

THE STRATEGIES IN REQUESTS AND APOLOGIES OF TURKISH FLED
STUDENTS:
A COMPARISON OF ELECTRONIC MAILS AND DCT DATA

CANAN ELİÇİN

BOĞAZIÇI UNIVERSITY

2011

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Thesis submitted to the
Institute for Graduate Studies in the Social Sciences
in partial fulfillment of the requirements for the degree of

Master of Arts
in
Foreign Language Education

by
Canan Eliçin

Boğaziçi University
2011

The Strategies in Requests and Apologies of Turkish FLED Students:

A Comparison of Electronic mails and DCT Data

The thesis of Canan Eliçin

has been approved by

Assist Prof. Leyla Martı
(Thesis Supervisor)

Assoc. Prof. Yasemin Bayyurt

Assist Prof. Didar Akar

June 2011

Thesis Abstract

Canan Eliçin, “The Strategies in Requests and Apologies of Turkish FLED Students:
A Comparison of Electronic Mails and DCT Data”

The aim of this study is to analyze and compare the e-mail messages and Discourse Completion Test (DCT) data of the students at Foreign Language Education Department (FLED) at an English medium university in order to investigate the strategies and categories they use when performing requests and apologies. The study further investigates English L1 speakers' (EL1) and Turkish L1 speakers' (TL1) responses to the DCT to make a cross-cultural comparison between the FLED students and the ESP group and to detect cross-linguistic influences from the first language (L1).

The data were collected through e-mails from FLED students, and DCTs from the three groups of the participants. The data were coded and categorized so as to display the frequency and the percentages of the strategies for each group. The results of statistical analyses suggest a significant difference between e-mail and DCT data regarding the frequency of the use of request and apology strategies by FLED students. Findings indicate both similarities and differences between the ESP group and FLED students. The ESP group used certain request strategies at a significantly higher/ lower rate than the FLED students. Finally, Turkish FLED students borrowed from their L1 pragmatic knowledge when performing certain request and apologizing strategies.

Tez Özeti

Canan Eliçin, “Yabancı Dil Bölüm Öğrencilerinin Rica ve Özür Dilemedeki Stratejileri: Elektronik Posta Mesajları ve Söylem Tamamlama Testi Verilerinin Kıyaslanması”

Bu çalışmanın amacı İngilizce eğitim veren bir üniversitedeki Yabancı Dil Bölümü (YDB) öğrencilerinin elektronik posta mesajlarını ve Söylem Tamamlama Testi (STT) verilerini analiz edip karşılaştırarak ricada bulunma ve özür dileme söz edimleri için kullandıkları stratejileri araştırmaktır. Bu çalışma aynı zamanda İngilizce’yi ve Türkçe’yi birinci dil olarak konuşan iki grup katılımcının STT verilerini de incelemektedir. Bu bağlamda YDB öğrencileri ile İngilizce’yi anadil olarak konuşan katılımcıların stratejileri karşılaştırılmakta ve YDB öğrencilerinin STT’de kullandığı stratejilerde Türkçe’den ne şekilde etkilendiklerine bakılmaktadır.

Veriler YDB öğrencilerinden elektronik posta ve her üç gruptan STTler ile toplanmıştır. Veriler bütün katılımcıların kullanmış olduğu strateji türünü ve miktarını belirleyecek şekilde kodlanıp sınıflandırılmıştır. İstatistik analizler YDB öğrencilerinin elektronik posta ve STT verileri arasında ricada bulunma ve özür dileme için kullandıkları stratejiler bakımından farklılıklar olduğunu göstermiştir. İngilizce’yi birinci dil olarak kullanan katılımcılar ile YDB öğrencilerinin STT’deki stratejileri hem benzerlikler hem de farklılıklar göstermiştir. Farklar daha çok ricada bulunurken kullanılan stratejiler bakımından belirgindir. Ayrıca YDB öğrencilerinin elektronik posta ve STT verilerinde kullandıkları stratejilerde Türkçe’den etkilendikleri görülmektedir.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Many people have contributed to shape the content and structure of this thesis. It is therefore my great pleasure to thank those who helped me put this thesis together.

First of all, I would like to express my gratitude to my thesis supervisor, Assist. Prof. Leyla Martı for her guidance, support and encouragement throughout the preparation of this thesis. Without her sympathy, patience and guidance, the accomplishment would be impossible.

I would also like to thank Assoc. Prof. Yasemin Bayyurt and Assist Prof. Didar Akar for their kind and supportive attitude to me and showing high interest and valuable advice to my thesis. I would like to acknowledge Assist. Prof. Gülcan Erçetin for helping me with statistical analyses. I thank Anthony John Pavlik for his invaluable help in archiving e-mails for me. I thank 2009-2010 Academic Year FLED students.

I also express my gratefulness to my friends for their help: Ahmet, Vildan, Kimby, Emine, Saadet, and Mustafa. I also thank editors Aylin Yılmaz and Oya Erez.

I am grateful to my large family- my mother Necife Eliçin, my father, Medeni Eliçin, my sisters and brothers- for the support they have given me throughout my life.

I cannot find the proper words to thank Rahman Shahshenas, who has been the source of inspiration for me. I wouldn't have been able to finish this work without his support, encouragement, help, patience, and love.

I will always feel grateful to everyone who contributed to this thesis. Any remaining mistakes are my own.

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FIGURES

1. Strategies for Face Threatening Acts (FTAs)

ABBREVIATIONS

AR	Acknowledgment of Responsibility
BU	Boğaziçi University
DCT	Discourse Completion Test
E/A	Explanation or Account
EL1	English L1 Speakers
ELT	English Language Teaching
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
FLED	Foreign Language Education Department
FTA	Face Threatening Act
FTAs	Face Threatening Acts
IFID	Illocutionary Force Indicating Device
L1	First Language
L2	Second Language
MEB	Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı
NA	No Apology
OR	Offer of Repair
PF	Promise of Forbearance
SLA	Second Language Acquisition
STT	Söylem Tamamlama Testi
TL1	Turkish L1 Speakers
YDB	Yabancı Dil Bölümü
YDS	Yabancı Dil Sınavı

CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION TO THE THESIS

1.1 Introduction

In this chapter I briefly introduce the investigated topic, describe the rationale of the study, its goals and the methods that have been used to elicit data. Finally, I present operational definitions.

1.2 The Rationale of the Study

Inspired by Anna Trosborg's (1995) comprehensive book "Interlanguage Pragmatics: Requests, Complaints and Apologies", and the CCSARP Project (Blum-Kulka & House & Kasper, 1989), I decided to study the speech acts production of the students at Foreign Language Education Department (FLED) at Boğaziçi University (BU). I myself used to be one of them. In her book, Trosborg analyzed interlanguage pragmatics of Danish learners of English at varying levels in order to detect problem areas of this specific learner group by presenting learner data analysis.

Studies of learner performance in operating situations, allowing for analyses of different speech acts in the same learners, and in learners at various levels of their interlanguage development, in comparison with native speakers would throw light on learners' problems in mastering speech acts in actual communication situations. (Trosborg, 1995: 57).

According to Blum-Kulka, et al. (1989) speech acts are among the most challenging and most important components of language. They state that many central issues of speech acts are still inconclusive though. Hence, they point to a need for more speech

act studies: “Clearly, there is a definite need for studies examining speech act realization in a wider spectrum of target languages and cultures, if interlanguage pragmatics is to contribute to solving one of the central problems of second language acquisition research.” Because students cannot often perform speech acts in the classroom environment due to lack of opportunities and because they are not taught how to do this, Trosborg (1995:147) also indicate that there is a crucial need to investigate speech acts with the aim of producing educational materials as required. 11 different kinds of speech acts as have been studied so far (Kasper, 2002). However, most of these studies have examined only a few first and target languages (Chang, 2009). Hence there is not such a great variety of languages in the studies conducted so far. A review of the literature shows that Turkish learners, for example, have received little attention and so they are among understudied speaker groups. (The speech act studies of Turkish learners will be detailed in the literature review section).

In speech act studies, scholars sometimes utilize technology for collecting data (Schauer & Adolphs, 2006) because it has been used in educational settings in most parts of the world as well as in Turkey. Teachers and students make use of e-mails for educational purposes (Sevingil, 2009) beside establishing rapport and promoting learning (Keränen & Bayyurt, 2006). Considering that an English language teacher has the responsibility of teaching not only the grammatical components of the language, but also strategies for interpreting the language and for using it appropriately, one can conclude that to be able to provide second language (L2) learners with instruction in pragmatics, teachers themselves should be pragmatically competent (Cohen & Ishihara, 2009). Therefore, the analyses of e-mail

exchanges of Turkish FLED students might reveal the nature of speech acts they use and might help increase their awareness towards pragmatics as they might need this in their future career.

Taking into consideration the importance of “speech acts” studies (Blum-Kulka, 1989; Trosborg, 1995), and of pragmatic competence of language learners, my first aim with this work is to investigate the level of pragmatic information that FLED students, or in other words ‘English teacher candidates’ have by determining and analyzing their requests and apologies. The rationale behind analyzing these speech acts is that they are the most frequent ones in the e-mails of FLED students written to their instructors. The second aim is to make a cross-cultural comparison by finding out whether speech act strategies of FLED students resemble to or differ from the strategies of English L1 speakers (EL1). The third aim is to detect first language (L1) influence of these strategies by analyzing the data collected from Turkish L1 speakers’ (TL1). Implications for teaching environment are also presented.

In order to define the participants in the study, operational definitions are presented in the following section:

1.3 Operational Definitions

English L1 Speakers: This term refers to those who speak English as a first language. In this study they are American or British. In the literature review, they are called English native speakers.

Turkish L1 Speakers: This term refers to those who speak Turkish as a first language.

FLED Students: This term refers to the freshmen who were registered at the FLED department at BU for the Academic Year 2009- 2010.

In the following sections, current literature regarding pragmatics, speech acts, speech act theory, pragmatic competence and transfer, and related speech act studies are reviewed. Moreover, methods of data collection in speech act studies are explored.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1 Introduction

In this chapter, pragmatics is reviewed at first. Next, the introduction of pragmatic competence and the issue of pragmatic transfer are presented. In addition, speech act theory and the most frequently studied speech acts in the literature are reviewed. The strategies for requests and apologies are also presented by analyzing them as face threatening acts (FTAs). Finally, methods for data collection in speech act studies are detailed.

2.2 Pragmatics

Pragmatics is a subfield of linguistics which investigates the relationship between context and meaning (Austin, 1962). It covers speech act theory, and studies the fact that the knowledge of linguistic rules is not adequate in an authentic conversation but the context of the utterance including the role and the status of the participants also affect the transmission of the message. Hence, the grammar knowledge of the speaker and the hearer does not guarantee a successful interaction on its own (Brown and Levinson, 1978).

Pragmatics is divided into two components (Leech, 1983; Thomas, 1983): (1) pragmalinguistics, and (2) sociopragmatics. Whilst the former focuses on pragmatic strategies, such as directness; the latter addresses knowledge of socially appropriate rules, etc. The ability to use social rules and pragmatic strategies to understand

another speaker's intended meaning, therefore, is called pragmatic competence, which is reviewed in the next section.

2.2.1 Pragmatic Competence

Chomsky (1965) makes a distinction between competence and performance. Competence covers the body of knowledge of rules of grammar, whereas performance refers to the ability to produce language. However, Hymes (1972: 278) points out that there are “rules of use without which the rules of grammar would be useless”. This assertion aims to compensate for the limitation of Chomsky’s proposal, which asserts that communicative competence is mainly based on grammatical knowledge, and changes the concept of communicative competence. It includes the body of knowledge which is addressed as ‘the rules of use’ which are essential for grammar rules to function. Canale & Swain (1980) state that communicative competence consists of four components, which are grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, discourse competence, and strategic competence. The first one refers to the linguistic knowledge asserted by Chomsky. The second one, also called pragmatic competence, is about the knowledge of social rules of language, which will be the focus in this study. Discourse competence covers the ability to understand the meaning and use language in the context. Finally, strategic competence refers to the ability of handling a real interaction by using communication strategies appropriately in a context.

Pragmatic competence is an indispensable part of the language proficiency (Rose & Kasper, 2001; Garcia, 2004). It was defined by Kasper as “the knowledge of conditions and manner of appropriate use, in conformity with various purposes”

(Kasper, 1989: 224, cited in Trosborg, 1995). Similarly Garcia (2004) defines it as the ability to use language according to the communicative situation in an appropriate way. It includes both sociolinguistic and illocutionary competence (Bachman, 1990). Hence, learners need good command of grammar, and vocabulary as well as the knowledge of how to use language appropriately according to society and the culture. However, even high proficiency learners can have difficulties in using language appropriately due to certain factors such as L1 influence and cross-linguistic differences (Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1989), which results in pragmatic transfer. Therefore, in the following section, a brief review on pragmatic transfer will be presented. More details on pragmatic transfer in L2 studies will be presented later in the chapter.

2.2.2 Pragmatic Transfer

A child learning/speaking his/her native language is able to produce grammatical sentences as it is required- that is, at the correct time and place. However, it is not always the case with second language learners. Even if learners reach a high level of grammatical competence, their pragmatic knowledge may not be at an equally high level. The findings of numerous studies (such as Cohen and Olshtain, 1981; Kasper, 1981; Blum-Kulka 1982; Thomas 1983, Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford, 1991, 1993; Leech, 1983; and Takahashi and Beebe, 1987) show that even learners with high grammatical and lexical command of the language committed pragmatic failures. Thomas (1983) names this phenomena ‘pragmalinguistic failure’. It is also called pragmatic transfer. For example, Kasper, (1992) indicates that pragmatic transfer

occurs when learners use their L1 communicative strategies even if they speak an L2 language.

All of the studies, cited above, that tried to determine the reason or the nature of pragmatic transfer are similar in that they investigated L2 learners' speech acts production to investigate the issue of transfer. Therefore, in the next section, speech act theory and speech acts will be covered.

2.3 Speech Act Theory

Speech Act Theory was first proposed by J. L. Austin in lectures published as *How to Do Things with Words* (1962). According to Austin, the origin of speech act theory is the distinction between two different utterances: (1) constatives, and (2) performatives. The first group of utterances report truly or falsely on states or affairs (e.g. "Dogs are animals."); however, the latter group is composed of verbal actions which are not necessarily true or false (e.g. 'I promise that I will come back.').

Austin further proposes that all speech acts have three aspects:

1. A locutionary act: It refers to the act of uttering the sentence
2. An illocutionary act: It refers to particular intention in producing the utterance- (Searle (1969) calls it 'a speech act').
3. A perlocutionary act: It refers to the effect on hearer (see the example below).

In the example dialogue below, the act of saying the utterance is the locutionary act; it is a request, which is the illocutionary act and B's opening the door is the perlocutionary act.

A- Could you open the window?

B- (Opens the window)

Searle (1969, 1975, 1976, 1988) later developed Austin's theory and presented 'felicity conditions' on which a speech act is based. Searle (1976:1-16) also classifies illocutionary acts into five categories. The communicative functions of an utterance are determined by the intention behind it.

1. Representatives: When speakers stress what they say is true, they use such verbs as *affirm, believe, conclude, deny, and report*. The idea is "the words match the world".
2. Directives: When speakers try to get something done, they use such verbs as *ask, beg, challenge, command, dare, invite, insist, request*. The idea is "the world matches the words". The hearer does something.
3. Commissives: When speakers commit themselves to a (future) course of action, they use verbs such as *guarantee, pledge, promise, swear, vow, undertake, warrant*. The idea is "world to words". The speaker does something.
4. Expressives: When speakers express an attitude towards or about a state of affairs, they use such verbs as *apologize, appreciate, congratulate, deplore, detest, regret, thank, welcome*.
5. Declaratives: When speakers change a situation by simply making an utterance, they use such utterances as "*I name this ship Ocean.*" or "*I pronounce you man and wife.*" Not everyone is able to perform directives because there are extralinguistic requirements for them.

However, Searle's speech act categories received criticism, because one speech act may fit into more than one category or a speech act may fit into different categories in different languages (Leech, 1983). Thomas (1983) also states that different words could be used to perform the same speech act. In order to make an apology, for example, another speech act could be performed, too. Look at the example below:

I am such a careless person! (Accepting one's fault when an apology is required)

The utterances for realizing a speech act are chosen depending on social and situational factors such as the status of the interlocutors, the extent to which the interlocutors know each other or the level of the imposition (Brown-Levinson, 1987). Hymes (1971) indicates that:

There is no one-to-one relationship between the grammatical form of an utterance and the speech act it realizes. Depending on the situation, grammatically identical sentences may function as different speech acts, and conversely, one and the same speech act may be realized in widely different ways (pp. 278-279).

This shows that sentences do not have fixed meanings, but rather they get meaning depending on the external factors such as the situation, hearer and speaker. For example the utterance 'It's cold' may be simply a comment about the weather, a request to get the window closed, an attempt to start a conversation or an excuse to get inside. On the other hand, different utterances may function as one single speech act. For example, the utterances (1) Can you close the window? (2) It's cold here, and (3) The window's open, could be used to request someone to close the window.

Requests and apologies which are the focus in this study will be reviewed in the following section. Since they are among FTAs, there are certain factors

involved in their production. Hence, before moving on to the strategies that can be employed to perform requests and apologies, the issue of FTA will be reviewed.

2.3.1 Requests and Apologies as Face-threatening Acts (FTAs)

The notion of “face” (self image, self-respect) was first introduced by Goffman (1955, 1967) and later by Brown-Levinson (1978). It is something that “...can be lost, maintained, or enhanced, and must be constantly attended to in interaction.” (Brown-Levinson, 1978: 61). Since it carries much importance, people tend to defend their faces when threatened. Maintaining each other’s face is the mutual interest of interlocutors. Some speech acts inherently threaten face. They are called face threatening acts (Brown-Levinson, 1978: 60). Both requests and apologies are FTAs (Brown and Levinson, 1978; Brown Kulka, et al, 1989). As appreciated by interlocutors, these speech acts tend to be avoided or mitigated in order not to lose face. Brown and Levinson suggest five super strategies for performing a FTA:

1. Bald-on record,
2. Positive politeness,
3. Negative politeness,
4. Off-record, and
5. Avoidance (see Brown and Levinson, 1978 for details.)

Depending on the degree of face threat, one can employ a superstrategy. The amount of face threat has a lot to do with the power of speaker, the social distance between the interlocutors and the degree of imposition. Among these superstrategies, whilst the first one is the most direct one, the last strategy is accepted to be the least direct strategy. According to Brown- Levinson (1978), there is a link between directness

and politeness. It means that the more indirect you are the more polite you become. However, there is criticism of this theory (Blum-Kulka, 1987). For example, if you use indirect strategies when addressing a friend, you are not polite but rather sarcastic or complaining. Hence, the relationship between indirectness and politeness is not always linear nor is it positively correlated.

Figure 1 shows possible strategies for doing FTAs as suggested by Brown-Levinson (1987: 60-69).

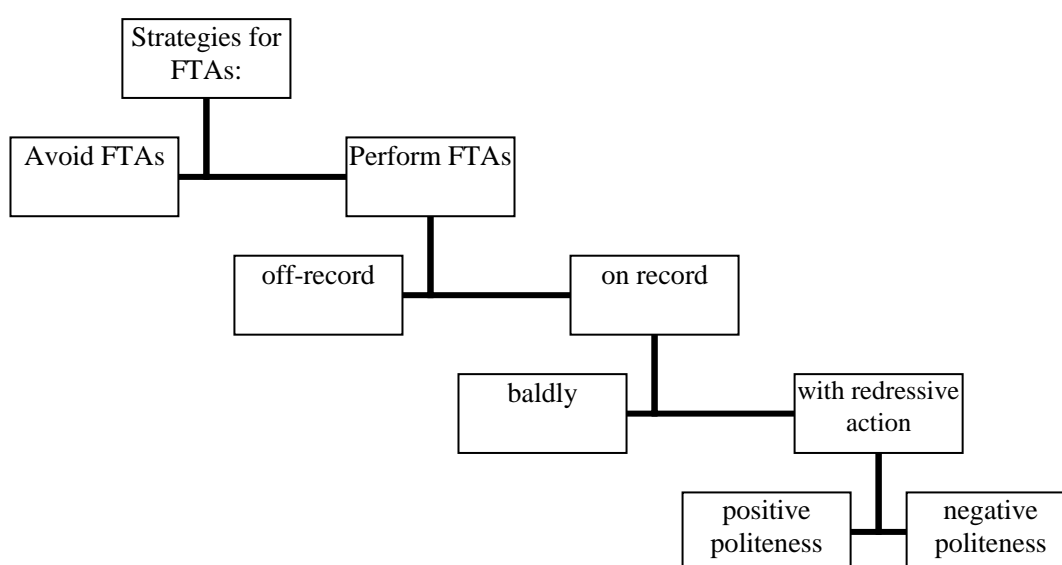


Figure 1. Strategies for Face Threatening Acts (FTAs) by Brown & Levinson (1987)

2.3.2 The Definition of and Strategies for Requests

A request occurs when a speaker asks someone to do something. A speaker requests something which s/he believes that the hearer is able to perform. Depending on the age, social distance and level of imposition, the speaker can make use of various strategies. The reason for this is to minimize the effect of the request on the hearer. Similar to other speech acts, usually a request also consists of more than one part. These parts are the head act (the actual request), modifications of the request

(external or internal), and supportive moves (Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984; Blum-Kulka et al. 1989). Look at the example below:

Jason (1), are you free this weekend? (2) Could you help me with my paper?
(3) Otherwise, I might not be able to finish it on time. (4)

In the example above, Number 1 is an address term, Number 2 and 4 are supportive moves, and Number 3 is head act.

There are three main request types regarding the level of directness Blum-Kulka and Olshtain, 1984, 1989):

1. direct requests,
2. conventionally-indirect strategies, and
3. non-conventionally indirect strategies (hints).

A finer categorization of directness levels of requests is proposed by Blum-Kulka et al. (1989) as can be seen in Table 1. Sub-strategies for performing requests with sample requests from English and Turkish data in this study are provided in the table.

Table 1. The Categorization of Request Strategies on a Directness Scale from 1-9 (1-most direct- 9 most indirect) (Blum-Kulka et. al 1989)

Cat. (1-3)	Strategies (1-9)	Examples
Direct Requests	1. mood derivable	<i>Bana yardım et-</i> Help me
	2. performative	n/a in the data
	3. hedged performative	n/a in the data
	4. obligation statement	<i>Şu kağıda bakar mısın?-</i> Do you look at this paper? (n/a in NE data)
	5. want statement	<i>Şube değiştirmek istiyorum-</i> I want to change the section.
Indirect Requests	6. suggestory formula	It would be great if you could help me. (n/a in NE and NT data)
	7. preparatory	<i>Bana yardım edebilir misiniz?-</i> Could you help me?
Hints	8. strong hint	<i>Odevimden emin olamıyorum-</i> I am not sure about my homework
	9. mild hint	<i>Bir yurtdışı program var-</i> There is a program abroad. (Instead of asking for a letter of recommendation more directly)

The orientation of the speaker was also studied in the literature. A request, for example, can be either speaker-oriented (Can I take your pen for a second?) or hearer-oriented (Can you lend me your pen for a second?) or both (Shall we clean the kitchen?). It also can be impersonal as in “It will be great to tidy up the room” (Blum-Kulka, et.al, 1989).

In the next section, the findings on the requests will be reviewed.

2.3.3 Findings on the Speech Act of Requests

Studies on requests focused on several points. To illustrate, the effect of proficiency level on speech act production was studied by contrasting the data of native and non-native speakers (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989; Kasper & Rose, 2002). In addition, politeness and (in)directness issues were examined (Brown & Levinson, 1978).

The relationship between the proficiency level and request production was an important issue covered in L2 request studies. The studies aimed to find out if there is an order for the development of request strategies of language learners. For example, Kasper & Rose (2002) claim that L2 request developed throughout five stages. These developmental stages were proposed to be:

1. pre-basic (e.g. sir?- to ask teacher to check a sentence),
2. formulaic (e.g. don't go- unanalyzed),
3. unpacking (e.g. can you help me?),
4. pragmatic expansion (e.g. can you help me? So I can finish it), and
5. fine-tuning (e.g. do you have any change?) (Kasper & Rose, 2002:140)

This proposal was supported by the results of several studies which showed that there was a parallel development between the grammatical competence and the quality of the L2 requests (Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1986; and Trosborg, 1987). Proficiency level has been shown by some researchers to affect the requesting strategies of learners by some researchers. Especially high proficiency learners were more likely to use indirect requests and external modifications when compared to low proficiency learners (Hill, 1997). However, this is not always the case. Danish learners, for example, used fewer requests than English L1 speakers (EL1) although they were advanced speakers of English. To summarize, the findings are not consistent with each other regarding the effects of proficiency level on pragmatic competence.

The (in)directness level of the requests was also a concern for many studies. Since speech acts are produced differently in distinct societies, e.g. more directly by

one and more indirectly by another, native speakers and learners of a language might label each other negatively. For example, German learners of English were found to be more direct than native speakers of English when realizing requests and complaints. Hence they are considered to be impolite by native speakers of English (House & Kasper, 1981). Ideally, speech act production of L2 learners could be analyzed to determine problematic areas and to draw learners' attention to them (Trosborg, 1995). If strategies can be identified, it may be useful for teachers and students to practice them in classroom. This might decrease misunderstandings in cross-cultural communication.

2.3.4 The Definition of and Strategies for Apologies

Apologies are employed to sustain harmony between speaker and hearer (Trosborg, 1995). An apology is performed when a fault or violation of a rule has been committed (Cohen & Olshtain, 1983). In other words, they are post-events. For an apology to occur there is need for someone to take on responsibility and apologize for doing or not doing an action in the past which resulted in negative effects for the hearer. Hence, there are two parties: an apologizer and a recipient (Cohen & Olshtain, 1983). However, one can simply deny the fault or violation as well (Goffman, 1971). Depending on several factors such as age or familiarity of interlocutor or severity of the fault, apologies could be realized in different forms (Fraser, 1981). Whilst an apology could be acceptable in one situation, the speaker might have to offer repair in another. Moreover, mitigating devices can be employed to minimize the degree of offence.

The restoration of a complainable may be performed directly by means of an explicit apology utilizing one of the verbs directly signaling apology (apologize, be sorry, excuse, etc.), or it can be done indirectly by taking on responsibility or giving explanations. (Trosborg, 1995: 376)

Apologies can occur in a variety of forms (Lakoff, 2001). Scholars analyzed apologies and determined semantic formulas. This is because a speech act is usually realized by adopting more than one discrete speech act. To illustrate, Cohen and Olshtain (1981) detect that an apology could be composed of several components. These components are analyzed in the example below:

- (1) I am sorry.
- (2) I should have been more careful.
- (3) I'll buy one for you.
- (4) It will never happen again/ It was because of the dark.

This is an apology consisting of 4 different speech acts:

1. an apology (Illocutionary Force Indicating Device- IFID),
2. an acknowledgement of responsibility,
3. an offer of repair,
4. and a promise of attention/ non recurrence or an explanation (see Table 2

for apology strategies and sample apologies from English and Turkish data in this study).

Beside these formulas, an apology could also be accompanied by various phrases in order to soften the violation. Among these phrases are modality markers such as down-toners ('possibly', 'perhaps'), hedges ('kind/sort of', 'somehow'), mental state predicates ('I suppose', 'I think', 'I believe'), or intensifiers ('I'm terribly sorry') (Trosborg, 1995).

Alternatively, Fraser (1981) suggests nine strategies to perform an apology.

These strategies include announcement of an apology, requesting the hearer to accept an apology, and offering redress.

Finally, Trosborg (1995: 376-383) proposes certain strategies to perform apologies. Unlike Cohen & Olshtain (1981), she presents the ways of opting out, too.

These strategies can be classified into four main categories:

1. Opting out,
2. Evasive strategies,
3. Indirect apologies,
4. Direct apologies.

Table 2. Apology Strategies (Str. 1-6) as Proposed by Cohen and Olshtain (1981) and Trosborg (1995).

Cat. (1-3)	Strategies (1-6)	Examples
Direct apology	1. an Illocutionary Force Indicating Device (IFID)	<i>Özür dilerim-</i> I am sorry
	2. an explanation or account (E/A)	<i>Otobüsü kaçırdım-</i> I missed the bus
Indirect apology	3. an acknowledgment of responsibility (AR)	<i>Benim hatam-</i> It's my mistake
	4. offer of repair (OR)	<i>Başka konu hazırlayabilirim-</i> I can prepare another subject
	5. promise of forbearance (PF)	<i>Bir daha olmayacak-</i> It won't happen again
Opting out ¹	6. no apology (NA)	<i>O bana kitabı sormazsa ben bir şey demem-</i> If she doesn't ask for the book, I will not say anything.

Bonikowska (1988) claims that researchers should also study opting out as a strategy in speech acts. "The opting out choice is as much a pragmatic choice as any strategic

¹ The opting out instances will not be covered in the analysis section of this study so as not to lose focus. These instances are left out for further research.

choice employed in speech-act performance, made through activating the same components of pragmatic knowledge” (p. 169). She further points out that speakers have the right to choose not to perform a speech act if it is a highly face-threatening one. This idea is also supported by Brown & Levinson (1978) who introduced “Don’t do the FTA” strategy for speech acts. Lakoff (2001), on the other hand, indicates that it is difficult to define and categorize an apology if it is not an explicit one. Moreover, he asserted that although apologizing might result in losing face, opting out might cause even worse face loss in the long run (pp. 211). Because it is not the focus, the issue of opting out will not be studied in detail in this work (see footnote 1).

2.3.5 Findings on the Speech Acts of Apologies

When compared to the speech act of requests, apologies seem to have been studied less in second language acquisition. The scholars investigated L2 learners’ apologies by investigating cross-cultural data (Cohen & Olshtain, 1981; Trosborg, 1987, 1995), and examined L1 influence (Erçetin, 1995; Trosborg, 1987).

Although the frequency of the use of main categories- which are listed in Table 2- by native and non-native speakers is not significantly different, learners do not always use similar strategies as native speakers do (Trosborg, 1995). Differences result from L1 influence or proficiency level in L2 (Cohen & Olshtain, 1981, 1983). L1 influence can also result in the overuse of certain forms. To illustrate, Japanese learners overuse “I’m sorry” compared to Americans (Beebe & Takashi, 1989). As a result, apologies are patterned in all languages and learners transfer pragmatic rules from their L1.

There are also universal aspects of apologies that are used by speakers and learners of different languages. Major semantic formulas, for instance, are universal. To illustrate, among the apology strategies presented above (see Table 2), Strategy 1, 2, and 3, which correspond to IFID (an apology, e.g. I am sorry), an explanation and acknowledgement of responsibility, respectively, were suggested to exist in every language (Cohen and Olshtain, 1983). Hence, although learners could use universal semantic formulas in L2 successfully, their L1 can still cause overuse or underuse of certain strategies. For example, regardless of their proficiency level, Turkish learners were found to utilize L1 strategies frequently when performing apologies in English (Otçu & Zeyrek, 2008; Erçetin, 1995). Before detailing studies on Turkish learners, studies on the production of speech acts in L2 will be reviewed in general.

2.4 Studies on the Production of Speech Acts in L2

Cross-cultural speech acts studies investigated the speech act production of the learners from different L1 backgrounds at varying proficiency levels. For example, House & Kasper (1981), Faerch & Kasper (1989) and Blum-Kulka (1982) studied requests; Olshtain & Weinbach (1993); whilst Cohen & Olshtain (1981), Blum-Kulka & Olshtain (1984) studied apologies. Among the subjects of these studies are English learners of Hebrew (Blum-Kulka, 1982, 1983), Danish learners of English (Trosborg, 1995), and Turkish learners of English (Erçetin, 1995). The studies differ in their research goals. The first group of the studies investigated the reason and the amount of pragmatic transfer from L1 by comparing and contrasting performance of learners from various proficiency levels (Olshtain, 1983; Erçetin, 1995). The second group of the studies consists of cross-sectional studies which looked at the

developmental stages of speech acts- that is, the relationship between grammatical competence and pragmatic competence- (Bardovi-Harlig & Dörnyei, 1998). The last strand of studies compared and contrasted native and nonnative speakers' data with the aim of detecting similarities/differences between the two groups (Erçetin, 1995; Garcia, 2004; Niezgodna & Röver, 2001; Bardovi- Harlig & Dörnyei, 1998; Liu, 2004; Trosborg, 1995 and Otçu & Zeyrek, 2008). To briefly present the findings of the studies: Studies displayed that there are developmental differences in pragmatic competence. High proficiency learners outperformed low proficiency learners on given tasks. On the other hand, the proficiency level did not seem to affect the speech act production of learners positively. In other words, regardless of their level, nonnative speakers were far behind native speakers in their ability to communicate at a socially acceptable level (Olshtain, 1983). Learners also appeared to suffer from insufficient grammatical knowledge for their assumed proficiency level. Studies conducted in EFL situations revealed cultural differences in learner data (Erçetin, 1995; Tunçel 1999). On the other hand, learners used the main strategies without any difficulties (Trosborg, 1987), which shows that universal rules might be available to all the learners with varying L1 backgrounds (Kasper, 1997).

Learners of English were found to approach request and apology strategies used by native speakers when the rules of L2 were similar to their L1. However, they differed from native speakers when L1 and L2 had different rules. This clearly indicates that there is positive or negative transfer from their L1 (Olshtain & Blum-Kulka, 1985).

2.5 Studies on the Production of Speech Acts by Turkish Speakers

There are few studies that have analyzed the speech act production of Turkish learners and speakers. Thus the information regarding speech act production of Turkish learners is limited. However, the little body of literature reveals that there are both similarities and differences in Turkish and English native speakers' production, which could verify universal and culture-specific features of speech acts.

Studies have shown that speech acts in Turkish are patterned. Turkish learners of lower proficiency levels seem to rely on formulaic expressions without taking risks, which saves them from transferring to a great extent. Turkish learners also tend to transfer from L1 at all proficiency levels as shown by Erçetin (1995), Tunçel (1999) and İstifçi (2009), who compared the apologetic behaviors of native speakers of Turkish and American English L1 Speakers and found similar results. They also investigated instances of pragmatic transfer by analyzing data collected via a DCT to detect semantic strategies used by the participants. Using Cohen & Olshtain's (1981) rating scale, they found striking results. Turkish and English speakers were both similar and different when realizing apologies and pragmatic transfer was found at all levels showing that pragmatic competence and linguistic competence do not go hand in hand. In other words, Turkish learners tend to make use of L1 strategies if they lack the necessary knowledge. In addition, Kanik (2010) and Karsan (2005) investigated apology speech act realization of Turkish teachers of English. They found significant differences between the two groups in terms of the strategies they used. Özyıldırım's (2010) study is the only study which investigated directness level of Turkish apologies. She attempted to investigate apologies in Turkish performed by Turkish native speakers in relation to education level and she

found that higher educated Turkish native speakers used more direct strategies as compared to their less educated counterparts.

Similar to apology studies, there are just a few studies that attempted to investigate requestive acts of Turkish learners of English. One of the researchers is Martı (2000, 2006), who investigated the (in)directness level of Turkish speakers. She focused on the requestive behaviours of Turkish monolingual speakers and Turkish-German bilingual returnees. The study tried to find out whether returnees transferred from German into Turkish regarding directness using a DCT. Contrary to the expectation, Turkish-German bilinguals were found to be less direct than the Turkish native speakers. Martı (2000) also compared Turkish monolingual data with other cultures in the CCSARP. The results showed that Turkish monolinguals were more direct than, for example, English, German or French speakers. All in all, she did not find any significant differences between the bilinguals and Turkish monolinguals, except for two situations, which meant only slight transfer from German into Turkish. Martı (2006), however, noted that Turkish monolinguals are found to be direct when we look at the ‘verbalized’ requests. She stated that the picture might look different when intermediaries used or alternative ways found to realize the requests are considered (for further details see Martı, 2006). Another cross-cultural study that showed that Turkish speakers were more direct in their strategy choices is that of Huls’s (1989). She compared Turkish and Dutch families and found that Turkish speakers preferred more direct strategies than Dutch speakers.

Otçu & Zeyrek (2008) compare requests of Turkish lower and upper intermediate learners of English to those of English speakers. They collected data through role play and a DCT. They found out discrepancies between native and non-

native groups, which was seen as a sign of pragmatic transfer. Different strategies and word choices were available at both levels, lower and upper- intermediate. The most frequent strategy employed by all groups was *conventionally indirect query preparatory strategy*, which was also the most frequent strategy in Marti's (2006) study. Finally, higher level students were found to transfer more, maybe partially due to the lower level students' reliance on formulaic sentences rather than risking new sentences. This finding appears to be in contrast to İstifçi's (2009) results who found that lower level students transferred from L1 more than higher level students. Another striking result that Otçu & Zeyrek (2008) noted was that in spite of pragmatic developments in request strategies of higher level learners, there were still differences between the interlanguage and English native speakers' data. Similar findings were noted in a recent study conducted by Kılıçkaya (2010) who found that although students had adequate level of knowledge to produce requests in English, they could not achieve an acceptable level of politeness. Kılıçkaya (2010) associated this deficiency with the material used at school and with the educational context. It is in line with what Bardovi-Harlig & Dörnyei (1998) found.

2.6 Transfer from L1 while Producing Speech Acts

Blum-Kulka & Sheffer (1993) claim that the hardest part of language to acquire is pragmatic competence. As a result, it is not surprising that learners transfer their previous pragmatic knowledge to L2 while performing speech acts. Although there is no consensus on the definition of transfer, pragmatic researchers define transfer as difference of use due to native language influence (Liu, 2004).

Kasper (1992) proposes two types of pragmatic transfer based on Leech's (1983: 11) and Thomas' (1983) distinction between pragmalinguistics and sociopragmatics. According to Kasper (1992) pragmalinguistic transfer refers to "...the process whereby the illocutionary force or politeness value assigned to particular linguistic material in L1 influences learners' perception and production of form-function mapping in L2." (p. 209). Sociopragmatic transfer, on the other hand, "...is operative when the social perceptions underlying language users' interpretation and performance of linguistic action in L2 are influenced by their assessment of subjectively equivalent L1 contexts." (p. 209).

Kasper warns researchers to be more careful while referring to transfer issues in L2 pragmatics. This stems from the fact that in order to understand the notion of transfer, investigating what is transferred is not adequate by itself. There is also a crucial need for explaining the constraints which lead to transfer (Bou-Franch, 1998). For example, Bou-Franch detailed that linguistic proficiency, cultural information, the length of stay in the target community and educational background are the main conditions for transfer to occur. On the other hand, although proficiency level has an impact on learners' pragmatic competence, the input they are provided with is also determining. Bardovi-Harlig & Dörnyei (1998: 234) claim that the reason why high proficiency learners could not display a good level of pragmatic competence was due to input they had been exposed to. On the contrary, advanced learners can sometimes outperform low proficiency learners at given tests (Hill, 1997; Roever, 2005; and Yamashita, 1996).

Blum-Kulka & Olshtain (1989) indicate that pragmatic failure stemmed from "cross-linguistic differences in speech act realization rules". They then indicated that

cross-cultural studies of pragmatics could help find out the norms of pragmatics in varied languages and help learners handle these norms by establishing rules for them. As Kasper (1981), Olshtain (1983), and Thomas (1983) indicate even advanced learners fail to behave in a socially and culturally appropriate way. Trosborg indicated that there are certain reasons of pragmatic transfer: “Pragmatic failures in learners are reported to result from, e.g. overgeneralization, simplification, reduction of pragmalinguistic or sociopragmatic interlanguage” (p. 55).

Shea (2003) differentiates between strong and weak pragmatic transfer in his study of complaints performed by Japanese learners of English. Strong pragmatic transfer refers to the situations when native speaker groups are significantly different and interlanguage group is similar to L1 group. However, weak transfer means the situations when all three groups, that is native groups and interlanguage group are significantly different and hence a direct transfer cannot be detected.

Beebe & Cummins (1996) point out that data collection instruments affect the elicited data dramatically in terms of “the amount of talk, negotiation, and the frequency with which semantic formulae are used.” Every task has its own demands on the learner. To illustrate, learners transferred their L1 patterns to their L2 performance in written questionnaires more than in spoken role-play activities (Bodman & Eisentein, 1988 cited in Kasper, 1992).

Pragmatic transfer may have significant effects for learners, especially for advanced learners. This is because if a speaker is fluent in a second language, his/her inappropriate utterances will be attributed to his/her being impolite (Thomas, 1983). Hence, lack of sociolinguistic competence may result in speaker’s being labeled rude or unfriendly by native speakers (Trosborg, 1995).

Apart from negative transfer, there is also positive transfer. For example, the indirect request strategies were used by learners of English via employing ‘can you’ which has equivalents in learners’ L1 (e.g. participants in Marti’s study). Learners could also avoid using certain forms if they are aware of the differences between their L1 and L2 in regard to the use of these forms. The Danish participants in House & Kasper’s (1987) study, for example, made use of their L1 strategies in German unlike in English. However, an important issue is that it is difficult to differentiate positive transfer from the use of universal pragmatic knowledge (Blum-Kulka, 1991).

Language teachers should be careful about approaching students when they commit pragmatic transfer (Bou-Franch, 1998). Teachers are not expected to correct learners because they use L1 strategies. Ideally, they should only point out the transfer. The final choice is up to the learner because s/he has his/her own beliefs about the world and language (Thomas, 1983).

2.7 Methods of Data Collection in Speech Acts

Kasper & Blum-Kulka (1993:63) drew attention to the way data collection methods could negatively affect the results of learners’ performance. Hence, scholars have employed a variety of methods to elicit and uncover the differences between the types of data. The most frequently employed methods are various forms of DCT, role-play, and e-mail. Researchers compared DCT data with naturally occurring data. The findings suggested both similarities (Sasaki, 1998; Schauer & Adolphs, 2006) and differences (Golato, 2003; Hartford & Bardovi-Harlig, 1992) between the two methods. For example, they compared the data gathered through DCT to naturally

occurring talk (Golato, 2003), DCT and multiple choice questionnaire (Rose, 1994; Rose & Ono, 1995), or DCT and role-play (Otçu & Zeyrek, 2008). Another group of researchers (Beebe & Cummings, 1996; Sasaki, 1998) compared data coming from DCT to role-plays and telephone conversations. They found that DCT responses were shorter in both native and nonnative data. On the other hand, Beebe and Cummings found that DCT and naturally occurring data were quite similar in terms of the strategies used.

On the other hand, different semantic formulae in refusals were detected by Hartford & Bardovi-Harlig (1991), who compared rejections of native and non-native speakers of English and found that they used different strategies from each other in the two data sets. They also stated that respondents were less polite in the DCT and they opted out more. They also used shorter sentences because of lack of negotiation and turn-taking. Hence, the researchers concluded that DCT data are secondary in reliability to naturally occurring data. Similarly, Hinkel (1997) compared the responses of native and nonnative speakers of English to a DCT and multiple-choice questionnaire. The researcher found that the results of the latter method were in line with the findings of the studies in the field. DCTs were concluded not to be suitable as a data elicitation method. Similarly, learners preferred different request strategies in DCTs and multiple-choice questionnaires (Rose, 1994; Rose & Ono, 1995). On the other hand, another strand of the studies stated that the same words or expressions were used in the DCTs and other data elicitation methods inferring that they could be considered as reliable methods for data collection. For instance, Schauer & Adolphs (2006) compared DCT and corpus data to examine the range of gratitude and found that both of the methods were useful to elicit data that is

used in language classrooms. Moreover, Ling-li & Wannaruk (2008) compared DCT and oral role plays and found no significant difference in terms of the strategies used. The only difference was that DCT responses were longer, which is in contrast with the findings of Hartford & Bardovi-Harlig (1993).

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

3.1 Introduction

This chapter reports on the design, participants, data collection methods, and procedure and data analysis of the study. Four data sets were obtained; emails from FLED students and DCT data from three groups: FLED students, TL1 and EL1 speakers. The main aim of the study is to investigate the speech act strategies that 1st year Foreign Language Education Department (FLED) students use when they are requesting and apologizing. For this purpose 150 e-mails were collected and analyzed. As a second step, e-mail data were compared to Discourse Completion Test (DCT) data collected again from FLED students with the aim of spotting differences/similarities. Further data were collected from English L1 speakers (EL1) in order to compare and contrast these to data of FLED students. Moreover, a Turkish DCT was administered to Turkish L1 speakers (TL1) to detect any instances of L1 influence, in the speech act production of FLED students.

In an attempt to explore these problems, the following research questions have been addressed. The first research question is a general one about the realization of requests and apologies by Turkish FLED students, and it addresses whether there is a difference between the two data sets - e-mails vs. DCT responses:

1. Which strategies do FLED students use when apologizing or requesting in e-mails and in a DCT?

- a. Is there a difference between the realization of requests and apologies in the e-mails and DCT responses of FLED students?

The second and third research questions are related to the comparison of FLED students' strategies with EL1 and TL1 speakers.

2. Is there a difference between FLED students' speech act production and English L1 speakers' speech act production when performing requests and apologies in a DCT?
3. Is there a difference between FLED students' speech act production and Turkish L1 speakers' speech act production when performing requests and apologies in a DCT?

The fourth research question is addressed to cover the strategies of FLED students in detail.

4. How are FLED students' request and apology strategies different from English L1 speakers and Turkish L1 speakers?

3.2 Participants

Data were collected from three groups:

- 1) 1st year FLED students,
- 2) English L1 speakers (EL1),
- 3) Turkish L1 speakers (TL1).

Details about each participant group will be reviewed next.

3.2.1 1st year FLED Students

There are 60 freshmen students in the Foreign Language and Education Department. (FLED) at Boğaziçi University (BU)². 55 out of the 60 students participated in this study. 5 students were excluded from the study because 3 students indicated a mother tongue other than Turkish in the Background Information Test and 2 students could not be contacted. The participants' age varied from 17 to 21 (average 19.2). They were all undergraduate students, sharing a common L1, Turkish. The participants in this study graduated from government schools called *Anadolu Öğretmen Lisesi*- Teacher Training Anatolian High Schools- where they studied in the English preparatory class, which offers an intensive language course for a whole year before students move on to studying their subject matter in an English medium for the next 3 years. One of the students attended high school in a foreign country so he was excluded from the study. Moreover, 27 of them also studied for one year in the English preparatory class at university, (see App. C and D for Personal Information Forms).

Every student has to pass the *Yabancı Dil Sınavı* (YDS) Foreign Language Examination-, an exam evaluating students' foreign language skills, and has to receive a higher mark to be able to study at an FLED department in Turkey. BU requires students to rank at most the 50th in the YDS because it is one of the most prestigious and competitive universities in the country. Hence, the students participating in this study were expected to be advanced users of English. When asked to indicate their level of English, 23 students answered yes; 25 students answered no; and 7 students indicated that they were not sure. None of them had

² There is only one program at FLED. It is English Language Teaching.

stayed in an English speaking country long enough to acquire sociopragmatic or pragmalinguistic abilities (no student stayed abroad longer than 2 weeks). Neither did they receive instruction specifically on pragmatics, or on pragmatic production.

According to Kachru's (1986) world Englishes circle there are three groups of countries located on each circle depending on the use of English: the inner, the outer, and the expanding group. In the inner group, there are the countries such as the United States, Britain and Australia, where English is spoken as first language (L1). In the outer group, there are the countries where English is spoken as a formal language, e.g. India. Finally, the expanding group includes the countries like Turkey where English functions as a foreign language and is taught at schools, or language courses. It means that one would find just a few opportunities to practice and improve his/her English outside school. English has an instrumental function in Turkey, which means that people learn it e.g. to find a better job. Foreign language teaching at Turkish state schools starts at grade 4 (around the age of 10). Students receive up to 4 hours of English instruction per week. Afterwards, they may continue with *düz lise* which refers to the regular high schools with the least qualifications and nearly the same amount of English exposure as in primary school. Another option is to study at *anadolu liseleri* which refer to high schools that offer a higher level of education, and more English instruction. At private schools, pupils are provided with more and better English classes with a more intensive syllabus. Due to its status as a lingua franca, English is widely taught around the world as it is widely studied at schools of all levels in Turkey. It has a significant place in Turkey's business life as well as educational system. Hence, each and every Turkish citizen studies English- less frequently German or French- as a foreign language starting from primary

school until university, which means that it is hardly possible to find a pure monolingual Turkish speaker at university level. Moreover, at most of the universities, students are required to study English for one whole year at preparatory departments before starting their majors (see *Milli Eğitim Bakanlığı*- Ministry of Education (MEB) - *Yabancı Dil Eğitimi ve Öğretimi Yönetmeliği* for further information).

3.2.2 Turkish L1 Speakers

Because of the reasons mentioned in the previous section, it is difficult to find pure ‘monolingual Turkish speakers’ for comparison purposes. TL1 speakers were selected from those who have not gone through intensive language instruction at high school or at university, and who stated that they do not speak English well and define themselves as monolingual. They were beginner level language students who were studying at the preparatory class of a state university in Turkey.

3.2.3 English L1 Speakers

The participants who completed the DCT were 37 American English speaking students registered at a program (2010, summer) which offers Turkish lessons to foreigners during the summers at a state university in Turkey. They left Turkey soon after the program, which lasted about 2 months. English speaking students were selected and given the test. Moreover, ten students studying at a state school in the United States replied the DCT. In total, 47 English native speakers contributed to the study. Except for 2 students, all of them were from the USA. The age of participants varied from 18 to 25 (average 22.5). Gender was not a variable. To summarize, they

were educated young English speaking students studying in the USA- in Turkey just for summer.

See Table 3 for the summary of the participants.

Table 3. Summary of the Participants (FLED- EL1- TL1)

Participants	Language	Data	Age
FLED Students	Turkish (first language) English (users)	E-mail DCT	17-21
English L1 Speakers	English (first language)	DCT	18-25
Turkish L1 Speakers'	Turkish (first language)	DCT	18-23

3.3 Data

Two different data sets were collected in this study: e-mails and DCT. The details about e-mails and DCT will be reviewed in the next section.

3.3.1 E-mail as a Data Collection Method

E-mails are quite important in today's world in every area. As a student, I write many e-mails to the instructors and I am aware that other students similarly communicate with their instructors via e-mails. Living in an English as a Foreign Language (EFL) environment, FLED students do not have many opportunities to exchange ideas in English. Outside the classroom, they could speak English only with their English speaking instructors. Hence, in this study, student e-mails were examined to investigate their pragmatic performance.

The idea of examining pragmatic proficiency was first proposed by Oller (1979), who stressed the significance of authentic data collection methods to a great extent. Because of criticisms about DCTs, which will be explained in the next section, for not representing naturalistic language that students really use, and

because of an assertion by Oller (1979), data were collected via more authentic data collection means: e-mails. In this study, the aim was to display speech acts performance of FLED students in reality. Thus, e-mails were collected. This created an opportunity to make a comparison between the data types collected from two different methods.

3.3.2 DCT as a Data Collection Method

Discourse completion tests (DCT) which were firstly employed in pragmatics by Blum-Kulka (1982), have been used as the basis of many speech act studies, including the study of Olshtain & Weinbach (1987), Erçetin (1995), Marti (2000), Otçu & Zeyrek (2008), Tanck, (2002), İstifçi (2009), Tunçel (1999), Olshtain (1983), and Blum-Kulka, House, Kasper (1989) . To elicit data, role plays were also employed (Trosborg, 1995) in interlanguage pragmatic studies; however, due to feasibility problems, they were not adopted in this study. Moreover, role-plays are similar to DCTs in that one cannot make sure the participants would react in the same way in real life communication. Hence, role-play technique is not necessarily more natural than the DCTs. In line with many other speech act studies, the present work also adopted the DCT test. The rationale behind this choice is that DCT gives the chance of gathering large samples of data in a relatively short period of time. In addition, it is a useful data collection method for cross-cultural studies because it creates “stereotyped responses” as indicated by Blum-Kulka et al. (1989). Beside the advantages, DCT has also drawbacks. For example, when English native speakers were asked to perform a speech act, their utterances differed from what they actually did (Trosborg, 1995: 142). Surprisingly they did this without being aware of it.

3.4 Data Collection Procedure

For e-mails, I contacted the FLED students and requested them to share the e-mails they had sent to their English speaking instructors with me. Most of them were kind enough to help me. After analyzing 20 e-mails, I detected the most frequently produced speech acts to compose the DCT. Next, a British instructor stored the e-mails he received from freshmen throughout the semester (2009-2010). After taking consent from the students and making the senders anonymous, he sent the e-mails to me. Moreover, a Background Information Form was given to all of the participants attached to the DCT.

DCT was created after e-mails were analyzed. It was piloted with 7 university students in order to see if felicity conditions were met. There were no problems about the situations. To elicit data for the present study, DCT was administered to three groups: EL1, TL1 and FLED students. The test was given to native speaker groups separately in their own mother tongue. The DCT was originally prepared in English and then translated into Turkish taking into consideration cultural differences and factors. Both native groups- English and Turkish- completed the test during their usual class hour under the scrutiny of their instructors at different time and places. No time limitation was given; however, most of the students finished the test in about 15 minutes. 10 of EL1 speakers completed the test online and sent it to the researcher within a week.

3.4.1 The DCT

As it is already emphasized in the CCSARP Project, the speech acts were contextualized by determining the setting and the relationship between the

participants. Participants were asked to provide sentences for the given situation without thinking about it a lot. The DCT test did not include any rejoinders. The situations were composed taking into consideration the participants, and their routines. They are potential scenarios that could occur in a school setting including classmates, or teachers. As a result, it was easier to make a realistic comparison between DCT data and e-mail data, which includes students' real concerns about their classes, assignments, etc. I had already analyzed some e-mails of FLED students before composing the situations to create similar scenarios for the students. Hence, the students were familiar with the situations and setting and the data collected through the test were more realistic. DCT consisted of 8 situations, requiring the realization of 4 different speech acts, namely request, complaint, apology, and compliment. Situations which were not about a request or apology were disregarded because they served as distractive elements in the test. Situations are scrambled- that is, they are listed randomly without resorting to any systematic order. Participants had to realize each speech act twice addressing to a hearer of different social status each time: equal, or high. The reason for including situations in which there are high and equal status hearers but not low status hearers is that participants hardly ever address someone with a lower status in English. On the other hand, they frequently have conversations with their class mates and instructors speaking English. Hence, there were two kinds of interactions for each speech act: student-student interaction and student-teacher interaction. To illustrate, both Situation 1, and 2 involve a request. The difference between two situations is that in Situation 1, the speaker and the hearer have equal social status whilst in Situation 2; the speaker has a lower social status than the hearer. To sum up, there are 4 situations in which

speakers address to a high status hearer- teacher, and 4 situations in which they address to an equal status hearer- classmate. Below is an example from the DCT:

Example

1. (student → student – S=H)

You are required to write a research paper for one of your courses. Although you have worked on it for a long time, you don't feel comfortable about the methodology part. In order to make sure that it is going well, you ask your classmate to check it over for you.

2. (student → teacher- S< H)

You are planning to apply for a training program in the States, which stipulates a letter of recommendation. To ask for one, you go to your instructor's office and say:

Situations were piloted with 7 university students. No change was required.

Table 4 shows the classification of the situations in DCT.

Table 4. Summary of Discourse Completion Test

Speech Acts	Situations	Sit.No
Request	S = H student asks another student to check his/her paper over	1
	S < H student asks teacher for a letter of recommendation	2
Complaint	S = H student complains to his/her group mate about not contributing	4
	S < H student complains to teacher about an unfair decision	3
Apology	S = H student apologizes to another student for not bringing the book	8
	S < H student apologizes to teacher for not preparing a presentation	6
Compliment	S = H student compliments another student on being well-organized	7
	S < H student compliments teacher on his/her teaching style	5

▪ Speaker ▪ ▪ Hearer

3.4.2 The E-mails

150 e-mails addressed to a British instructor were collected. Topics in the e-mails cover requests for e.g., a letter of recommendation, an extension for an assignment, feedback on a paper; and apologies for e.g. not completing a presentation, not being able to attend a class, missing a quiz, etc. Out of 150 e-mails which were collected, 105 e-mails including a request or an apology were analyzed for this study.

Table 5 shows the amount and the type of data which were collected from each group

Table 5. Amount and Type of Data According to the Groups (FLED- EL1- TL1)

Participants	Apologies(n)		Requests(n)	
	E-mail	DCT	E-mail	DCT
FLED	38	55	67	55
EL1	-	47	-	47
TL1	-	47	-	47
Total	38	149	67	149

3.5 Data Analysis

The analysis centers on the realization of requests and apologies. For the occurrence of request strategies, 67 emails; for the occurrence of apology strategies, 38 e-mails were analyzed (105 e-mails in total). Additionally, three sets of DCT data collected from FLED students (n: 55), EL1 (n: 47), and TL1 (n: 47) were analyzed, noted, coded and classified. Firstly, FLED students' e-mails and DCT responses were compared. Next, EL1 and TL1 data were analyzed for comparison and for detecting any transfer from L1. The analysis and coding of each speech act has been conducted differently. For request analysis CCSARP coding manual and for apology analysis Cohen and Olshtain's (1981) apology speech act set was adopted and adapted. The rationale behind this choice is that both of the coding schemes are widely accepted and employed in pragmatic studies.

For the analysis of the requests, modificational patterns (e.g. internal or external modifications) are ignored. This study investigates only head acts in requests without focusing on alerters, supportive moves, etc. The reason for excluding other elements is that head acts are easier to compare and to place on a scale. That is why elements of internal modification or supportive moves need to be dealt with separately (Martı, 2000).

Head Act is defined as “that part of the sequence which might serve to realize the act independently of other elements” (Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984: 200).

Hence, it is “the minimal unit” in a speech act; “the core of” a speech act (Blum-Kulka, et al., 1989).

Dear Professor, (1) would you mind sending me some references? (2) I have difficulties in finding any. (3)

The example above is from the e-mails gathered from the students. The first part is called an address term, and the last part is external because it is a supportive move. The only part that is taken into consideration in the analysis is the second one because it is the head act which serves to ‘realize the act independently’. The request data gathered in this study were analyzed according to the coding scheme developed for the CCSARP (Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper, 1989). This scale consists of three main categories with 9 sub-categories in total. The coding of Turkish data was challenging because the definitions were not adequate and the categories overlapped.

In order to detect common components of speech act sets in apology data, semantic formulas for realization the goals were determined , in line with Cohen and Olshtain (1981); Tanck, (2002); and Erçetin, (1995. For example, for the apology “I am sorry. I was held up in traffic. Can we make it another day?” the formula will be (1) apology, (2) providing an explanation, (3) asking for repair. As a result, during the analysis stage this e-mail was coded as 1-2-3. It contains three distinct strategies belonging to two distinct categories, namely direct and indirect. Apology data were analyzed and semantic formulas were detected in the light of the studies of Austin (1962) and Searle (1975, 1980) and based on Olshtain & Cohen’s (1981) apology speech act set and Trosborg’s (1995) categories. In other words, a coding scheme

was developed based on the theories and findings of the previous studies on the speech act of apology. Data were classified into three main categories: (1) direct apologies, (2) indirect apologies, and (4) opting out. There are 6 sub-strategies under the main categories (see Table 1 and Table 2 for strategies and Turkish and English examples from my participants).

After generating semantic formula and detecting strategies based on the criteria stated above, the percentages and frequencies for each situation in the DCT and for each e-mail were calculated. The analysis and calculations were conducted for each group separately. Using graphs and tables, I compared FLED group with EL1 to display similarities/differences. Furthermore, Turkish monolingual data were reviewed and compared to FLED data to see if there was any transfer. After comparing the use of main categories by FLED students with native groups, the use of sub-categories were analyzed. Finally, in order to increase the reliability of the coding, 20% of the data were examined and coded by another coder. Before starting the coding procedure, the coder was trained and taught about the strategies. The inter-rater agreement between the coder and me was 0.95.

3.6 Statistical Analyses

In this study, a chi-square statistic was employed to test differences between the groups. The chi-square method is used to determine the significance of the differences between the frequencies of occurrence of the categories used by two or more groups. This test uses frequencies, nominal and categorical data. It compares two sets of categories to determine if the two groups are distributed differently among the categories (Mamahlodi, 2006). It was used to find out whether the

distribution of request and apology categories used by FLED, EL1 and TL1 groups were significantly different. Since chi-square method requires large samples, a Z-test for two proportions was employed to calculate the frequencies of sub-strategies for more reliable results. This calculator is used to compare the percentages of the groups to establish if they are significantly different from each other. A significant p value ($p < .05$) was regarded as the level of significance in these tests.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

4.1 Introduction

In this section of the study the findings will be presented and discussed. The main aim of the study is to investigate the strategies first year Foreign Language Education Department (FLED) students use when they request and apologize in their e-mails. Authentic data have been collected in order to do this investigation. However, as mentioned before, comparison to native English and Turkish speakers is seen necessary to identify any effects from their Turkish in their interlanguage. To be able to do this comparison a Discourse Completion Test (DCT) was administered to FLED students, English L1 speakers (EL1), and Turkish L1 speakers (TL1).

The structure of the results section is as follows: First the percentage distribution and frequency of the main categories and strategies for the two speech acts- requests and apologies- employed by the participants in each group: FLED students, EL1 and TL1 will be provided. The descriptive analyses of the percentages will be presented to answer the research questions one by one. Initially, the main categories occurring in all the groups will be discussed. Secondly, the occurrence of the sub-strategies will be presented. In the first section below, FLED e-mail and DCT data will be compared. In this part of the comparison, FLED students' requests and apologies to a hearer of a higher status will be compared, and their requests and apologies to a hearer of an equal status will be discarded. The reason for ignoring the data coming from equal status situations is that in e-mails students address only their

instructors. This means that the ‘hearer’ i.e. the receiver in e-mails is always of a higher status. Hence the compared data will be parallel in terms of the parameter of social distance. After FLED e-mail and DCT data are presented, FLED DCT data will be compared to that of EL1 and TL1 in order to detect similarities and differences regarding the use of strategies. Finally, FLED students’ strategies that are different from EL1 and TL1 groups will be covered to study pragmatic transfer by providing examples and the results of the statistical computation tests.

4.2 Comparison of FLED Students’ E-mail and DCT Data

In this section the results of the e-mail and DCT data will be presented and compared. It seeks to answer the following research questions:

1. Which strategies do FLED students use when apologizing or requesting in their e-mails and in the DCT?
 - a. Is there a difference between the realization of requests and apologies in the e-mails and DCT responses of FLED students?

First the findings of the requests and in the subsequent section the results of apologies will be discussed.

4.2.1 Requests of FLED Students in E-mails and in the DCT

Requests of FLED students addressing a hearer of a higher status in e-mails and in DCT were analyzed. A chi-square statistic (with alpha set at .05 with 2 degrees of freedom) was used to determine whether the main request categories used in both of

the data sets differ from each other significantly. On the other hand, Z-test for two proportions was applied for each category and strategy separately in order to determine whether FLED students employ significantly different strategies. Table 6 shows the distribution of main request categories (direct, indirect and hints) according to FLED students. Blum-Kulka & Olstain (1984) refer to these three categories as main directness categories. The first two columns represent the frequency and percentage distribution in the DCT and in e-mails, respectively. The third column refers to the results of a Z-test for two proportions which was used to detect any significant difference between the choice of the participants regarding each category according to the two data collection methods, namely DCT and e-mail.

Table 6. Distribution of Request Categories (Cat. 1-3) According to FLED Students in E-mails and DCT

Request Categories	Groups				
	FLED DCT		FLED E-mail		FLED DCT vs. EMAIL
	N	%	F	%	Z
1. Direct Requests	10	18.18	31	46.26	*3.07
2. Indirect Requests	37	67.27	30	44.77	*2.30
3. Hints	8	14.54	6	8.95	0.67
TOTAL	55	100	67	100	

Notes on the table:

* $p < .05$

Numbers are given as percentages rounded off to two digits

n (DCT)= 55 n, (E-mail)= 67

The statistical analyses displayed that there was a significant difference between e-mail and DCT data regarding the choice of the first two main request categories, namely direct and indirect ($p < .05$). In other words, FLED students' behavior was sociolinguistically different in two sets of data. Whilst the students prefer indirect requests (67.27%) noticeably higher than other categories (Direct/ 18.18% and Hints/

14.54%) in the DCT, the percentages of the direct (46.26%) and indirect (44.77%) categories seem to be almost the same in e-mails. The most frequent category in the DCT is indirect category; however, it is direct category in e-mails. The use of direct requests in two sets of data points in opposite direction, resulting in a significant difference ($Z= 3.07, p< .05$). The choice of indirect requests is also significantly different ($Z= 2.30, p< .05$). Finally, hints are used by 14.54% of FLED students in the DCT, and 8.95% in e-mails showing no significant difference. These findings suggest that FLED students do not employ the same request categories in the DCT and in e-mails even though they are both written data. This might be because the students are less experienced in writing e-mails to an authority in English.

The distribution of request strategies from 1 to 9 (from most direct to most indirect as proposed by Blum-Kulka & Olshtain, 1984) according to FLED students is presented in Table 7. The first two columns represent the frequency and percentage distribution of each strategy in the DCT and the next two columns in e-mails, respectively. The third column refers to the results of a Z-test.

Table 7. Distribution of Request Strategies (Str. 1-9) According to FLED Students in E-mails and DCT

Strategies	Groups				
	FLED DCT n= 55		FLED E-mail n= 67		FLED DCT vs. EMAIL
	F	%	F	%	Z
1 Mood Derivable	9	16.36	20	29.85	1.52
2 Performative	0	0	0	0	0
3 Hedged Performative	0	0	0	0	0
4 Obligatory Statement	0	0	0	0	0
5 Want Statement	1	1.81	11	16.41	*2.38
6 Suggestory Formula	0	0	3	4.47	1.00
7 Preparatory	37	67.27	27	40.29	*2.78
8 Strong Hint	6	10.90	6	8.95	0.05
9 Mild Hint	2	3.63	0	0	0.85
TOTAL	55	100	67	100	

Notes on the table:

* p< .05

Numbers are given as percentages rounded off to two digits

Differences between two types of data sets seem to be more evident when the use of sub-strategies is examined. FLED students used significantly more want statements (Strategy 5) in e-mails ($Z= 2.38, P<.05$). To illustrate, this strategy is used by 16.41% of the students in e-mails, and only by 1.81% of students in the DCT. The use of a want statement strategy has an influence on the main categories level, that is, since this strategy belongs to Category 1 (direct category); it increases the percentage of the direct category in the e-mail data. Direct category in the e-mail data (46.26%) is far higher than in the DCT data (18.18%). Below we can see a typical example:

I would like you to send me some references (Student addresses his instructor in e-mail)

Another significant difference that can be observed is Strategy 7 (preparatory) ($Z= 2.78, p< .05$). However, it should be noted that it is still the highest frequent strategy in both data sets (E-mail/ 40.29 % and DCT/ 67.27 %). Moreover, the second most common strategy is mood derivable (Strategy 1) in both e-mails (29.85 %) and DCT

(16.36 %). On the other hand, some strategies were not used at all. For example, there are no examples of performatives (Strategy 2), hedged performatives (Strategy 3) and obligatory statement (Strategy 4) in the data. Additionally, there are only a few examples of a suggestory formula (Str. 6) and mild hints (Str. 9). Students did not vary their request strategies.

An important finding is that the participants use notably a great number of imperative sentences in e-mails when they address their instructors. The word 'please' followed by an imperative structure is the most frequent form. A point that should be mentioned is the familiarity or the relationship of students to their instructors. The data at hand were collected from e-mails to a British instructor in the FLED department. Depending on the teacher's attitude students might feel more comfortable addressing the teacher more directly than they would normally do. Familiarity or closeness is difficult to determine. Spencer- Oatey (2002) found that respondents may have "significantly different conceptions of typical power and distance relations of the tutor." This perception might have affected the strategies FLED students used in their e-mails. Examples such as the following are commonly used in e-mails.

Please help me (S 69)

Please judge me on the one you like most (S 30)

Please let me do it another day (S 53)

Moreover, there is an excessive use of the structure 'I need....Can/ Could you...' in the DCTs. The number of the students who made a request by using these utterances is 27 out of 55. In other words, 27 requests consist of the same sentences word for word. Hence, it is hard to talk about variety in FLED students' responses in DCT and

e-mails.

I need a letter of recommendation/ a recommendation letter. Can/ Could/ May you help me?

4.2.2 Apologies of FLED Students in E-mails and in the DCT

Apologies of FLED students addressing a hearer of a higher status in e-mails and in the DCT were analyzed. A chi-square statistic (with alpha set at .05 with 2 degrees of freedom) was applied to determine if they employed significantly different main apology strategies in two data sets. Similar to request data, Z-test for two proportions was used for each strategy in order to determine similarities and differences regarding the use of apology strategies in two data sets. Table 8 shows the distribution of apology categories (direct, indirect and opting out) according to FLED students. Column 1 shows the results for the DCT and Column 2 shows the results for e-mails. The numbers in the third column represent the results of the Z-test.

Table 8. Distribution of Apology Categories (1-3) According to FLED Students

Apology Categories	Groups				FLED DCT vs. EMAIL Z
	FLED DCT		FLED E-MAIL		
	N	%	N	%	
1. Direct Apologies	43	40.56	32	44.44	0.35
2. Indirect Apologies	60	56.60	40	55.55	0
3. Opting Out	3 ³	2.83	0	0	0.84
TOTAL	106	100	72	100	

Notes on the table:

Numbers are given as percentages rounded off to two digits

³ The opting out situations in FLED data are as follows:

- 1 I will avoid seeing her.
- 2 There is nothing to say.
- 3 Nothing. What would change?

Totally, there are 106 and 72 apology semantic formulas in DCT and e-mails respectively. The students used similar amount of direct (DCT/ 40.56% and E-mail/ 44.44%), indirect (DCT/ 56.60% and E-mail/ 55.55%) and opting out categories (DCT/ 2.83% and E-mail/ 0) in the two data sets. Statistical analyses revealed that these findings are not significantly different.

When the use of each strategy is examined in detail, there seems to be differences in two data sets. See Table 9 for the distribution of apology strategies (from Str.1 to Str. 6) in the DCT and e-mails in the first two columns, respectively. In the third column, Z-test scores are presented.

Table 9. Distribution of Apology Strategies (Str. 1-6) According to FLED Students

Strategies	Groups				FLED DCT vs. EMAIL Z
	FLED DCT n=55		FLED E-mail n=38		
	F	%	F	%	
1 IFID	43	40.56	32	44.44	0.45
2 Explanation or Account	25	23.58	24	33.33	1.47
3 Acknowledgement of Responsibility	15	14.15	11	15.27	0
4 Offer of Repair	11	10.37	4	5.55	0.93
5 Promise of Forbearance	9	8.49	1	1.38	*1.76
6 No Apology	3	2.83	0	0	0.86
TOTAL	106	100	72	100	

Notes on the table:

* p< .05

Numbers are given as percentages rounded off to two digits

FLED students provided a promise of forbearance (Str. 5) in the DCT (8.49%) eight times as much as they did in e-mails (1.38%). Z-test revealed that these findings were significantly different (Z= 1.76, p< .05). On the contrary, they provided an explanation (Str. 2) more frequently in e-mails (33.33%) compared to DCT (23.58%). Statistical analysis did not reveal any significant difference, though.

Finally, the lowest strategy is opting out in both of the data sets. There are only three instances of opting out in the DCT and none in e-mails. For e-mails it seems to be extremely difficult to identify cases of opting out. If a student wants to opt out, i.e. decides not to send an e-mail, we would not receive it and be able to identify it. For the DCT data after careful evaluation, we can observe that students opted out not because the situations were vague but because they lost face, or because they did not see any use in apologizing (see footnote 2 for examples).

Students used 19 different semantic formulas in the DCT, and eight semantic formulas in e-mails (for the combination of apology semantic formula for all the groups, see App E). In the DCT, the most frequent semantic formula is a combination of IFID + E/A + OR as in “I am sorry, I am not feeling well so I can’t attend the class today. I can make the presentation whenever you want.” There were 32 instances of this combination which makes a percentage of 29.35. The second most common formula is IFID + E/A (15.59%). As for the e-mails, a much higher number of the students (39.47%) apologized and gave an account, and 18.42% of them apologized, gave an account and took responsibility. The most frequently occurring formula in the DCT (IFID + E/A + OR) appears to be employed by only 5.26% of the students in e-mails. Moreover, second most frequent formula in e-mails (IFID + E/A + AR) was hardly ever used in the DCT (0.91%). Similar findings can be observed in use of the formula IFID + AR (DCT/ 1.83% vs. E-mails/ 10.71%). These findings show that the students adopted noticeably different semantic formulas in the DCT and in e-mails while apologizing. On the contrary, nearly the same percentage of the students used an IFID (an apology) alone in DCT (11%) and e-mails (10.71%). Moreover, “I am really sorry” and “I am so sorry” are two of the

most frequently used apology sentences in both sets of data.

To sum up, FLED students employ significantly different request and apology strategies in e-mails and in the DCT. They request more directly in e-mails than in the DCT. This might result from their perception of the instructor they are addressing. Moreover, they make use of different apology semantic formulas in the two data sets. All in all, although they do not employ similar strategies in the DCT and e-mails, there is no variety in their strategies. This is because they make use of similar forms- for some strategies the same forms. Lack of variety is more salient when compared to the data of EL1 speakers who employed different kinds of grammatical structures and forms, all of which can be regarded as a preparatory strategy according to the distinction of Blum-Kulka et al. (1989).

4.3 Comparison of FLED and EL1 Data

In order to determine whether FLED students produce speech acts of requesting and apologizing similar to or different from EL1 speakers, a cross-cultural comparison was necessary. In terms of comparability DCT data seemed to be the most suitable data since the same situations could be used to elicit speech acts. In this section I tried to find an answer to the following question:

2. Is there a difference between FLED students' speech act production and English L1 speakers' speech act production when performing requests and apologies in a DCT?

The responses of FLED students and of EL1 speakers to the DCT test were analyzed. In total 110 FLED and 94 EL1 speakers' answers were compared for each speech act. To detect whether the differences between two groups regarding the main

categories were significant, a chi-square test and regarding the strategies a Z-test for two proportions were employed. The findings suggest that FLED students have employed different strategies in the DCT compared to EL1 speakers while performing requests and apologies.

4.3.1 Requests of FLED Students and EL1 Speakers in the DCT

Initially, the requests of FLED and EL1 groups were compared. Chi-square test revealed that there is a significant difference between the FLED and the EL1 groups in terms of main request categories (see Table 10).

Table 10. Distribution of Request Categories (1-3) According to FLED Students and English L1 Speakers

Request Categories	Groups				FLED vs. EL1 Z
	FLED DCT		EL1 DCT		
	F	%	F	%	
1. Direct Requests	38	34.54	10	10.63	*3.84
2. Indirect Requests	58	52.72	74	78.72	*3.72
3. Hints	14	12.72	10	10.63	0.24
TOTAL	110	100	94	100	

Notes on the table:

* $p < .05$

Numbers are given as percentages rounded off to two digits

The biggest difference between the two groups stems from the use of direct requests. 34.54% of FLED students and 10.63% of EL1 speakers provided a direct request ($Z=3.84$, $p < .05$). On the other hand, the frequency of the occurrence for indirect requests seems to be the highest in both groups; however, they still differ significantly ($Z=3.72$, $p < .05$). 52.72% of FLED students and 78.72% of EL1 speakers used an indirect request. These percentages mean that indirect requests are the most common categories of all in both groups. The lowest category is hints (FLED/ 12.72% and EL1/ 10.63%). The difference regarding the choice of the strategies is significant ($p <$

.05).

FLED students and EL1 speakers preferred different subcategories. See Table 11 for the frequency and distribution of the percentage for each request strategy.

Table 11. Distribution of Request Strategies (Str. 1-9) According to FLED Students and English L1 Speakers

Strategies	Groups				FLED vs. EL1 Z
	FLED DCT n= 55		EL1 DCT n= 47		
	F	%	F	%	
1 Mood Derivable	35	31.81#	6	6.38	*4.34
2 Performative	0	0	0	0	0
3 Hedged Performative	0	0	0	0	0
4 Obligatory Statement	2	1.81+	0	0	0.60
5 Want Statement	1	0.90	4	4.25	1.08
6 Suggestory Formula	1	0.90	0	0	0
7 Preparatory	57	51.81●	74	78.72	*3.84
8 Strong Hint	12	10.94	8	8	0.33
9 Mild Hint	2	1.81+	2	2.12	0
TOTAL	110	100	94	100	

Notes on the table:

* $p < .05$

+ means non-deviations despite cultural differences

means interference from Turkish

● means significant difference between FLED and both EL1 and TL1 group

The difference is especially salient regarding the preference of Strategy 1 (mood derivable) and Strategy 7 (preparatory). For example, FLED group (31.81%) is more likely to make use of mood derivable (Str.1) strategy compared to EL1 group (6.38%). Z-test displayed that the difference is significant ($Z = 4.34$, $p < .05$). Another striking result is that although preparatory (Str. 7) strategy is the highest in the two groups, the percentage of FLED Ss who used a preparatory request (51.81%) is far lower than the EL1 group (78.72%). It reveals that EL1 speakers tend to avoid requesting directly, but rather they prefer to be more indirect. ($Z = 3.84$, $p < .05$). The

frequency of other sub-categories seems to be either identical or very close. For example, none of the groups used Strategy 2 and 3 (for more details, see Table 11).

4.3.2 Apologies of FLED Students and EL1 Speakers in the DCT

Apologies of the participants in the two groups were analyzed and compared. The percentage of each apology category is similar and chi-square test did not reveal any significant differences in the use of these categories (see Table 12). This contrasts to Kanik's (2010) study. Kanik examined apology production of native and nonnative English language teachers via a DCT test and found significant differences between the two groups. Non-native group used different strategies compared to native group in the given situations (90%). My study supports Erçetin's (1995) results who found that sociolinguistic behavior of Turkish and American speakers was similar when they apologized.

Table 12. Distribution of Apology Categories (1-3) According to FLED Students and English L1 Speakers

Apology Categories	Groups				FLED vs. EL1
	FLED DCT		EL1 DCT		
	F	%	F	%	
1. Direct Apologies	87	37.82	71	45.22	1.34
2. Indirect Apologies	140	60.86	84	53.50	1.33
3. Opting Out	3	1.30	2 ⁴	1.27	0
TOTAL	230	100	157	100	

Although the total number of apology strategies used by the two groups is not the same (FLED n= 230; EL1 n= 157), the percentage of each apology category is similar. The highest category is indirect apologies in both of the participants. 60.86%

⁴ The opting out situations in EL1 data are as follows:

- 1 I will invent an irrelevant conversation. Hey brother, what's up?
- 2 I am careful about those things. I will never forget it.

of FLED students, and 54.19% of EL1 speakers chose to perform an indirect apology. The second most common category is direct apologies (FLED/ 37.82%; EL1/ 45.22%). Finally, only 1.30% of FLED students and 1.27% of EL1 speakers preferred to opt out.

The findings regarding apology strategies are presented in Table 13.

Table 13. Distribution of Apology Strategies (Str. 1-6) According to FLED Students and English L1 Speakers

Strategies	Groups				FLED vs. EL1 Z
	FLED DCT n=55		EL1 DCT n= 47		
	F	%	F	%	
1 IFID	87	37.82	71	45.22	0.43
2 Explanation or Account	61	26.52#	3	1.91	*7.86
3 Acknowledgement of Responsibility	18	7.82#	26	16.56	*1.78
4 Offer of Repair	51	22.17	44	28.02	0
5 Promise of Forbearance	10	4.34	11	7	0.38
6 No Apology	3	1.30	2	1.27	0
TOTAL	230	100	157	100	

Notes on the table:

* $p < .05$

Numbers are given as percentages rounded off to two digits

means interference from Turkish

The overall use of sub apology strategies is also close for the two groups except for Strategy 2 (Explanation or Account) and Strategy 3 (Acknowledgement of Responsibility). The frequencies point in the opposite direction for the two groups for these two categories. For example, FLED group provided an explanation 26.52% while EL1 group did so only 1.91%, which means that there is a significant difference ($Z= 7.86$, $p < .05$) regarding the amount of explanation provided by each group. On the other hand, EL1 (16.56%) group took responsibility almost twice as much as FLED (7.82%) group did ($Z= 1.78$, $p < .05$). These results confirm the

findings of Tunçel (1999) who found that Turkish speakers are likely to blame the third party instead of taking on responsibility.

Finally, the apology semantic formulas employed by each group were calculated. In total, FLED students used 19, and EL1 speakers used 14 different semantic formulas. The most frequent formula in FLED group is IFID + E/A + OR (32.32%), and in EL1 group, it is IFID + OR (32.53%). As already mentioned, whether or not an explanation is provided seems to dramatically differentiate the two groups from each other dramatically. While FLED students tend to explain the reason for their fault, EL1 group prefer to offer repair. This finding confirms the study of Rintell & Mitchell (1989) who found that native speakers of English looked for solution or repair in the case of an apology unlike nonnative speakers (Japanese in their case) who tend to apologize and provide explanation. 21.68% of EL1 speakers and 12.12% of FLED students preferred to use an apology (e.g. I am sorry) alone without combining it with another semantic formula. However, the FLED group emphasized their IFIDs more as in:

“I am really really sorry” or “I am terribly truly really sorry”.

There are only two semantic formulas (IFID + AR + OR + PF, and IFID + E/A + AR + OR + PF) that are used by EL1 group but not by FLED group; however, the number of the formulas used by FLED group but not by EL1 group is seven. As already indicated, the semantic formulas employed by FLED group have a wider range, which displays that it is a less homogeneous group than EL1 speakers

FLED and EL1 groups are both alike and different regarding the use of request and apology strategies in the DCT. Differences in request strategies result from the fact that FLED students are more likely to request directly than EL1

speakers who prefer a more indirect request. As far as the related studies in the literature are concerned this finding does not seem to be surprising. The two groups differ from each other regarding the choice of apology strategies as well. For example, the FLED group prefer to provide an explanation and avoid taking responsibility unlike the EL1 group that favor taking responsibility more. These results show that speaking rules are culturally determined and they differ across languages and societies. Therefore, L2 learners' data could be analyzed to find the problematic areas and to increase learners' awareness towards the strategies. This way, learners can improve their pragmatic competence and pragmatic failure can be minimized.

4.4 Comparison of FLED and TL1 Data

As the final strand of the analyses, FLED and TL1 request and apology data collected through DCTs were examined. In total 110 request and apology responses from FLED and 94 request and apology responses from TL1 group were compared to find an answer to the following research question:

3. Is there a difference between FLED students' speech act production and Turkish L1 speakers' speech act production when performing requests and apologies in a DCT?

The analysis of the data displayed both similarities and differences between the two groups in regard with the use of speech acts of apologies and requests. In order to determine whether these differences are significant, a chi-square test and a Z-test for two proportions were used for categories and strategies, respectively. For the use of

main apology categories, the analysis showed that the difference is not significant ($p = .11$); however, it is significant for requests ($p < .05$).

4.4.1 Requests of FLED Students and TL1 Speakers in the DCT

Firstly, request strategies used by each group were compared. The results as regards to the distribution of main request categories for both FLED students and TL1 are presented in Table 14.

Table 14. Distribution of Request Strategies (Str. 1-9) According to FLED Students and Turkish L1 Speakers

Request Categories	Groups				FLED vs. TL1 Z
	FLED DCT		TL1 DCT		
	F	%	F	%	
1. Direct Requests	38	34.54	48	51.06	*2.23
2. Indirect Requests	58	52.72	34	36.17	*2.28
3. Hints	14	12.72	12	12.76	0
TOTAL	110	100	94	100	

Notes on the table:

* $p < .05$

Numbers are given as percentages rounded off to two digits

While more than half of the TL1 (51.06%) used a direct request ($Z = 2.23$, $p < .05$), FLED students (52.72%) tend to request more indirectly ($Z = 2.28$, $p < .05$). Martı (2000) found similar findings. Direct requests employed by TL1 group mostly belong to either mood derivable (Str. 1 as in example 1), or obligatory statement (Str. 4 as in example 2).

1. *Ne olur hocam bana yardım edin.*- Professor, help me please.
2. *Hocam lütfen bana bir referans mektubu yazar mısınız.*- Professor, would/ do you write a letter of recommendation for me?

As for hints, the percentage of both groups is nearly the same (FLED/ 12.72%; TL1/ 12.76%).

When the occurrence of sub strategies is examined, the preferences of the two groups vary more. The distribution of request strategies is presented in Table 15.

Table 15. Distribution of Request Strategies (Str. 1-9) According to FLED Students and Turkish L1 Speakers

Strategies	Groups				FLED vs. TL1 Z
	FLED DCT n= 55		TL1 DCT n= 47		
	F	%	F	%	
1 Mood Derivable	35	31.81	17	18.08	*2.08
2 Performative	0	0	0	0	0
3 Hedged Performative	0	0	0	0	0
4 Obligatory Statement	2	1.81	27	28.72	*5.28
5 Want Statement	1	0.90	4	4.25	1.01
6 Suggestory Formula	1	0.90	0	0	-0.07
7 Preparatory	57	51.81●	34	36.17	*2.1
8 Strong Hint	12	10.90	4	4.25	1.5
9 Mild Hint	2	1.81	8	8.51	*1.88
TOTAL	110	100	94	100	

Notes on the table:

* p< .05

Numbers are given as percentages rounded off to two digits

● means significant difference between FLED and both EL1 and TL1 group

The most interesting finding is that although it is the TL1 group which employed more direct requests as a category, FLED students used a mood derivable strategy more, which is the most direct strategy in the scale (FLED/ 31.81%; TL1/ 18.08%).

This difference is statistically significant (Z= 2.08, p< .05). Another salient

discrepancy stems from the use of obligatory statement as in *Bana yardımcı olur musunuz?*- Would/ Do you help me?). Although obligatory statements imply an

obligation for hearer in English, it does not sound extremely impositive in Turkish.

This form sounds, especially, more polite as a request when it is used with *Siz-* plural “you” in English. Moreover, there is not an English structure that directly

corresponds to such statements (for more explanation, see Martı (2000). Mood derivable (28.72%) strategy is the second most common strategy after preparatory (36.17%) in Turkish. However, it is hardly ever used by the FLED group (1.81%). Z-test revealed that these findings were significantly different from each other ($Z=5.28, p<.05$).

To summarize, the use of mood derivable and obligatory statement strategies by each group is just negatively correlated. In other words, whilst TL1 group used more obligatory statement and fewer mood derivable (Strategy 1), FLED group employed far more mood derivable and only a few obligatory statements. These findings are surprising when compared to the study of Akar (2002) who found that Turkish speakers used obligatory statements more than mood derivable strategy in formal writing as opposed to English speakers who employed mood derivable more frequently. The findings of TL1 group seem to be in line with Akar's study because in this study 28.72% of TL1 made use of obligatory statements. Similarly, FLED group resembles to EL1 speakers in Akar's study in that both groups used more mood derivable strategy. However EL1 in this study used only a few mood derivables differing from their counterparts in Akar's study. Moreover, the frequency of hints is the same for the groups; however, each group employed a different strategy more frequently. FLED group provided more strong hints (10.94%) than mild hints (1.81%), as for TL1 group it is just the other way around. They used mild hints (8.51%) twice as much as strong hints (4.25%). The differences between the use of mild hints are significant ($Z= 1.88, p<.05$). Another significant difference stems from the choice preparatory strategy. Although it is the most common strategy in both groups (FLED/ 51.81%; TL1/ 36.17%), Z-test showed that this did not mean

that the participants employed it equally the same ($Z= 2.1, p< .05$). Finally, neither of the groups employed Strategy 2 and 3. Considering TL1 group, avoiding these strategies seems to be surprising because it is possible to produce utterances in Turkish fitting into these strategies. For example, *Bana birkaç referans bulmak için yardım etmenizi rica ediyorum*- I am asking you to help me find some references (Str. 2), *Bana birkaç referans bulmak için yardım etmenizi rica etmek zorundayım*- I have to ask you to help me find some references (Str. 3). Strategy 2 was preferred quite often by Turkish speakers in Akar's study. However, similar to the results of this study, in Martı's (2000) study, Turkish monolinguals and Turkish German bilinguals did not use any Strategy 3 (hedged performative), and they used Strategy 2 (performative) the second least after Strategy 9 (mild hints). The reason why Turkish participants in this study did not use any performative or hedged performative in their responses might stem from register-related reasons.

4.4.2 Apologies of FLED Students and TL1 Speakers in the DCT

As indicated in Table 16, contrary to the differences in request strategies used by FLED and TL1 group, there is not a significant difference in the distribution of the main apology categories.

Table 16. Distribution of Apology Categories (Cat. 1-3) According to FLED Students and Turkish L1 Speakers (TL1)

Apology Categories	Groups				FLED vs. TL1
	FLED DCT		TL1 DCT		
	F	%	F	%	Z
1. Direct Apologies	87	37.82	69	44.51	1.20
2. Indirect Apologies	140	60.86	84	54.19	1.98
3. Opting Out	3 ⁵	1.30	2	1.29	0
TOTAL	230	100	155	100	

Notes on the table:

Numbers are given as percentages rounded off to two digits

The percentages for each apology category are very similar. Participants in both of the groups used more indirect apologies (FLED/ 60.86%; TL1/ 54.19%) followed by a direct apology (FLED/ 37.82%; TL1/ 44.51%). Finally only 1.30% of FLED and 1.29% of TL1 speakers preferred to opt out. As for the use of strategies, there are only two differences (see Table 17). Firstly, TL1 speakers did not offer as much repair as the FLED group did. For example, a repair was offered by 14.48% of TL1 speakers and 22.17% of FLED students, which results in a significant difference ($Z=2.93, p<.05$). Secondly, TL1 speakers (1.93%) did not give promise for forbearance as much as FLED group (4.34%) did. Statistical computation revealed that the difference is not significant, though.

⁵ The opting out situations in TL1 data are as follows:

- 1 *Böyle bir şey için özür dilemem*- I would not apologize for such a thing
- 2 *O bana kitabı sormazsa ben bir şey demem*- If she doesn't ask for the book, I will not say anything

Table 17. Distribution of Apology Strategies (Str. 1-6) According to FLED Students and Turkish L1 Speakers (TL1)

Strategies	Groups				FLED vs. TL1 Z
	FLED DCT n=55		TL1 DCT n=47		
	F	%	F	%	
1 IFID	87	37.82	69	44.51	0.78
2 Explanation or Account	61	26.52	47	30.32	0.63
3 Acknowledgement of Responsibility	18	7.82	10	6.45	0.97
4 Offer of Repair	51	22.17+	24	14.48	*2.93
5 Promise of Forbearance	10	4.34+	3	1.93	1.43
6 No Apology	3	1.30	2	1.29	0
TOTAL	230	100	155	100	

Notes on the table:

* $p < .05$

Numbers are given as percentages rounded off to two digits

+ means non-deviations despite cultural differences

Additionally, the apology semantic formulas employed by TL1 group were compared to the ones employed by FLED group. Looking at the total number of each semantic formula used by the TL1 (13) group it is clear that they are more homogeneous than the FLED (19) group is. Turkish speakers used 77 combinations out of which 37.66% is IFID + E/A, being the most frequent one in the group.

Özür dilerim, hastaydım o yüzden gelemedim.- I am sorry. I was sick that is why I did not show up

I am so sorry about the presentation. I have been busy nowadays.

This combination is common in FLED data as well. It is the second most frequent formula (17.17%) preceded by IFID + E/A+ OR being the first. Finally, 12.12% of FLED and 16.885 of TL1 speakers used an apology alone.

4.5 Transfer from L1 in the DCT

Data were analyzed to answer the following research question:

4. How are FLED students' request and apology strategies different from English L1 speakers and Turkish L1 speakers?

The careful evaluation and analysis of the data display that FLED students transfer from L1 while performing requests and apologies in e-mails and in the DCT.

Transfer in this study means that TL1 are not similar to EL1 speakers ($TL1 \neq EL1$) and FLED students are not similar to EL1 speakers ($FLED \neq EL1$); however, FLED students are similar to EL1 speakers ($FLED = EL1$) regarding the use of strategies. It is showed by a # in the tables. The differences were counted using statistical analysis. Transfer is especially salient in the realization of the speech act of requests. As for apology production, a significant difference has not been observed. Probably this is because three of the groups, namely EL1, TL1, and FLED, performed the same amount of apology categories in percentages. That is, there is no significant difference between EL1 and TL1 group, either.

Mood derivable requests which are mainly in the form of imperatives are used by FLED Ss (31.81%) and by TL1 (18.08 %) frequently. The percentage for TL1 group is not surprising when other studies carried on Turkish speakers are reviewed (Martı, 2000). However, since EL1 speakers (6.38%) are less likely to request directly, this indicates pragmatic transfer on the part of FLED speakers. The reason for the differences regarding the use of direct requests stems from the excessive use of "please+ an imperative" by FLED, and an obligatory statement, e.g. "would/do you look at this?" by TL1 group. Both of these strategies belong to the same category (Direct Category).

As far as apology strategies are concerned, FLED group seem to transfer L1 strategies. 30.32% of TL1 and 26.52% of FLED speakers provide an explanation while apologizing. However, the percentage of the EL1 speakers who give an account is only 1.91%. Another sign of L1 interference is that the FLED (7.82%) and TL1 (6.45%) group take responsibility far less than the EL1 (16.56%) group do. In other words, FLED Ss prefer not to take responsibility but rather to provide an explanation contrary to EL1 speakers and similar to TL1. Some apology semantic formulas are also problematic for FLED students. For example they differ from EL1 speakers significantly as far as the formulas IFID + OR ($Z= 3.98, p < .05$), IFID + AR ($Z= 2.41, p < .05$), and IFID + E/A + OR ($Z= 5.50, P < .05$) are concerned. However, they use similar number of the formulas with the TL1 group, which may imply transfer from Turkish.

Beside the instances of transfer, there are also non-deviations despite cultural differences. In other words, in spite of discrepancies between native groups regarding the use of strategies, FLED group managed to use strategies similar to what EL1 speakers used rather than transferring from Turkish ($TL1 \neq EL1; FLED = EL1$). For example, only 14.48% of TL1 offer repair when apologizing; however, FLED students (22.17%) and EL1 speakers (28.02%) offer repair more commonly. Similarly, TL1 (1.77%) tend to avoid giving promise to assure future behaviors. On the contrary, both FLED (4.16%) and EL1 (6.54%) groups promise more frequently- although it is not significant. Similarly, contrary to TL1, FLED group show a tendency to avoid using obligatory statements as EL1 speakers do.

Moreover, there are instances where both native groups are different from each other and FLED group differed from them showing a rather different tendency

at all (EL1 \neq TL1; FLED \neq EL1 and FLED \neq TL1). These instances are shown by a

- in the tables. For instance, while requesting all of the groups used preparatory strategy the most. However, the percentage for each group is different, and Z-test showed that FLED group differed from both of the native groups significantly. Besides, 17.17% of FLED, 37.66% of TL1 and 1.20% of EL1 speakers used the apology semantic formula IFID + E/A; however, none of these percentages are significantly similar.

To summarize, FLED students could use the strategies used by EL1 students. On the other hand, they still transfer from L1 if a strategy is very salient in Turkish as in the case of providing an explanation while apologizing. For some strategies, they seem to try new ways but make mistakes.

4.6 Transfer from L1 in E-mails

FLED students transfer their L1 knowledge into their L2 while apologizing and requesting in e-mails. Transfer is more salient in requests (see Table 18). For example, FLED students are significantly different from EL1 group regarding the use of direct and indirect request strategies ($Z= 5.50, p < .05 / Z= 2.79, p. 05$), and are similar to TL1 group. FLED students, especially, differ from EL1 group regarding mood derivable (Str. 1) and preparatory (Str. 7).

Table 18. Distribution of Request Strategies (Str. 1-9) According to FLED Students and English L1 Speakers and Turkish L1 Speakers in E-mails

Strategies	Groups								
	FLED		EL1 DCT		FLED	TL1 DCT		FLED	
	E-mail n= 67		n= 47		vs. EL1	n= 47		vs. TL1	
	F	%	F	%	Z	F	%	Z	
1 Mood Derivable	20	29.85#	6	6.38	*3.72	17	18.08	1.55	
2 Performative	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
3 Hedged Performative	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	0	
4 Obligatory Statement	0	0	0	0	0	27	28.72	*4.59	
5 Want Statement	11	16.41●	4	4.25	*2.34	4	4.25	*2.34	
6 Suggestory Formula	3	4.47	0	0	1.48	0	0	1.48	
7 Preparatory	27	40.29#	74	78.7 2	*4.80	34	36.17	0.36	
8 Strong Hint	6	8.95	8	8	0.18	4	4.25	0.88	
9 Mild Hint	0	0+	2	2.12	0.48	8	8.51	*2.08	
TOTAL	67	100	94	100		94	100		

Notes on the table:

* $p < .05$

Numbers are given as percentages rounded off to two digits

+ means non-deviations despite cultural differences

● means significant difference between FLED and both EL1 and TL1 group

As far as apology strategies are concerned (see Table 19), statistical analyses do not reveal any significant differences regarding the use of main strategies for FLED and EL1 group. However, Strategy 2 ($Z= 6.62$) and Strategy 4 (3.70) have been used significantly different by the two groups. FLED students provide far more explanations unlike EL1 speakers, who prefer to find a solution by offering repair. FLED students seem to transfer explanation from L1. On the other hand, similar to EL1 group, they take more responsibility than TL1 group.

Table 19. Distribution of Apology Strategies (Str. 1-6) According to FLED Students and English L1 Speakers and Turkish L1 Speakers in E-mails

Strategies	Groups								
	FLED E-mail n=38		EL1 DCT n= 47		FLED vs. EL1	TL1 DCT n= 47		FLED vs. TL1	
	F	%	F	%	Z	F	%	Z	
1 IFID	32	44.44	71	45.22	0.03	69	44.51	0.13	
2 Explanation or Account	24	33.33#	3	1.91	*6.62	47	30.32	0.30	
3 Acknowledgement of Responsibility	11	15.27+	26	16.56	0.05	10	6.45	*1.89	
4 Offer of Repair	4	5.55#	44	28.02	*3.70	24	14.48	1.70	
5 Promise of Forbearance	1	1.38	11	7	1.45	3	1.93	0.24	
6 No Apology	0	0	2	1.27	0.19	2	1.29	0.20	
TOTAL	72	100	157	100		155	100		

Notes on the table:

* p< .05

Numbers are given as percentages rounded off to two digits

+ means non-deviations despite cultural differences

CHAPTER 5

CONCLUSION

5.1 Introduction

In this study I examined request and apology performance of Foreign Language Education Department (FLED) students in e-mails and in the Discourse Completion Test (DCT) to obtain data about their pragmatic competence. I also investigated English (EL1) and Turkish L1 Speakers' (TL1) data. In order to draw conclusions, I analyzed 105 e-mails and 148 DCTs in total. The first analysis was to compare the data collected through the two data collection methods-e-mail and DCT- to display differences and similarities regarding the strategies that FLED students use for each speech act. In addition, I compared FLED DCT data with the responses of EL1 speakers and TL1 for cross cultural comparison and to investigate L1 influence. Chi-square test and Z-test were performed to determine whether there was a significant difference between the frequency of request and apology strategies employed by FLED students and EL1, and TL1, respectively.

5.2 Summary of Findings

The findings of the study displayed that request and apology strategies of FLED speakers in the DCT and in e-mails are significantly different from each other for most of the strategies. This may sound interesting taking into consideration that both are written data. Hence it is difficult to account for these differences. The discrepancies result from the choice of direct and indirect requests. Whilst FLED

students use direct requests in e-mails, they tend to prefer indirect requests in the DCT. In other words, the frequency of main request categories point in opposite directions in two data sets. This means that FLED students use more direct requests and less indirect requests in e-mails whereas it is the other way around in the DCT. The extensive use of 'please+ an imperative' form in e-mails and of 'can you..' form in the DCT might account for these discrepancies. In addition, apology strategies are different. To illustrate, FLED students provide a promise of forbearance more often in the DCT; however, they provide an explanation in e-mails. In this sense, they seem to be more similar to TL1 speakers. In conclusion, these results confirm that FLED students employ different speech act strategies in e-mails and in the DCT.

As literature has revealed, even advanced learners' pragmatic production is not flawless so they make pragmatic errors and fail to understand the force behind an utterance and to convey their message politely or in socially and culturally appropriate way (Blum-Kulka et. al, 1989). In line with studies conducted on speech act realization of nonnative speakers cited in the literature review chapter, the findings of this study also suggest significant differences between speech act strategies of EL1 group and FLED students. Differences are notably salient in the request strategies. Since they prefer mood derivable (Strategy 1) in their requests, FLED students differ from EL1 speakers who employ preparatory strategies much more frequently. This displays that grammatical competence and pragmatic competence do not always go hand in hand (Cohen et al. 1986). Although they are assumed to be advanced users of English (see methodology chapter, for FLED students' educational background), FLED students still differ from EL1 speakers when performing requests. Despite significant differences in request production,

there is no significant difference regarding the use of apology main categories between FLED and EL1 group. This seems to be surprising because of the differences between target and local culture. However, Olshtain (1989) found out that speakers of different languages chose similar strategies when apologizing. According to Olshtain this is not unexpected providing that speakers perform an apology under similar conditions such as degree of offence, social factors, etc. My findings seem to confirm this assertion in regard to apology categories. However, FLED students provide more explanation when EL1 group prefers an acknowledgement of responsibility. All in all, FLED students and EL1 speakers do not always use the same strategies when performing speech acts of requests and apologies.

There are several striking points about FLED students' strategies that need to be discussed. FLED students deviate from native speakers in at least three different ways. The first one is that FLED group is the most direct of all the groups. They use mood derivable (the most direct strategy on the scale) the most frequently, even more than TL1, who were found to be the most direct participants by Huls (1988) and Martı (2000, 2006). Secondly, FLED students could also approach EL1 speakers' strategies even when there was a significant difference between EL1 and TL1 group. For example, FLED students did not use obligatory statement (Strategy 5) unlike TL1 group which used it very often. EL1 group also did not use want statement. This shows that learners do not always use L1 as a reference point. As a third point, FLED students also differed from EL1 group despite similarities and parallelism between L1 and L2 data. Referring to the situations when learners were different from both native groups, Blum-Kulka (1983) suggested that learners could develop an

interlanguage which would be different from both L1 and L2. Hence learners could follow interlanguage rules rather than transferring from L1. The differences in interlanguage might result from universality and language specificity of languages. For example, FLED students differ from both EL1 and TL1 group with regard to the use of preparatory strategy in requesting.

In summary, there is a need for further research to account for the differences between speech act behavior of FLED students in the DCT and e-mail data and differences between FLED strategies and EL1 strategies.

5.3 The Limitations of the Study

This study was compromised by certain limitations. Limitations included, but were not limited to, the areas related to sampling and the data elicitation methods, namely Discourse Completion Test and e-mails. Because of the limitations, it is difficult to generalize the findings of this study to Turkish FLED students at other universities in Turkey.

Firstly, only available subjects were contacted and the sample size was not large enough. The DCT does not elicit authentic data so its findings cannot be regarded as real performance of learners. Another limitation was about the nature of the e-mail data. Although e-mails elicited natural data from students, they might lack spontaneity and are written data like the DCT, which limited the data of this study to only written responses. Hence more studies using oral data collection methods are needed to analyze speech act realization of the participants in different context. Moreover, situations in the DCT and in e-mails were not parallel.

In addition, further investigation needs to be done especially on the requests

of the participants to have a better understanding of their pragmatic competence. This is because this study focused only on the Head act, i.e. the nucleus of the speech act to discuss similarities and differences between the groups and surrounding discourse such as address terms, modification patterns, etc. were not taken into consideration.

In spite of these limitations, this study sheds light on the pragmatic competence of FLED students. Student e-mails can be analyzed to find out the level of and the deficiencies in their pragmatic skills. They can also help instructors prepare material for students to strengthen their communicative skills.

5.4 Implications for Language Teaching

The findings of this study showed that although FLED students used similar strategies as English native speakers in some situations, there are still certain strategies that FLED students overuse or underuse compared to EL1. Another observation is that proficiency level does not guarantee a good level of pragmatic competence. These findings implied that FLED students need to learn to choose strategies according to the situation. As researchers showed (e.g. Golato, 2003; Rose & Kasper, 2001) interlanguage pragmatic knowledge is teachable. Hence, FLED students should be given the opportunity to improve their pragmatic abilities. They can be explicitly taught the strategies to use in a given context or their e-mails, which provide authentic data about their real performance, can be analyzed regularly to provide them with ideas and feedback.

5.5 Implications for Further Research

Better results could be attained about FLED students' pragmatic knowledge if several points are taken into consideration in future studies. For example, I suggest researchers to look at student e-mails throughout a longer period of time, e.g. from the beginning to the end of the year. Alternatively, the data of freshmen students could be compared to seniors. This might give an opportunity to analyze any developments over time. Beside analyzing the e-mails sent to English speaking instructors, the ones sent to Turkish instructors could be analyzed in order to find out similarities/differences. I also suggest researchers to compose parallel situations in the DCT and in e-mails. This could be achieved by collecting e-mails over time and selecting the most commonly occurring situations. Later on a DCT could be prepared accordingly. Ideally, participants could be asked to write an e-mail in the DCT. Moreover, I suggest researchers to try to have an interview with the participants who choose to opt out in the DCT and focus on their responses in detail. This might reveal the reasons of opting-out to a great extent.

APPENDICES

A. Discourse Completion Test in Turkish

Açıklamalar: *Aşağıdaki durumları dikkatlice okuyunuz ve lütfen cevaplarınızı boş alana yazınız. Nasıl bir cevap vermeniz gerektiği konusunda çok düşünüp zaman harcamayın, bunun yerine olabildiğince doğal cevaplar vermeye çalışın.*

1: Derslerinizden biri için bir proje yazmanız gerekmektedir. Üzerinde uzun süre çalışmış olmanıza rağmen, metodoloji kısmı içinize sinmemektedir. Doğru yaptığınızdan emin olmak için sınıf arkadaşınızdan makalenizi kontrol etmesini istersiniz.

2: Amerika'daki bir eğitim programına başvurmayı planlıyorsunuz. Ancak bu program bir tane tavsiye mektubu istemektedir. Bunun için hocanızın ofisine gidip ricada bulunursunuz.

3: Okulda sahnelenecek olan bir piyesin provalarına katılmaktasınız. Çok çaba sarfettiğinizi düşündüğünüz halde, size verilen rol tatmin edici değildir. Bu kararından dolayı hocanıza şikayette bulunursunuz.

4: Sosyolinguistik dersiniz için bir grup sunumu hazırlamaktasınız. Ancak grup arkadaşlarınızdan biri hiç bir katkıda bulunmamaktadır. Bundan rahatsızlık duyarak, arkadaşınıza şöyle dersiniz:

5: İtalyanca dersi almaya başladınız ve öğretmen gerçekten çok iyi. Ders anlatma stilinden çok etkilendiğiniz için, bunu onunla paylaşmak istiyorsunuz.

6: Bugün bir sunum yapmanız gerekiyor ancak sıranın sizde olduğunu unuttuğunuz için hazırlık yapmadınız. Hocanız bu durumu pek de hoş karşılamamıştır. Dersten sonra ofisine gidip şöyle dersiniz:

7: Sınıf arkadaşınız yarın için bir sunum hazırlamaktadır. Çok düzenli çalıştığını farkedip bunu ona söylersiniz.

8: Geçen hafta arkadaşınızdan kitabını ödünç alıp bu hafta sınavdan önce geri getireceğinize söz veriyorsunuz. Ancak kampüse geldiğinizde kitabı evde bıraktığınızı farkediyorsunuz. Arkadaşınızı sınıfın kapısında görünce yanına gidip şöyle dersiniz:

Zamanınız ve emeğiniz için teşekkürler.

B. Discourse Completion Test in English

Directions: *Read the situations below carefully. Please write your response in the blank area. Do not spend a lot of time thinking about what answer you should provide; instead, please respond as naturally as possible.*

1: You are required to write a research paper for one of your courses. Although you have worked on it for a long time, you don't feel comfortable about the methodology part. In order to make sure that it is going well, you ask your classmate to check it over for you.

2: You are planning to apply for a training program in the States, which stipulates a letter of recommendation. In order to ask for one, you go to your instructor's office and say:

3: You have been attending rehearsals of a drama to be staged at school. Although you think you have put so much effort into it, the role assigned to you is not satisfactory. You decide to complain to your instructor about this decision.

4: You are preparing a group work presentation for your sociolinguistics class. However, one of your groupmates hasn't been contributing at all. Getting irritated, you say:

5: You started an Italian class. The instructor is really very good. Since you are impressed by his/her teaching style, you want to share this with him/her.

6: Today you were supposed to make a presentation, but you forgot it was your turn and didn't get prepared. Your instructor is displeased. After class you go to his/her office and say:

7: Your classmate is preparing a presentation for tomorrow's class. Recognizing how well-organized s/he is, you tell her/him:

8: Last week, you borrowed your classmate's book and promised to give it back this week before the exam. However, when you are on campus, you notice that you have left the book at home. When you see your friend outside the classroom, you say:

Thanks for your time and effort.

C. Personal Information Form in Turkish

Öğrenci No:.....

Tarih:.....

Sınıf:.....

Yaş:.....

Cinsiyet: Kadın Erkek

1. Anadiliniz nedir? Türkçe dışında evde/ ailenizle konuştuğunuz dil hangisidir?

2. Anadiliniz dışında çok iyi bildiğiniz diğer dil(ler) hangisidir?

3. Mezun olduğunuz lise hangisidir? _____

4. İngilizceyi nerede ve ne zaman öğrendiniz?

5. Yurtdışı deneyiminiz var mı? Varsa anlatınız.

6. İngilizcenizi geliştirirken hangi konu veya konulara yoğunlaştınız (örn. gramer, kelime bilgisi, yazma, okuma, konuşma, çeviri)?

7. Ne sıklıkta, kimlerle ve hangi amaçla İngilizce konuşup yazıyorsunuz?

8. Kendinizi İngilizce’de yeterli buluyor musunuz?

Evet Hayır Emin değilim

Zamanınız ve emeğiniz için teşekkürler.

D. Personal Information Form in English

Age.....

University:.....

Date.....

Gender: Female Male

1. What is your mother tongue??

2. What language(s) can you speak other than your mother tongue?

3. How long have you been in Turkey? Why? When are you leaving?

4. Do you know Turkish? What is your proficiency level?

Thanks for your time and effort

E. Table 20. Apology Semantic Formulas (According to FLED students and English L1 Speakers and Turkish L1 Speakers in E-mails and in the DCT)

FORMULAS	Groups							
	FLED DCT		FLED E-mail		EL1		TL1	
	F	%	F	%	F	%	F	%
IFID	12	12.12	3	9.37	18	21.68	13	16.88
E/A	1	1.01	0	0	1	1.20	1	1.29
AR	1	1.01	0	0	1	1.20	0	0
OR	1	1.01	0	0	5	6.02	3	3.89
NA	3	3.03	0	0	2	2.40	2	2.59
IFID + AR + PF	5	5.05	0	0	7	8.43	0	0
IFID + OR	8	8.08#	1	3.12#	27	32.53	8	10.38
IFID + AR	2	2.02#	3	9.37	9	10.84	1	1.29
AR + OR	1	1.01	0	0	3	3.61	0	0
IFID + PF	2	2.02	0	0	3	3.61	3	3.89
IFID + AR + OR + PF	0	0	0	0	1	1.20	0	0
IFID + AR + OR	3	3.03	1	3.12	4	4.81	1	1.29
IFID + E/A + AR + OR + PF	0	0	0	0	1	1.20	0	0
IFID + E/A	17	17.17●	15	46.87#	1	1.20	29	37.66
E/A + OR	3	3.03	0	0	0	0	2	2.59
IFID + E/A + AR + OR	4	4.04	0	0	0	0	1	1.29
IFID + E/A + OR	32	32.32#	2	6.25	0	0	11	14.28
IFID + E/A + AR	1	1.01	7	21.87●	0	0	2	2.59
IFID + E/A + PF	1	1.01	0	0	0	0	0	0
E/A + PF	1	1.01	0	0	0	0	0	0
E/A + AR	1	1.01	0	0	0	0	0	0
TOTAL	99	100	32	100	83	100	77	100

Notes on the table:

Numbers are given as percentages rounded off to two digits

means interference from Turkish

● means significant difference between FLED and both EL1 and TL1 group

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