun without a book…' (attempt to persuade the interlocutor)*
c. *Özel bir konu… 'this is private…' (ERE)*

In refusing females by female speakers (F-F), *non-performative* came in the first order like previous ones both in AE and TUR (AE=54.25%, TUR=27.3%) in Position 1 (see details in Appendix 12). *ERE* was the second semantic formula preferred by both Americans (20.8%) and Turks (22.7%) in Position 1. In TUR, females also preferred *attempt to persuade the interlocutor* (22.7%) as the second most preferred semantic formula. The third preferences were found different in both languages. Americans employed *verbal avoidance* (16.7%) while Turks preferred *statement of principle* (18.2). As it was understood from Table 13 (see details in Appendix 12), there was not a identical order of preferences in both languages in terms of semantic formulas in Position 1 by females. The gender in F-F interaction was an effective variable according to the results of correlation test (rho=.35). The followings are the typical examples from AE and TUR respectively.

Example 41

a. *I can't marry… (non-performative)*
b. *It doesn't just magically come to you …(ERE)*
c. *Believe me, I don't know… (verbal avoidance)*
d. *Söyleyemezsin… 'You can't tell…' (non-performative)*
e. *Eğer yersem, o elbiseye giremem… 'If I eat, I can't wear that dress…' (attempt to persuade the interlocutor)*
f. *Telefonumu okulda unuttum … 'I forgot my phone at school…' (ERE)*

While females were refusing males, they preferred using *non-performative* (AE=61.7%, TUR=37.3%) and *ERE* (AE=15%, TUR=20%) as the two most frequently

employed semantic formulas in Position 1. The third most preferred semantic formula used by females was *verbal avoidance* (13.3%) in AE and *attempt to persuade* (18.7%) in TUR. The correlation was not found strong (rho=.56) between AE and TUR in terms of F-M interaction using semantic formulas in Position 1. The followings are the examples from AE and TUR.

Example 42

a. *No, never… (non-performative)*
b. *I have to find a place … (ERE)*
c. *Can I give a name later… (verbal avoidance)*
d. *Hayır, istemiyorum… 'No, I don't want…' (non-performative)*
e. *Evi temizlemem gerekiyor… 'I need to clean the house…' (ERE)*
f. *Sen olsan yeter… ' I need only you..' (attempt to persuade the interlocutor)*

Within TUR, the highest correlation (rho=.99) was between M-F (Males refusing Females) and F-F (Females refusing Females) and the weakest correlation was between M-M and F-F interaction. In AE, there was a strong correlation (rho=.68) at $p<.05$ level between M-F and M-M while the weakest correlation (rho=.56) was between F-M and M-F interaction.

4.15. Refusal semantic formulas across genders in Position 2

Table 14 shows the distribution of the most preferred semantic formulas in Position 2 across genders (see details in Appendix 13 for males, Appendix 15 for females). As it was understood from Table 14, in AE and TUR, semantic formulas were not an influential factor for the most preferred semantic formula which was found as *ERE*.

Tables 14. Distribution of refusal semantic formulas across genders in Position 2

		Sequence Preference						
		1		2		3		
Lang.	Gender	Semantic Formula	%	Semantic Formula	%	Semantic Formula	%	Total
AE	M-M	ERE	66.7	Attempt to per. int.	22.2	Non-per.	5.6	94.5
	M-F	ERE	66.7	Non-per.	13.3	MORE THAN ONE	3.3	100.0
	M Total	ERE	66.7	Attempt to per. int.	13.6	Non-per.	9.1	89.4
	F-F	ERE	64.3	- Non-per. - Gratitude/ appreciation	14.3 14.3	Attempt to per. int.	7.1	100.0
	F-M	ERE	85.3	MORE THAN ONE	2.9	-		100.0
	F Total	ERE	79.2	Non-per.	6.3	- Attempt to per. int. - Gratitude/ appreciation	4.2 4.2	93.9
TUR	M-M	ERE	75.0	Non-per.	8.3	Attempt to per. int. Clarifying relationship	5.6	88.9
	M-F	ERE	66.7	- Statement of principle - Attempt to per. int.	7.7 7.7	- Non-per. - Verbal avoidance - Clarifying relationship	5.1 5.1 5.1	97.4
	M Total	ERE	70.7	- Non-per. - Attempt to per. int.	6.7 6.7	- Statement of principle - Clarifying relationship	5.3 5.3	94.7
	F-F	ERE	80.0	Stament of alternative	20.0			100.0
	F-M	ERE	65.7	Non-per.	17.1	Statement of alternative	5.7	88.5
	F Total	ERE	15.0	Non-per.	67.5	Statement of alternative	7.5	90.0

In AE, *ERE* (66.7%) was the most preferred semantic formula by males and this was followed by *attempt to persuade the interlocutor* (22.2%) and *non-performative* (5.6%) as in following refusals respectively:

Example 43

a. *Your saying my name over and over doesn't make it sound less boring… (ERE)*

b. *We are just carrying on… (attempt to persuade the interlocutor)*

c. *Oh, no, thanks… (non-performative)*

In TUR, the order of the most preferred semantic formulas in Position 2 was different from AE in refusing males. *ERE* (75%), *non-performative* (8.3%) and *attempt to persuade the interlocutor* and *clarifying relationship* (5.6%) were the most preferred formulas in TUR while refusing males in Position 2 and the followings are examples illustrate the uses in TUR.

Example 44

a. *Çok içti… 'She drank a lot…' (ERE)*

b. *Hayır gerek yok… ' No need…' (non-performative)*

c. *Eğer bana izin verseydin… ' If you let me…' (attempt to persuade the interlocutor)*

d. *Babacığım o araba çok güzeldi… ' Daddy, that car was perfect…' (clarifying relationship)*

Across languages, the correlation test results indicated that even though the most preferred semantic formulas were the same, they were in different orders. Thus, there was not a strong correlation (rho=.53) in M-M interaction in using semantic formulas in Position 2.

In refusing females in Position 2, males preferred using *ERE* (AE=66.7%, TUR=66.7%) at the same percentages in both languages. However, there were some differences in the following preferences. Americans preferred *non-performative* (13.3%) while Turks preferred *statement of principle* and *attempt to persuade the interlocutor* (7.7%) as the second most preferred formula in Position 2. As the third most preferred semantic formula, while American males were refusing females, they preferred more than three semantic formulas with the same usage rates (see details in Appendix 13). In TUR, there were three different formulas that were *non-performative, verbal avoidance and clarifying relationship* (5.1%) in the third order. As it was supported by Table 14, there was not a strong correlation across the groups (rho=.10).

In refusing females, American females preferred *ERE* (64.3%) as the most preferred semantic formula followed by *non-performative, gratitude* (14.3%) and *attempt to persuade the interlocutor* (7.1%) in Position 2 as in the following examples:

Example 45

a. *…my most personal and innermost thoughts and feelings… (ERE)*

b. *No Brick…! (non-performative)*

c. *Thanks for listening to me… (gratitude/appreciation)*

In TUR, the order of semantic formulas was different from AE. In TUR, females just preferred two semantic formulas in their refusals to females in Position 2 which were *ERE* (80%) and *statement of alternative* (20%) (See details in Appendix 14).

Example 46

a. *Hiç kurabiye yok evde … 'There are not any cookies at home' (ERE)*

b. *Seninle oturacağıma ofise giderim… 'Instead of staying with you at home, I prefer going to work' (statement of alternative*)

Except for *ERE* in AE and TUR in terms of using semantic formulas by females, similarities across the groups were not found regarding the orders of preferences of semantic formulas so the correlation was very low (rho=.23) which indicated that gender in using semantic formulas was an influential variable in F-F refusals.

Within AE, the highest correlation (rho=81) was between M-F and M-M at $p<.05$ level while the lowest correlation (rho=.34) was between F-F and F-M. The highest correlations belonged to the same genders in both languages which means that gender was not an influential factor between those interlocutors. The strongest correlation was observed between M-F and M-M (rho=.73) at $p<.05$ level within TUR. The lowest correlation (rho=.20) was between M-M and F- M.

As there were few semantic formulas in Position 3 for males and females, this present study could not include the correlation test results but to see the overall findings you can see Appendix 14 for males and Appendix 15 for Females.

4.16. Refusal semantic formulas across refusal stimulator speech acts in Position 1

In Table 15, the distribution of semantic formulas was clearly shown in Position 1. The semantic formulas in Table 15 were preferred while refusing the stimulator speech acts; invitation (I), suggestion (S), offer (O) and request (R) (see details in Appendix 17).

Table 15. Distribution of refusal semantic formulas across refusal stimulator speech acts in Position 1

		Sequence Preference						
Lang.	St.	1 Semantic Formula	%	2 Semantic Formula	%	3 Semantic Formula	%	Total
AE	I	Non-per.	46.7	- Statement of regret - Verbal avoidance	13.3 13.3	ERE	10.0	83.3
	S	Non-per.	50.0	ERE	15.0	Verbal avoidance	10.0	75.0
	O	Non-per.	54.0	ERE	12.6	Attempt to per. int.	11.5	78.1
	R	Non-per.	52.1	Verbal avoidance	19.2	ERE	16.4	87.7
TUR	I	Non-per.	31.6	ERE	26.3	Verbal avoidance	10.5	68.4
	S	Non-per.	47.4	- Attempt to per. int. - Clarifying relationship	15.8 15.8	ERE	10.5	89.5
	O	Non-per.	56.3	Attempt to per. int.	16.3	Verbal avoidance	8.8	81.4
	R	Non-per.	34.8	ERE	26.8	Verbal avoidance	16.1	77.7

In AE, while refusing invitations, the most preferred semantic formula was *non-performative* (46.7%) as in *'No, thanks…'*. The second most preferred semantic formulas were *statement of regret* and *verbal avoidance* (13.3%) which were followed by *ERE* (10%) as in the following refusals:

Example 47

a. *I am sorry but… (statement of regret)*

b. *Maybe…! (verbal avoidance)*

c. *Today is that day…. (ERE)*

In TUR, *non-performative* (31.6%) was the most preferred formula similar to the one in AE while refusing invitations. *ERE* (26.3%) was the second most preferred formula in Position 1 which was followed by *verbal avoidance* (10.5%). For example:

Example 48

a. *Hayır, gelmeyeceğim…" 'No, I will not come…' (non-performative)*

b. *Akşamüstü gelirim… 'I will come towards evening' (ERE)*

c. *Benim hiç param yok arkadaşım zaten… 'I don't have any money, dude' (verbal avoidance- topic switch)*

In refusing invitations, the preferences of Turks and Americans were in different orders. Correlation test findings indicated that there was not a strong correlation (rho=.60) between AE and TUR in terms of refusing an interlocutor in Position 1.

In AE and TUR, when the speakers wanted to refuse suggestion, they preferred *non-performative* (AE=50%, TUR=47.4%) mostly. However, in the second and the third ones, there were differences. In AE, *ERE* (15%) was the second most preferred formula while it was *attempt to persuade the interlocutor* and *clarifying relationship* in TUR as in the examples of:

Example 49

a. *I need to wear it to the fall athletic pep rally, which I'm a part of… (ERE)*

b. *Şimdi bu kalp aletlerini çıkarırsan yarın tekrar takacaklar… ' If you take out these heart instruments, they will set in them again tomorrow…' (attempt to persuade the interlocutor-statement of negative consequences)*

c. *Tatlı kızım benim… 'My sweet baby…' (clarifying relationship)*

The third most preferred formulas were *verbal avoidance* (10%) in AE and *ERE* (10.5%) in TUR as in the examples:

Example 50

a. *I really don't know … (verbal avoidance-hedging)*

b. *Benim bunu bugün yetiştirmem lazım… 'I have to finish it today' (ERE)*

Correlation for stimulating speech act of suggestion for AE and TUR was found very low (rho=.24) which means that language was influential in selecting semantic

formulas in refusing suggestions. The correlation of using suggestion in AE and TUR was lower than refusing invitations in both languages.

While refusing offers, the most frequently emerged semantic formula was *non-performative* (AE=54%, TUR=56.3%). Similarly, the results of Bulut (2000) also indicated the same semantic formula as the most preferred one in AE and TUR. The second and the third most preferred ones were different. In AE, *ERE* (12.6%), in TUR, *attempt to persuade the interlocutor* (16.3%) had the second highest frequency counts. *Attempt to persuade the interlocutor* (11.5%) was in the third place in AE while it was *verbal avoidance* (8.8%) in TUR. The followings are the typical examples in AE and TUR respectively.

Example 51

a. *No , I don't like this song… (non-performative)*
b. *Since this is first period… (ERE)*
c. *I can handle this… (attempt to persuade the interlocutor- self-defense)*
d. *Hayır, hayır, olamaz… 'No, no, no, impossible…' (non-performative)*
e. *Ben bu işe baş koydum yapabilirim… 'I set my heart to this work, I can do…' (attempt to persuade the interlocutor-self defense)*
f. *Belki , senin odan…? 'Maybe, your room…?' (verbal avoidance)*

Even though the order of the most three preferred semantic formulas were different in refusing offer, correlation for refusing an offer in AE and TUR was significant at $p<.05$ level (rho=.66) so the variable was not an influential factor in this part.

In refusing a request, in AE and TUR, same semantic formulas were preferred but they were in different sequences. The most preferred one in both languages was *non-performative* (AE=52.1%, TUR=34.8%) as in *"No, I will not be able to pay it ...", "Hayır, teşekkürler" (No, thank you)* while the second and the third most frequented formulas were different. While Americans preferred *verbal avoidance* (19.2%), Turks preferred *ERE* (26.8%). In the third choices, the preferences were vice versa. In AE, *ERE* (16.4%) was preferred while *verbal avoidance* (16.1%) was preferred by Turks. Even though the order of the most preferred three semantic formulas were different between AE and TUR, they preferred the same semantic formulas. The correlation between AE and TUR in terms of using semantic formulas in refusing requests

indicated that there was a strong correlation (rho=.66) at p<.05 level. Followings are the examples for AE and TUR respectively.

Example 52

a. *I'm gonna try reading it… (verbal avoidance- postponement)*
b. *People are gonna bring food over to the house anyway… (ERE)*
c. *İndirdim programı ve öğrendim… 'I download the program and learned it…' (ERE)*
d. *Belki gelebilirim… 'I may come…' (verbal avoidance- postponement)*

Within AE group, the comparisons showed that the strongest correlation was between request and suggestion (rho=.90) at p<.01 level while in TUR the strongest correlation was between invitation and request (rho=.86) at p<.01 level. However, there was a similarity in the weakest correlation in both languages. Both in AE (rho=.50) and TUR (rho=.56), the weakest correlation was between invitation and offer.

When we compare the results with the study of Bulut (2000), there were differences in the uses of semantic formulas in AE and TUR in Position 1. The orders of semantic formulas were different except refusing offer in which the most preferred semantic formula was *non-performative*. The different results might be due to the results of using different data collection tools since Bulut used DCT and Role Play which constitute elicited data while we used TV series which is accepted as authentic data.

4.17. Refusal semantic formulas across refusal stimulator speech acts in Position 2

Table 16 presents the refusal semantic formulas that were used in Position 2 while refusing the stimulator speech acts of invitation (I), suggestion (S), offer (O) and request (R). Table 16 indicated that the most preferred semantic formulas were the same in both languages which was *ERE* (see details in Appendix 18). Both in AE and TUR, invitations, suggestions, offers and requests were refused mostly by using *ERE* in Position 2. The results were found similar to Bulut's (2000) findings who found out in his study that *ERE* was the most preferred semantic formula while refusing the stimulator speech acts in oral and written data.

Table 16. Distribution of refusal semantic formulas across refusal stimulator speech acts in Position 2

		Sequence Preference						
Lang.	St.	1 Semantic Formula	%	2 Semantic Formula	%	3 Semantic Formula	%	Total
AE	I	ERE	68.4	Attempt to per. int.	15.8	- Non-per. - Statement of alternative - Gratitude/ appreciation	5.3 5.3 5.3	100.0
	S	ERE	69.6	Attempt to per. int.	21.7	- Non-per. - Verbal avoidance	4.3 4.3	100.0
	O	ERE	82.1	Gratitude/ appreciation	7.7	- Non-per. - Set con. for future or past ac. - Statement of principle - Statement of empathy	2.6 2.6 2.6	97.6
	R	ERE	63.6	Non-per.	18.2	Attempt to per. int.	9.1	90.9
TUR	I	ERE	60.0	Attempt to per. int.	30.0	Statement of principle	10.0	100.0
	S	ERE	90.0	Clarifying relationship	10.0	-	-	100.0
	O	ERE	74.4	Non-per.	7.7	- Statement of principle - Attempt to per. int.	5.1 5.1	92.3
	R	ERE	64.3	Non-per.	14.3	- Stament of alternative - Verbal avoidance - Clarifying relationship	5.4 5.4 5.4	94.8

In AE and TUR, the most preferred the first and the second semantic formulas *ERE* (AE=68.4%, TUR=60%) and *attempt to persuade the interlocutor* (AE=15.8%, TUR=30%) in refusing invitations. The following scripts illustrate the use of *ERE* and *attempt to persuade the interlocutor* in AE and TUR.

Example 53

a. *…but the magazine is at home… (ERE)*

b. *I am the king; I am a little chef… (attempt to persuade the interlocutor)*
c. *Veli toplantısı var … 'there is a parent-teacher meeting...' (ERE)*
d. *Ev sahibi gelirse, evi başımıza yıkar… 'If the owner comes, burn the house down' (attempt to persuade the interlocutor)*

As the third most preferred semantic formulas, *non-performative, statement of alternative, gratitude/appreciation* (5.3%) were preferred in AE while in TUR, *statement of principle* was in the third place (10%). As it was seen in Table 16, in the third preferences, there are not any identical semantic formulas. The followings are typical examples in TUR and AE.

Example 54

a. *Tanıdıkla yola çıkmam… 'I will travel with acquitance…' (non-performative)*
b. *No, I can't sleep… (non-performative)*
c. *How about I get you a pair of my socks? (statement of alternative)*
d. *Thanks but I would like to see the fifth grade… (gratitude/appreciation)*

The comparison across the two languages indicated that the correlation between AE and TUR in terms of using semantic formulas while refusing invitations was very low (rho=.61).

In refusing suggestions, AE and TUR had different semantic formulas. *ERE* (AE=69.6%, TUR=90%) was again the most preferred formula in both languages, but the second preference was different. In AE, it was *attempt to persuade the interlocutor* (21.7%) while it was *clarifying relationship* (10%) in TUR that were accommodated in the second place. In AE, *non-performative* and *verbal avoidance* (4.3%) were the third semantic formulas that were used while refusing suggestions. In TUR, only *ERE* and *clarifying relationship* were used in refusing suggestion so there was not an occurrence in the third order. Typical examples from AE and TUR in refusing suggestions are:

Example 55

a. *I have got to get to work… (ERE)*
b. *It does not matter for my… (attempt to persuade the interlocutor)*
c. *I can' attend… (non –performative)*
d. *got it… I will think… (verbal avoidance)*
e. *O elbiseyi bu gece giymem lazım… 'I need to wear it this night…' (ERE)*
f. *Sayın müsteşarım…. 'Dear counselor…' (clarifying relationship)*

The correlation between AE and TUR in terms of refusing suggestion was statistically significant (rho=.22), which means that it was an influential variable.

While refusing offers, different semantic formulas were preferred in AE and TUR. The most preferred one was *ERE* (AE=82.1%, TUR=74.4%) in both languages. The second most preferred formula was *gratitude/ appreciation* (7.7%) in AE and *non-performative* (7.7%) in TUR which were followed by *non-performative, set condition for future or past acceptance, statement of principle, statement of empathy* (2.6%) in AE and *statement of principle and attempt to persuade the interlocutor* (5.1%) in TUR. Between AE and TUR, there was not a strong correlation (rho=.24) so the variable was influential here as well. Followings are the examples from AE and TUR.

Example 56

a. *... I've known for a long time that I'm gonna marry that girl... (ERE)*
b. *It's very, very sweet of you to come over and talk to me, but I... just…(gratitude/appreciation)*
c. *No, I don't want you to interrupt…. (non-performative)*
d. *If you wanna go home, then we will go home… (set condition for future or past principle)*
e. *I understand, Axl, this is Sue's senior year… (statement of empathy)*
f. *…ama ben 31 yaşındayım… ' …but I am 31 years old … (ERE)*
g. *Hayır içmeyeceğim… ' No, I will not drink…' (non-performative)*
h. *…ama yani ben kadınlara vurulmaz prensibinde olan birisiyim. ' … but I have the principle of no violence against women' (statement of principle)*
i. *…ben yıllardır sizin için burada ne numaralar ne üç kağıtlar çevirdim… 'I have gone underground for you in years…' (attempt to persuade the interlocutor-self defense)*

In refusing requests, both in AE and TUR, identical resemblance of the semantic formulas were found in the first and the second orders of preferences and they were *ERE* (AE=63.6%, TUR=64.3%) and *non-performative* (AE=18.2%, TUR=14.3%). But in the third order, there were differences in the preferences of semantic formulas in the two languages. In AE, *attempt to persuade the interlocutor* (9.1%) was preferred while *statement of alternative, verbal avoidance* and *clarifying relationship* (5.4%) were preferred in TUR in refusing request.

Similar to what has been found regarding the correlation between AE and TUR in position 2, we were not able to find any strong correlations within either AE or TUR in terms of the preferences and orders of semantic formulas while giving refusals to refusal stimulator speech acts. As Position 3 has few refusal semantic formulas, the results of the table were not added to this part of the study but overall findings can be found in Appendix 19.

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION

5.1. Presentation

In this chapter, a summary of the overall results mentioned in the previous chapter will be given and the effects of the independent variables on the preference of refusal strategies between AE and TUR will be overviewed. Finally, recommendation for future research and implications for the language teaching will be briefly presented.

5.2. Summary of the study

The purpose of this study was to investigate the speech act of refusals cross-culturally in AE and TUR. The aims of the current study are manifold: (1) to find out the refusal strategies and semantic formulas preferred in AE and TUR, (2) to identify the refusal strategies and semantic formulas that females and males preferred while refusing the same and opposite genders (M-M, M-F, F-F, F-M), (3) to identify the refusal strategies and semantic formulas that were preferred while refusing equal, higher and lower status person (E-E, H-L, L-H), (4) to find the order of first three most preferred refusal strategies and semantic formulas in utterances of refusals (Position 1, Position 2, Position 3), (5) to uncover the refusal strategies that were preferred while giving refusals to the refusal stimulator speech acts (invitation, suggestion, offer, request) in AE and TUR.

In order to probe the cross-cultural differences and similarities in AE and TUR in terms of using refusal strategies, we preferred TV series to analyze the refusal types. Two TV series in AE and two TV series in TUR with the same genre were selected. Preferred TV series are one of the most popular series in their own country. Refusals were gathered from the scripts. While the refusals were taken, the status and genders of interlocutors, the order of semantic formulas and refusal stimulator speech acts were taken into consideration. The taxonomy of Beebe et al. (1990) was used while coding

the data. The data was done manually and while coding the data, all the refusal types and semantic formulas were coded one by one. Then the data were entered into the SPSS to run Chi-Square and Spearman rank correlation tests. The results were showed through the tables, and then analyzed, discussed and compared with the results of previous studies.

5.3. Summary of the results

In this phase of the study, the findings of this present study were summarized. This aim of this study was to find out the differences and similarities between AE and TUR in terms of using refusal strategies. While analyzing these strategies, the effects of gender, status and types of refusal stimulating speech acts depending on Positions 1, 2 and 3 were considered. These findings were examined by using the taxonomy of Beebe et al. (1990).

5.3.1. Refusal types in AE and TUR

The findings of the study with regard to refusal types in AE and TUR showed that indirect strategies were preferred in both languages and this was followed by direct strategy and adjunct to refusals. The order of the preferred refusal types was similar in both languages and the results were statistically significant.

Refusal types were identified according to the number and order of refusal types produced by refuser and the results indicated that the most preferred refusal type was different in Position 1 but same in Position 2 and 3. In Position 1, direct strategy was preferred in AE while indirect was preferred in TUR. But for Position 2 and 3, indirect strategy was the most preferred one both in AE and TUR. On the other hand, the least preferred refusal type was similar which was found to be adjunct to refusals in both languages.

5.3.1.1. Refusal types across status levels

It can be extrapolated that AE and TUR had same the preferences with regard to refusal types while refusing an equal status person and higher status person. Indirect strategy was the most preferred refusal type. On the other hand, there was a difference in terms of refusing a lower status person. While Americans preferred direct strategy in refusing lower status person, Turks did not change their attitude and preferred the similar strategy in refusing lower status, which is indirect strategy.

Significant difference was found in refusing equal status and lower status person while the results of higher status person did not yield any significant difference in AE and TUR.

5.3.1.2. Refusal types across genders in AE and TUR

As another independent variable, the results of using refusal types by females and males indicated that the order of the most preferred refusal types was similar. In this part of the study, the effects of refuser and refusee were considered. All the groups (M-M, M-F, F-F, F-M) uttered indirect strategy as the most preferred refusal types and adjunct to refusals was the least preferred one.

The results did not yield any significant difference across M-M interaction, that is, in M-M interaction, the language is not effective. On the other hand, in other groups, there was a statistically significant difference so it can be explained that the language is effective.

5.3.1.3. Refusal types across refusal stimulator speech acts

The relationship between refusal stimulator speech acts and refusal strategy preferences in AE and TUR was explored through the taxonomy suggested by Beebe et al. In refusing invitation and suggestion, the most preferred refusal type was indirect strategy both in AE and TUR while the least preferred one was adjunct to refusals. The results showed that invitation was not an influential factor as there was not a significant difference. In refusing request and offer, indirect strategy was the first one which was followed by direct and adjunct to refusals. In these two stimulator speech acts, a significant difference was found.

5.3.2. Semantic formulas in AE and TUR

In the first phase of the study, refusal types were compared in AE and TUR and then the semantic formulas were compared like the most preferred ones and the order of formulas in the sentence.

With regard to overall semantic formulas, AE and TUR had different semantic formulas for the most three preferred ones. The typical combination of semantic formula employed by AE was non-*performative + ERE + verbal avoidance* while in TUR, the combination was *ERE + non-performative+ attempt to persuade the interlocutor*. Even though the first three most preferred semantic formulas were

different, when we looked at the all 18 semantic formulas, the correlation between two languages was found very high.

In Position 1 and 2, the most preferred semantic formulas did not change while the order was different. The most preferred semantic formulas in Position 1 and 2 were *non-performative* and *ERE* in AE and TUR. However, the least preferred semantic formulas were different in both languages. In AE, two semantic formulas were not preferred while there were four semantic formulas that were never preferred by Turkish speakers.

In Position 1, the most first preferred semantic formulas were similar across status and gender in both languages while the least preferred ones were found different. For refusal stimulator speech act, these similarities went on.

5.3.2.1. Semantic formulas across status levels in AE and TUR

While the preference in the first semantic formula in AE and TUR was different in refusing an equal status person, in refusing a lower and higher status person, the same semantic formulas were seen as the first most preferred ones. The typical combination was *non-performative +ERE* in AE and *ERE+ non-performative* in TUR. Within languages, the spearman rank order correlation test results showed that there was a strong correlation among status groups within languages.

In Position 1, both the Americans and Turks mostly preferred the same semantic formula, *non-performative.* On the other hand, there are some semantic formulas that were never uttered by the speakers of both languages like *wish* and *statement of empathy*. Overall semantic formula analysis indicated that *adjunct to refusals* were not preferred much when the results were compared to *indirect refusals.* In Position 2, *ERE* welcomed us as the most preferred semantic formula in both languages. On the other hand, six different semantic formulas were never preferred in Position 2 in AE and TUR like *performative, statement of regret, wish, statement of philosophy, statement of positive opinion, removal of negativity.*

5.3.2.2. Semantic formulas across genders in AE and TUR

In AE, it was found that males did not need any explanation, reason or excuse while refusing the males or females. Hence, they preferred just saying *no*, while Turks preferred different formulas while refusing males and females. They preferred *ERE* in

refusing the same gender but in refusing the females, they preferred *non-performative.* In AE, the combination of semantic formulas in M-M interaction *[non-performative+ ERE+ attempt to persuade the interlocutor]* was found different from TUR *[ERE+ non-performative+ attempt to persuade the interlocutor]*. Females preferred *ERE* mostly in both languages. However, in only AE, females preferred *non-performative* while refusing the same gender. They did not prefer making excuses or explanation to refuse the same gender. Saying *no* was thought enough for them.

The correlation results indicated that the results were not so strong between AE and TUR in terms of gender using semantic formulas in Position 1 and 2 which means that gender was influential.

5.3.2.3. Semantic formulas across refusal stimulator speech acts in AE and TUR

With regard to overall comparisons of semantic formulas in AE and TUR, *ERE and non-performativ*e were the first most preferred semantic formulas across refusal stimulator speech acts and the results indicated that except refusing suggestion, there is a strong correlation. Both AE and TUR generally combined *[ERE+ non-performative+ attempt to persuade/verbal avoidance/clarifying relationship]* while refusing stimulator speech acts. In refusing suggestion, the results were not so strong, which means that stimulator speech act of suggestion was an influential variable. In Position 1 and 2, all the first most preferred semantic formulas were similar which were *non-performative* and *ERE.*

5.4. Recommendations for future research

The aim of this study was to find out the speech acts of refusals in AE and TUR. Refusals were the main focus of this study as a speech act. However, the other speech act types might be analyzed and contributions to the field could be made. For instance, the speech acts of complaints, requests or apologies might be investigated in AE and TUR by using the corpus close to the natural language.

Secondly, the corpus of this study was compiled from the TV series. The speech act of refusals in four TV series were scripted and analyzed. Whereas, using corpus which is collected from daily conversations could be used to reveal the characteristics of

refusals in AE and TUR. Using the natural data could represent the real life better than the natural like data.

Finally, while analyzing the refusals of genders, the researcher of this study investigated the refusals of female and male characters in both languages. However, it is a fact that Queer has already entered into the lives of people. In addition, Queer characters have been represented in TV series. For this reason, a study aiming to explore exploitation of refusal strategies among genders from Queer's perspective might yield interesting results.

5.5. Implications for language teaching

Since the data used in this dissertation is a natural one, the context and the refusals given in different situations to different people could be considered as the real language that we could come across in daily conversations. For this reason, to have a better understanding of both American and Turkish cultures and to teach how to be socially, culturally and pragmatically appropriate, instructors could benefit from the way refusals are given by both groups. Once being appropriate in terms of these three aspects is taught, the level and frequency of being impolite in second/foreign language communication among people in intercultural environments will decrease.

It is a fact that English has been one of the most popular languages learnt as a second or foreign language throughout the world. Also, teaching Turkish as a foreign or second language is becoming popular especially in our region. Even though there are lots of materials used to teach English in the market, finding sources created out of user corpus, peculiar to teaching speech acts in English, could be hard. In addition, since teaching Turkish as a foreign or second language is newly becoming popular, finding a source designed out of a natural data is almost impossible. For this reason, the examples shared in the qualitative part of this dissertation and the frames and the order of semantic formulas created thanks to the analyses of refusal situations might guide materials developers while designing activities regarding the process of teaching formulaic language used in different refusal situations while refusing different refusal stimulating speech acts in the course of interacting with different people from different status levels and genders.

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APPENDICES

Appendix 1. Taxonomy of Refusals (Beebe et al., 1990)

A. DIRECT

1. Performative (e.g. I refuse…. I decline…)
2. Non-performative:
   No…, Negative willingness/ ability (e.g. I can't, I won't, I don't think so…)

B. INDIRECT

3. Statement of regret (e.g. I'm sorry…, I feel terrible…, I apologize…)
4. Wish (e.g. I wish I could…)
5. Excuse-reason-explanation (e.g. My children will be home that night; I have a headache, etc.)
6. Statement of alternative
   I can do X instead of Y. (e.g. I'd rather…, I prefer…)
   Why don't you do X instead of Y.
7. Set condition for future or past acceptance (e.g. If you had asked me…; If it doesn't …, I will…)
8. Future acceptance (e.g. Next time…; I'll do…)
9. Statement of principle (e.g. I never do business with friends)
10. Statement of philosophy (e.g. Accidents happen)
11. Attempt to persuade the interlocutor:
    Statement of negative consequences
    Statement of negative feeling or opinion, criticize
    Request for help, empathy, and assistance by dropping or holding the request
    Let interlocutor off the hook (e.g. Don't worry, etc.)
    Self –defense (e.g. I'm trying my best)
    Sarcasm
12. Acceptance that functions as a refusal
    Unspecific or indefinite reply (e.g. That might be a solution)
    Lack of enthusiasm (e.g. I don't care about taking it)
13. Verbal avoidance:
    Topic switch
    Hedging (e.g. I don't know; I am not sure)
    Repeating the whole or part of a request, etc. (e.g. Monday?)
    Postponement (e.g. Can I think about it?; I will think about it; Maybe… Perhaps…)
    Request for information

C. ADJUNCTS TO REFUSALS

14. Statement of positive opinion/feeling or agreement (e.g. That's a good idea; I' d love to…, etc.)
15. Statement of empathy (e.g. I understand …; I realize you are in a difficult situation)
16. Gratitude/appreciation (e.g. Thank you for considering me; I appreciate…)
17. Removal of negativity (You are a nice person but…)
18. Clarifying relationship (My friend…)

Appendix 2. Overall distribution of semantic formulas

SEMANTIC FORMULAS	LANGUAGE			
	AE		TUR	
	N	%	N	%
1. Performative	6	0.5	0	0.0
2. Non-performative	396	36.1	330	30.9
3. Statement of regret	21	1.9	6	0.6
4. Wish	3	0.3	0	0.0
5. Excuse-reason-explanation	363	33.1	366	34.3
6. Statement of alternative	21	1.9	33	3.1
7. Set condition for future or past acceptance	9	0.8	6	0.6
8. Future acceptance	3	0.3	6	0.6
9. Statement of principle	21	1.9	51	4.8
10. Statement of philosophy	0	0.0	3	0.3
11. Attempt to persuade the interlocutor	93	8.5	126	11.8
12. Acceptance that functions as a refusal	6	0.5	3	0.3
13. Verbal avoidance	96	8.7	69	6.5
14. Statement of positive opinion/feeling or agreement	21	1.9	6	0.6
15. Statement of empathy	3	0.3	0	0.0
16. Gratitude/appreciation	30	2.7	18	1.7
17. Removal of negativity	6	0.5	0	0.0
18. Clarifying relationship	0	0.0	45	4.2
TOTAL	1098	100	1068	100

Appendix 3. Status and overall frequency of semantic formulas

	LANGUAGE											
S.F	ENGLISH						TURKISH					
	E		H-L		L-H		E		H-L		L-H	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1	3	0.5	3	1.2			0	0.0	0	0.0		
2	198	34.0	120	48.8	78	28.9	186	31.0	87	38.7	57	23.5
3	15	2.6	3	1.2	3	1.1	3	0.5	0	0.0	3	1.2
4					3	1.1					0	0.0
5	195	33.5	78	31.7	90	33.3	195	32.5	69	30.7	102	42.0
6	6	1.0	15	6.1	0	0.0	24	4.0	3	1.3	6	2.5
7	3	0.5			6	2.2	3	0.5			3	1.2
8			0	0.0	3	1.1			6	2.7	0	0.0
9	9	1.5	6	2.4	6	2.2	36	6.0	6	2.7	9	3.7
10	0	0.0					3	0.5				
11	54	9.3	6	2.4	33	12.2	90	15.0	12	5.3	24	9.9
12	6	1.0					3	0.5				
13	60	10.3	6	2.4	30	11.1	45	7.5	12	5.3	12	4.9
14	15	2.6	6	2.4			3	0.5	3	1.3		
15	3	0.5					0	0.0				
16	15	2.6	3	1.2	12	4.4	6	1.0	6	2.7	6	2.5
17					6	2.2					0	0.0
18	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	3	0.5	21	9.3	21	8.6
T	582	100	246	100	270	100	600	100	225	100	243	100

Appendix 4. Gender (M-M & M-F) and overall frequency of semantic formulas

	LANGUAGE											
S.F	ENGLISH						TURKISH					
	M-M		M-F		M TOTAL		M-M		M-F		M TOTAL	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1	3	0.8	3	1.0	6	0.9	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
2	120	32.8	108	35.3	228	33.9	96	30.8	114	34.9	210	32.9
3	6	1.6	3	1.0	9	1.3	3	1.0	0	0.0	3	0.5
4			3	1.0	3	0.4			0	0.0	0	0.0
5	99	27.0	93	30.4	192	28.6	120	38.5	102	31.2	222	34.7
6	9	2.5	3	1.0	12	1.8	3	1.0	15	4.6	18	2.8
7	6	1.6	3	1.0	9	1.3	3	1.0	0	0.0	3	0.5
8			3	1.0	3	0.4			3	0.9	3	0.5
9	12	3.3	0	0.0	12	1.8	12	3.8	24	7.3	36	5.6
10	0	0.0			0	0.0	3	1.0			3	0.5
11	54	14.8	30	9.8	84	12.5	24	7.7	39	11.9	63	9.9
12	6	1.6	0	0.0	6	0.9	0	0.0	3	0.9	3	0.5
13	30	8.2	27	8.8	57	8.5	18	5.8	18	5.5	36	5.6
14	3	0.8	18	5.9	21	3.1	3	1.0	0	0.0	3	0.5
15			3	1.0	3	0.4			0	0.0	0	0.0
16	15	4.1	6	2.0	21	3.1	6	1.9	0	0.0	6	0.9
17	3	0.8	3	1.0	6	0.9	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
18	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	21	6.7	9	2.8	30	4.7
T	366	100	306	100	672	100	312	100	327	100	639	100

Appendix 5. Gender (F-F & F-M) and overall frequency of semantic formulas

	LANGUAGE											
S.F	ENGLISH						TURKISH					
	F-F		F-M		F TOTAL		F-F		F-M		F TOTAL	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1												
2	45	39.5	123	39.4	168	39.4	18	22.2	102	29.3	120	28.0
3			12	3.8	12	2.8			3	0.9	3	0.7
4												
5	42	36.8	129	41.3	171	40.1	27	33.3	117	33.6	144	33.6
6	3	2.6	6	1.9	9	2.1	3	3.7	12	3.4	15	3.5
7			0	0.0	0	0.0			3	0.9	3	0.7
8			0	0.0	0	0.0			3	0.9	3	0.7
9	3	2.6	6	1.9	9	2.1	12	14.8	3	0.9	15	3.5
10												
11	3	2.6	6	1.9	9	2.1	15	18.5	48	13.8	63	14.7
12												
13	12	10.5	27	8.7	39	9.2	0	0.0	33	9.5	33	7.7
14			0	0.0	0	0.0			3	0.9	3	0.7
15												
16	6	5.3	3	1.0	9	2.1	0	0.0	12	3.4	12	2.8
17												
18	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	6	7.4	9	2.6	15	3.5
T	114	100	312	100	426	100	81	100	348	100	429	100

Appendix 6. Refusal stimulating speech acts and overall frequency of semantic formulas

S. Formula	LANGUAGE															
	ENGLISH								TURKISH							
	I		S		O		R		I		S		O		R	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1			3	1.6	3	0.8					0	0.0	0	0.0		
2	48	30.2	63	32.8	150	38.5	135	37.8	18	20.0	27	31.0	144	38.7	141	27.2
3	12	7.5			3	0.8	6	1.7	3	3.3			0	0.0	3	0.6
4							3	0.8							0	0.0
5	54	34.0	66	34.4	129	33.1	114	31.9	33	36.7	33	37.9	99	26.6	201	38.7
6	3	1.9			3	0.8	15	4.2	3	3.3	3		15	4.0	15	2.9
7			3	1.6	3	0.8	3	0.8			0	3.4	0	0.0	3	0.6
8					0	0.0	3	0.8					3	0.8	3	0.6
9	3	1.9	6	3.1	9	2.3	3	0.8	6	6.7		0.0	24	6.5	21	4.0
10					0	0.0							3	0.8		
11	12	7.5	21	10.9	33	8.5	27	7.6	12	13.3	9	10.3	48	12.9	57	11.0
12	3	1.9	3	1.6	0	0.0			0	0.0	0	0.0	3	0.8		
13	15	9.4	15	7.8	21	5.4	45	12.6	6	6.7	3	3.4	21	5.6	39	7.5
14	0	0.0	12	6.3	9	2.3	0	0.0	3	3.3	0	0.0	0	0.0	3	0.6
15					3	0.8							0	0.0		
16	6	3.8			24	6.2	0	0.0	3	3.3			9	2.4	6	1.2
17	3	1.9					3	0.8	0	0.0					0	0.0
18	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	3	3.3	12	13.8	3	0.8	27	5.2
T	159	100	192	100	390	100	357	100	90	100	87	100	372	100	519	100

Appendix 7. Position and overall frequency of semantic formulas

	LANGUAGE											
S.F	ENGLISH						TURKISH					
	I		II		III		I		II		III	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1	6	0.9					0	0.0				
2	357	51.7	27	7.9	12	18.2	297	43.0	33	9.6	0	0.0
3	21	3.0					6	0.9				
4	3	0.4					0	0.0				
5	96	13.9	246	71.9	21	31.8	120	17.4	240	69.6	6	18.2
6	6	0.9	9	2.6	6	9.1	18	2.6	9	2.6	6	18.2
7	0	0.0	3	0.9	6	9.1	6	0.9	0	0.0	0	0.0
8			0	0.0	3	4.5			3	0.9	3	9.1
9	15	2.2	3	0.9	3	4.5	36	5.2	15	4.3	0	0.0
10	0	0.0					3	0.4				
11	51	7.4	33	9.6	9	13.6	105	15.2	18	5.2	3	9.1
12	6	0.9					3	0.4				
13	87	12.6	6	1.8	3	4.5	60	8.7	9	2.6	0	0.0
14	18	2.6			3	4.5	3	0.4			3	9.1
15			3	0.9					0	0.0		
16	18	2.6	12	3.5	0	0.0	9	1.3	3	0.9	6	18.2
17	6	0.9					0	0.0				
18	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	24	3.5	15	4.3	6	18.2
T	690	100	342	100	66	100	690	100	345	100	33	100

Appendix 8. Status and overall frequency of semantic formulas in Position 1

	LANGUAGE											
S.F.	ENGLISH						TURKISH					
	E		H-L		L-H		E		H-L		L-H	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1	3	0.9	3	1.8			0	0.0	0	0.0		
2	186	53.0	111	66.1	60	35.1	165	41.7	81	55.1	51	34.7
3	15	4.3	3	1.8	3	1.8	3	0.8	0	0.0	3	2.0
4					3	1.8					0	0.0
5	42	12.0	27	16.1	27	15.8	63	15.9	18	12.2	39	26.5
6	0	0.0	6	3.6	0	0.0	12	3.0	3	2.0	3	2.0
7	0	0.0			0	0.0	3	0.8			3	2.0
8												
9	9	2.6	3	1.8	3	1.8	21	5.3	6	4.1	9	6.1
10	0	0.0					3	0.8				
11	21	6.0	3	1.8	27	15.8	78	19.7	12	8.2	15	10.2
12	6	1.7					3	0.8				
13	51	14.5	6	3.6	30	17.5	39	9.8	12	8.2	9	6.1
14	12	3.4	6	3.6			3	0.8	0	0.0		
15												
16	6	1.7	0	0.0	12	7.0	0	0.0	3	2.0	6	4.1
17					6	3.5					0	0.0
18	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	3	0.8	12	8.2	9	6.1
T	351	100	168	100	171	100	396	100	147	100	147	100

Appendix 9. Status and overall frequency of semantic formulas in Position 2

	LANGUAGE											
S.F.	ENGLISH						TURKISH					
	E		H-L		L-H		E		H-L		L-H	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1												
2	9	4.4	6	9.5	12	16.0	21	10.9	6	8.7	6	7.1
3												
4												
5	144	70.6	48	76.2	54	72.0	129	67.2	51	73.9	60	71.4
6	6	2.9	3	4.8			9	4.7	0	0.0		
7					3	4.0					0	0.0
8			0	0.0					3	4.3		
9	0	0.0	3	4.8			15	7.8	0	0.0		
10												
11	27	13.2			6	8.0	9	4.7			9	10.7
12												
13	6	2.9			0	0.0	6	3.1			3	3.6
14												
15	3	1.5					0	0.0				
16	9	4.4	3	4.8			3	1.6	0	0.0		
17												
18			0	0.0	0	0.0			9	13.0	6	7.1
T	204	100	63	100	75	100	192	100	69	100	84	100

Appendix 10. Status and overall frequency of semantic formulas in Position 3

	LANGUAGE											
S.F.	ENGLISH						TURKISH					
	E		H-L		L-H		E		H-L		L-H	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1												
2	3	11.1	3	20.0	6	25.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
3												
4												
5	9	33.3	3	20.0	9	37.5	3	25.0	0	0.0	3	25.0
6	0	0.0	6	40.0	0	0.0	3	25.0	0	0.0	3	25.0
7	3	11.1			3	12.5	0	0.0			0	0.0
8			0	0.0	3	12.5			3	33.3	0	0.0
9					3	12.5					0	0.0
10												
11	6	22.2	3	20.0			3	25.0	0	0.0		
12												
13	3	11.1					0	0.0				
14	3	11.1	0	0.0			0	0.0	3	33.3		
15												
16	0	0.0	0	0.0			3	25.0	3	33.3		
17												
18					0	0.0					6	50.0
T	27	100	15	100	24	100	12	100	9	100	12	100

Appendix 11. Gender (M-M & M-F) and overall frequency of semantic formulas in Position 1

	LANGUAGE											
S.F.	ENGLISH						TURKISH					
	M-M		M-F		M TOTAL		M-M		M-F		M TOTAL	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1	3	1.3	3	1.5	6	1.4	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
2	114	47.5	93	47.0	207	47.3	87	44.6	108	52.9	195	48.9
3	6	2.5	3	1.5	9	2.1	3	1.5	0	0.0	3	0.8
4			3	1.5	3	0.7			0	0.0	0	0.0
5	27	11.3	27	13.6	54	12.3	36	18.5	24	11.8	60	15.0
6	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	3	1.5	12	5.9	15	3.8
7	0	0.0			0	0.0	3	1.5			3	0.8
8												
9	12	5.0	0	0.0	12	2.7	9	4.6	15	7.4	24	6.0
10	0	0.0			0	0.0	3	1.5			3	0.8
11	27	11.3	24	12.1	51	11.6	18	9.2	30	14.7	48	12.0
12	6	2.5	0	0.0	6	1.4	0	0.0	3	1.5	3	0.8
13	27	11.3	24	12.1	51	11.6	15	7.7	12	5.9	27	6.8
14	3	1.3	15	7.6	18	4.1	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
15												
16	12	5.0	3	1.5	15	3.4	6	3.1	0	0.0	6	1.5
17	3	1.3	3	1.5	6	1.4	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
18	0	0.0			0	0.0	12	6.2			12	3.0
T	240	100	198	100	438	100	195	100	204	100	399	100

Appendix 12. Gender (F-F & F-M) and overall frequency of semantic formulas in Position 1

	LANGUAGE											
S.F.	ENGLISH						TURKISH					
	F-F		F-M		F TOTAL		F-F		F-M		F TOTAL	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1												
2	39	54.2	111	61.7	150	59.5	18	27.3	84	37.3	102	35.1
3			12	6.7	12	4.8			3	1.3	3	1.0
4												
5	15	20.8	27	15.0	42	16.7	15	22.7	45	20.0	60	20.6
6	3	4.2	3	1.7	6	2.4	0	0.0	3	1.3	3	1.0
7			0	0.0	0	0.0			3	1.3	3	1.0
8												
9	3	4.2			3	1.2	12	18.2			12	4.1
10												
11	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	15	22.7	42	18.7	57	19.6
12												
13	12	16.7	24	13.3	36	14.3	0	0.0	33	14.7	33	11.3
14			0	0.0	0	0.0			3	1.3	3	1.0
15												
16			3	1.7	3	1.2			3	1.3	3	1.0
17												
18	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	6	9.1	6	2.7	12	4.1
T	72	100	180	100	252	100	66	100	225	100	291	100

Appendix 13. Gender (M-M & M-F) and overall frequency of semantic formulas in Position 2

	LANGUAGE											
S.F.	ENGLISH						TURKISH					
	M-M		M-F		M TOTAL		M-M		M-F		M TOTAL	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1												
2	6	5.6	12	13.3	18	9.1	9	8.3	6	5.1	15	6.7
3												
4												
5	72	66.7	60	66.7	132	66.7	81	75.0	78	66.7	159	70.7
6	3	2.8	3	3.3	6	3.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
7			3	3.3	3	1.5			0	0.0	0	0.0
8			0	0.0	0	0.0			3	2.6	3	1.3
9	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	3	2.8	9	7.7	12	5.3
10												
11	24	22.2	3	3.3	27	13.6	6	5.6	9	7.7	15	6.7
12												
13	0	0.0	3	3.3	3	1.5	3	2.8	6	5.1	9	4.0
14												
15			3	3.3	3	1.5			0	0.0	0	0.0
16	3	2.8	3	3.3	6	3.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
17												
18	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	6	5.6	6	5.1	12	5.3
T	108	100	90	100	198	100	108	100	117	100	225	100

Appendix 14. Gender (F-F & F-M) and overall frequency of semantic formulas in Position 2

	LANGUAGE											
S.F.	ENGLISH						TURKISH					
	F-F		F-M		F TOTAL		F-F		F-M		F TOTAL	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1												
2	6	14.3	3	2.9	9	6.3	0	0.0	18	17.1	18	15.0
3												
4												
5	27	64.3	87	85.3	114	79.2	12	80.0	69	65.7	81	67.5
6	0	0.0	3	2.9	3	2.1	3	20.0	6	5.7	9	7.5
7												
8												
9			3	2.9	3	2.1			3	2.9	3	2.5
10												
11	3	7.1	3	2.9	6	4.2	0	0.0	3	2.9	3	2.5
12												
13			3	2.9	3	2.1			0	0.0	0	0.0
14												
15												
16	6	14.3	0	0.0	6	4.2	0	0.0	3	2.9	3	2.5
17												
18			0	0.0	0	0.0			3	2.9	3	2.5
T	42	100	102	100	144	100	15	100	105	100	120	100

Appendix 15. Gender (M-M & M-F) and overall frequency of semantic formulas in Position 3

	LANGUAGE											
S.F.	ENGLISH						TURKISH					
	M-M		M-F		M TOTAL		M-M		M-F		M TOTAL	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1												
2			3	16.7	3	8.3			0	0.0	0	0.0
3												
4												
5	0	0.0	6	33.3	6	16.7	3	33.3	0	0.0	3	20.0
6	6	33.3	0	0.0	6	16.7	0	0.0	3	50.0	3	20.0
7	6	33.3			6	16.7	0	0.0			0	0.0
8			3	16.7	3	8.3			0	0.0	0	0.0
9												
10												
11	3	16.7	3	16.7	6	16.7	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0
12												
13	3	16.7			3	8.3	0	0.0			0	0.0
14	0	0.0	3	16.7	3	8.3	3	33.3	0	0.0	3	20.0
15												
16												
17												
18	0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0	3	33.3	3	50.0	6	40.0
T	18	100	18	100	36	100	9	100	6	100	15	100

Appendix 16. Gender (F-F & F-M) and overall frequency of semantic formulas in Position 3

	LANGUAGE											
S.F.	ENGLISH						TURKISH					
	F-F		F-M		F TOTAL		F-F		F-M		F TOTAL	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1												
2			9	30.0	9	30.0			0	0.0	0	0.0
3												
4												
5			15	50.0	15	50.0			3	16.7	3	16.7
6			0	0.0	0	0.0			3	16.7	3	16.7
7												
8			0	0.0	0	0.0			3	16.7	3	16.7
9			3	10.0	3	10.0			0	0.0	0	0.0
10												
11			3	10.0	3	10.0			3	16.7	3	16.7
12												
13												
14												
15												
16			0	0.0	0	0.0			6	33.3	6	33.3
17												
18												
T			30	100	30	100			18	100	18	100

Appendix 17. Refusal stimulating speech act and overall frequency of semantic formulas in Position 1

S. Formula	LANGUAGE															
	ENGLISH								TURKISH							
	I		S		O		R		I		S		O		R	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1			3	2.5	3	1.1					0	0.0	0	0.0		
2	42	46.7	60	50.0	141	54.0	114	52.1	18	31.6	27	47.4	135	56.3	117	34.8
3	12	13.3			3	1.1	6	2.7	3	5.3			0	0.0	3	0.9
4							3	1.4							0	0.0
5	9	10.0	18	15.0	33	12.6	36	16.4	15	26.3	6	10.5	9	3.8	90	26.8
6	0	0.0			3	1.1	3	1.4	3	5.3			9	3.8	6	1.8
7			0	0.0			0	0.0			3	5.3			3	0.9
8																
9	3	3.3	6	5.0	6	2.3	0	0.0	3	5.3	0	0.0	18	7.5	15	4.5
10					0	0.0							3	1.3		
11	3	3.3	6	5.0	30	11.5	12	5.5	3	5.3	9	15.8	39	16.3	54	16.1
12	3	3.3	3	2.5	0	0.0			0	0.0	0	0.0	3	1.3		
13	12	13.3	12	10.0	21	8.0	42	19.2	6	10.5	3	5.3	21	8.8	30	8.9
14	0	0.0	12	10.0	6	2.3			3	5.3	0	0.0	0	0.0		
15																
16	3	3.3			15	5.7	0	0.0	3	5.3			3	1.3	3	0.9
17	3	3.3					3	1.4	0	0.0					0	0.0
18			0	0.0			0	0.0			9	15.8			15	4.5
T	90	100	120	100	261	100	219	100	57	100	57	100	240	100	336	100

Appendix 18. Refusal stimulating speech act and overall frequency of semantic formulas in Position 2

S. Formula	LANGUAGE															
	ENGLISH								TURKISH							
	I		S		O		R		I		S		O		R	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1																
2	3	5.3	3	4.3	3	2.6	18	18.2	0	0.0	0	0.0	9	7.7	24	14.3
3																
4																
5	39	68.4	48	69.6	96	82.1	63	63.6	18	60.0	27	90.0	87	74.4	108	64.3
6	3	5.3					6	6.1	0	0.0					9	5.4
7					3	2.6							0	0.0		
8					0	0.0							3	2.6		
9	0	0.0			3	2.6	0	0.0	3	10.0			6	5.1	6	3.6
10																
11	9	15.8	15	21.7	0	0.0	9	9.1	9	30.0	0	0.0	6	5.1	3	1.8
12																
13			3	4.3			3	3.0			0	0.0			9	5.4
14																
15					3	2.6							0	0.0		
16	3	5.3			9	7.7			0	0.0			3	2.6		
17																
18			0	0.0	0	0.0	0	0.0			3	10.0	3	2.6	9	5.4
T	57	100	69	100	117	100	99	100	30	100	30	100	117	100	168	100

Appendix 19. Refusal stimulating speech act and overall frequency of semantic formulas in Position 3

S. Formula	LANGUAGE															
	ENGLISH								TURKISH							
	I		S		O		R		I		S		O		R	
	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%	N	%
1																
2	3	25.0			6	50.0	3	7.7	0	0.0			0	0.0	0	0.0
3																
4																
5	6	50.0			0	0.0	15	38.5	0	0.0			3	20.0	3	20.0
6					0	0.0	6	15.4					6	40.0	0	0.0
7			3	100			3	7.7							0	0.0
8							3	7.7							3	20.0
9							3	7.7							0	0.0
10																
11					3	25.0	6	15.4					3	20.0	0	0.0
12																
13	3	25.0							0	0.0						
14					3	25.0	0	0.0					0	0.0	3	20.0
15																
16					0	0.0	0	0.0					3	20.0	3	20.0
17																
18	0	0.0					0	0.0	3	100					3	20.0
T	12	100	3	100	12	100	39	100	3	100			15	100	15	100

Appendix 20. Transcription conventions (Annotation of the refusals)

Symbols used to annotate refusal strategies	
Refusal Strategy	**Symbol**
A. DIRECT	<A>
1. Performative	<A1>
2. Non-performative	<A2>
B. INDIRECT	<B>
3. Statement of regret	<B3>
4. Wish	<B4>
5. Excuse-reason-explanation	<B5>
6. Statement of alternative	<B6>
7. Set condition for future or past acceptance	<B7>
8. Future acceptance	<B8>
9. Statement of principle	<B9>
10. Statement of philosophy	<B10>
11. Attempt to persuade the interlocutor	<B11>
12. Acceptance that functions as a refusal	<B12>
13. Verbal avoidance	<B13>
ADJUNCTS TO REFUSALS	<C>
14. Statement of positive opinion/feeling or agreement	<C14>
15. Statement of empathy	<C15>
16. Gratitude/appreciation	<C16>
17. Removal of negativity	<C17>
18. Clarifying relationship	<C18>

Symbols used to annotate status of the interlocutors	
Status	**Symbol**
Equal	<E>
Low to High	<L-H>
High to Low	<H-L>

Symbols used to annotate genders of the interlocutors	
Genders	**Symbol**
Female to Female	<F-F>
Female to Male	<F-M>
Male to Male	<M-M>
Male to Female	<M-F>

Symbols used to annotate refusal stimulator speech acts	
Refusal Stimulator	**Symbol**
Invitation	<INV>
Suggestion	<SUG>
Offer	<OF>
Request	<REQ>

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Papers Presented

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