

**AN INVESTIGATION INTO THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN  
EMOTIONAL INTELLIGENCE OF ELT STUDENTS AND THEIR  
REQUEST REALIZATION PATTERNS**

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## TELİF HAKKI ve TEZ FOTOKOPİ İZİN FORMU

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İngilizce Adı: An Investigation into the Relationship between Emotional Intelligence of ELT Students and Their Request Speech Act Realization Patterns

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.....

*To My Family with Love*



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**İNGİLİZCE ÖĞRETMENLİĞİ BÖLÜMÜ ÖĞRENCİLERİNİN  
DUYGUSAL ZEKÂLARI VE RİCA SÖZ EYLEMLERİNİ  
GERÇEKLEŞTİRME BİÇİMLERİ ARASINDAKİ İLİŞKİ ÜZERİNE  
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**ÖZ**

Bu çalışmanın ana amacı dördüncü sınıf İngilizce Öğretmenliği Bölümü öğrencilerinin duygusal zekâları ve rica söz eylemlerini gerçekleştirme şekilleri arasında bir ilişki olup olmadığını incelemek ve bu öğrencilerin duygusal zekâ seviyeleri ve rica eylemlerindeki edimbilim yetisi hakkında anlayış kazanmaktır. Çalışma aynı zamanda cinsiyet faktörünün öğrencilerin duygusal zekâlarında ve rica etme biçimlerinde önemli bir rol oynayıp oynamadığını bulmaya çalışır ve son olarak, İngilizce Öğretmenliği öğrencilerinin rica etme stratejilerini doğrudanlık ve dolaylılık açısından tanımlamaya çalışır. Yabancı dil öğrenimi ve öğretiminde duygusal zekâ ve edimbilim yetisinin önemi sıklıkla ihmal edilmektedir. Bu çalışma bu sorunun çözümüne katkı sağlayabilir. Çalışma Ankara’da, Gazi Üniversitesi İngilizce Öğretmenliği Bölümü’nde 120 öğrenci (93 kadın, 27 erkek) ile gerçekleştirilmiştir. Katılımcıların yaşları 20 ve 26 arasında değişiklik göstermektedir. Bu çalışma için veriler Schutte Duygusal Zekâ Ölçeği ve öğrencilerin rica gerektiren dört duruma karşılık vermelerinin istenildiği Söylem Tamamlama Testi ile toplanmıştır. Ayrıca, öğrencilerin rica yanıtlarının uygunluk ve kibarlığını puanlamak için değerlendirme ölçeği kullanılmıştır. Çalışma için karma araştırma yöntemi benimsenmiştir. Çalışmadaki nicel veri SPSS 20 programı ile analiz edilmiştir. Nitel verinin içerik analizi ise Blum-Kulka ve diğerlerinin CCSARP ( Kültürlerarası söz eylem projesi) kapsamında kullandıkları kodlama kılavuzuna (Blum-Kulka, House, & Kasper, 1989) göre yapılmıştır. Araştırma

sonuçları İngilizce öğretmenliği bölümü öğrencilerinin duygusal zekâları ve rica etme biçimleri arasında anlamlı bir ilişki olmadığını ortaya koymuştur. Ancak sonuçlara göre, duygusal zekâ cinsiyete göre değişmektedir ve erkek öğrencilerin kendi duygularını yönetme konusunda kız öğrencilere göre daha iyi oldukları gözlemlenmiştir. Diğer taraftan, araştırma sonuçları kız öğrencilerin genel olarak rica söz eylemlerinde erkeklere göre daha iyi performans gösterdiğini ortaya koymuştur. Ayrıca, İngilizce Öğretmenliği Bölümü öğrencileri bir durum haricinde kalıplaşmış dolaylı rica stratejilerini tercih etme eğilimi göstermişlerdir. Son olarak, çalışma İngilizce Öğretmenliği Bölümü öğrencilerinin kendilerinden daha yüksek statüdeki muhataplarından rica etme konusunda zorlandıklarını sonucuna varmıştır.



Anahtar Kelimeler: Duygusal zekâ, edimbilim yetisi, söz eylem, rica, cinsiyet

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**ABSTRACT**

The main aim of the present study is to investigate whether there is a relationship between emotional intelligence of fourth-grade ELT students and their request realization patterns and to gain insight about their emotional intelligence levels and pragmatic competence in their speech acts of requests. It also seeks to find out whether gender plays an important role in students' emotional intelligence and request patterns, and lastly attempts to identify the request strategies of ELT students in terms of directness and indirectness. The importance of emotional intelligence and pragmatic competence in foreign language learning or teaching is often ignored. Thus, the study can contribute to the solution of this problem. The study was conducted at Gazi University, in the ELT Department in Ankara. 120 students (93 female and 27 male) participated in the study. Their ages ranged from 20 to 26. The data for this study were collected through The Schutte Emotional Intelligence Scale and a discourse completion test in which students were asked to respond to four request situations. In addition, a rating scale was used to rate the appropriateness and politeness of the students' requests. Mixed model research was adopted for the present study. The quantitative data were analyzed using SPSS 20 Program and the qualitative data were analyzed based on the coding manual used by Blum-Kulka et al. within the CCSARP (Cross-cultural Speech Act Realization Project) (Blum-Kulka, House, & Kasper, 1989). The results of the study reveal no significant relationship between emotional intelligence and request patterns of the ELT students. However, emotional intelligence changes according to gender and male students are observed to be better at managing their own emotions. On the other hand, the results of the study show that female students generally perform better in their speech act of requests than male students. Furthermore, the ELT

students tend to prefer conventional indirect request strategies except in one situation. Finally, the results of the study indicate that ELT students have difficulty in requesting of a higher-status interlocutor.



**Key Words:** Emotional intelligence, pragmatic competence, speech act, request, gender

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## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS AND SYMBOLS

ANOVA	Analysis of Variance
CCSARP	The Cross-Cultural Speech Act Realization Project
DCT	Discourse Completion Test
EFL	English as a Foreign Language
ELT	English Language Teaching
EI	Emotional Intelligence
EQ	Emotional Quotient
EQ-I: YV	Emotional Quotient Inventory: Youth Version
ESL	English as a Second Language
FTA	Face Threatening Act
H	Hearer
IQ	Intelligence Quotient
L1	First Language
L2	Second Language
R	Rater
P	Participant
S	Speaker
S1	Situation 1
S2	Situation 2
S3	Situation 3
S4	Situation 4
SPSS	Statistical Package for the Social Sciences
TEIQue	Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire
TOEFL	Test of English as a Foreign Language

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# **CHAPTER I**

## **INTRODUCTION**

### **Presentation**

In this chapter, first of all, the background to the study is presented. Next, the statement of the problem, the aim of the study, and the importance of the present study are stated. Finally, the assumptions, and the limitations of the study are presented.

### **Background to the Study**

Education is vital for the prosperity of the whole world. People have more international relationships in many different arenas and deal with more global issues. To be able to communicate in a foreign language is a necessity of globalism and English is of great importance as a widely-used communication tool all over the world. Thus, in recent years, learning English is encouraged increasingly all around the world. However, learning a language differs from person to person because every person is unique. For some learners, it may require a great deal of effort and time; for some, it does not. In a sense, every learner goes through their own personal learning processes. Thus, it is plausible to claim that every learner is unique, too. They have different abilities, different personalities, and different learning styles. Their intelligence differs, too. They may have different needs during the learning process. These lead to new and various educational pursuits. New approaches, new methods or techniques arise in the field of English Language Teaching (ELT) and start to be applied in ELT classrooms. However, most students in Turkey still have difficulty in communicating in English properly or adequately. There may be lots of reasons for this since language learning is a complex issue and it is possibly affected by many parameters. However, language is obviously a way communication, which includes pragmatic competence and emotions in its essence. This study has two dimensions: Emotional intelligence and speech act of requests. To begin with emotional intelligence, it



is crucial to understand emotions and their roles in education. Emotions are somehow a part of being humane. Where there are people, there are emotions. Hence, it is certain that emotions that we feel have a considerable amount of impact on our lives, including work or education. Emotions are still devalued or ignored by many people. In addition, emotions or emotional experiences may remain unrecognized as Golden states (2003, p. 53). It is unfortunate that “many of us have learned not to tune in to our emotions” (Golden, 2003, p. 54). It is already recognized that there is a relationship between IQ and life circumstances of people. For instance, people with higher intelligence quotient (IQ) generally can have better job opportunities, but what about those with higher emotional intelligence? There appears to be the same case for them, as well. Emotional intelligence can have as much power as IQ in people’s lives and it can be even more influential than it at times (Goleman, 1995, p. 34). Goleman also adds that emotional intelligence can be taught and developed (1995, p. 34). Generally, the studies about training emotional intelligence are promising. What is emotional intelligence? Many definitions have been proposed about emotional intelligence up to now. The definitions of emotional intelligence can vary slightly, but generally refer to the some common attributes in their core. Emotional intelligence is “abilities such as being able to motivate oneself and persist in the face of frustrations; to control impulse and delay gratification; to regulate one’s moods and keep distress from swamping the ability to think; to empathize and to hope” (Goleman, 1995, p. 34). To be emotionally intelligent will enhance many parts of individuals’ lives, including education. To exemplify, it is probable that students with higher emotional intelligence can motivate themselves and be more persistent in their studies. According to Stein (2009), emotional intelligence can be loosely described as being intelligent about your emotions. It includes skills such as recognizing or understanding your own emotions and others’ emotions. It is related to managing your own emotions and emotions of other people (p. 1).

The present study is a two-tiered one. It attempts to investigate the relationship between the ELT students’ emotional intelligence and their speech act patterns of requests. As implied before, effective communication in a foreign language requires achieving pragmatic competence in the target language, as well. Many Learners of English as a foreign language (EFL) struggle with challenges to understand the intended meanings of utterances. Koike defines pragmatic competence as “the speaker’s knowledge and use of rules of appropriateness and politeness which dictate the way the speaker will understand

and formulate speech acts.” (1989, p. 281). Performing a speech act appropriately or politely is a challenging task for second language (L2) learners especially for the beginners (Koike, 1989). There appears to be a strong probability that students’ pragmatic competence increases in accordance with their proficiency level (Bardovi-Harlig & Dörnyei, 1998; Francis, 1997). Yet, it is not easy to develop pragmatic competence at a satisfactory level for non-native speakers of a language even for advanced-level students. It may require specific instruction in L2 pragmatics to improve their pragmatic competence in the target language because learners who are not instructed specifically for this in L2 pragmatics vary from the native speakers of L2 in terms of their production and comprehension in the target language (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001). Referring back to the definition of pragmatic competence, it is possible to suggest that speech acts are considered as the core of pragmatic competence and needs to be investigated more and deeply. One of the aims of the present study is to examine the request strategies of the ELT students in terms of directness and indirectness and also to gain insight about how (pragmatically) competent they are at performing requests. As implied, requests are related to pragmatic competence as a widely-used speech act. It is inevitable that foreign language learners will have to make requests in the target language. It is therefore essential to be able to request in L2 appropriately and politely. Otherwise, it will be hard to avoid communication breakdown or misunderstandings between the relevant parties involved in the communication process.

### **Statement of the Problem**

Foreign language learning is a complex issue since there are many factors that influence one’s success in learning a foreign language. However, the importance of emotional intelligence and pragmatic competence in foreign language language teaching or learning is often ignored. When foreign language speakers do not communicate in a pragmatically appropriate way, misunderstandings are more than likely to occur between the speakers, which can hinder effective communication. Many foreign language teachers tend to pay more attention to just accuracy (Bardovi-Harlig & Dörnyei, 1998), but an effective communication requires much more than that, like pragmatic competence. EFL learners firstly need to have pragmatic awareness, which is not adequate, though. They also need to be pragmatically competent and behave according to that pragmatic awareness. In addition, it is common in Turkey that EFL learners find English difficult to learn and they struggle

with the challenge of maintaining their perseverance, motivation or enthusiasm in case of a difficulty or an obstacle during this process. For instance, it appears to be a problematic issue for them to be able to tolerate their anxiety to a certain extent. Unfortunately, many students are easily discouraged by their mistakes, their impatience or too much stress etc. However, it is fundamental to recognize foreign language learning as a process that naturally requires some time and effort, the amount of which can vary from person to person. It is probably unavoidable to make mistakes when learning a foreign language, too. It is therefore crucial for learners to be aware of their emotions and be able to manage them in a sense. Teachers are responsible for students' learning process, as well. They perhaps have the greatest role in students' success as an external factor. They can affect students in many ways, both positive and negative; they can encourage students or discourage them without even noticing it. Since foreign language learning is a demanding job for students, students need to be supported emotionally by their English teachers or instructors. To be able to do this, teachers themselves should be emotionally intelligent (Quarles & Cole, 2011). Unfortunately, many teachers do not have sufficient self- and social awareness to be able to understand their students' social or emotional needs in case of educational changes and they are poor at stress management skills in the classroom (Jacobs, Kemp & Mitchell, 2008). Hence, the importance of emotional intelligence is often underestimated. So far, there has been little research about the role of emotional intelligence in EFL or ELT setting in Turkey. Although there have been several studies addressing speech acts of requests in EFL setting in Turkey (Balcı, 2009; Kılıçkaya, 2010; Otcu & Zeyrek, 2008), it is still not known whether there is a relationship between emotional intelligence of ELT students and their request realization patterns in the literature. It would be of interest to gain insight about ELT students' emotional intelligence levels and their request performances separately and to find out whether there is a relationship between them or not.

### **Aim of the Study**

The objectives of the present study are to find out whether emotional intelligence of ELT students change according to gender or not, to discover whether there is a relationship between emotional intelligence of the ELT students and their request realization patterns, to gain insight about their pragmatic competence in their request patterns, to determine the request strategies that the ELT students use, and lastly to offer some insight about how these could relate to English language teaching and learning.

The following research questions are posed:

1. Does emotional intelligence of ELT students change according to gender?
  - 1.1. Are there significant differences between the subdimensions of emotional intelligence for male and female ELT students?
2. Is there a relationship between ELT students' emotional intelligence level and their request realization patterns?
  - 2.1. What are the mean request scores and standard deviations for male and female students when the request situations are considered separately and as a whole?
3. What request strategies do ELT students use in terms of directness or indirectness?

### **Significance of the Study**

The present study addresses a crucial need evident in the existing pragmatics and emotional intelligence literature. A learner in the process of learning a foreign language must be able to process pragmatic input successfully and use his/her emotions effectively in order to communicate effectively. Improving foreign language learners' emotional intelligence and pragmatic competence can be helpful in their language learning process and may foster their language abilities. For this purpose, this study can help us gain new insights about ELT students' emotional intelligence and their request speech act patterns, and the relationship between them. The study can also contribute to raising EFL teachers or teacher trainees' awareness about the importance of emotional intelligence and pragmatic competence, and how they could be useful for language learning and teaching. This study can also be an inspiration for ELT departments, which will directly affect EFL learners as an outcome.

### **Assumptions**

While administrating the study, the following assumptions are considered:

Students have responded honestly to the items stated in all the relevant tests.

The students are assumed to be at advanced level in English as they are 4<sup>th</sup> grade students in the ELT department at a university.

## **Limitations**

This study is limited to one hundred and twenty fourth-grade ELT students randomly selected from 5 classes at Gazi University, Ankara.

The study is limited to the investigation of only one speech act: requesting. Furthermore, the reader should bear in mind that the DCT, one of the research instruments used for the study, involves only four different situations to elicit the request data.

Due to practical constraints, the study is unable to encompass the cultural backgrounds of the participants.

It is beyond the scope of this study to examine the speech act request in terms of internal and external modifications.

## **Definitions of Terms**

Intelligence: “A biopsychological potential to process information that can be activated in a cultural setting to solve problems or create products that are of value in a culture” (Gardner, 1999, p. 34).

Emotion: “Emotions are but a single, albeit fundamental, domain of personality” (Petrides, 2011, p. 671).

Emotional Intelligence: The ability to motivate, understand and control one’s own moods or feelings and empathizing others’ (Goleman, 1995, p. 34).

Pragmatics: It deals with how speakers use language to achieve communicative goals in a context. It focuses more on the intended meaning of the utterances (Yule, 1996, p. 3).

Speech act: Austin (1962, p. 108) suggested that utterances have specific forces or they do acts to achieve certain purposes in communication. These are speech acts. The speech act term is used in the present study to refer to the illocutionary acts, such as apologizing.

Request: “A request is a directive illocutionary act that allows the option of refusal” (Vanderveken, 1990, p. 189).

Request strategy: “The obligatory choice of the level of directness by which the request is realized” (Blum-Kulka, House & Kasper, 1989, p. 278).

Directness: The degree to which extent the speaker’s illocutionary intent is visible from the locution (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989, p. 278).

## **CHAPTER II**

### **REVIEW OF LITERATURE**

#### **Presentation**

This chapter presents a review of relevant literature with regards to the emotional intelligence and speech acts, particularly requests. Firstly, it starts with a selected review of emotional intelligence and some models of emotional intelligence, followed by recent studies addressing emotional intelligence. Next, it presents the literature of such areas of pragmatics as speech act theory and cross-cultural pragmatics in which requests are located, followed by some relevant theories and studies addressing requests.

#### **Emotional Intelligence**

##### **Intelligence and Emotional Intelligence**

It is vital to start with the definition of intelligence in general as emotional intelligence is considered as a type of intelligence. It is certain that there are many definitions of intelligence given. Thus, it is hard to give a precise definition of it. However, the founder of Multiple Intelligence Theory, Gardner (1999, p. 33) first described intelligence as “the ability to solve problems or to create products that are valued within one or more cultural settings” in 1983. He later reframes his definition in a slight way, seeing intelligence as a potential that can be activated or not to solve problems or create products, depending on some factors like culture. Unlike traditional definitions of intelligence, Gardner pays paramount attention to cultural values and his approach favors both product-oriented and problem-solution oriented process. Gardner’s (1999, p. 43) theory of multiple intelligences played a significant role in the development of emotional intelligence since Gardner mentioned “interpersonal intelligence and “intrapersonal intelligence”. Interpersonal intelligence is one’s capacity to notice others’ moods, intentions, motivations and desires

and being able work with them in harmony. Intrapersonal intelligence, on the other hand, is the capacity to understand one's own moods, emotions, desires, fears, and his/her inner world in short and guiding them properly and being able to work by oneself effectively. Gardner calls them as personal intelligences as if they were two faces of a medallion. It is obvious that they are relevant to the concept of emotional intelligence. For many theorists, the roots of emotional intelligence can be found in social intelligence. For Salovey and Mayer, emotional intelligence is a part of social intelligence in a sense (Salovey & Mayer, 1990). The idea of social intelligence dates back to 1920 when Thorndike described social intelligence. Thorndike defined social intelligence as: "the ability to understand men and women, boys and girls-to act wisely in human relations" (as cited in Salovey, & Mayer, 1990, p. 187). It is Salovey and Mayer who first used emotional intelligence as a term in 1990. On the other hand, Daniel Goleman popularized the concept of emotional intelligence with his book entitled "Emotional Intelligence" in 1995 and made it known to many people. Goleman (1995) defined emotional intelligence as "being able to motivate oneself and persist in the face of frustrations; to control impulse and delay gratification; to regulate one's moods and keep distress from swamping the ability to think; to empathize and to hope" (p. 34). He thinks that emotional intelligence can be very influential even in academic success and can be taught at schools. According to Goleman (1995), emotional competencies are not innate talents and it is possible to learn and develop them or teach them if people bother to work on them (p. 35). It can thus be suggested that students' emotional intelligence can be improved through education.

After having defined what is meant by emotional intelligence with an overall theoretical background, it is now necessary to describe the models of emotional intelligence. The following is an outline of Goleman's model of emotional intelligence.

### **Goleman's Model of Emotional Intelligence**

Goleman created a mixed model of emotional intelligence based on five domains as follows:

#### ***a. Self-awareness (knowing one's emotions)***

According to Goleman, self-awareness is perhaps the core of emotional intelligence. Self-awareness includes recognizing your feelings as they are and putting them into words and noticing the links between thoughts, feelings and reactions (Goleman, 1995, p. 303).

Everybody needs to know their strengths and weaknesses and these are somehow related with emotional intelligence. Additionally, people with high self-awareness can understand the causes of their feelings, probably in a more accurate way (p. 283). “People with greater certainty about their feelings are better pilots of their lives, having a surer sense of how they feel about personal decisions from whom to marry to what job to take” (Goleman, 1995, p. 43).

***b. Self-regulation (managing emotions in one’s self):***

Managing emotions is “an attempt to manage mood” (Goleman, 1995, p. 57). Thus, this domain is related with controlling your emotions according to the circumstances. People with poor self-regulation tend to experience feelings of distress all the time and probably fail in soothing their anxiety (p. 43).

***c. Self- motivation (motivating oneself)***

Self-motivation was regarded as one of the dimensions of emotional intelligence. It can be defined as “the marshalling of feelings of enthusiasm, zeal, and confidence” (p. 78) moving towards a goal. According to Goleman, hope and optimism are really great motivators. Individuals who have hope for their goals, and those that are more optimistic can cope with difficult challenges or obstacles and they tend to be less depressed (p. 87-88).

***d. Empathy***

The domain of emotional intelligence is concerned with understanding other people’s feelings and taking their perspectives. Daniel Goleman (1995, p. 96) states “the key to intuiting another’s feelings is in the ability to read nonverbal channels: tone of voice, gesture, facial expression, and the like”. Briefly, Goleman (1995) attends to nonverbal emotional messages far more than verbal ones for readings emotions of other people (p. 97). Additionally, the higher self-awareness individuals have for their own emotions, the more skilled they are at reading others’ feelings (p. 96).

***e. Handling relationships***

Handling relationships is the fifth and the last domain of emotional intelligence described by Goleman. This is related with managing others’ emotions and establishing good relationships with them. Handling relationships is “the ability to know another’s feelings



and to act in a way that further shapes those feelings. Being able to manage emotions in someone else is the core of the art of handling relationships.” (Goleman, 1995, p. 112). Goleman also states that in order to be good at handling relationships, people need to be good at two other emotional skills: self-regulation and empathy (p. 12).

After having given an overall description of Goleman’s model of emotional intelligence, it is useful to move on to Salovey and Mayer’s model of emotional intelligence.

### **Salovey and Mayer’s Model of Emotional Intelligence**

Salovey and Mayer (1997, p. 10) defines emotional intelligence as follows:

Emotional intelligence involves the ability to perceive accurately, appraise, and express emotion; the ability to access and/or generate feelings when they facilitate thought; the ability to understand emotion and emotional knowledge; and the ability to regulate emotions to promote emotional and intellectual growth.

Peter Salovey and John D. Mayer’s model of emotional Intelligence (Mayer and Salovey, 1997, p. 10-14) involves four main branches. The first branch, perceiving emotion, is the ability to recognize emotions in oneself and other people and other objects like pictures, stories and music. It also involves expressing emotions since emotional perception requires deciphering emotional messages and inputting verbal and nonverbal information about them. The second branch is about the use of emotion to facilitate thought. It focuses on cognitive processes such as reasoning, problem solving and decision making. The third branch concerns the ability to understand emotions, label emotions with words and to use emotional knowledge. The fourth branch, emotional management is the ability to regulate the emotions consciously to promote emotional and personal growth. Their model of emotional intelligence that has four branches can be seen in Table 1 given below.

Table 1

*The Four-Branch Model of Emotional Intelligence*

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*Emotional Perception and Expression*

Ability to identify emotion in one's physical and psychological states  
Ability to identify emotion in other people  
Ability to express emotions accurately and to express needs related to them  
Ability to discriminate between accurate/honest and inaccurate/dishonest feelings

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*Emotional Facilitation of Thought (Using Emotions)*

Ability to redirect and prioritize thinking on the basis of associated feelings  
Ability to generate emotions to facilitate judgment and memory  
Ability to capitalize on mood changes to appreciate multiple points of view  
Ability to use emotional states to facilitate problem solving and creativity

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*Emotional Understanding*

Ability to understand relationships among various emotions  
Ability to perceive the causes and consequences of emotions  
Ability to understand complex feelings, emotional blends, and contradictory states  
Ability to understand transitions among emotions

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*Emotional Management*

Ability to be open to feelings, both pleasant and unpleasant  
Ability to monitor and reflect on emotions  
Ability to engage, prolong, or detach from an emotional state  
Ability to manage emotions in oneself  
Ability to manage emotions in others

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(After Mayer & Salovey, 1997, as cited in, Caruso, 2008)

As it can be seen in Table 1, the four branches are arranged from relatively easier skills to more sophisticated or psychologically integrated processes. People who have high emotional intelligence are expected to progress through those abilities or master them more quickly (Mayer & Salovey, 1997, p. 10).

After having provided some information about two important models of emotional intelligence above, it would be useful to look at Bar-On's model of emotional intelligence.

### **Bar-On's Model of Emotional Intelligence**

According to Reuven Bar On (2007), emotionally and socially intelligent people are aware of their own feelings and the needs of other people and they are able to maintain mutually satisfying relationships. Coping with immediate situations more flexibly, they can manage personal, social environmental change in an effective way. To do this, they need to be optimistic and motivate themselves (p. 2). The Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQ-i) is a self-report measure of emotionally and socially intelligent behaviour. It includes 133 items and employs a five-point Likert type scale. The responses range from 'very seldom or not true of me' to 'very often true of me or true of me'. The EQ-i renders a total EQ

score and scores on following five EQ composite scales that consist of 15 subscale scores: Intrapersonal (self-regard, emotional self-awareness, assertiveness, independence, and self actualization); Interpersonal( empathy, social responsibility and interpersonal relationship); Stress management (stress tolerance and impulse control); Adaptability ( reality testing, flexibility, problem-solving) and General Mood ( optimism and happiness) (Bar-on, 2006). From the following table, it can be seen that Bar-On’s EQ-I scales and what they are to assess.

Table 2

*The EQ-i Scales and What They Assess*

EQ-i SCALES	The EI competency assessed by each scale
<i>Intrapersonal</i>	
Self-regard	To accurately perceive, understand and accept oneself.
Emotional self-awareness	To be aware of and understand one’s emotions and feelings.
Assertiveness	To effectively and constructively express one’s feelings.
Independence	To be self-reliant and free of emotional dependency on others.
Self-actualization	To strive to achieve personal goals and actualize one’s potential.
<i>Interpersonal</i>	
Empathy	To be aware of and understand how others feel.
Social responsibility	To identify with one’s social group and cooperate with others.
Interpersonal relationship	To establish mutually satisfying relationships and relate well with others.
<i>Stress Management</i>	
Stress tolerance	To effectively and constructively manage emotions
Impulse control	To effectively and constructively control emotions.
<i>Adaptability</i>	
Reality testing	To objectively validate one’s feelings and thinking with external reality
Flexibility	To adapt and adjust one’s feelings and thinking to new situations
Problem-solving	To effectively solve problems of a personal and interpersonal nature.
<i>General Mood</i>	
Optimism	To be positive and look at the brighter side of life.
Happiness	To feel content with oneself, others and life in general.

(Bar-On, 2007, p. 4)

As indicated in Table 2, Bar-On’s model of emotional intelligence consists of five main domains: Intrapersonal, interpersonal, stress management, adaptability and general mood.

Before proceeding to provide the recent studies about emotional intelligence, there is one final emotional intelligence model that the researcher believes is crucial to mention here.

**Petrides’ Trait Model of Emotional Intelligence**

Due to conceptual confusion, Petrides and Furnham made a distinction between trait emotional intelligence (emotional self-efficacy) and ability emotional intelligence (cognitive emotional ability). The distinction between trait EI and ability EI is primarily

based on the method used to measure the construct, not in the theoretical domains. Trait emotional intelligence is measured via self-report questionnaires while ability EI is measured via maximum-performance tests (Petrides, & Furnham, 2006). That is why Petrides and Furnham suggest that it is vital to understand that trait EI and ability EI are different constructs (2003, p. 40). Petrides, Pita and Kokkinaki (2007) carried out a study to locate trait emotional intelligence in personality factor space. The analyses of the study revealed that trait EI was a distinct compound construct of emotional self-perception that was located at the lower levels of personality hierarchies (Petrides, et al., 2007).

The following table shows an overview of trait emotional intelligence for adults.

Table 3

*The adult sampling domain of trait EI*

Facets	High scores perceive themselves as...
Adaptability	...flexible and willing to adapt to new conditions
Assertiveness	...forthright, frank, and willing to stand up for their rights
Emotion perception (self and others)	...clear about their own and other people's feelings
Emotion expression	...capable of communicating their feelings to others
Emotion management (others)	...capable of influencing other people's feelings
Emotion regulation	...capable of controlling their emotions
Impulsiveness (low)	...reflective and less likely to give in to their urges
Relationships	...capable of maintaining fulfilling personal relationships
Self-esteem	...successful and self-confident
Self-motivation	...driven and unlikely to give up in the face of adversity
Social awareness	...accomplished networkers with excellent social skills
Stress management	...capable of withstanding pressure and regulating stress
Trait empathy	...capable of taking someone else's perspective
Trait happiness	...cheerful and satisfied with their lives
Trait optimism	...confident and likely to "look on the bright side" of life

(Taken from Petrides et al., p. 274, 2007).

***Trait emotional intelligence questionnaire ( TEIQue )***

The latest long version of TEIQue has 153 items, and it provides scores on 15 subscales and four factors and global trait EI. TEIQue is based on the trait EI theory and model. It covers the trait EI sampling domain comprehensively. Some other forms of TEIQue are available like *TEIQue – short form* and *TEIQue child-form* (Petrides, 2011, p. 663-664 ).

Having looked at the models of emotional intelligence, it is useful to present the relevant recent studies about emotional intelligence in the following section.

### **Studies Addressing Emotional Intelligence**

Parker, Summerfeldt, Hogan and Majeski (2004) investigated the relationship between emotional intelligence and academic achievement in the context of transition from high school. 372 young adults (78 male and 294 female) attending a university in Ontario participated in the study. The short form of BarOn Emotional Quotient Inventory was used as the data collection tool. After the students' academic progress was tracked and academic records were obtained, two groups of students were formed: Academically successful students and academically less successful students. At the end of the academic year, the students' emotional intelligence scores were matched with their academic records. The results of the study showed that academic achievement was strongly related with several dimensions of emotional intelligence. Intrapersonal, Stress management and Adaptability subscales were found to predict academic success significantly (Parker, Summerfeldt, Hogan, & Majeski, 2004). Parker et al., (2004) claim that intrapersonal, stress management and adaptability skills are of importance in successful transition from high school to university.

Parker et al., (2004) examined the relationship between emotional intelligence and academic achievement in high school. The sampling consisted of 667 students (304 males, 363 females) attending a high school in Huntsville, Alabama. They were aged between 14 and 18. Participants completed BarOn Emotional Quotient Inventory: Youth Version (EQi: YV). Their academic achievement was tracked by the researchers. At the end of the academic year, students' EQi: YV records were matched with their academic records for the year. The students were categorized into three groups in terms of academic achievement: Highly successful students, moderately successful students and less successful students. The results of the study indicated a strong association between academic achievement and several dimensions of emotional intelligence. Highly successful students had higher levels of interpersonal, adaptability and stress management abilities than the other two groups. Overall emotional intelligence (EI) was found to be significant predictors of academic achievement (Parker et al., 2004).

Petrides, Frederickson and Furnham (2004) conducted a study to look at the role of trait emotional intelligence in academic achievement and deviant behavior of students. The sampling consisted of 650 students in British secondary education. 52 % of students were male participants, 48% of participants were female. Many factors were taken into consideration for the study. The research instruments used for the study were as follows:

Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire (TEIQue), Revised Eysenck Personality Questionnaire, Verbal Reasoning Test. Additionally, Key Stage 3 Assessment results and General Certificate of Secondary Education A–C Marks were obtained. They provided achievement scores for such courses as English, Math and Science. Authorized and unauthorized absences of students were taken into account for the study, as well. Questionnaire battery was applied in class by teachers. The results of the study indicated that trait EI was significantly associated with scholastic success. While trait EI had no significant effect on maths and science, it moderated the influence of IQ on English. Trait EI is more significant for students with low IQ rather than high IQ (Petrides, Frederickson & Furnham, 2004). Trait emotional intelligence is negatively related to unauthorized absences. In short, according to the study, carried out by Petrides and et al. (2004), trait emotional intelligence has relations with academic success and deviant behavior at school particularly for disadvantaged and vulnerable adolescents.

Nelis, Quoidbach, Mikolajczak and Hansenne (2009) carried out a study to find out whether it was possible to improve emotional intelligence in the sample of young adults. They used a controlled experimental design. 37 participants were included in the study: 19 of them belonged to the training group and 18 participants were in the control group. The French version of the Trait Emotional Intelligence Questionnaire was used as a primary research instrument to evaluate the effectiveness of the intervention. Additionally, various measures were used to assess different dimensions of EI independently (Nelis, Quoidbach, Mikolajczak, & Hansenne, 2009). Four sessions of two and half hours were held over a 4-week period for the EI intervention. All of the measures were completed three times: Before the first session, at the end of the fourth session and 6 months later to be able evaluate the long-term effect of training. A significant increase was found to be in some emotional skills, which are emotion identification and emotion management in the training group. However, some emotional skills were not improved as in the case of emotional understanding. One of the most noteworthy results of the study was that the improvements in EI had long term effect because they remained permanent at the end of 6 months (Nelis et al., 2009).

Marquez, Martin and Brackett (2006) examined whether EI was related to social competencies and whether it was a predictor of school success. They also intended to assess the discriminant validity of EI comparing it with the Big Five Personality Traits and verbal intelligence. The study was performed in a semi-private high school Cadiz, in Spain.

77 participants (38 female and 39 male) were involved in the study. *Mayer, Salovey Caruso Emotional Intelligence Test* was used in its Spanish version to measure participants' emotional intelligence. The other research instruments were as follows: *Big Five Questionnaire, Factorial General Intelligence, Social-Cognitive Attitudes and Strategies, Official school records*. The results of the study reveal the association between EI and pro-social behavior and academic achievement in high school setting in Spain.

A research study was undertaken by Jacobs, Kemp and Mitchell (2008) to understand teachers' emotional-social intelligence and how they cope with change in academic settings. Both quantitative and qualitative research methods were adopted for their study. They developed their own research instruments, one of which was based on Bar-On Emotional-Social Intelligence. What is interesting about their research is that the survey was applied to students as an assignment, which was considered as a limitation in their study. Scenarios about teachers in various typical stressful situations where they were supposed to cope with learners' emotional problems were used to elicit qualitative data. Students were expected to assess teachers' behavior in the given scenarios and offer solutions. Nevertheless, the qualitative results obtained through the scenarios turned out to be un-usable because of missing responses or invalid responses. The sampling comprised 229 males and 992 females. Gender was not taken into account in the data analysis process, though. The results of the study indicate that teachers do not possess sufficient self - and social awareness to be able to understand their students' social or emotional needs in case of educational changes and they lack stress management skills in the classroom. The results of the study carried out by Jacobs, Kemp and Mitchell (2008) point to the necessity of emotional support that teachers require for their own well-being and for being able to meet the emotional demands of their students.

Ghanizadeh and Moafian (2009) set out a study in order to examine the role of EFL teachers' emotional intelligence in their success. Additionally, Ghanizadeh and Moafian (2009) looked at the relation of teachers' teaching experience year and age with emotional intelligence. 89 EFL teachers, aged between 20 and 45 years old, were selected for the study from different language institutes in Mashhad, in Iran. This comprised the first participant group. Their experience level ranged between 1 and 20 years of experience. The second participant group included 826 EFL learners (students of the selected teachers). Bar-On's test was used to measure the teachers' emotional intelligence levels. The second data collection tool, used to evaluate teachers' performance, was the 'Characteristics of

successful EFL teachers' questionnaire, prepared by Moafian and Pishghadam. The students were asked to fill in the questionnaire. The results of the study showed that there was a significant positive relationship between teachers' emotional intelligence level and their success. The researcher found a positive correlation between emotional intelligence and year of teaching experience in addition to age. Thus, according to Ghanizadeh and Moafian (2009), EFL teachers' emotional intelligence levels are likely to increase over time and with experience.

Hassan, Sulaiman and Ishak (2009) conducted a study, consisting of 223 secondary school students in a rural area school as participants, who are 13 and 16 years old. They aimed to investigate the relation of emotional intelligence with the level of anxiety and academic success. They employed Schutte Self-Report of Emotional Intelligence to measure emotional intelligence and Beck Anxiety Inventory to measure the anxiety level of the participants. The study showed that there was no significant relationship between the emotional intelligence level of 13 year-old students and 16 year-old students. Nevertheless, the study revealed significant difference between emotional intelligence level of 13 year-old female students and 16 year-old female students. In addition, the results of the study demonstrated that the mean scores of female students' emotional intelligence were higher than male students' emotional intelligence levels. There is a significantly negative relationship between emotional intelligence level of students and their anxiety levels. Thus, anxiety was regarded as an indicator of low emotional intelligence. Furthermore, the results of the study indicated that there was a significant negative relation between students' anxiety levels and their academic achievement.

In 2009, Pishghadam carried out a correlational study to examine the role of emotional intelligence in second language learning. 508 second- year students, majoring in English language and literature, translation, and teaching departments in four universities in Iran participated in his study. The sampling was made up of 374 female students and 134 males. They were asked to complete Bar-On Emotional Intelligence Inventory. The role of emotional intelligence was examined in students' GPA, reading, listening, speaking and writing skills. The results of the study indicated that total EQ and its subscales were poor predictors of second language learning. However, some subscales were found to be significant predictors of GPA, writing, reading and speaking. The subscales *intrapersonal*, *stress management* and *general mood* were found to be important for GPA; stress management, adaptability, and general mood were significant for reading; Intrapersonal



and stress management were found to be important factors for listening; Intrapersonal, interpersonal, general mood for speaking; finally stress management and adaptability were significant for writing.

Nasir and Masrur (2010) carried out a study consisting of 132 participants, aged between 18 and 35 years old. The participants were studying in different departments at International Islamic University Islamabad in Pakistan. Fifty percent of the participants were female and the other half consisted of male students. The study aimed to determine whether there was a relationship between emotional intelligence of students and their gender, age, and academic achievement. Nasir and Masrur (2010) used BarOn Emotional Quotient Inventory (EQi) to measure emotional intelligence. According to the results of their study, emotional intelligence was found to be a significant predictor of academic achievement. Nevertheless, the study revealed no significant correlation between age and emotional intelligence. Additionally, there was no difference in the mean EQi scores of male and female students except one subscale, which was stress management. Male students scored higher in stress management subscale than female students did (Nasir & Masrur, 2010).

In 2011, Quarles and Cole published an article entitled *teacher know, thyself*. Their study focused on the importance of teachers' awareness of EI in themselves and their students. In a sense, they reflected on Goleman's (1995) emotional intelligence categories: self-awareness, self-regulation, self-motivation, social awareness, and social skills. Quarles and Cole (2011) suggest that teachers should have more emotional intelligence and increase their awareness so that they can help their students to be more emotionally intelligent.

Koçoğlu (2011) carried out a research study at a foundation university in Turkey to examine the relationship between emotional intelligence and teacher efficacy. 90 English language pre-service teachers (79 female and 11 male) participated in the study. Participants ranged from 18 to 22 years of age. The Bar-On Emotional Quotient Inventory and Teachers' Sense of Efficacy Scale developed by Tschannen-Moran and Woolfolk-Hoy in 2001 were used as data collection tools for the study. According to the results of the study, a significant positive correlation was found between total EQ and self-efficacy beliefs. Thus, the more the self-efficacy pre-service teachers have, the higher the level of their emotional intelligence is. Koçoğlu (2011) found that the greatest correlation existed between the interpersonal subscale and the efficacy for student engagement subscale. Nevertheless, the adaptability scale and stress management scale scores (belonging to EQ

inventory) did not have significant relations with any subscales. The pre-service teachers with higher levels of emotional intelligence and a higher sense of self-efficacy are more inclined to engage in a wider variety of learning activities and strategies. Teachers with higher levels of EQ and self-efficacy beliefs possibly have higher self-awareness, which could contribute to their motivating and helping students emotionally.

In their study, Roy, Sinha and Suman (2013) firstly attempted to investigate the relationship between emotional intelligence and academic achievement motivation. The second objective of their study was to study the emotional intelligence of students with high, average and low academic achievement motivation. The sample of the study consisted of 105 students (48 males, 57 females). According to the results of their study, there is low positive correlation between emotional intelligence and academic achievement motivation. For male participants, there is a positive correlation between emotional intelligence and high, average and low levels of academic achievement motivation. However, in case of female students, the study found a negative correlation between emotional intelligence scores and high and low level of academic achievement motivation while average level of academic achievement motivation is positively correlated with emotional intelligence.

Topaloğlu (2014) conducted a study to define the relationship between students' emotional intelligence and age, family income, department factors. She utilized from the descriptive review model to be able to depict the relationship. Emotional Intelligence Scale, developed by Schutte et al. (1998) was used as a data collection tool in her study. The sampling consisted of 128 freshmen randomly chosen from Trakya University Keşan Vocational School. The results of the study show that there is not a significant relationship between the total emotional intelligence scores of students, their departments, age groups and family income. Nevertheless, there seems to be a meaningful difference the sub-dimension "understanding emotions" and departments.

So far, the chapter has reviewed the literature on emotional intelligence and some models of it briefly. However, the present study has two dimensions as already stated. One is emotional intelligence; the other is the speech acts of requests. Thus, the chapter goes on to provide a review of speech acts, which are of great importance to pragmatics, in the following part.

## **Pragmatics**

Pragmatics is an almost new area within linguistics. It became common in the early 1980s and started to appear in linguistics textbooks prevalently. Pragmatics has been defined in various ways so far. First definitions were commonly “meaning in use” or “meaning in context” in short. Relatively recently, pragmatics has come to be used to refer to “speaker meaning” from a social point of view and “utterance meaning” with a cognitive approach (Thomas, 2013, p.1-2). To illustrate with a less general definition, Leech (1983) described pragmatics as “the study of how utterances have meanings in situations” (p. x). Moreover, pragmatics is generally concerned with how context affects linguistic interpretation. It is certainly related to how language is used in communication. Kasper and Rose (2001) have also provided a definition for pragmatics: “the study of communicative action in its sociocultural context” (p. 2). This communicative action included both using speech acts (like apologizing, complaining and requesting) and getting involved in different types of discourse and speech events (Kasper & Rose, 2001, p. 2). Referring to the definitions of pragmatics, one can understand that speech acts are located in the area of pragmatics. As was already stated, every utterance is some kind of speech act. They do acts, they have purposes or functions, called the illocutionary force of a speech act. Since the illocutionary force of a speech act is based on the context of the utterance, speech act theory is included as a part in pragmatics (Fromkin, Rodman & Hyams, 2003, p. 215).

### **Speech Act Theory**

Speech act theory is a crucial concern in the study of pragmatics. Austin can be counted as the initiator of the speech act theory. In his series of lectures, published as *How to Do Things with Words*, Austin (1962, p. 108) suggested that by saying something, one is doing something. For him, communication is a series of *speech acts* that are used systematically to achieve certain purposes. He claimed that all utterances perform actions (or “do something”), they have specific forces in addition to their meanings. Austin classifies them into three categories:

- (i) *locutionary act*: is roughly equivalent to uttering a certain sentence with a certain sense and reference, which again is roughly equivalent to “meaning” in the traditional sense;
- (ii) *illocutionary act*: utterances that have the conventional “force” such as informing, ordering, warning, undertaking etc; and

(iii) *perlocutionary act*: what we bring about or achieve by saying something, such as convincing, persuading, deterring, even surprising or misleading.

(Austin, 1962, p. 108).

In his series of lectures, published as *How to Do Things with Words*, according to Austin (1962, p. 6), to utter a sentence is actually to do it. For instance, when you utter the words “I do” (take this woman to be my lawful wedded wife), during a wedding ceremony, you are actually marrying her rather than just reporting it. Thus, you are doing something. Austin gives paramount importance to circumstances in which the words are uttered. The circumstances or the context should be somehow appropriate. To illustrate briefly, if we are not chosen or authorized to name a ship, we cannot do it. If you do it, let us say, then it will be an irrelevant action- void performance as Austin calls it. Austin (1962, p. 150-162) classifies utterances based on their illocutionary force into five classes:

- (1) Verdictives are about the giving of a verdict by a jury. A finding is delivered as to value or fact, but it does not have to be official. Examples can be counted as estimate, appraise, grade, assess, rank, value...
- (2) Exercitives are typified by the exercising of powers, rights. It is about the giving of a decision in favour or against something. Judges make great use of it. The examples are appointing, commanding, warning, naming, nominating, advising etc.
- (3) Commissives commit the speaker to doing something like promising, undertaking, intending, contracting, vowing, declaring intention etc.
- (4) Behabitives are related to social behavior and attitudes, including the notion of reaction to others' behavior or attitudes. Examples are apologizing, thanking, and complimenting, cursing, criticizing.
- (5) Expositives are acts used in exposition of views, arguments or clarifications, such as informing, identifying, denying, answering, stating, affirming etc.

The speech act of requests that is investigated in the present study belongs to the *behabitives* category that Austin (1962) formed.

It is equally important to mention that Austin made a distinction between constative utterances like statements and performatives. “Performatives” are special sentences which cannot be assessed with respect to their truth or falsity, but they can misfire or go wrong in some other ways, hence being unhappy or infelicitous (p.12-14). As a result, he determined a typology of conditions that performatives must meet. Now, it is fundamental to look at

the felicity conditions because they were later systematized and generalized to the broad category of speech acts by Searle (1969, p. 64-69).

### **Felicity Conditions**

As previously stated, Austin produced a typology of conditions that performative utterances must meet. He called these “felicity conditions” and distinguished three main categories (1962, p. 14-15):

(A.1) There must be an accepted conventional procedure that have a conventional effect.

(A2) The participants and circumstances involved in a certain case must be appropriate.

(B1) The procedure must be executed by the relevant persons correctly and

(B2) completely

(C1) Often the participants must have the required thoughts, feelings and intentions, as specified in the procedure.

(C2) If a consequent conduct is identified, the relevant participants involved in the procedure must do so.

According to Austin (1962), if we do not obey those six rules, our performative utterances will be unhappy or infelicitous (inappropriate) (p. 15). To illustrate the first condition, marriage ceremonies are carried out in a conventional way in most or all cultures. It is realized before an authorized person in an authorized place (Registry Office in Turkey, for example). It requires witnesses etc, thus if any of these conditions are not fulfilled, then the marriage is not legal or valid. Marriage with a monkey is not valid or possible, which can contribute to the clarification of the second conditions. The parties involved in the procedure must be appropriate. As for the third condition that points to the need that the procedure must be executed by the participants correctly, it would be useful to look into the example below:

At a marriage ceremony in Turkey:

Registrar: Sen Mehmet oğlu Kerim, Ahmet kızı Ayşe’yi karılığa kabul ediyor musun? (Translated as “You Kerem, the son of Mehmet, will you take Ayşe, the daughter of Ahmet, as a wife?”).

Groom: Evet (yes).

This is the correct way the registrar is supposed to ask the question “will you take this woman...?” in Turkish culture at a marriage ceremony, otherwise it is not done correctly and not valid.

For the fourth felicity condition, the procedure must be realized step by step in the right order to be complete. An example for the fifth felicity condition can be the shotgun wedding- where one party is forced to marry under pressure. This marriage cannot be legally binding. This condition is one that causes some disagreements as Thomas (2013, p. 39) claims. For the last felicity condition, Thomas (2013) gives Henry VIII's fourth marriage as an example. He states that on the grounds of non-consummation, his marriage to Anne of Cleves was declared null (p. 39). Consummation is taken as a subsequent conduct for marriage in the given example.

Searle has contributed to speech act theory a great deal, as well; thus, it is vital to mention his taxonomy here. However, it should be clarified that the term *speech act* has come to refer exclusively to the illocutionary act in time. Searle (1979) divides speech acts or illocutionary acts into 5 categories: representatives, such as concluding, deducing; directives, such as requesting, ordering; expressives, such as thanking, apologizing, complimenting; commissives, such as promising, threatening and declaratives, such as declaring war etc(p. 12-29). Requests are included in the directives category in his taxonomy. As requests are one of the main focuses of the present study, it is essential to define it. Searle (1969, p. 66) defines request as a speech act with following felicity conditions:

Table 4

*Request with Felicity Conditions*

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Propositional Content condition:	Future act A of H
Preparatory conditions:	1. <i>H</i> is able to do <i>A</i> . <i>S</i> believes that <i>H</i> is able to do <i>A</i> . 2. It is not obvious to both <i>S</i> and <i>H</i> that he will do <i>A</i> in the normal course of events of his own accord.
Sincerity condition:	<i>S</i> wants <i>H</i> to do <i>A</i> .
Essential condition:	Counts as an attempt to get <i>H</i> to do <i>A</i> .

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(Searle, 1969, p. 66)

As it is obvious in the Table 4, requests are pre-event acts because they express the expectations that the speaker has of the hearer with respect to future action, verbal or non-verbal (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989, p. 11).

Having provided an overall description of the felicity conditions and the definition of the speech act request with its felicity conditions, a further topic to look at is direct and indirect speech acts. As was mentioned in the introduction part earlier, one of the objectives of the present study is to examine the request strategies of the ELT students in terms of directness and indirectness.

### **Direct and Indirect Speech Acts**

It is now essential to mention the distinction of speech acts made on the basis of linguistic structure: direct and indirect speech acts. When there is a direct relationship between the structure and the function of an utterance, then it is a direct speech act. However if there is an indirect relationship between a structure and a function, then it is an indirect speech act since the act is performed indirectly through the performance of another speech act in a way (Yule, 1996, p. 54-55). For instance, a declarative used to make a statement is a direct speech act, but when it is used to make a request, it is an indirect speech act. The utterance “it is cold here”, which is a declarative is a direct speech act if the speaker just tells about the weather. However, if the speaker is making a request of the listener to close the window, then it is an indirect speech act.

What follows is an overview of cross-cultural pragmatics and an outline of The Cross-Cultural Speech Act Realization Project (CCSARP). The coding system adopted for the present study is based on the coding manual used in the CCSARP project, which will be explained in the forthcoming chapters. Hence, now it is useful to look at them, briefly.

### **Cross-Cultural Pragmatics**

Cross-cultural pragmatics is one of the research fields of pragmatics. Cross cultural studies generally focus on speech act realization patterns in various cultures in terms of cross-cultural differences and similarities. For example, cultural breakdown or pragmatic failure could be studied within these studies (Kecskes, 2014, p. 18). Pragmatic failure can be defined by Thomas (1983, p. 91) as “learner’s inability to understand what is meant by what is said”, which can cause a breakdown or misunderstanding in communication between native and non-native speakers. Pragmatic failure may occur when learners transfer linguistic strategies from their native language to the target language intact while they are realizing a speech act. This failure can be even attributed to impoliteness mistakenly. Thus, learners need to improve their pragmatic competence to avoid misunderstandings and to be native-like in their speech act realization patterns (Thomas, 1983, p. 102).

According to Wierzbicka (2003, p. 69), cross-cultural pragmatics field originated for the ideas as follows:

- (1) In different societies, and different communities, people speak differently.
- (2) These differences in ways of speaking are profound and systematic.
- (3) These differences reflect different cultural values, or at least different hierarchies of values.
- (4) Different ways of speaking, different communicative styles, can be explained and made sense of, in terms of independently established different cultural values and cultural priorities.

### **The Cross-Cultural Speech Act Realization Project (CCSARP)**

CCSARP was one of the most extensive attempts to investigate universal or cross-cultural pragmatic rules in speech act realization. Two speech acts were the main concern of the study: requests and apologies. The fact that both speech acts are face threatening acts was perhaps the most important reason why they were chosen for the project. In this project, Blum-Kulka, House and Kasper (1989) investigated patterns of request and apology speech act realizations in different languages and cultures using both native and nonnative speaker data (p. 12). In their book, *Cross-cultural Pragmatics: Requests and Apologies* (1989), Blum-Kulka et al. stated the purposes of the project as follows: The aims of the projects were (1) to examine the similarities and differences in the request and apology speech act realizations across different languages,(2) to examine the influence of social variables within particular cultures, (3), to examine the similarities and differences in speech act realizations of request and apologies for native and non-native speakers of a certain language (p. 12-13). The languages studied for the project included British, American and Australian English, German, Canadian French, Danish, and Hebrew (p. 16). They used a DCT and its translated versions to collect request and apology data for the study. The data analysis was carried out based on a coding scheme. Blum-Kulka et al. (1989) formed a coding manual in which they identified or described different *request* and *apology* realization patterns. The present study employed the CCSARP Coding Manual (Blum-Kulka et al, 1989) as a basis for analyzing the qualitative data collected through the DCT.

After having given some information about cross-cultural pragmatics, there is another field of pragmatics that is vital to mention here as it is relevant to the present study with its focus.

### **Interlanguage Pragmatics and Instruction of Pragmatics**

Interlanguage Pragmatics is referred as “the study of nonnative speaker’s use and acquisition of L2 pragmatic knowledge” (Kasper & Rose, 1999, p. 81). According to



Kasper and Rose (1999), most of the studies done in the area of interlanguage pragmatics deals with L2 use rather than development. According to Bardovi-Harlig (2001, p. 14), the interlanguage pragmatics studies indicate that “even grammatically advanced learners show differences from target-language pragmatic norms.” Bardovi- Harlig offers evidence for four areas where L2 learners and native speakers differ in terms of pragmatics norms. These four areas are identified as the use of speech acts, choice of a different speech act, semantic formula, content or form. Some factors may determine the development of L2 pragmatic competence and probably explain the pragmatic differences between learners and native speakers. These factors are proposed as availability of input, influence of instruction, proficiency, length of exposure and transfer. It is implied that instructed learners may move toward the native- speaker norms more easily than those who do not receive instruction (Bardovi-Harlig, 2011, p. 20-26). According to Rose (2005, p. 386), there are three central questions relevant to the instruction of pragmatics: “Whether pragmatics is teachable, whether instruction in pragmatics produces results that outpace exposure alone, and whether different instructional approaches yield different outcomes.” Rose (2005) suggests that a big part of features of second language pragmatics, such as discourse markers, strategies and speech acts are teachable and it is possible to claim that those that receive instruction are better than those who do not. It is evident that learners who receive no specific instruction in L2 pragmatics have different pragmatic systems than native speakers of the L2, which is the case both in production and comprehension (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001, p. 29).

Pragmatic transfer is one of the main topics of interlanguage studies. It is defined by Kasper (1992) as “the influence exerted by learners’ pragmatic knowledge of languages and cultures other than L2 on their comprehension, production and learning of L2 pragmatic information” (p. 207). Kasper (1992) mentions two types of pragmatic transfer: Positive and negative pragmatic transfer. Evidence for positive pragmatic transfer can be found “where language-specific conventions of usage and use are demonstrably non-universal yet shared between L1 and L2” (p. 212). Negative transfer will occur when “L1-based sociopragmatic and pragmalinguistic knowledge [are] projected onto L2 contexts and [differ] from the pragmatic perceptions and behaviors of the target community” (p. 213).

As was mentioned previously, one part of the present study focuses on the pragmatic competence of the ELT students regarding their speech acts of requests. Their requests are

assessed through a rating scale in terms of their politeness in addition to appropriateness, which will be explained in the forthcoming chapter. Hence, both the preparation of the rating scale and the rating process lead the researcher to forming a theoretical basis and giving information about politeness in pragmatics. In this case, what follows is a brief description of politeness theory and some background information.

### **Politeness Theory**

Brown and Levinson's (1987) politeness theory is regarded as the most effective one among the other politeness theories. It is based on the concept "face" as proposed by Goffman in 1967. Face is the public self-image of a person in a way. During an interaction face can "be lost, maintained, or enhanced, and must be constantly attended to" (Brown & Levinson, p. 61). If a speaker utters something that can be regarded as a threat to another person's self image, it is called a face threatening act. Most speech acts are "face threatening acts" (FTAs). Requests are face threatening acts because the hearer can interpret them as a pressure or impediment on freedom of action (Brown & Levinson, 1978, p. 65-66).

Brown and Levinson (1987) characterized two types of face: positive and negative. An individual's positive face is the desire or the need to be accepted, respected and appreciated by others. A person's negative face is reflected in the need to be independent and not to be imposed on by others (p. 61-62). Brown and Levinson (1994, p. 101-227) contends that the first point to consider is whether a speaker decides to perform a face threatening act or not and if he/she decides to perform a FTA, there are 5 superstrategies that can be used:

- 1. Bald-on record: FTA is performed in a direct and concise way without any redress. The speaker generally chooses this usage whenever he wants to the FTA with maximum efficiency more than he wants to satisfy the hearer's face. It can be stated that the hearer is directly asked for something. Imperative forms are the most prominent ones that are used with this strategy. Examples are:

Watch out!

Don't forget us!

Help!

Have some more cake!

Leave it to me!

• 2. Positive Politeness: FTA is performed with redress. It is oriented to the hearer's positive face, his desire to be liked or approved of. Strategies indicating common ground or cooperation, such as in jokes or offers or using in-group identity markers or slangs and exaggerative use of words can be regarded in this category. Examples are:

Goodness, you cut your hair! (...) By the way, I came to borrow some flour.

How absolutely marvellous!

Come here, buddy!

• 3. Negative Politeness: FTA is performed with redressive action. Strategies oriented towards negative face of the hearer, his want to have his freedom of action.

e.g. Can you please pass the salt?

I am looking for a comb.

• 4. Off-record: FTA is performed off-record. If it is not possible to attribute a certain intention to the act, then it is done off-record because the act has more than one interpretation. If the speaker wants to do a FTA but does not want to take any responsibility for it, he can do it off record. Giving hints, association clues, understatement or overstatement, using tautologies, contradictions, metaphors, irony, asking rhetorical questions, ambiguity, etc. are involved in this category.

What a hot day! (Open the window.)

War is war.

Harry is a real fish.

5. Avoidance: FTA is not performed.

Turning now to politeness, it is also worth noting the contributions of Leech (1983), who suggests that politeness appears to be focused more strongly on other than self and negative politeness is more important than positive politeness (p. 133).

Leech (1983) pays attention to interpersonal rhetoric and considers the Politeness Principle as part of the principles for interpersonal rhetoric. He presents six maxims for the Politeness Principle:

- Tact maxim: Minimize the cost to other. Maximize the benefit to other.
- Generosity maxim: Minimize benefit to self. Maximize cost to self.
- Approbation maxim: Minimize dispraise of other. Maximize praise of other.
- Modesty maxim: Minimize praise of self. Maximize dispraise of self.
- Agreement maxim: Minimize disagreement between self and other.  
Maximize agreement between self and other.

- Sympathy maxim: Minimize antipathy between self and other. Maximize sympathy between self and other (Leech, 1983, p. 132-139).

In 2014, Leech published a new book named *The Pragmatics of Politeness* and provided a restatement of the principle of politeness, which the author calls “General Strategy of Politeness”: So as to be polite, the speaker gets across or implies meanings that associate a favorable value for the addressee/s or that associate an unfavorable value pertaining to the speaker’s own self (Leech, 2014, p. 90).

Before proceeding, it is highly necessary to mention conversational maxims of Grice here as they are relevant to the topic. They are somehow based on his cooperative principle. As Yule (1996, p. 35) states, speakers and listeners are mostly cooperating with each other during a conversation. In “Logic and conversation”, Grice proposes four conversational maxims which tend to reflect some general rules that participants are expected to observe in a talk (Grice, 1975, p. 45-46):

Quantity:

1. Make your contribution as informative as required (for the current purposes of exchange).
2. Do not make your contribution more informative than required.

Quality: try to make your contribution one that is true.

1. Do not say what you believe to be false
2. Do not say that for which you lack adequate evidence

Relation: Be relevant.

Manner:

1. Avoid obscurity of expression
2. Avoid ambiguity.
3. Be brief (avoid unnecessary prolixity).
4. Be orderly.

According to Grice (1975), the speaker can fail to fulfill a maxim in different ways: flouting, violating, infringing, and opting out (p. 30). Flouting occurs when a participant blatantly fails to observe a maxim. Violation of a maxim is the unostentatious non-observance of a maxim. So violating a maxim will cause the speaker to be liable to mislead (p. 30). When a speaker opts out from a maxim, he may state that he is not willing to cooperate in the way the maxim requires. To exemplify, he may say “I cannot say more, my lips are sealed”. If the non observance of a maxim occurs because of imperfect

linguistic performance with no intention of generating a conversational implicature, then the speaker infringes the maxim.

A: Where does C live?

B: Somewhere in the South of France.

The maxim of quantity is violated above.

After having given some information about politeness and Grice's conversational maxims, the researcher believes that providing a brief overview of relevance theory might contribute to the understanding of the students' choices of speech act realization patterns.

### **Relevance Theory**

Relevance theory is predicated on the concept of relevance and two principles of relevance: Cognitive principle and Communicative principle. According to Sperber and Wilson, who proposed relevance theory, relevance theory mainly, claims that "the expectations of relevance raised by an utterance are precise enough, and predictable enough, to guide the hearer towards the speaker's meaning." (Wilson & Sperber, 2004, p. 607). The concept of relevance refers to a potential attribute of both utterances like other phenomena that can be observed, and thoughts, memories and conclusions of inferences. Since seeking relevance is a basic feature of human cognition, expectations of relevance are raised by utterances (Wilson & Sperber, 2004, p. 608). When an input such as a sight, a sound, an utterance, a memory is connected with an individual's background information, which is already available to deduce conclusions that matter to him, the input is regarded as relevant to the individual (Sperber and Wilson, 1995, §3.1–2, as cited in Wilson and Sperber, 2004, p. 608). A conclusion deduced from both the input and context together is the most significant type of cognitive effect produced by processing an input in a context, which is called contextual implication (Wilson, & Sperber, 2004, p. 608). Relevance is more of a matter of degree. This degree of relevance is ruled by contextual effects and processing effort. The more contextual effects, the more relevant the input is. Similarly, the less effort it takes to process the input, the more relevant the input is (p. 609). The hearer chooses the context for interpreting the utterance because the speaker has the assumption of which facts are accessible for the hearer and speaks accordingly (Cutting, 2002, p. 43). One of the most important claims of relevance theory is that humans tend to maximize relevance automatically because the evolution of human cognitive required it (Wilson &

Sperber, p. 610). The communicative principle of the relevance theory is the claim that “every ostensive stimulus conveys a presumption of its own optimal relevance.” (p. 612). A presumption of relevance is formed by an overt stimulus in a way. An ostensive stimulus satisfies the optimal relevance to an audience when it is sufficiently relevant to be worth the processing effort of the audience and when it has the highest level of relevance complying with the abilities and choices of communicator (Wilson & Sperber, 2004, p. 612). Some limitations are mentioned for the relevance theory by various authors. A crucial one is that relevance theory does not say much about real communicative interaction and does not attend to social dimensions such as nationality and status (Mey, & Talbot, 1989, as cited in Mey, 2001, p. 87).

A further important topic to mention is the term register. People speak differently to their family than they do to their bosses. In the same way, they are likely to speak differently to their friends than to their colleagues. These are related with the term register. In the present study, the participants utter their speech acts to different interlocutors. Therefore, it is essential to give some information about the term register here.

### **Register**

For an effective communication, it is important to use the right language style or register not just in a foreign language, but in one’s native language. Otherwise, the talk of speaker could be perceived as rude or inappropriate. It might be hard even for native speakers of a language to have the right language style. Therefore, it might be a problematic issue sometimes for EFL learners, as well. According to Halliday (1978), the linguistic situations are different from one another, generally in three ways: “what is actually taking place; secondly, who is taking part; and thirdly, what part the language is playing” (p. 31). These variables mark the meanings and forms of the expressions that are used, thus determining register. The types of the situations determine the language individuals speak and write (p. 31-32). Halliday suggests that register is characterized by what a person is speaking and what he speaks is affected by what he is doing at the time (Halliday, 1978, p. 110).

Ferguson (1994, p. 20) views register as a communication situation repeated in a society regularly with reference to participants, setting, communicative functions etc in such a way that participants develop particular language patterns and language uses that become identified or peculiar to that communication situation in time. Looking at the definition of

Ferguson, it is possible to claim that he perceives register as the situation itself. Furthermore, Ferguson (1994, p. 20) suggests that people who are in reoccurring communication situations are likely to use similar vocabulary, similar intonation, and similar syntactical and phonological patterns in those situations. Register is marked as a result of those registral features that enhance communication speed and provide support for the relationship, too. A relationship between text and context is implied in register (Biber, & Finegan, p. 7, 1994).

In the light of previous research, the following part addresses the relevant studies about pragmatic competence and the speech acts of requests.

### **Studies about Pragmatic Competence and Speech acts**

Blum-Kulka (1987) re-examined indirectness and politeness notions in requests. Two types of experiments were conducted for the aim of tapping perceptions of indirectness and politeness. The semantic formula developed within the CCSARP was utilized for both types of experiments. Four groups of native speakers of Hebrew and English took part in the experiments. Subjects were given with the description of five situations, each followed by nine utterances, which represented a different request strategy. In experiment 1 and 2, 45 Hebrew and 45 English request realization patterns were rated on their directness by subjects. In experiment 2 and 4, the same 45 utterances were rated in terms of their politeness level by the native speakers of Hebrew and English. Those 45 utterances used in Hebrew and English were elicited from the request data obtained through the CCSARP. The external and internal modifications like hedge, politeness marker (please), were not involved in the utterances to guarantee that the judgments of directness and politeness would be associated with only request strategy types. According to the results of the study, the query preparatory categorized as conventional indirect requests was rated as the most polite while the most direct strategy (mood derivable) was rated as the least polite in both Hebrew and English. However, the most indirect strategies (hints) were not perceived as the highest level in politeness.

In 1993, Cohen and Olsthain reported on a study that described ways in which nonnative speakers assessed, planned and executed speech acts in given situations. 15 English foreign-language learners at advanced level (ten female and five male) participated in the study. The subjects were firstly asked to fill in a short background questionnaire and then given six situations of speech acts (two apologies, two complaints, and two requests) in a written

way on cards. Later, they were asked to role play along with a native speaker. Videotape records were held along the interaction. The subjects were asked questions about the factors that influenced their responses about the situations, as well. Data analysis of the retrospective verbal reports was performed. According to the results of the study (Cohen & Olsthain, 1993), only in a third of the situations were the subjects observed to plan their speech act utterances and they often thought in two languages and while planning and performing their speech act utterances. They sometimes thought even in three languages during the time that they planned and executed their utterances. They benefited from different strategies when they were searching for language forms that they needed. Furthermore, they did not pay much attention to grammar or pronunciation.

In 1995, Mir carried out a study to investigate the role of social context in request performances. 104 undergraduate university students took part in the study. There were three groups of participants involved in the study. One group consisted of 37 native Spanish speakers; another group included 34 native speakers of English. 33 Spanish native speakers learning English (at advanced or high-intermediate level) as a foreign language formed the last group. The participants were given 24 situations and expected to produce requests in response to those situations. The researcher collected information about the language backgrounds of the students via a short questionnaire. An open-ended written questionnaire and a metapragmatic assessment questionnaire were utilized to elicit the data for the study. The study results indicated the highest correlation in power social variable ranking for all three groups, and the lowest correlation in the familiarity rankings. The groups tended to perform requests similarly in the contexts, characterized by the type of the power relationships between the interlocutors. For instance, the highest percentage of direct requests occurred for the three groups when the speaker was in a more powerful status ( Mir, 1995, p. 109).

In 1997, Francis published an article in which she looked at the development of pragmatic competence in adult non-native speakers of English in three settings along nine proficiency levels. The settings were reported as a university public administrative office, the private office of a university program officer, and a second language classroom of English. 29 university students with different cultural and linguistic backgrounds participated in the study. Data were collected through observation, audio recording and sometimes video recording. The request data were coded for both speaker characteristics such as gender and sociolinguistic features like directness, downgraders, upgraders etc. The results of the



study indicated predominant use of directives in all three settings. Eighty percent of the directives were want statements. The rest of the directives were mood derivable with few exceptions. Directives comprised 69 % of the request data while conventionally indirect speech acts were used with a percentage of % 18 and non-conventional indirect requests corresponded to a percentage of % 13. One noteworthy result was that intermediate students performed conventionally indirect speech acts twice as many as elementary students did. The results of the study enhance the claim that the more advanced the level of the students, the higher pragmatic development occurs (Francis, 1997).

For a research study, Katleen Bardovi-Harlig and Zoltan Dörnyei (1998) worked with 543 learners of English in Hungary and the US along with their teachers (Number = 53) and 112 EFL speakers in Italy. They aimed to explore to which extent instructed L2 learners of English have the awareness of the differences between learners' and target- language production in grammar and pragmatics. A contextualized pragmatic and grammatical judgment task in a video format was used as the research instrument. The researchers tested participants, giving them 20 scenarios in video format. The results showed that EFL learners and teachers ranked grammatical errors more serious than pragmatic errors whereas ESL learners and teachers behaved in an opposite way. One of the most striking results of the study was that the grammatical scenes were rated significantly lower by the students with high proficiency compared with low-proficiency students.

Macaulay (2001) carried out an interesting study and examined interviewing to look at the differences between male and female speakers in terms of requests used in interviews. 23 interviews performed by four interviewers (two female, two male, three Canadian, one American) comprised the research data. They were topical and political interviews on television and radio. 1435 speech acts, 935 of which were direct and indirect requests for information were investigated by Macaulay (2001). The results of the study show that male interviewers use direct strategies more frequently than female speakers while female interviewers use indirect requests with a higher frequency than male speakers do. Furthermore, female speakers are more polite and provocative in their indirect request forms than the males do.

Economidou-Kogetsidis (2002) carried out an interesting study and examined cross-cultural differences in requests in terms of directness between Greek native speakers and British English native speakers within the context of telephone business encounters. The telephone opening requests, uttered by callers at the call centre of a British airline in the

South of England comprised the research data. Requests for reservations and some flight information like flight availability, price, time, destinations were the concern of the study. 200 requests (100 Greek and 100 opening requests performed by Greek native speakers and 100 opening requests produced by English native speakers) were obtained within five months and fieldnote records were held for them. Semi-structured interviews were conducted to be insightful about how the telephone operators (hearers) perceived the request behavior of the callers. The sample consisted of one hundred Greek callers (46 female and 54 male) and one hundred English callers (54 female and 46 male). A coding scheme based on CCSARP (Blum-Kulka, et al., 1989) was developed. The data analysis of requests for information was performed on a separate directness scale. The results of the study indicated that there were significant differences between Greek native speakers and English native speakers' requests in terms of directness and strategies. The Greek native speakers used more direct request strategies like mood derivable, hedged performative, want statement than English native speakers did. English native speakers favored query preparatory like particularly ability strategies classified as conventional indirectness (Economidou-Kogetsidis, 2002).

Soler (2002) reported on the results of a study, conducted to be able to understand the influence of teacher-led versus learners' interaction on pragmatic competence in an EFL setting. The sampling consisted of 24 Spanish students, whose age ranged from 18 to 34. They were third-grade bachelor students majoring in English Studies at a university. Students were divided into two groups of 12 people, who were instructed on the use of request strategies. Four non-native English teachers were also included in the study. Pre-test and post-tests were utilized in the study. The results of the study revealed no significant difference between two groups (peer interaction and teacher-students interaction) regarding pragmatic competence in requests despite some qualitative differences in post-test. However, students' perception of learning is higher in teacher-led interaction. The study carried out by Soler (2002) enhances the claim that pragmatic competence can develop through assisted performance.

Hassall (2003) conducted a research study to compare the requests performed by Australian speakers of Indonesian with the requests of native Indonesian speakers. The sampling consisted of 20 learners (thirteen female and seven male), studying in an undergraduate program at an Australian University in Bahasa Indonesia and 18 native Indonesian speakers (nine males and nine females) from different departments at an

Australian University. Interactive oral role play was employed as the data collection tool. A total of 24 request situations were selected for the study. The subjects were expected to role play 12 or 13 out of them with an Indonesian native speaker partner. Audio-records were used for the process. The results of the study indicate that learners and native speakers of Indonesian make use of the same range of nine request types which are categorized under direct, conventionally indirect and non-conventionally indirect sub-strategies. Both groups favor the query preparatory, categorized as conventional indirectness, most frequently. Nevertheless, learners of Indonesian used want statements and hint statements far more frequently than native speakers of Indonesian did.

The study carried out by Taquchi (2006) is relevant to the present study. In her study, Taquchi (2006) looked at the appropriateness of L2 speech act production of Japanese college students of English. The sampling consisted of twenty native speakers of English and 59 Japanese learners of English in Japan. The learners were divided into two proficiency groups based on their institutional scores of Test of English as a Foreign Language (TOEFL) and teacher ratings. A role-play task was developed for students to produce appropriate speech act of requests. The appropriateness of the speech acts performed by students was measured by six native speakers of English with a six-point rating scale. Additionally, the research data were analyzed linguistically based on the CCSARP framework (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989). The results of the study indicated a significant difference between higher and lower L2 groups in terms of appropriateness scores.

Otcu and Zeyrek (2008) carried out a study on Turkish learners of English about the development of requests at Middle East Technical University in Ankara. The request data were collected from learners with low proficiency, learners with high proficiency, English native speakers and Turkish native speakers. Three request situations ( a note, a menu, and a ride situation) were used. Otcu and Zeyrek (2008) adopted a cross-sectional design and used interactive role-play for the data collection method for the learner data. Lower-intermediate group included 19 learners whose age ranged from 17 to 19. The upper-intermediate group involved 31 students, between the ages of 18 to 20. Two native speakers of American English were asked to interact with students. Videotape records of their dialogues were held. Student performed the role-play one by one, not in a whole group. A DCT was used to collect English native speaker data from 13 native speakers of English, who were either master's or doctorate students at Colombia University. The same

DCT in its Turkish version was applied to 50 undergraduate Turkish students, attending the Foreign Language Education Department of Middle East Technical University. The data were coded based on the CCSARP coding manual (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989). Among many others, one of the results of the study show that the most frequent strategy encountered is query preparatory, within conventional indirectness. The use of request head act strategies of both student groups comply with native speakers' (Otcu & Zeyrek, 2008, p. 280). Only upper-intermediate group learners used mood derivable. Want statements were not encountered in native English speakers' data, but used by both learner groups. Only strong hints were used at a higher level (overused) by upper-intermediate students and rarely preferred by lower-intermediate groups (p. 283). Furthermore, the results of the study show that the modal *can* was used the most frequently by the learners while *could* was preferred at the highest level by native speakers. Otcu and Zeyrek (2008) add that the use of *can* tends to decrease in the upper-intermediate learners' data (p. 284).

In 2008, Takimoto carried out a study to examine the effects of deductive and inductive instruction on the development of EFL learners' pragmatic competence. 60 participants, whose first language is Japanese, took part in the study for approximately six weeks. Only intermediate-level learners of English participated in the study. Four groups were formed randomly: three treatment groups (the deductive instruction group, the inductive instruction with problem-solving tasks group, and the inductive instruction with structured input tasks group) and one control group. In all treatment groups, the first class was mainly related about lexical/ phrasal downgraders in English requests; the focus of the second class was on the syntactic downgraders, the third class was the review of the first class and the fourth class was the review of the second class. Each teaching sessions lasted for 40 minutes in all treatment groups and control group. A pretest, posttest and follow-up test were completed by all the participants. They involved a DCT, a role play test, listening test and acceptability judgment test. All situations used in the tests had one speech act: request. The results of the study showed that all treatment groups significantly outperformed the control group. Nevertheless, the deductive instruction group participants reduced the positive effects of the treatment for the listening test.

Balcı carried out a study with 20 native speakers of English and 20 14-15 year-old Turkish speakers of English with in 2009. In her study, she aimed to define and compare request and apology strategies based on the cross-cultural realization project. In her study, Balcı found that Turkish speakers of English used only three of the request head act strategies,

which were preparatory, mood derivable and strong hint while native speakers of English used four request strategies (Balçı, 2009).

In another study, Kılıçkaya (2010) examined the pragmatic knowledge of Turkish EFL students, using the speech act of requests. 40 Turkish EFL students, who were second-year teacher trainees at Middle East Technical University, took part in the study. The participants (32 females and 8 males) ranged from 18 to 19 years of age. Similarly, an open-item response questionnaire, a type of DCT, was used as the data collection tool. The participants were expected to realize speech acts of requests appropriately for the given situations. The statistical analysis of the data, gathered through the questionnaire, was performed using SPSS so as to reveal the general incline. Two native speakers, who are ELT experts, assessed the students' request strategies. According to the results of the study, EFL students, participating in the study, have the linguistic means required to operate pragmatically for the use of requests. The indirect requests are used more frequently by the EFL students in the study. Additionally, the results of the study showed that "their success in the use of the request strategies in situations requiring certain level of politeness was relatively not satisfactory." (p. 197).

In summary, it must be clarified that both pragmatic competence and emotional intelligence can be developed at schools according to the data that exist so far. Therefore, this study is vital with its two dimensions in terms of their potential relation to foreign language learning and teaching.

## **CHAPTER III**

### **METHODOLOGY**

#### **Introduction**

This chapter begins with a brief presentation of the research model. This is followed with a description of the participants who took part in this study. Later, the methodology of data collection is explained by focusing on the data collection tools used in the present study. Finally, the data analysis procedure is presented.

#### **Model of the Study**

It was decided that the best method to adopt for this investigation was mixed model research. Hence, the current study used mixed research, which indicates that the researcher used both quantitative and qualitative research in the study. Mixed research means mixing qualitative and quantitative research methods in various ways (Johnson & Christensen, 2004, p. 52). Different combinations of qualitative and quantitative research are involved in mixed methods research, which can occur either at the data collection or the analysis stage (Dörnyei, 2007, p. 42- 45). However, it should be clarified that only the most important question of the research study, which was the second research question, required using both qualitative and quantitative methods together. The other research questions were replied either using only quantitative or qualitative techniques. Johnson and Christensen state that mixed research “is based on the philosophy of pragmatism (i.e., what works is what is important)” (p. 52). This is the principle that is embraced for the current study. Mixed research has two main types: mixed method research and mixed model

research (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998, as cited in Johnson & Christensen, 2004, p. 48). In mixed method research, the researchers use quantitative research study and qualitative research study for different stages of the study. The uses of a qualitative research study and a quantitative research study in mixed method research occur either at the same time or successively to deal with a research topic (Johnson & Christensen, 2004, p. 48). In mixed model research, both qualitative and quantitative research are used within a phase or across two of the phases in the research study (Johnson & Christensen, 2004, p. 49). The current study employed this type- mixed model research. As Johnson and Christensen (2004) mentions, the researchers might choose to collect only qualitative data and analyze the qualitative data using qualitative data analysis techniques, but later they can decide to convert these qualitative data into variables and analyze them using quantitative analysis techniques statistically (p. 49). This is what happened in the present study to look into the relationship between emotional intelligence of the students and their request strategies, which made up the second research question, addressing the main issue in the study. The researcher converted the qualitative data, relating to requests, obtained by the use of DCT, into numerical data using the rating scale, which was prepared particularly for this purpose, so as to compare these quantitative data with the other data, collected by the emotional intelligence scale, (which was already numerical naturally). Thus, the researcher needed to use both qualitative and quantitative research for this study.

### **Participants and Setting**

The study was conducted at Gazi University, the Department of English Language Teaching, in Ankara, Turkey. One hundred and twenty 4th grade ELT trainees, studying at Gazi University, made up the sample for the study. Fourth grade ELT students were especially chosen for the current study since they seemed the most appropriate for the investigation for two reasons. Firstly, they are assumed to be advanced speakers of English as a foreign language and secondly, they are teacher trainees and represent teachers- to- be of the future. All of the participants were aged between 20 and 26. Age was not treated as a separate variable in the study due to age relative homogeneity of the participant group. Of the total sample of 120 students, 93 were female and 27 male and gender was included in the variables for the investigation.

## **Data Collection**

The data collection process started in April, 2015 and ended in one week at the spring term of 2014-2015 academic year. The data were collected after the participants agreed to take part in the study. The Assessing Emotional Intelligence Scale, a discourse completion test and a rating scale comprised the research instruments. The participants were asked to complete only the Assessing Emotional Intelligence Scale and the DCT, which were given at the same time attached to one another for each student. It took approximately 20 minutes for the students to complete the tests. The rating scale was utilized to rate the qualitative data, obtained via the DCT. The researcher and a British English instructor were recruited to rate the appropriateness of the request speech acts of the students based on the five-point rating scale developed by the researcher. To add, both qualitative and quantitative data were collected on the same sample.

## **Data Collection Tools**

The Schutte Emotional Intelligence Scale and a Discourse Completion Test (DCT) were used as data collection tools for this study. In addition to these data collection tools, a five-point rating scale was prepared by the researcher to obtain numerical data from the qualitative data, collected through the DCT. Consequently, three research instruments were employed for the study. As previously stated, the DCT was prepared by the researcher, as well. To begin the process of developing a DCT, a pool of items were prepared. After the required items were chosen, the draft DCT was reviewed by three experts (one of the experts was a native speaker of American English in ELT profession while the other two experts were assistant professors at Hacettepe University (one in ELT department, the other in English Linguistics Department)). Based on the expert opinion, some changes were made in the draft. Following that, the DCT was pilot-tested to ensure that the items were appropriate enough to elicit the target speech act. The pilot-study sample consisted of 15 fourth- grade ELT students studying at Gazi University during the spring term of 2014-2015 academic year.



### **The Schutte Emotional Intelligence Scale**

The Assessing Emotions Scale was designed by Schutte, Malouff, and Bhullar in 1998 to assess emotional intelligence. It is based on Salovey and Mayer's original model of emotional intelligence. To measure emotional intelligence, the Schutte Emotional Intelligence Scale (Schutte, Malouff, & Bhullar, 2009) was used for the present study. It is a self-report inventory to assess typical emotional intelligence. It is considered as a trait measure of intelligence. It has four factors, which are perception of emotions, managing one's own emotions, managing others' emotions and utilization of emotions. It has 33 items. The items for the given subscales are as follows: Perception of emotion (items 5, 9, 15, 18, 19, 22, 25, 29, 32, 33), managing own emotions (items 2, 3, 10, 12, 14, 21, 23, 28, 31), managing others' emotions (items 1, 4, 11, 13, 16, 24, 26, 30), and utilization of emotion (items 6, 7, 8, 17, 20, 27). Furthermore, the items 5, 28 and 33 are reverse coding items. There are such items as "I am aware of my emotions as I experience them.", "I am aware of the nonverbal messages I send to others", "I know why my emotions change" in the dimension of perception of emotions. In the dimension of managing own emotions, the items can be exemplified as "When I am faced with obstacles, I remember times I faced similar obstacles and overcame them", "I have control over my emotions", "when I experience a positive emotion, I know how to make it last". For the dimension of managing others' emotions, the scale has such items as "other people find it easy to confide in me", "When another person tells me about an important event in his or her life, I almost feel as though I experienced this event myself". For the dimension of utilization of emotions, there are items like "some of the major events of my life have led me to re-evaluate what is important and not important", "When my mood changes, I see new possibilities".

It has has 5-likert type grading as follows: (1) Strongly disagree, (2) Somewhat disagree, (3) Neither agree nor disagree, (4) Somewhat agree, (5) Strongly agree. The scores can vary from 33, the lowest score to 165, the highest score for emotional intelligence (Schutte et al., 2009). The reliability value was reported as 0.85 for the current study.

## **The Discourse Completion Test**

A DCT was developed by the researcher to collect the qualitative data for the study. The preparation of it required a systematic process. The first step was to form an item pool. After the right items were selected for the DCT, opinions of three experts were taken on the appropriateness of the items and its use for the target. One of the experts was a native speaker of American English in ELT profession while the other two experts were assistant professors at Hacettepe University (one in ELT department, the other in English Linguistics Department). Later, the DCT was piloted with 15 ELT students to be able to make the necessary changes and ensure that the target speech act could be elicited. After the necessary changes were carried out, the DCT took its latest complete form. During the data collection session, students were given four situations in the DCT and were expected to realize speech acts of requests as responses for the given situations in the written form.

Since CCSARP projects in 1989, the DCTs have gained great popularity as data collection tools in pragmatic studies. Beebe and Cummings (1996) carried out a study to compare data obtained from written DCT and telephone conversation data. They conclude that DCTs are quite effective data collection tools in terms of :

- 1.) Gathering a large amount of data quickly;
- 2.) Creating an initial classification of semantic formulas and strategies that will likely occur in natural speech;
- 3.) Studying the stereotypical, perceived requirements for a socially appropriate response;
- 4.) Gaining insight into social and psychological factors that are likely to affect speech and performance; and
- 5.) Ascertaining the canonical shape of speech acts in the minds of speakers of that language.

(Beebe & Cummings, 1996, p. 80).

The DCTs have both strengths and weaknesses. To exemplify, the DCT can provide data, which help understanding natural data, but it eliminates certain semantic formulas and some negotiation strategies, of wide use, may not be allowed on the DCT (Hardford & Bardovi-Harlig, 1992, p. 49; Beebe & Cummings, p. 80-81, 1996). Beebe and Cummings (1996) favor the continued use of discourse completion tests in pragmatic studies although they accept DCTs' weaknesses (p. 81). In addition, as Hardford and Bardovi-Harlig (1992) state, a big advantage of DCTs is that researchers are able to test large sample sizes in equivalent situations (p. 36). That is one of the reasons why the researcher used DCTs in

this present study. There are generally two types of DCTs used as oral and written DCTs. Yuan (2001), in his study, compares oral DCT data and written DCT data and finds oral discourse completion tasks somehow superior to written discourse completion tasks since they tend to elicit natural speech more. Longer responses, more repetitions, more explanation particles, more inversions, more omissions are used in oral DCTs (Yuan, 2001). However, the researcher preferred to use the written DCT in this study since the sample is large. Although there are some drawbacks associated with the use of DCTs, the advantages are more and it is widely used in pragmatic studies. Furthermore, the researcher believes that the use of DCTs is more economical in terms of the time allocated for the data collection and data analysis process for this study.

### **The Rating Scale**

The researcher designed a rating scale entitled *Rating Scale for Appropriateness of Speech Act Patterns* in order to convert the qualitative data, obtained from the discourse completion test, into numerical data. In this way, it would be possible to look at the possible relationship between the emotional intelligence and request strategies. After three experts' opinions were taken on the appropriateness of the scale for its use in the study, the required changes were made. It is a five-point scale used to assess the appropriateness of the speech act patterns elicited in the DCT. Additionally, the rating scale was designed in such a way that politeness, clarity and quantity were considered besides the degree of appropriateness of the speech act for grading. Hence, the responses of the students were rated on the appropriateness and politeness of their requests via the rating scale by two raters.

The use of rating scales in research is widespread. According to Cohen, Manion, and Morrison (2007), rating scales “combine the opportunity for a flexible response with the ability to determine frequencies, correlations and other forms of quantitative analysis” (p. 327). Nevertheless, rating scales have their own limitations due to their fixity of responses. To clarify, the respondents are required to select from a certain choice in a rating scale (Cohen et al., 2007, p. 328). As for raters, whether they are native speakers of the language or not, their gender and compatibility with the respondents' personality might take a role in their ratings and affect how harsh their ratings are. Thus, the raters must go through this process in a consistent manner (Cohen, 2004, p. 321). For the current study, raters rated the responses separately, but an initial session was organized to discuss the criteria and

theoretical background of the study. While the first rater, who was the researcher, is female, the second rater, who is a native speaker of English and an English instructor, is male. Thus, one might claim that this rating was carried out as objectively as possible thanks to varied features of the raters within the practical constraints of the study. The interreliability value, calculated between two ratings, acknowledged this, as well. Reliability was achieved between the raters.

### **Data Analysis**

The data gathered through the research instruments were analyzed by using both qualitative and quantitative analysis techniques. SPSS 20 (Statistical Package for Social Sciences) was used to analyze the quantitative data obtained through the Schutte Emotional Intelligence Scale and the rating scale. The qualitative request data were rated according to a rating scale before the coding of the data occurred. In this way, quantitative data were obtained from the qualitative data. Later, the quantitative data obtained via the rating scale and the Shuttle Emotional Intelligence Scale were compared statistically.

The content analysis technique was used to analyze the qualitative data obtained from the DCT. The data were coded based on the CCSARP coding manual (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989). After the request data were coded, the percentage and frequency calculations were held for the categories.

### **Data Analysis for the Quantitative Part**

To answer the first research question, which questions whether emotional intelligence of ELT students change according to gender, the researcher decided to use independent sample t-test. Firstly, the assumptions of normal distribution and homogeneity of variance were tested. For normality assumption, Skewness and Kurtosis coefficients are divided by their standard errors. After this division, the results are -2.98 and -3.00 respectively. When these values are considered, the Skewness and Kurtosis coefficients, which are between the range (-3, +3), do not deviate from normality. Thus, it can be concluded that normality assumption is met. For the assumption of homogeneity, the significance values obtained from Levene test were investigated. It was observed that these significance values (p-values) (.616) were higher than .05. It means that the groups are homogenous. Thus, it can be inferred that the assumption of homogeneity is met, too. After this process, independent

sample t-test was carried out. ANOVA analysis was carried out to see whether there was a significant difference between the subdimensions of emotional intelligence for male and female ELT students, which comprised the sub-question of the first research question of the study. To answer the second research question “Is there a relationship between ELT students’ emotional intelligence level and their request realization patterns?” Pearson correlation was calculated. Finally, the analysis of descriptive statistics was carried out in order to answer the sub-question of the second research question “What are the mean request scores and standard deviations for male and female students when the request situations are considered separately and as a whole?” All the analyses were carried out using SPSS, version 20.

### **Data Analysis for the Qualitative Part**

The study uses qualitative analysis in order to gain insight into the request strategies of the ELT students in terms of directness or indirectness. The data collected from the 4th grade ELT students through the DCT were analyzed based on the coding manual used by Blum Kulka and et al. (1989) in Cross-Cultural Speech Act Project. Content analysis was carried out in the present study. Content analysis consists of coding, forming categories, comparing categories and reaching conclusions (Cohen, Manion & Morrison, 2007, p. 476). According to Friedman (2012), content analysis is “coding data in a systematic way in order to discover patterns and develop well-grounded patterns.” (p. 191). Generally, one of the main problems that researchers face in qualitative data analysis is data reduction. Content analysis is one of the ways to achieve this. Content analysis is a procedure, during which the classification of many words of texts yield much fewer categories (Weber, 1990, p. 15, as cited in Cohen et al., 2007, p. 475).

The analysis of the qualitative data was carried out in steps for the present study. Firstly, the researcher entered all the qualitative data into a computer file so that she could organize the data and work systematically. This technique contributed to the flow of the coding the data. The responses of the students, which included the requests, were determined as codes. With the help of Blum Kulka and et al.’s coding manual, categories were formed and matched with the appropriate codes. The parts, which were not encountered in the data were omitted from the classification. Later, the researcher had the coded data in hard-copy to check the appropriateness of the codes. The same coded data

were examined one month later to increase the reliability of the coding system. In addition, expert opinions were received for the appropriateness of the coding. Lastly, the number and the frequencies of each category used by the subjects were calculated numerically. When the researchers convert qualitative data into numerical codes and then do statistical data analysis, it is called quantizing (Tashakkori & Teddlie, 1998, as cited in Johnson & Christensen, 2004, p. 425). For example, the researcher calculated frequencies of request categories occurring in the content analysis phase. The number of the times request strategies used by the students in the DCT was indicated. Qualitative data were quantized in part of the data analysis stage.

### **Reliability and Validity**

In order to measure 4<sup>th</sup> grade ELT students' emotional intelligence, the Schutte Emotional Intelligence Scale was applied to 120 students. The stratified cronbach's alpha reliability value was reported as 0.85. This value indicates the reliability of the scores for the study.

The DCT used in the study was developed by the researcher. Its preparation involved several important steps. Firstly, an item pool was formed. Following the selection of the items for the DCT, three experts from the field examined the test. One of the experts was an American Instructor, who was working at TOBB University of Economics and Technology in Department of Foreign Languages. The other experts were assistant professors: One in English Linguistics Department; one is in ELT department at Hacettepe University. Two of the expert opinions were received in a face to face session. The other was received online. Later, the DCT was piloted with 15 fourth-grade ELT students attending Gazi University to be able to make the necessary changes. The DCT was piloted with a group who had the same criteria for the sampling of the actual study. Prior to its latest form, necessary changes were made on the DCT. The DCT was efficient in eliciting the target speech act of requests.

A five-point rating scale was designed by the researcher to rate the responses of the students in the DCT. The cronbach alpha value was reported as 0.715 for the rating scale. The value indicates the reliability of the scores for the current study. Expert opinions were received for the appropriateness of the scale for its use by three experts (Two of them are experts in the field of Assessment and Evaluation in Education and the third one is an expert in the ELT department at Gazi University). The researcher and a British English instructor rated the students' responses according to the 5-point Likert type scale separately. An

initial session was realized with the British English rater to share the theoretical backgrounds of what the scale aimed to assess. Interreliability was calculated between the two raters' grading.

Table 5

<i>Correlation Values between Item Pairs</i>				
Interrater Reliability	R2.1-R1.1	R2. 2-R1.2	R2.3-R1.3	R2.4-R1.4
Correlation (r)	.97	.93	.94	.96

Note: R represents *rater*.

Table 5 presents correlation values for each item pair. It is apparent from this table the correlation values are quite high; thus, it can be inferred that the interrater reliability has been achieved.

For the reliability of the qualitative data analysis part, after the data were coded by the researcher, the codes were examined again one month apart by the same researcher to increase the reliability of the coding process. The qualitative data were in hard-copy format. The researcher preferred to enter the raw data into a computer file to achieve accuracy and to be more organized. Later, the researcher had the data printed on big sheets so that she could see the whole picture and work comfortably. In addition, expert opinion was taken on the appropriateness of the coding. It can be said that investigator triangulation was undertaken in the present study to promote the qualitative research validity. When multiple researchers are involved in collecting, analyzing and interpreting the data, this is called investigator triangulation (Johnson & Christensen, 2004, p. 50). The researcher received expert opinion especially during the data analysis phase when coding the data.

## CHAPTER IV

### FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

#### Introduction

The purpose of this chapter is to present the findings relating to the research questions of the present study and discuss the results pertaining to this research. First, the chapter provides the findings for each research question, then it goes on to discuss the results of the study according to the research questions respectively.

#### Findings of the First Research Question

The first research question of the present study aims to find out whether emotional intelligence of ELT students changes according to gender or not. In order to answer this research question, independent sample t-test was applied. The results obtained from the t-test analysis are shown in Table 6.

Table 6

#### *Independent Sample T-test Results*

Gender	N	Mean	S	Df	T	P
Male	27	134.19	11.04	118	2.43	.016
Female	93	127.68	12.55			

As Table 6 shows, the male group consists of 27 students and the number of female students is 93. It is apparent from this table that the mean score of emotional intelligence for male students is 134.19 while it is 127.68 for female students. Hence, male students have higher mean scores than male students in terms of emotional intelligence. In addition, the table shows that male students' standard deviation value is 11.04 whereas standard deviation is 12.55 for female students. According to this result, it is implied that response variability is more in female students than in male students.



Regarding the sub-question of the first research question, ANOVA analysis was carried out to see whether there were significant differences between the subdimensions of emotional intelligence for male and female ELT students. The results of the ANOVA analysis are given in Table 7 below.

Table 7

*ANOVA Results for the Subscales of the Emotional Intelligence*

Dimensions		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
Perception of Emotions	Between groups	95.916	1	95.92	3.89	.051
	Within groups	2908.884	118	24.65		
	Total	3004.800	119			
Managing Own emotions	Between groups	120.432	1	120.43	4.96	.028
	Within groups	2863.035	118	24.26		
	Total	2983.467	119			
Managing others' Emotions	Between groups	25.612	1	25.61	1.67	.199
	Within groups	1812.088	118	15.36		
	Total	1837.700	119			
Utilization of Emotions	Between groups	15.527	1	15.53	1.77	.186
	Within groups	1034.798	118	8.77		
	Total	1050.325	119			

The study indicates that emotional intelligence changes according to gender. A significant difference has been found between male and female ELT students in terms of the subcategory “managing own emotions” ( $p = .028$ ), which is clear in table 7. The results of the study reveal no significant difference in regard to other three subscales of emotional intelligence, which are “perception of emotions, managing others’ emotions and utilization of emotions. However, the results indicate that male students are better at managing their own emotions compared with female students.

**Findings of the Second Research Question**

The second question in this research is whether there is a relationship between emotional intelligence of ELT students and their request realization patterns or not. The Pearson correlation analysis was carried out to determine the relationship between the two variables as was mentioned earlier. The Pearson correlation coefficient between emotional intelligence of the ELT students and their request strategies was found to be 0, 07. The findings of the correlation analysis show that there is not a significant relationship between two variables. In other words, no significant relationship was found between emotional

intelligence and request strategies ( $p=$ , 462;  $N=120$ ). This value showed that these results were not statistically significant, which is demonstrated in the following table.

Table 8

*Pearson Correlation between Requests and Emotional Intelligence*

	Request-emotional intelligence
Pearson correlation	.07
P-values	.46

To be able to answer the sub-question of the second research question “what are the mean request scores and standard deviations for male and female students when the request situations are considered separately and as a whole?”, descriptive statistics analysis was performed.

Table 9

*Descriptive Statistics for Request Scores of Female Students*

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Sdt. Deviation
S1	93	2.00	5.00	3.70	.857
S2	93	1.00	5.00	3.35	1.03
S3	93	1.00	5.00	4.00	1.02
S4	93	.00	5.00	3.43	1.28
Total	93	6.00	20.00	14.48	3.21

Note: “S” is used for the situations in the DCT.

Table 9 provides the results obtained from the descriptive statistics of request scores for female participants. As can be seen from the table above, 93 female students constitute the number of the female students involved in the study. As illustrated in the table, the mean request score of female students is 14.48 and standard deviation is 3.21. Looking at the situations separately, it can be seen from the table that the highest mean score (4.00) is obtained in the third situation, which is about asking your colleague to substitute for you in a speaking jury for an oral exam. Furthermore, what is interesting in this table that the lowest mean request score (3.35) is observed in the second situation, which is about asking a pay raise from your boss.

Table 10

*Descriptive Statistics for Request Scores of Male Students*

	N	Minimum	Maximum	Mean	Sdt. Deviation
S1	27	1.00	5.00	3.30	1.10
S2	27	.00	5.00	3.22	1.19
S3	27	2.00	5.00	3.89	.85
S4	27	1.00	5.00	3.26	1.23
Total	27	8.00	18.00	13.67	2.83

“S” is used for the situations in the DCT.

Referring at Table 10, it can be seen that the number of male students is 27 and the mean request score corresponds to 13.67 out of 20 and standard deviation is 2.83. Similarly, looking at the request situations separately, it is observed that the highest mean score (3.89) is obtained in the third situation for male students, as well. Likewise, the lowest mean score (3.22) is encountered in the second situation for male students, too. When the data in this table are compared with the data in Table 9, it is observed that the mean scores of female students are higher than the male students' mean scores for requests. Furthermore, it is illustrated in the table that standard deviation is 3.21 for female students while it is 2.83 for male students. Thus, one might infer from the data in these tables that the response variability for requests is more in female students than in male students.

### **Findings of the Third Research Question**

The analysis of the data obtained by the the discourse completion test is based on a coding manual used by Blum- Kulka et al. (1989). The semantic formulas categorized by Blum- Kulka et al. (1989) were used only to identify the request strategies of the ELT students and some parts, which were not encountered in the speech act realizations of the participants, were omitted from the classification. It is necessary here to clarify what is meant by request strategy. A request strategy refers to the compulsory choice of the level of directness by which the requester realizes his/her request. This shows a need to be explicit about what is exactly meant by the word directness, too. Directness means the degree to which extent the speaker's illocutionary intent is visible from the locution (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989, p. 278). The detailed analysis of the data has shown that the

participants have used eight of the requesting strategies out of the nine strategy types identified in CCSARP carried out by Blum-Kulka et al. (1989, p. 275-280).

With respect to the last research question, request strategy types were determined as follows:

a. Direct requests

1. Mood derivable
2. Explicit performatives
3. Hedged performatives
4. Want statements
5. Obligation statements (this is used to refer to the requesting strategy *locution derivable* for the present study)

b. Conventionally indirect requests

6. Preparatory (ability, possibility, willingness, permission, consultative devices)

c. Nonconventional indirect requests

7. Strong hint
8. Mild hint

Before proceeding to explain the request strategies and give their frequency of uses, it will be useful to look at the examples of these request strategies used by the participants in the present study. The examples of request strategies used by the students are provided in Tables 11, 12, and 13 for direct and conventionally indirect and nonconventionally indirect requests sequentially.

Table 11

*Examples for Direct Requests*

Direct requests	Examples
Mood derivable	<p>“Please substitute for me in the oral exam because I am ill.” (Situation 3, P19).</p> <p>“I have a sore throat Abby. Do me a favor and take my place this afternoon.” (Situation 3, P 91).</p> <p>“Please give me my money back” (Situation 4, P5).</p> <p>“Jane, I’m broke. Give me my money.” (Situation 4, P51).</p>
Explicit performatives	<p>“I request you that you be in a speaking jury for an oral exam because I have a sore throat and don’t feel well.” (Situation 3, P56).</p>
Hedged performatives	<p>“May I ask you to be jury instead of me? I have a sore throat.” (Situation 3, P36).</p> <p>“I need to ask for the money I gave to you. I need that money.” (Situation 4, P100).</p>
Desire or wish	<p>“Mr. Taylor, I want a raise in my salary.” (Situation 2, P7).</p> <p>“If it is possible, I would like a rise in my salary.” (Situation 2, P94).</p> <p>“...Frankly, I want you to repay my money” (Situation 4, P31).</p>
Obligation	<p>“I have been working here nearly for a year, so the raising of my salary should be done.” (Situation 2, P110).</p> <p>“You should give to me, I need it.” (Situation 4, P97).</p>

Note: “P” is used as a symbol for participants.

Table 12

*Examples for Conventionally Indirect Requests*

Conventionally indirect requests (Preparatory)	Examples
Ability	<p>“Can you give me your book?” (Situation 1, P1).</p> <p>“Hi, Mr. Taylor, can you increase my salary please?” (Situation 2, P17).</p> <p>“Could you attend the speaking jury for me?” (Situation 3, P52).</p> <p>“I know it is not nice but I need some money. If you have money, can you pay your debt now?” ( Situation 4, P14)</p>
Permission	<p>“Can I borrow your book for a few days?” (Situation 1, P2).</p> <p>“Sir, I have been working here for a year. I think I deserve a raise. May I take my salary in a raise?” (Situation 2, P87).</p> <p>“Honey, I need money. If you have, can I get my money back?” (Situation 4, P74).</p>
Possibility	<p>“Dude, I couldn’t buy this book. Is it possible to borrow (he / she means “lend”) me to copy it?” (Situation 1, P100).</p> <p>“Is there any chance to raise my salary, Mr. Taylor?” ( Situation 2, P102)</p> <p>“Hey, Abby I’m very sick, is it possible for you to substitute me in the oral exam tomorrow?” (Situation 3, P65).</p> <p>“Is it possible for you to pay me back soon?” (Situation 4, P99).</p>
Willingness	<p>“Would you give me your book for my assignment?” (Situation 1, P28).</p> <p>“ I have worked hard these days, will you raise my salary” (Situation 2, P64).</p> <p>“Would you like to be in the jury for my place?” (Situation 3, P75).</p>
Consultative device	<p>“Do you mind if I took your book for two days?” (Situation 1, P95).</p> <p>“Would you mind being jury instead of me?” (Situation 3, P86)</p>

Note: P is used as a symbol for participants

Table 13

*Examples for Nonconventionally Indirect Requests*

Nonconventionally indirect requests	Examples
Strong hint	<p>“I have been working here for a long time. I think I deserve a raise.” (Situation 2, P108).</p> <p>“I need a raise in my salary” (Situation 2, P96).</p> <p>“I am really really sorry to say that, but I have run out of money” (Situation 4, P112).</p>
Mild hint	<p>“Sir, I have been working in this lovely company for a year and I believe the company likes me.” (Situation 2, P30).</p>

Note: P is used as a symbol for participants

Prior to moving on to presenting the frequency and percentages of the strategies used by the participants and explaining the request strategy types, it is worth noting that there were supposed to be 480 tokens of requests as there were one hundred and twenty participants and four request situations. However, there were 4 missing replies, 4 invalid ones and 19 of the responses did not involve an actual request strategy but grounders like preparing the ground or checking availability, which is not within the scope of the present study. Thus, only 453 requests were taken into consideration due to these missing, irrelevant or invalid replies. The frequency and percentages of all the request types were calculated as shown in Table 14, Table 15 and Table 16.

Table 14

*Frequency and Percentages of Direct Requests*

Direct requests	Frequency	Percentage
Mood derivable	16	3.53
Explicit performatives	1	0.22
Hedged performatives	2	0.44
Desire or wish	17	3.75
Obligation	2	0.44
Total	38	8.38

Note: the total number of request tokens is 453.

Table 15

*Frequency and Percentages of Conventionally Indirect Requests*

Conventionally indirect requests (Preparatory)	Frequency	Percentage
Ability	206	45.47
Permission	72	15.89
Possibility	21	4.63
Willingness	15	3.31
Consultative device	18	3.97
Total	332	73.29

Note: the total number of request tokens is 453.

Table 16

*Frequency and Percentages of Nonconventionally Indirect Requests*

Nonconventionally indirect requests	Frequency	Percentage
Strong hint	79	17.439
Mild hint	4	0.88
Total	83	18.32

Note: the total number of request tokens is 453.

As seen in Table 15, the most common request strategy used by the participants is *preparatory* strategy corresponding to a percentage of 73.29. In preparatory request strategy, the utterance includes reference to preparatory conditions such as ability, willingness or the possibility of the act being performed (Blum- Kulka & Olsthain, 1984). A classic example for preparatory query is the structure *Can I/ Can you*. Moreover, the structures such as *could you/I, would you, would you mind* can be exemplified under this category. Referring to Table 16, it is visible that the second most common request strategy encountered in the data is strong hint corresponding to the percentage of 17.44. Strong hint occurs when “utterance contains partial reference to object or to elements needed for the implementation of the act.” (Blum-Kulka & Olsthain, 1984, p. 202). By way of illustration, one participant put it “I think I deserve a raise in my salary because I have been working here nearly for a year” while making a request from a boss in the second situation. The third most frequently used request strategy is *want statement* category, corresponding to the percentage of 3.74. This utterance expresses the speaker’s intentions and desires about the hearer doing something (Blum-Kulka & Olsthain, 1984). Structures such as *I want, I would like* can be given as examples for this category. Following this, the fourth most frequent request strategy used in the data is *mood derivable* as indicated in Table 14, too. Its percentage is equivalent to 3.53. In the case of mood derivables, “the grammatical mood of the verb in utterance marks its illocutionary force as a request” (Blum-Kulka



&Olsthain, 1984, p. 202). Examples like “do it, give my money, take my class” can be in this category. Looking at the tables above, it can be seen that the other request strategies observed in the data are mild hint (% 0.88), obligation (% 0.44), hedged performatives (% 0.44) and lastly, explicit performative, whose percentage is 0.22.

Mild hints are utterances that include no reference to the intended request proposition, hence requiring more demand for contextual analysis on the requestee (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989, p. 280). With respect to obligation (locution derivable), “the illocutionary point is directly derivable from the semantic meaning of the locution.” (Blum-Kulka & Olsthain, 1984, p. 202). Structures such as *you should* can be an example for this class. Hedged performative refers to the modified form of the illocutionary verb that denotes the intent of request by modal verbs etc. (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989, p. 279). As far as explicit performative strategy is concerned, the illocutionary point of the utterance is named by the speakers in an explicit way in this case (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989, p. 279). Structures such as *I am asking you to do X, I request that* can be illustrated under this category.

As was mentioned earlier, one of the nine request strategies determined in by Blum-Kulka et al. (1989) was not encountered in the content analysis of the present study: Suggestory formula. It is used briefly to refer to the request proposition that is phrased as a suggestion. The structures such as *how about, why don't you* are the examples for suggestory formula given by Blum-Kulka et al. (1989, p. 280).

It is quite apparent from Table 15 that participants favored conventionally indirect request strategies most. The percentage of conventionally indirect strategies is 73.29. Next, findings show that their second preference was nonconventionally indirect request strategies, the percentage of which is 18.32. Lastly, the least frequently used category was direct requests, corresponding to the percentage of 8.38.

Before moving on to the discussion section, it is important to give the frequencies of the request strategies according to each situation and to note the status of the interlocutors as they may be linked to the choice of the request strategies used by the ELT students. It is possible to see the relevant findings in the following table.

Table 17

*Request Strategy Types According to DCT Items*

DCT Item	Hearer	Status	Request strategy types used	Token	Percentage
Situation 1: Borrowing a book	Classmate	Equal	Mood derivable	1	0.85
			Preparatory	117	99.15
				Total: 118	
Situation 2: Pay rise	Boss	Higher	Desire or wish	13	13.13
			Obligation	1	1.01
			Preparatory	31	31.31
			Mild hint	3	3.03
			Strong hint	51	51.51
				Total: 99	
Situation 3: Substitution for jury in an oral exam	Colleague	Equal	Mood derivable	5	4.20
			Explicit performative	1	0.84
			Hedged performative	1	0.84
			Desire or wish	1	0.84
			Preparatory	111	93.28
				Total: 119	
Situation 4: Asking for money back	Friend	Equal	Mood derivable	10	8.55
			Hedged performative	1	0.85
			Desire or wish	3	2.56
			Obligation	1	0.85
			Preparatory	73	62.39
			Mild hint	1	0.85
			Strong hint	28	23.93
				Total: 117	

The first situation was about a student asking his/her classmate to lend her/him a book for an assignment. Interestingly, it is clear in Table 17 that the only two request strategies observed in the first situation are mood derivable (% 0.85) and preparatory (% 99.15). What is more interesting is that only one student used mood derivable, the rest used preparatory strategies for the given situation.

The second situation was about a request of a worker from his/her boss for a pay rise. As can be seen in Table 17, the most frequently used strategy was found to be strong hint (% 51.51). The second most frequent request strategy was preparatory (% 31.31). Want statements followed it with a percentage of 13.13. Later, three students utilized from mild hint (% 3.03) and one student preferred obligation in this situation (% 1.01). What is striking about these findings is that only in this situation strong hint outnumbered

preparatory strategies. The participants preferred to be nonconventionally indirect when they were interacting with a higher-status interlocutor.

The third situation was about a teacher asking her/ his colleague to be in the jury for an oral exam instead of her/ him. The findings display the fact that the most frequently used request strategy was preparatory in this situation (% 93.28). The second most frequent strategy encountered in this situation was mood derivable (% 4.20). The other three strategies observed in the given situation were explicit performative (% 0.84), hedged performative (% 0.84), and want statement (% 0.84). Each of these last three request strategies was used once in the given situation.

The last situation was about a person asking her friend to pay her / his debt. The most frequently used strategy was found to be the preparatory again (% 62.39) as Table 17 shows. However, the second most used request strategy was strong hint (% 23.93). Want statements followed it with a percentage of 2.56. The other request strategies used in the given situation were mild hint (%0.85), hedged performative (% 0.85), and obligation (% 0.85). In addition, it is essential to mention the fact that the last situation was the richest in terms of the variety of the request strategies used.

Having presented all the relevant findings relating to all the research questions, it would be possible now to discuss the findings for each research question in the following part.

### **Discussion of the First Research Question**

The first research question of the research question of the present study is “Does emotional intelligence of ELT students change according to gender?” To answer this question, independent sample t-test was used. According to the results, it can be suggested that emotional intelligence differs according to gender and this difference is in favor of male students since they have higher scores. In this study there is a significant difference only in one sub-dimension “managing own emotions”, which leads us to discuss the sub-question of the first research question, “Are there significant differences between the subdimensions of emotional intelligence according to gender?”. ANOVA analysis was applied to see whether there are significant differences in the subdimensions of emotional intelligence for male and female students. A significant difference has been found between male and female students in terms of the sub-dimension “managing own emotions”. These results are in accord with the findings of a recent study conducted by Nasir and Masrur (2010) so

as to find out whether there is a relationship between emotional intelligence of students and their gender, age, and academic achievement. They utilized BarOn Emotional Quotient Inventory for their study and found that male students scored higher in stress management subscale than female students did although there was no difference in the mean EQi scores of male and female students in the other subscales of emotional intelligence ( Nasir & Masrur, 2010).

However, according to a recent study, carried out by Tosun (2011), to investigate the effect of the emotional intelligence of prep-school students on language achievement at a university in Gaziantep, there is not a significant difference between the total EQ scores of male and female students. The use of different measurement tools or different sample groups might account for this discrepancy. Similarly, Hassan, Sulaiman and Ishak (2009) carried out a research study to investigate the relation of emotional intelligence with the level of anxiety and academic success using Schutte Self-Report of Emotional Intelligence and Beck Anxiety Inventory. He found that the mean scores of female students' emotional intelligence were higher than male students' emotional intelligence levels. This inconsistency could be due to the different features of samples selected for each study. Hassan, Sulaiman and Ishak (2009) worked with secondary school students, who were 13 and 16 years old. This can be attributed to age differences or the role of instruction that ELT students at Gazi University have taken, the impact of which might vary or differ for male and female students. This claim is supported in a sense by a research study, carried out by Topaloğlu (2014), according to whom, there seems to be a meaningful difference between the emotional intelligence sub-dimension "understanding emotions" and departments. She worked with 128 freshmen randomly chosen from Trakya University Keşan Vocational School. Departments that university students are majoring in could also be affective on their emotional intelligence and the benefit that they gain from the instruction could differ from person to person and according to gender.

### **Discussion of the Second Research Question**

The second research question of the study is whether there a relationship between ELT students' emotional intelligence level and their request realization patterns. To answer this research question, the researcher utilized from The Schutte Emotional Intelligence Scale, a Discourse Completion Task (DCT), and a rating scale. The data obtained from the emotional intelligence were already quantitative, and numerical data were obtained from

the qualitative data after two raters rated the data according to a rating scale, designed by the researcher. In this way, the researcher was able to compare the two different data in order to seek an answer for the second research question, which questioned the possible relationship between two variables.

The study revealed no significant relationship between the emotional intelligence of ELT students and their request patterns ( $p = .462$ ;  $N = 120$ ). It is difficult to explain this result as it is unclear why emotional intelligence was not associated with requests. However, this lack of a relationship can be linked to the fact that only four request situations were used for the study and the request gradings were based on the responses given to those situations.

Descriptive statistics was applied to answer the sub-question of the second research question “What are the mean request scores and standard deviations for male and female students when the request situations are considered separately and as a whole?”. The results indicate that the mean scores of female students are higher than the male students’ mean scores for requests. It is therefore possible to claim that females are better at performing requests appropriately or politely compared with male students. This claim is supported by the findings of a research study carried out by Macaulay (2001), who suggests that female speakers are more polite and provocative in their indirect request forms than the males do. Moreover, the results of the present study indicate that standard deviation is higher for females than males. This implies that females have more response variability than males while using requests. They probably make use of a wider range of responses for the given situations. The highest request score is observed for both gender groups in the third situation, which is about asking your colleague to substitute for you in a speaking jury for an oral exam. This could be attributed to the relationship between interlocutors. They have an equal status and have supposedly a formal relationship since they are colleagues. What is striking about the results of the study that the lowest mean request score is observed in the second situation, which is about asking a pay raise from your boss, for both males and females. This result can be explained by the impact of the status difference or power difference between the interlocutors. Only in the second situations, the requester was to interact with a higher-status interlocutor, a boss in this case. This finding can also be explained by another finding of the present study. As stated before, strong hint was found to be the most frequently used request strategy only in the second situation. In the other three situations, preparatory was found to be the most-

frequently used request strategy. According to a research study (Blum-Kulka, 1987), the query preparatory categorized as conventional indirect requests was rated as the most polite in Hebrew and English while the most direct strategy (mood derivable) was rated as the least polite. On the other hand, the most indirect strategies (hints) were not perceived as the most polite. Thus, the highest level of indirectness does not mean the highest level of politeness (Blum-Kulka, 1987). However, it is inevitable that employers can affect the career of their employees both in negative and positive ways (Thomas, 2013, p. 125). That is why requesters could hesitate to make a request or live difficulty in performing the request appropriately due to overuse of hints. This result could also be related to the very nature of the speech acts of requests. Speech acts are face threatening acts, which can be interpreted by the hearers as hindrance on their freedom of act, which may lead to the speakers' hesitation to make the request as they fear to expose a need or risk the loss of hearer's face (Blum-Kulka et al., 1989, p. 11-12). People might also fear to make a request from a boss due to the possibility of rejection or much more. An inappropriate way of request could even affect the requester's career in a negative way as the boss has the power. These conceptions might create more pressure or stress for the requester, which could result in failure in performing a request appropriately or politely. Thus, it is apparent that EFL students or ELT trainees experience more difficulty in requesting when they interact with a higher-status interlocutor. This finding of the study seems to be consistent with the findings of a recent study carried out by Kılıçkaya (2010) to examine the pragmatic knowledge of EFL students, who were also second-year teacher trainees at Middle East Technical University. He claimed that students did not demonstrate a satisfactory level of success in the use of request strategies for situations that required a particular level of politeness although they had the linguistic means required to operate pragmatically for the use of requests (Kılıçkaya, 2010). It seems to be challenging for ELT students to use the right language style or register in accordance with the circumstances interacting with a higher-status interlocutor.

### **Discussion of the Third Research Question**

The third research question of the study seeks to determine the request strategies that ELT students use in terms of directness or indirectness. The data were collected through the DCT and the content analysis was carried out to explore the request strategies that the ELT students used. The researchers adopted the coding scheme of Blum-Kulka et al. (1989)

used in the CCSARP to code and analyze the data on the level of directness. The discussion of the results begin with the presentation of the request strategy types observed in the data. With respect to the last research question of the present study, eight request strategy types were determined as follows:

a. Direct requests

1. Mood derivable

1. Explicit performatives

2. Hedged performatives

3. Want statements

4. Obligation statements

b. Conventionally indirect requests

5. Preparatory (ability, possibility, willingness, permission, consultative devices)

c. Nonconventional indirect requests

6. Strong hint

7. Mild hint

The results of the present study demonstrate that eight of the nine request strategies determined by Blum Kulka et al. (1989) were found in this study, as well. Only one of the request strategy types determined by Blum-kulka et al. was not encountered: Language specific suggestory formula. The lack of this request strategy can be related to the difference of the situations used in the studies or the use of fewer situations in our study. The researchers utilized from only four situations in the DCT used in the present study. Furthermore, the number of participants might take a role in this difference. On the other hand, the fact that the number of sampling used in this study is not a small one might have contributed to the observation of eight request strategies in this study. This rather wide range of request types could also be related with the role of instruction in the ELT setting. Balçı carried out a similar study with 20 native speakers of English and with 20 14-15 year- old Turkish speakers of English in 2009. In her study she aimed to define and compare request and apology strategies based on the cross-cultural realization project, too. In her study, Balçı found that Turkish speakers of English used only three of the request head act strategies, which were preparatory, mood derivable and strong hint while native speakers of English used four request strategies (2009). This study tends to verify the claims of the researcher.

According to the results of the study, the most frequently -used request strategy was found to be preparatory. These findings are consistent with those of previous studies. For instance, In Balci's study (2009), the preparatory was found to be the most frequent head act strategy used by Turkish speakers of English, as well. In her study, mood derivable and strong hint were the other head act strategies, each with an equal percentage. This is also in good agreement with the findings of the present study because strong hint was found to be the second most frequently-used request strategy for the present study. Furthermore, mood derivable became the fourth most frequent strategy following the want statement, which was in the third rank in terms of frequency. Similarly, according to a research study conducted by Otcu and Zeyrek (2008) on Turkish learners of English about the development of requests at Middle East Technical University in Ankara, the most frequent strategy was found to be query preparatory, categorized within conventional indirectness.

It is noteworthy to discuss the fact that preparatory was the most frequently used request strategy in all the situations except situation 2. Strong hint was found to be the most frequently –used strategy type in situation 2. It is also essential to mention that only in situation 2, the speaker interacts with a higher status interlocutor. Therefore, it can be claimed that data revealed status sensitivity here. Moreover, it can be said that students tend to be less direct when interacting with a higher-status interlocutor. This finding matches with the results observed in the study of Otcu and Zeyrek (2008). Their study demonstrated that strong hints were used at a higher level (overused) by upper-intermediate students although they were rarely preferred by lower-intermediate groups (p. 283). This result could also be related to the findings of a research study carried out by Mir (1995) to investigate the role of social context in request performances. The results of Mir's study showed that the participant groups (37 native Spanish speakers; 34 native speakers of English. 33 Spanish native speakers learning English (at advanced or high-intermediate level) as a foreign language) had a tendency to perform requests similarly in the contexts, characterized by the type of the power relationships between the interlocutors. For instance, the highest percentage of direct requests occurred for the three groups when the speaker was in a more powerful status ( p. 109). Somehow similarly, strong hint was the most used request strategy only in the second situation in which the requester was supposed to interact with a higher-status interlocutor unlike in the other situations where the requester interacted with an equal-status interlocutor in the current study. The reason



for this result can be explained by the idea that requesting from a higher status can be hard or can sometimes be considered as even risky or impolite. That is why people are shy or hesitant to make a request of a higher-status interlocutor. They tend to make use of hints to avoid risks, but the overuse of indirectness could cause more misunderstandings. The requester can sometimes be so indirect that the request may not be perceived by the hearer as a request performance. It is vital to add that strong hint was observed as the second most frequently used request strategy in the fourth situation. The reason for this might related to the assumption that asking for money can be regarded as rude or offensive for both party in Turkish culture.



## CHAPTER V

### CONCLUSION

#### Introduction

This chapter firstly summarizes the major findings of the study. Next it discusses the implications of the findings for the role of emotional intelligence and pragmatics in EFL setting and ELT setting. Finally, the chapter finishes with some recommendations for further studies.

#### Summary

The current study was designed for three main aims: (1) to find out whether emotional intelligence of ELT students changes according to gender and if so, in which sub-dimension, (2) to examine whether there is a relationship between emotional intelligence and request patterns of students, and gain insight about their request patterns in terms of appropriateness and politeness, lastly (3) to determine the request strategies that ELT students use in terms of directness or indirectness. To answer these questions an emotional intelligence scale, a DCT and a rating scale were used as data collection tools. This study yielded the following major findings:

- (1) Emotional intelligence of ELT students changes according to gender. Male students have had higher mean scores of emotional intelligence than female students. One of the most obvious findings of this study is that male students are better at managing their own emotions than female students are.
- (2) This study has shown that there is not a significant relationship between students' emotional intelligence and their request realization patterns. As to students' pragmatic competence in their requests, female students have had higher mean scores than male students. ELT students generally seem to perform their requests in a pragmatically appropriate way. However, they have had the lowest

mean score for the situation 2, where they are supposed to make a request of a higher-status interlocutor. In addition, the highest level of indirectness, nonconventional indirectness is observed to be in this situation as well. Hence, ELT or EFL students seem to have difficulty interacting with a higher-status interlocutor in their requests.

- (3) The results of the study show that there are eight request strategies used by ELT students. They use mood derivable, explicit performatives, hedged performatives, want statements and obligation statements, which are direct requests; they use preparatory strategies (ability, possibility, willingness, permission, and consultative devices), classified as conventionally indirect requests and they use strong hint and mild hint, which are categorized as nonconventionally indirect requests. Moreover, the results of this investigation show that ELT students have used conventionally indirect requests most frequently. The second most frequently-used category is nonconventionally indirect requests. Thus, the least frequently used-category is direct requests. Therefore, it can be concluded from the study that ELT students generally prefer using indirect requests strategies to direct requests. The study also reveals that requesters are the least direct when interacting with a higher-status interlocutor. ELT students tended to prefer conventional indirect requests most except in one situation, which is situation 2 where the requester was to make a request of a higher-status interlocutor. Strong hints classified as nonconventional indirect requests were used the most frequently only in the second situation. ELT students seem to be hesitant to make a request of someone who has more power like a boss. They tend to use hints excessively and not in a very polite or appropriate way when they are to interact with a higher-status interlocutor concerning their requests. Thus, it can also be inferred from the study that the status of the interlocutor influences the request strategy types preferred by the requester.

Finally, this study is significant in several ways. Firstly, the study enhances the understanding of the relationship between gender and emotional intelligence. In addition, it makes noteworthy contributions to our understanding of requests as speech acts and ELT students' request performance. In brief, the current findings of the current study add to a growing body of literature on both emotional intelligence and speech acts in EFL and ELT settings.

### **Implications for ELT and EFL Setting**

Learning English could be a demanding job for many learners. Language is a way of communication, which cannot be separated from the emotions involved. Emotional intelligence could be an affective factor in students' academic success. Emotional intelligence can help language learners overcome their stress and anxiety and increase their motivation and determination. Therefore, emotional intelligence programs should be included in EFL and ELT settings. It is essential to understand the importance of emotional intelligence not just for students but also for teachers. Teachers sometimes might experience hardship helping their students emotionally, which might hinder students' success during the process of learning a foreign language. Students need teachers' emotional support when learning a foreign language since it is somehow a demanding process for students. If teachers themselves are emotionally intelligent, they can assist their students more. For instance, they can read students' emotions and behave accordingly. They can motivate their students in a better way (Koçoğlu, 2011) and help students overcome their fear or anxiety. Teachers, as role models, should be well-equipped emotionally for the benefit of their students. Workshops where students can identify and express their emotions regarding foreign language learning could be organized. In these workshops, students and teachers can discuss the emotional causes of their problems that they encounter learning a foreign language and offer solutions to one another's problems in groups. In addition, activities that can enhance emotional intelligence of EFL or ELT students could be incorporated into their textbooks and carried out accordingly in the classrooms. Emotional lessons can be incorporated into speaking, writing, listening and reading classes. For instance, students can watch videos in which emotional conflicts are shown and they can be asked to identify the problems and offer solutions to them. Drama lessons could be helpful for this purpose, additionally. Student can role play the desired actions. Similarly, they can read texts about emotional conflicts and write problem-solving essays about them or discuss them in speaking classes as pair work or group work. Teachers should be well-equipped and should be able to provide content feedback to their students effectively. For instance, EFL learners can write about their various problems they face when learning English regularly and teachers can give them written feedback accordingly. Furthermore, activities that will help students to focus their attention efficiently while learning English or activities that can hinder withdrawal and encourage students to be social could merge into the syllabuses or curricula.

To be able to communicate effectively in a target language, one also should be pragmatically competent. Performing speech acts appropriately in a target language is an essential part of pragmatic competence. Requests are one of the most-used speech acts and they are face-threatening acts, thus it is important to be able to request in an effective way so that the hearer could meet our demand accordingly. It is also important to perform the request appropriately not to cause any kind of pragmatic failure or communication breakdown, which could lead to curricular problems. In this sense, foreign language classrooms should be able to provide the most suitable context where students can achieve pragmatic competence and behave accordingly in English as a foreign language. Pragmatic courses should be involved or increased not just in ELT setting, but also in EFL setting like departments of foreign languages. Firstly, it should be ensured that EFL teachers or instructors are equipped with a sufficient amount of pragmatic knowledge and competence. Secondly, syllabuses or curricula should be arranged in such a way that students can practise their pragmatic knowledge, for instance ELT students can work on their speech act performance in English in various situations including different social status in addition to gaining theoretical basis in their pragmatic courses in an ELT setting. Drama activities could be helpful for this aim. Students should be taught what is considered pragmatically appropriate and polite when performing any kind of speech acts in a target language. All these should also be incorporated into the textbooks used, too.

### **Recommendations for Further Studies**

It is recommended that further research be undertaken in the following areas: Firstly, the relationship between more speech acts and emotional intelligence could be investigated. The limitations of the current study should be acknowledged. The current study concentrates only one speech act to check whether it has a relationship with emotional intelligence or not. More speech acts can be studied for this aim. The number of request situations could be increased, too. Pragmatic transfer between the native language and the target language could be examined. Further investigation into the relationship between proficiency levels of EFL students and their emotional intelligence is recommended. Moreover, further studies might explore the role of instruction of emotional intelligence and speech acts in EFL and ELT setting.

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## APPENDICES



### **Appendix 1. The Assessing Emotions Scale (The Schutte Emotional Intelligence Scale)**

Directions: Each of the following items asks you about your emotions or reactions associated with emotions. After deciding whether a statement is generally true for you, use the 5-point scale to respond to the statement. Please circle the “1” if you strongly disagree that this is like you, the “2” if you somewhat disagree that this is like you, “3” if you neither agree nor disagree that this is like you, the “4” if you somewhat agree that this is like you, and the “5” if you strongly agree that this is like you.

There are no right or wrong answers. Please give the response that best describes you.

1 = strongly disagree

2 = somewhat disagree

3 = neither agree nor disagree

4 = somewhat agree

5 = strongly agree

- |  |           |
|--|-----------|
| 1. I know when to speak about my personal problems to others.  | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 2. When I am faced with obstacles, I remember times I faced similar obstacles and overcame them.       | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 3. I expect that I will do well on most things I try.  | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 4. Other people find it easy to confide in me.   | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 5. I find it hard to understand the non-verbal messages of other people.                               | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 6. Some of the major events of my life have led me to re-evaluate what is important and not important. | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 7. When my mood changes, I see new possibilities.  | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 8. Emotions are one of the things that make my life worth living.                                      | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 9. I am aware of my emotions as I experience them.   | 1 2 3 4 5 |
| 10. I expect good things to happen.  | 1 2 3 4 5 |

11. I like to share my emotions with others. 1 2 3 4 5
12. When I experience a positive emotion, I know how to  
make it last. 1 2 3 4 5
13. I arrange events others enjoy. 1 2 3 4 5
14. I seek out activities that make me happy. 1 2 3 4 5
15. I am aware of the non-verbal messages I send to others. 1 2 3 4 5
16. I present myself in a way that makes a good impression on others. 1 2 3 4 5
17. When I am in a positive mood, solving problems is easy for me. 1 2 3 4 5
18. By looking at their facial expressions, I recognize the  
emotions people are experiencing. 1 2 3 4 5
19. I know why my emotions change. 1 2 3 4 5
20. When I am in a positive mood, I am able to come up with  
new ideas. 1 2 3 4 5
21. I have control over my emotions. 1 2 3 4 5
22. I easily recognize my emotions as I experience them. 1 2 3 4 5
23. I motivate myself by imagining a good outcome to  
tasks I take on. 1 2 3 4 5
24. I compliment others when they have done something well. 1 2 3 4 5
25. I am aware of the non-verbal messages other people send. 1 2 3 4 5
26. When another person tells me about an important event in  
his or her life, I almost feel as though I experienced this  
event myself. 1 2 3 4 5
27. When I feel a change in emotions, I tend to come up

- with new ideas. 1 2 3 4 5
28. When I am faced with a challenge, I give up because  
I believe I will fail. 1 2 3 4 5
29. I know what other people are feeling just by looking at them. 1 2 3 4 5
30. I help other people feel better when they are down. 1 2 3 4 5
31. I use good moods to help myself keep trying in the face of  
obstacles. 1 2 3 4 5
32. I can tell how people are feeling by listening to the tone  
of their voice. 1 2 3 4 5
33. It is difficult for me to understand why people feel the way  
they do. 1 2 3 4 5



## Appendix 2. Permission for the Schutte Emotional Intelligence Scale

Dear Dr. Nicole Schutte,

I am a research assistant in ELT department at Gazi University, Turkey. I am going to write a thesis about the relationship between emotional intelligence level of EFL students and their foreign language skills. I would be more than pleased if you please could send me your emotional intelligence test (SSEIT), which is a great contribution to this field, and allow me to use it for my thesis, giving a complete reference to you in the reference part? I look forward to your answer.

Yours Faithfully,

Tuba Karagöz  
Gazi University  
Ankara  
Turkey

You are welcome to use the scale in your research. Please find attached the manuscript version of a published chapter that contains the scale and background information.

Kind regards,  
Nicola Schutte

### Appendix 3. The Discourse Completion Test

#### Discourse Completion Test

Age:

Gender:

Please respond to each situation as you would in actual conversation.

1. You need a book for your assignment and you know that one of your classmates, Jack has that book. You go and ask him to borrow his book by saying:  
.....
2. You are a worker in a company. You have been working there nearly for a year and think that you deserve a raise in your salary. You go to the office of your boss, David Taylor and say to him:  
.....
3. You are a teacher and you are supposed to be in a speaking jury for an oral exam in the afternoon session tomorrow, but you have a sore throat and want a substitute teacher for your place, so ask one of your colleagues, Abby Allan, to substitute for you in the oral exam, by saying:  
.....
4. You lent some money to your close friend, Jane two weeks ago. She was supposed to repay it to you in a week, but didn't. You need some money urgently, so ask for it by saying:  
.....

## **Appendix 4. The Rating Scale**

### **Rating Scale for Appropriateness of Speech Act Patterns**

**5-** The response of the subject is fully appropriate for the situation, reflecting the intended speech act clearly and giving necessary quantity of information in a polite way.

**4-** The response of the subject is mostly appropriate for the situation, reflecting the intended speech act in a relatively clear way and/ or giving relatively necessary amount of information in a polite or relatively polite way.

**3-** The response of the subject is somewhat inappropriate for the situation since it does not reflect the intended speech act clearly and gives too much/ too little information for the situation even if it is polite/ relatively polite.

**2-**The response of the subject is not appropriate enough for the situation and it does not reflect the intended speech act and gives too much/ too little or irrelevant information for the situation. The response is not polite enough.

**1-**The response of the subject is completely inappropriate for the situation and does not reflect the intended speech act at all and gives too much/ too little/ irrelevant or no information for the situation. The response can be regarded as rude.

## Appendix 5. An Excerpt from the Coded Data

It is worth noting again that S stands for the situations used in the DCT and P stands for the participants of the present study.

### Direct Requests

#### 1. Mood Derivables

S1. P119: I need your book, please give me for a few days

S3. P19: Please substitute for me in the oral exam because i am ill.

S3. P45: Do me a favour and take my class

S3. P 49: Please help me babe. Please do it for me.

S3. P119: Please subs.

S4. P119: Please give me some money.

#### 2. Explicit Performatives

S3. P56: I request you that you be in a speaking jury for an oral exam because I have a sore throat and don't feel well.

#### 3. Hedged Performatives

S3. P36: May I ask you to be jury instead of me?

S4. P100: I need to ask fort he money I gave to you.

#### 4. Want Statements

S2. P7: I want a raise in my salary.

S2. P33: I want you to raise my salary, because I deserve a better salary.

S2. P53: I think I deserve a raise in my salary so I want some raise

S2. P60: If it is possible, I want some raise in my salary.

S2. P73: If it is okay for you I want you to raise my salary.

S2. P 94: I would like a rise in my salary.

#### 5. Obligation Statements

S2. P110: The raising of salary should be done.

S4. P97: You should give to me, I need it.

### Conventionally Indirect Requests

#### 6. Preparatory

##### a. Ability

S1. P1: Can you give me your book?

S1. P3: Jack, can you give me your book for a short time?

S1. P7: I need a book for my assignment. I guess you have it, Could you give it to me?

S1. P10: Can you give me it?

S1. P19: Could you borrow that book to me please?

S1. P 35: I need that book, can you lend it to me?

S1. P44: Can you lend me your book for a couple of days?

S1. P66: Jack Can you lend your book for tonight?

S2. P24: Could you please raise my salary?

S2. P50: Could you give me a raise in my salary?

S3. P8: Can you substitute the jury for me please? I am very ill.

S3. P24: Could you teach instead of me?

S3. P1: Allan, can you join for my place, please?

S3. P24: Could you teach instead of me?

S3. P94: Can you attend the speaking jury instead of me?

S4. P1: Can you lend some money?

S4. P8: Can you give me some money this time please?

S4. P11: If you have money, can you give me some?

S4. P22: I need money urgently can you repay it?

S4. P40: Can you give the money I gave you back?

b. Permission

S1. P2: Can I borrow your book for a few days

S1. P5: Can I borrow your book?

S1. P14: Can I have your book? I really need it.

S1. P20: Please may I take your book for my purpose.

S1. P25: Can I take your book for my assignment?

S1. P37: May I borrow your book please?

S2. P87: May I take my salary in a raise?

S4. P83: If you remember I gave you some money. Can I take it?

c. Possibility

S1. P100: Is it possible to borrow me to copy it.

S2. P41: Is it possible to get some rise in my salary?

S2. P43: Do you have any chance to raise my salary?

S2. P44: Sir, is there any chance to raise my salary these days?

S3. P35: Is it possible to substitute the jury duty?

S3. P88: Is it possible to substitute our places, Abby?

S3. P99: Is it possible for you to be jury in the exam tomorrow? I can't be because I'm sick.

S4. P84: I wonder if you can pay the money back without wasting time because I need some money urgently.

S4. P105: Is it possible to repay the money now?

S4. P116: May you pay my money in this week?

d. Willingness

S1. P28: Would you give me your book for my assignment?

S4. P19: Would you please repay that money I gave you today?

S4. P39: Would it be a problem for you if you give the money back that I gave you two weeks ago?

S4. P104: I need some money, would you repay it to me please?

e. Consultative Devices

S1. P39: Would you mind if I borrow your book?

S1. P70: Would you mind giving me the book?

S1. P95: Do you mind if I took your book for two days?

S2. P56: Would you mind raising my salary as you know I work very hard and have been working for almost a year?

S2. P85: Would you mind if you raising my salary Mrs Taylor?

S2. P104: Would you mind if I deserve a raise in my salary?

S3. P7: Would you mind taking my place in oral exam?

S3. P18: Abby, would you mind participating the jury of oral exam.

S3. P68: Mrs Allan, would you mind doing the oral exam instead of me in the afternoon

S3. P86: Would you mind being jury instead of me?.

S3. P107: Would you mind entering to my oral exam instead of me?

#### Nonconventional Indirect Requests

##### 7. Strong Hint

S2. P3: Mr. Taylor, I have been working here for four years. I think I deserve a raise in my salary.

S2. P11: I have been working here for a year. I think I deserve promotion, so I can work a lot.

S2. P13: I find my salary very low. My effort deserves much.

S2. P14: I think I am doing my job well and I need a raise.

S2. P22: I think that I deserve a raise in my salary, what do you think?

S2. P25: I believe that I should take much salary.

S2. P28: As you know, money I earn isn't enough to be energetic for being a good working

S2. P31: Mr. Taylor I have some money problem, a raise in my salary would be perfect.

S2. P37: I have been working here for a year and my salary is same. Is it normal?

S2. P57: I have been working in this company for years and I believe that I have done my best to deserve a raise in my salary.

S2. P68: Mr. Taylor, Have you thought of a raise in my salary?

S2. P86: Excuse me sir, what do you think about my working performance and my salary?

S2. P88: I wonder when I raise in my salary.

S2. P115: I have been working at this company for a year. Don't you think that I have been very successful and I deserve a promotion?

S4. P3: Jane you know it doesn't problem for me. I could wait but I urgently need money.

S4. P6: You might forget but I need money now. Dont understand me in a wrap way.

S4. P21: I think you forgot an important paying

S4. P41: I am sorry for asking this, but I am in need of money urgently.

S4. P52: Do you think paying my money?

S4. P88: I'm afraid I get some troubles financially, too. That's why I just want to remember I lent you some.

S4. P106: Jane you know, I don't to push you, but I need that money. An urgency occurred so I don't have another choice.

S4. P112: I am really really sorry to say that but I've run out of...

8. Mild Hint

S2. P21: Don't you think I am hardworking?

S2. P30: I have been working in this lovely company for a year and I believe the company likes me.

S4. P10: I have to pay my dormitory





## Appendix 6. CV

### PERSONAL INFORMATION

Name, Surname : Tuba Karagöz  
Nationality : T.C.  
Date of Birth : 22.08.1989  
Place of Birth : Köyceğiz  
Marital Status : Single  
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### EDUCATION & TRAINING

(2013- now) : Department of Foreign Language Teaching, Gazi University, ANKARA.  
(2007-2011) : Department of English Linguistics,  
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### CERTIFICATIONS

(2013) : Certificate of Teacher Development Interactive: Fundamentals of ELT, Pearson English Language Learning Solutions, TOBB ETU, ANKARA  
(2009-2010) : Pedagogical Formation in English Language Teaching Faculty of Education, Hacettepe University, ANKARA  
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### FOREIGN LANGUAGES

English: Advanced German: Elementary