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**CROSS-LINGUISTIC AND CROSS-SUBJECT INVESTIGATION OF SPEECH
ACTS OF REFUSALS**

MA THESIS

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CROSS-LINGUISTIC AND CROSS-SUBJECT INVESTIGATION OF SPEECH
ACTS OF REFUSALS

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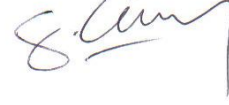
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Yüksek lisans tezi olarak sunduğum "Cross-Linguistic and Cross-Subject Investigation of Speech Acts of Refusals" adlı çalışmamın, tarafımdan bilimsel ahlak ve geleneklere aykırı düşecek bir yardıma başvurulmaksızın yazıldığını ve yararlandığım eserlerin Kaynakça'da gösterilenlerden oluştuğunu, bunlara atıf yapılarak yararlanmış olduğumu belirtir ve bunu onurumla doğrularım.

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ABSTRACT

This study investigates the speech act realizations of Turkish Native Speakers, Turkish Learners of English as a Foreign Language (EFL), and Native Speakers of American English in refusing. It deals with the competence of Turkish EFL Learners in speech acts of refusals, differences and similarities between the three groups of participants in terms of strategy choice, refusal types, and status consciousness, and lastly whether the pragmatic transfer is made from the native language to the target language refusals.

The data are collected by means of a Discourse Completion Test (DCT) adapted from Beebe, Takashashi, and Uliss-Weltz (1990). The participants consist of three different groups. The first group includes twenty (20) Native speakers of Turkish, who are students at Turkish Language Teaching Department of Faculty of Education, Muğla University. The second group includes twenty (20) Turkish EFL learners, who are students at English Language Teaching (ELT) Department of Faculty of Education, Muğla University. And finally, the third group involved in the study consists of 20 Native speakers of American English, who are students or graduates of different American Universities. The data are analyzed via content analysis and then crosstabulations are run to find out the frequency and percentage rates of the refusal strategies used by the participants.

Research findings indicate that: (1) the refusal strategies used by Turkish EFL Learners are valid when compared to both the classification of semantic formulas and to native speaker responses to the same refusal situations. Therefore, Turkish EFL Learners can be regarded as competent in realizing speech acts of refusals. (2) Refusal strategies used by participants of each group are very similar in general. There are only slight differences in the frequency and percentage of usages of the formulas between the groups. (3) The findings on pragmatic transfer have been classified in 3 dimensions: (a) Turkish EFL Learners deviated from native speaker norms because of negative transfer, (b) Turkish EFL Learners deviated from native speaker norms although Turkish and English showed similarities, and (c) Turkish

EFL Learners did not deviate from native speaker norms although Turkish and English showed differences.

KEY WORDS

Pragmatics, Speech Acts, Speech Acts of Refusals, Turkish Learners of English as a Foreign Language

ÖZET

Bu çalışma Türkçeyi anadil olarak konuşan Türkler, anadili Türkçe olup İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen Türkler ve anadili İngilizce olan Amerikalıların söz edimlerinden ret ifadelerini kullanımlarını araştırmaktadır. Çalışma anadili Türkçe olup İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen Türklerin ret ifadelerindeki başarısı, strateji seçimi, ret ifadelerinin çeşitleri ve ret ifadesinin kullanıldığı durumlardaki konuşmacıların statü duyarlılığı açılarından üç grup katılımcı arasındaki benzerlik ve farklılıklar ve son olarak ret ifadelerinin kullanımında anadilden hedef dile transfer yapılıp yapılmadığı boyutlarını içermektedir.

Bu çalışma için veriler Beebe, Takashashi ve Uliss-Weltz (1990) tarafından geliştirilen ve bu çalışmaya adapte edilen Söylem Tamamlama Testi ile toplanmıştır. Katılımcılar üç farklı gruptan oluşmaktadır. Birinci grup yirmi Muğla Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi Türk Dili Eğitim Bölümü öğrencisi, ikinci grup yirmi Muğla Üniversitesi Eğitim Fakültesi İngiliz Dili Eğitim Bölümü öğrencisi ve üçüncü grup anadili Amerikan İngilizcesi olan üniversite öğrencisi ya da mezunu yirmi kişiden oluşmaktadır. Toplanan veriler içerik analizi ve daha sonra bulguların frekans ve yüzde oranlarını saptamak amacıyla çapraz tablolama yöntemleri kullanılarak analiz edilmiştir.

Araştırmanın sonucunda üç bulgu elde edilmiştir: (1) Anadili Türkçe olup İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen Türk öğrencilerin ret ifadeleri, sınıflandırılmış ret ifadesi stratejileriyle ve anadili Amerikan İngilizcesi olan kişilerin aynı durumlara verdiği cevaplarla karşılaştırıldığında geçerli bulunmuştur. Bu durumda, anadili Türkçe olup İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen Türk öğrencileri ret ifadelerini kullanmada başarılı oldukları söylenebilir. (2) Üç grup katılımcının kullandıkları ret ifadesi stratejileri benzer çıkmıştır. Sadece frekans ve yüzde oranları arasında bazı farklılıklar bulunmuştur. (3) Edimbilimsel transfer konusundaki bulgular üç ayrı boyuta bölünmüştür: (a) Anadili Türkçe olup İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen Türk öğrencileri negatif transfer sebebiyle gerçek anadil kullanımlarından sapmıştır.

(b) Anadili Türkçe olup İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen Türk öğrencileri, Türkçe ve İngilizce kullanımların benzerlik göstermesine rağmen gerçek anadil kullanımlarından sapmıştır. (c) Anadili Türkçe olup İngilizceyi yabancı dil olarak öğrenen Türk öğrencileri, Türkçe ve İngilizce kullanımların farklılık göstermesine rağmen gerçek anadil kullanımlarından sapmamıştır.

ANAHTAR KELİMELER

Edimbilim, Sözedimleri, Ret İfadeleri, Anadili Türkçe Olup İngilizceyi Yabancı Dil Olarak Öğrenen Türkler

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CHAPTER 1 INTRODUCTION

1.1. Background to the Study

Pragmatic competence is an indispensable aspect of language learning, which needs to be developed in order to have a native-like mastery of the target language. Since it refers to sociocultural and linguistic appropriateness of the utterances it is a core element that organizes the relationships among people from different nations, different cultures and different language backgrounds.

Different languages mean different cultures; each culture and language have their own strategies of maintaining (successful) relationships, and people who are learning a foreign or second language have to go through these strategies in addition to the learning of the structural rules. Therefore, learning a language is something beyond the sole mastery of the linguistic forms of an L2, it rather requires the awareness of sociocultural norms and standards of the target society. As we shall all accept, these norms and standards are the identifiers of the relationships among people. For instance, results of some studies in the field (Beebe, 1985; Beebe et al., 1985; Beebe and Takahashi, 1987) have shown that status of the addressee plays a much more important role in the interactions of the Japanese; it has been found that "...in the behavior of the Japanese, unlike English speaking Americans, they did not apologize or regret in responses to those of lower position" (in Al-Eryani, 2007: 22). However, this kind of transfer from the native culture to the target one will most probably cause problems and misunderstandings in cross-cultural relationships.

As it is obvious from the research carried out in the field, accomplishing pragmatic competence in language learning process is a very hard job, although it is one of the most essential aspects of that process. Because of the reasons mentioned above, the experts in the English Language Teaching (ELT) have been trying to overcome this "challenge for foreign or second language teaching" (Kasper, 1997) in

order to prevent foreign/second language learners from being strangers in the culture of target language.

As for Turkish EFL settings, in which there are some discrepancies between the receptive and productive skills of the learners, pragmatic competence besides the pragmatic transfer from the native language and culture is thought to be one of the weaknesses to be developed. This study aims to contribute to Turkish EFL settings in terms of the awareness of the problem in issue and cater for some possible solutions.

1.2. Scope of the Study

The study touches on the titles of pragmatics, pragmatics and foreign language teaching, pragmatic transfer, and narrows down the topic to speech acts, indirect speech acts, and then to the cross-linguistic and cross-subject realization of speech acts of refusals. Thus, the topics to be investigated in this study are as follows;

- (a) The competence of Turkish EFL learners in producing the speech act of ‘Refusals’,
- (b) Their ability in refusing requests, invitations, offers and suggestions appropriately according to the social distance between the addressor and the addressee (lower, equal, higher status relationships), and
- (c) Comparison of native (Turkish) and target (English) language productions of ‘Refusals’ in terms of pragmatic transfer.

1.3. Aim of the Study

The study is investigating the similarities and differences in the realizations of speech acts of refusals among three groups of participants, which consist of Native Speakers of Turkish, Turkish Learners of English as a Foreign Language, and Native Speakers of American English. Therefore, this study aims to shed light on the following research questions:

1. How competent are Turkish EFL learners in producing the speech act of 'refusals' in English?
2. What are the differences between refusals produced by Native Speakers of Turkish, Turkish EFL Learners, and Native Speakers of American English in terms of strategies used and social distance of the interlocutors?
3. Do Turkish EFL Learners make pragmatic transfer from their native language to the target language?

1.4. Significance of the Study

The research into the pragmatic competence of Turkish learners in English refusals, which is the core of this study, can be important for various reasons. First of all, although there are many studies carried out across various language communities, "there seems to be only a few studies which have been conducted in the Turkish context" (Mengi, 2001: 6). This lack of research in the field may lead to some kinds of shortcomings/weaknesses in the processes of both teaching and learning English. Pragmatic competence, which requires serious efforts to be developed, is a very essential aspect of language learning. Thus, an increase in the number of similar studies is needed.

On the other hand, since "the knowledge required to perform illocutionary acts constitutes a part of communicative competence" (Ellis, 1994; 165), in which sociolinguistic competence can be included, it is important for setting up relationships among people. Otherwise, a failure in that point, as Wolfson (1989) argues (in Ellis, 1994), causes "learners [to] deprive themselves of the opportunities to establish relationships with native speakers and, thereby, of the input that they need to develop both their linguistic and sociolinguistic competence" (p.165). Then, another reason that makes this study important is that, as Chen (1996) states "Refusal is a face-threatening act to the listener/requestor/inviter, because it contradicts his or her expectations ..., thus, it requires a high level of pragmatic competence." (in Tanck, 2002: 2).

As a result, this study has a value in terms of understanding the nature of Turkish learners' producing the speech act of refusals; their weaknesses and strengths in that point. Furthermore, by interpreting the results of the investigation, some suggestions for solution (if a problem is encountered) can be put forward. The study will also provide data for the Turkish learners' sociocultural and sociolinguistic abilities in the target culture and language since "the selection of the appropriate speech act strategy is conditioned by a host of social, cultural, situational and personal factors" (Cohen, 1996: 39). Furthermore, Cohen (1996: 40) cited a study by Billmyer (1990) by which it is concluded that "formal instruction concerning the social rules of language use given in the classroom can assist learners in communicating more appropriately with natives outside of the classroom". Thus it can be said to prove that communicative competence is directly related to learners' ability to handle social rules of language use. Çelik (2007: 248) defines communicative competence as "the ability to use the language in a way to complete a communicative task successfully". Savignon (2001) puts across that communicative competence consists of grammatical competence, discourse competence, sociocultural competence, and strategic competence, which are interrelated components that "an increase in one component interacts with other components to produce a corresponding increase in overall communicative competence" (p. 17).

1.5. Limitations to the Study

This study aims to investigate a very significant aspect in learner language, pragmalinguistic ability in speech acts of refusals. In this respect, there are some difficulties in data collection procedures leading to some limitations for the study.

The nature of the study requires observing the subjects (in this case the learners) in natural speech contexts for the collection of the most sound data. However, this seems to be impossible for reasons of management, time, privacy, need of specific situations for the expressions to be used, and so on. Kasper and Dahl (1991) have something to say in this point:

With the exception of highly routinized and standardized speech events, sufficient instances of cross-linguistically and cross-culturally comparable data are difficult to collect through observation of authentic conversation (p. 42).

This being the case, some data collection techniques have been developed to represent the natural learner speech. These techniques can be classified as verbal and written ones. Verbal data elicitation technique, which has two subcategories as ethnographic observation and role-plays, is regarded as naturally occurring data in the literature (Cohen, 1996; Houck and Gass, 1996). On the other hand, written data elicitation technique, by Discourse Completion Tests used as the instrument in this study, are concluded to represent very similar data (Rintell and Mitchell, 1989; Bodman and Eisenstein, 1988, in Beebe and Cummings, 1996), nevertheless they elicit more controlled and non-authentic data. The same point is mentioned in Kasper and Dahl (1991) as:

... tightly controlled data elicitation techniques might well preclude access to precisely the kinds of conversational and interpersonal phenomena that might shed light on the pragmatics of IL (interlanguage) use and development. Clearly there is a great need for more authentic data, collected in the full context of the speech event... (my parenthesis) (p. 42).

According to Kasper and Dahl (1991; 1) there is another point of limitation in pragmatics that researchers deal with a double layer of variability: (a) variability which reflects the social properties of the speech event, and the strategic, actional and linguistic choices by which interlocutors attempt to reach their communicative goals; and (b) the variability induced by different instruments of data collection.

1.6. Operational Definitions:

The terms to be used in this study are pragmatics, speech act, and speech act of refusal, pragmatic competence, pragmatic failure, pragmatic transfer, and finally interlanguage.

Pragmatics as Levinson (1983) defines, “is the study of the ability of language users to pair sentences with the contexts in which they would be appropriate” (p.24). In other words, “Pragmatics is particularly concerned with appropriateness, both with regard to what is said in a particular context and how it is said” (Ellis, 1994: 23). Çelik (2007: 221) also defines Pragmatics as “the study of principles and practice that underlie all interactive linguistic performance including language use, appropriateness and comprehension. And lastly, Yule (1996: 127) defines pragmatics as “the study of intended meaning.”

“**Speech Act**” is “an action performed by the use of an utterance to communicate” (Mengi, 2001:12) and examples of speech acts include giving and responding to compliments, asking questions, apologizing, giving refusals (Nelson, Carson, Al Batal, El Bakary, 2002: 163). “**The speech act of refusal** occurs when a speaker directly or indirectly says no to a request or invitation” (Tanck, 2002: 1).

According to Lightbown and Spada (1999); Gass and Selinker (2001) **pragmatic competence** is the ability to use language forms in a wide range of environments, factoring in the relationships between the speakers involved and the social and cultural context of the situation (in Tanck,2002:1).

On the other hand, **pragmatic failure** “occurs when an L1 speaker perceives the purpose of an L2 utterance as something other than the L2 speaker intended” and **pragmatic transfer** is “the use of L1 speech act strategies that are inappropriate in the corresponding L2 setting” (Nelson, Carson, Al Batal, El Bakary, 2002:164).

Interlanguage, in Koike's (1989: 280) words, is the term given to an interim series of stages of language learning between the first (L1) and second language (L2) grammars through which all L2 learners must pass on their way to attaining fluency in the target language.

CHAPTER 2

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. An Overview of Pragmatics

The interest towards pragmatics, according to Levinson (1983: 35), developed in part “as a reaction or antidote to Chomsky’s treatment of language as an abstract device, or mental ability, dissociable from the uses, users and functions of language.” Philosophical thought devoted much work (e.g. by Austin, Searle, Grice) to show the importance of the uses of language to an understanding of its nature (Levinson, 1983: 36).

Charles Morris (1938), the philosopher who the modern usage of the term pragmatics is attributable to, explains that “pragmatics deals with all the psychological, biological, and sociological phenomena which occur in the functioning of signs” (in Levinson: 1983). Hence, pragmatists face a much wider scope that includes psycholinguistics, sociolinguistics, neurolinguistics, and so on. To compare, pragmatics is interested in more than that of other branches of linguistics because “...there [is] more going on between people and language than [is] dreamt of ...” (Mey, 1993: 14). To open up a bit more, for instance semantics can be considered. Semantics, as Mey (1993: 13) explains, remained an abstract, descriptive science favourite concern of which was the conditions under which a sentence was true or false. However:

“... Pragmaticians found out rather quickly that the truth value of a sentence, taken in its abstract form, was of little interest to the users of language, who rarely would utter something in order to be proven true or false. Usually it is much more interesting to try and find out *why* people say something than whether *what* they say is true or false” (Mey, 1993: 14).

On the other hand, defining pragmatics is not so easy. Since any single definition may not be sufficient to define it with all aspects, a number of possibilities may be presented here.

Traditionally it is defined as “the study of language use.” However, Levinson (1983) regards this definition as hardly sufficing to indicate what practitioners of pragmatics actually do.

Some definitions emphasize the user aspect of pragmatics. Mey (1993: 5) specifies that “pragmatics is the science of language seen in relation to its users (...) as it is used by real, live people, for their own purposes and within their limitations and affordances.” For pragmatics, language users are at the center of interest and of great importance since it deals with the ‘practical, usage-bound aspect’ of language rather than its formal, abstract side. Moreover, pragmatics is interested not just in the end-product, language, but in the process of producing language and its producers. Similarly, Crystal (1997) proposes that “pragmatics is the study of language from the point of view of users, especially of the choices they make, the constraints they encounter in using language in social interaction and the effects their use of language has on other participants in the act of communication” (in Rose & Kasper, 2001: 2). Levinson (1983) is another researcher who defined pragmatics as the field of study where linguistic features are considered in relation to users of the language.

On the other hand, some other definitions point out the relationship of context with the language. Forrester (1996: 54) asserts that pragmatics is the study of grammatical relations between language structure and context. Levinson (1983: 9) comes up with another definition that “the term pragmatics covers both context–dependent aspects of language structure and principles of language usage and understanding that have nothing or little to do with linguistic structure.” Tercanlıoğlu (2000: 129) differentiates between semantics and pragmatics that the former gets the meaning from the possible

syntactic structures of the sentence and from the meaning of the words in that sentence, however, the latter goes a step further and considers contextual and world knowledge.

Appropriateness of language use is another notion that the field of pragmatics makes central. According to one of the most favoured definitions in the literature, “pragmatics is the study of the ability of language users to pair sentences with the contexts in which they would be appropriate” (Levinson, 1983: 24). It is implied here that pragmatics is concerned with the assignment of appropriateness-conditions to the set of sentences and contexts in which they would be appropriate. Ellis (1994: 23) specifies that “pragmatics is particularly concerned with appropriateness, both with regard to what is said in a particular context and how it is said.”

2.1.1. Basic Concepts

The notion that language in use is very different from language in isolation has catered as a starting point for the field pragmatics and this view led to a deeper understanding of communication process as a rather complex phenomenon than solely the utterance of words and sentences from one speaker to a hearer. Communication, which can be defined as sending and receiving messages mutually, is surrounded by many factors that identify the performance and quality of communication and the direction of meaning.

Some of these factors, which are named here as ‘basic concepts’, are needed to be regarded under the title of pragmatics since they are directly related to the use and users of language.

2.1.1.1. Context

As obvious from its definition, pragmatics –the study of language in use- is strongly dependent on context. Because the language being used is surrounded by context and the contextual elements such as time, place, the social status of the

interlocutors, the relationship between them and so on. In other words, who are the addressees, what is the relation between speakers/writers and hearers/readers, when and where does the speech event occur? and so on are in the investigation scope of pragmatics (Celce-Murcia and Olshtain, 2000), because "...as language users we always operate in contexts. [Therefore] pragmatic thinking is context-bound." (Mey, 1993: 58) Geis (2006) points out that context is more important than form or literal meaning in our ability to use single utterances (p. 139), because it is the context that provides for the conditions which enable us to use or understand (the illocutionary point of) single utterances.

The reason that context is strictly considered as the indispensable aspect of language and in the studies dealing with the speech acts is that the interpretation of illocutionary act of utterances is determined by the context to a large extent. To illustrate this, 2 example sentences by Geis (2006: 20) can be considered:

(1) It is going to rain today.

In this utterance deriving three different illocutionary acts is possible depending on the context. By uttering this sentence one may 'make a complaint' in condition that the rain causes a problem for him/her (he/she has planned a picnic), or 'issue a warning' to someone in condition that the rain causes a problem for someone else (the other person has planned a picnic), or 'convey information' to people about the weather conditions if he/she is a TV weather announcer.

(2) Can you solve this sort of quadratic equation?

Similarly in the utterance (2) by a university professor to a student or by a desperate student to another student has different illocutionary acts. In the first case, the illocutionary act of the utterance may be asking 'Are you competent enough?' to the student whereas in the second case, the illocutionary act may be 'Can you help me understand it?' or 'Can you explain it to me?' To clarify, in Geis's words, "The social context and the relationship between the speaker and the interlocutor play a

decisive role in determining what communicative action is being performed by the speaker in uttering the sentence...”(2006; 20). In parallel, Mey (1993: 138) suggests that “... speech acts only make sense when we see them used in their proper contexts. As isolated lexical items, or members of a set, they have very little to tell us”. For instance, in trying to interpret such a speech act below, without knowing about its context, the point one can reach is only vagueness.

(a) Can you carry this bag?

The point of interlocutor uttering this sentence can be either interrogating the addressee’s ability of carrying the bag, or requesting him/her help the addressor carry the bag.

2.1.1.2. Culture

Culture, just like the context, is a decisive factor in language, especially in learner language. Since language and culture are interrelated, learning of a foreign language would better go with developing an understanding of the target culture concurrently. And what is more, various features in the target language culture are different from those in the learners’ own culture. It is suggested by Alptekin (2002) that teachers develop target language competence in learners by integrating language and culture (pp. 58-59). Çakır (2006) states that a language is a part of culture and culture is a part of language (p. 154). In parallel, Dash (2004) points out that a fuller understanding of culture can better help to isolate cross-cultural pragmatic failure from other types of communication failure.

Çakır (2006: 157) suggests some other reasons for familiarizing learners with the cultural components as follows:

- developing the communicative skills,
- understanding the linguistic and behavioral patterns both of the target and the native culture at a more conscious level,
- developing intercultural and international understanding,

- adopting a wider perspective in the perception of the reality,
- making teaching sessions more enjoyable to develop an awareness of the potential mistakes that might come up in comprehension, interpretation, and translation and communication.

According to Alptekin (2002), since learners, in addition to the accurate structures, are expected to learn how to use them as well in given social situations in the target language setting to convey appropriate, coherent and strategically-effective meanings to the native speakers, “learning a foreign language becomes a kind of enculturation, where one acquires new cultural frames of reference and a new world view, reflecting those of the target language culture and its speakers” (p. 58).

Furthermore, Dash (2004) warns that the teaching of cultural pragmatics would seem to require that instructors be careful and knowledgeable and as objective as possible in order not to allow personal judgements, hearsay or plain prejudice and stereotyping affect the students’ understanding of the target culture.

Hudson (1986, in Dash, 2004) expands the case of culture and mentions the important link between *culture* and *speech act theory*. According to her, one needs to consider different cultures and specific cultural systems and categories at times in describing or examining certain speech acts. Without sensitivity to the contrasting cultural differences that contribute to such illocutionary differences at the pragmatic level, cross-culturally based confusion can result between the people of different native languages.

Conversely, regarding the lingua franca status of English, Alptekin (2002) offers a rethink of the traditional notion of communicative competence in terms of intercultural communicative competence rather than a native-like competence and puts the usage of English for instrumental reasons such as professional contacts, academic studies, etc. in the world as the reason. This being the case, he questions the relevance of “culturally-laden” instruction especially where much communication in English involve nonnative -nonnative interactions (p. 61).

2.2. Pragmatics and Language Teaching

Previous research on the pragmatic aspect of learner language generally supports the claim that target language speech act knowledge is incomplete for many L2 learners (Ellis, 1994). Learners' knowledge can be incomplete at this stage no matter how grammatically proficient they are in language. Bardovi-Harlig (2001) notes that studies carried out in the field show that "even grammatically advanced learners show differences from target-language pragmatic norms." That's to say, a learner of high grammatical proficiency will not necessarily possess the same level of pragmatic competence. In parallel, Nguyen (2005: 46) concludes that "L2 learners' pragmatic competence tend to lag behind their grammatical competence." Because this side of language requires more to be competent, beyond the classroom instruction, such as natural language input.

Foreign language learners –compared to second language learners- mostly have little access to target-language input and even less opportunity for productive L2 use outside the classroom (Rose and Kasper, 2001: 4). Therefore, lack of exposure to target culture and natural speech environments lead to differences in language learners' pragmatic production and comprehension compared to native speakers'.

Bardovi-Harlig (2001) divides the differences between Non-Native Speakers (NNSs) and native speakers (NSs) into four main categories: (1) use of different speech acts; where the same speech acts are used (2) differences in semantic formula, (3) content or (4) form. She explains the difference in the choice of speech acts as "NNSs may perform different speech acts than NSs in the same contexts, or, alternatively, they may elect not to perform any speech act at all" (2001: 14). The second kind of differences is seen in the choice of semantic formulas. For example, a direct refusal may contain performative (I refuse) or nonperformative (No; I can't) statement and an indirect refusal may contain statement of regret (I'm sorry); excuse (I have a headache); statement of alternative (I'd prefer...); and so on (Beebe, Takahashi and Uliss-Weltz, 1990). The third way of differences, content, "refers to the specific information given by a speaker" (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001: 18). The same

research by Beebe et al. (1990) shows that native speakers of American English provide more details and explanations in refusing an invitation (e.g. I have a business lunch that day) whereas Japanese speakers of English are vague by American norms (e.g. I have something to do). The fourth way of differences is in the form of speech acts. Bardovi-Harlig (2001: 19) exemplifies this as the use of mitigators by native speakers and aggravators by nonnative speakers; or the use of downgraders (e.g. I'm not sure, really) by native speakers and upgraders (e.g. at all) by nonnative speakers while rejecting.

Throughout the language learning processes, one can mention some factors that are most probably affecting the development of L2 pragmatic competence. These factors are identified as availability of input, influence of instruction, proficiency, length of exposure and transfer (Bardovi-Harlig, 2001: 24).

According to Bardovi-Harlig (2001) input is an important factor that influences L2 pragmatic development. Input can be received from the learning context and instruction, (i.e. teachers and textbooks). However, any classrooms tend to provide either less input than needed or the input they produce is sometimes misleading (Nguyen, 2005), because classrooms and textbooks offer 'artificial discourse' (Kasper 1997; Bardovi-Harlig, 2001). In addition, teacher-talk does not serve as a pragmatically appropriate model for learners since there is an inequality in terms of roles and power (Ellis, 1992; Bardovi-Harlig, 2001). Teacher-talk in general includes imperative forms, which would normally be regarded as impolite; and the teacher-controlled discourse lacks variability and flexibility. But despite its controlling nature, as suggested by Kasper (1997), there is an important point even teacher-fronted classroom serves as a learning resource. This point was identified as classroom management performed in the target language, because "in this activity language does not function as an object for analysis and practice but as a means for communication" (Kasper, 1997). Therefore, the classes in which management is carried out in the students' native language deprive them of experiencing target language (TL) as a real means of communication.

As for the other factor, instruction, recent studies have shown that it is beneficial for the development of TL pragmatic competence (Nguyen, 2005). It is specified in Bardovi-Harlig (2001) that instructed learners have an advantage over uninstructed learners in terms of learners' movement toward the native-speaker norms (p. 26). The findings of an evaluation by Crandall and Basturkmen (2004: 38) showed that after instruction learners' perception of the appropriateness of requests matched those of native speakers more closely than they did prior to instruction. Level of proficiency and length of stay have different effects on pragmatic competence. The former appears to have little effect as shown in the research (Kasper & Schmidt, 1996; Takahashi, 1996; Takahashi and Beebe, 1987 cited in Bardovi-Harlig, 2001). However, the latter is reported to have direct proportion to an increase in native speaker approximation in the use of speech acts (Olshtain and Blum-Kulka, 1985); sensitivity to pragmatic infelicities (Bardovi-Harlig & Hartford, 1993); interpretation of implicature (Bouton, 1992); use of multiple turns in lengthy greetings (Omar, 1991, 1992) as length of stay increased (cited in Bardovi-Harlig, 2001:28). And the last factor, transfer, will be examined under the title below in more detail.

Furthermore, Kasper (1997) makes a point on the teachability of pragmatic competence and regards competence (linguistic or pragmatic) as a type of knowledge that learners possess, develop, acquire, use or lose; and so as not being teachable. Therefore, what language teachers can do is to arrange learning opportunities in such a way that the learners benefit the development of pragmatic competence in L2 with activities aiming at raising learners' pragmatic awareness and offering opportunities for communicative practice.

2.3. Pragmatic Transfer

Language transfer has been a central issue in applied linguistics, second language acquisition, and language teaching. "Transfer is the influence resulting from similarities and differences between the target language and any other language that has been previously (...) acquired" (Odlin, 1989: 27). Lado (1957) has this to say about language transfer:

Individuals tend to transfer the forms and meanings, and the distribution of forms and meanings of their native language and culture to the foreign language and culture – both productively when attempting to speak the language and to act in the culture, and receptively when attempting to grasp and understand the culture as practiced by the natives (in Odlin, 1989: 16).

Larsen-Freeman & Long (1991: 105) define transfer as “a strategy available to compensate for lack of L2 knowledge.” According to them, whether or not learners transfer a form can depend on their perception of L1-L2 distance (i.e. similarity/dissimilarity level of the two languages), and learners’ proficiency level. Similarly, Benson (2002, 69) asserts that “if two languages are perceived as close, transfer (both positive and negative) is more likely to occur.” About the proficiency level, Kellerman (1983) found that beginners are more willing to transfer, intermediate students are more conservative about transferring, and advanced learners become willing to assume transferability; and error frequency in the three phases, consequently, is initially low, then rose, and finally fell again (in Larsen-Freeman & Long, 1991: 106). The reason is that, low-proficiency learners do not have the necessary linguistic resources to do so. Higher-proficiency learners, on the other hand, have such resources so their L2 production will tend to reveal more transfer (Kasper & Rose, 2002).

It is concluded that transfer occurs in all linguistic subsystems (Odlin, 1989). Therefore, the transfer of knowledge of a first language can reflect aspects of any component of language, including syntax, phonology, morphology, semantics and pragmatics (Koike, 1996: 257). However, in this study the interest in transfer will be limited to pragmatic transfer only.

To define pragmatic transfer, Kasper’s (1992) definition should be adopted as:

Pragmatic transfer in interlanguage pragmatics shall refer to 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).

A distinction, also, is made by Kasper between “positive” and “negative” transfer. The kind of transfer that results in interlanguage pragmatic behavior that is consistent with TL norms is regarded as “positive”, while the kind of transfer that causes interlanguage deviation from the target norm is considered “negative”. According to Bardovi-Harlig (2001: 29), “positive transfer results in successful exchanges, whereas negative transfer (...) may result in nonnative use (or avoidance) of speech acts, semantic formulas, or linguistic form.” Therefore, positive transfer can be said to “promote acquisition” (in Odlin’s terms) and learning as well as the native – nonnative relationship, while negative transfer does the reverse.

Another point in transfer is identifying the cases of it in nonnative TL production. The study of transfer depends greatly on the systematic comparisons of languages [here in pragmatic aspects] provided by **contrastive analysis** (Odlin, 1989: 28). Contrastive analysis across languages emerged as a practical need to teach an L2 in the best way possible therefore, the origins of it were pedagogic (Ellis, 1985: 23). As Lado (1957) makes clear, the teacher who has made a comparison of the foreign language with the native language of the students will know better what the real problems are and can provide for teaching them (in Ellis, 1985). The ultimate goal is to predict areas that will be either easy or difficult for learners (Gass & Selinker, 2008). It compares two or more languages in order to identify similarities and differences between two systems (Akıncı-Akkurt, 2007). However, there are some differences in the ease of identifying positive and negative transfer cases in the research. Odlin (1989: 36) asserts that “since negative transfer involves divergences from norms in the target language, it is often relatively easy to identify.” However, when the attention is on the positive transfer, there may be an uncertainty in whether an expression by a nonnative speaker is transferred from his/her L1 or not, and this uncertainty stems from the similarity between the two languages. Thus, “the effects of positive transfer are only determinable through

comparisons of the success of groups with different native languages” (Odlin, 1989: 36).

As for its implications for teaching, they are specified by Benson (2002: 70) as follows:

1. Transfer can be positive as well as negative: teachers can capitalize on any [pragmatic] similarities between L1 and L2.
2. Consciousness-raising can be valuable: teachers can explicitly point out or elicit awareness of differences between L1 and L2.
3. Translation may be useful: (a) of sentences (either authentic or specially constructed) illustrating specific points and anticipating particular transfer errors. (b) of whole texts containing a variety of potential transfer errors.

2.4.Speech Acts

The study of speech acts had been one of the concerns of mainly the ‘philosophy of language’ since linguists dealt with empirical facts of natural human languages; and the philosophy of language dealt with the conceptual truths that underlie any possible language or communication. However, lately with the collaboration between linguists and philosophers the question “how do structure and function interact?” has been of interest to both philosophers and linguists (Searle: 1979: 162).

As a starting point, Austin (1962) extended the conceptualizations of language and regarded language as performative (action), in which saying something is doing something as in requesting, refusing or advising something. And he introduced speech acts (Locutionary acts as he preferred), and three different aspects (forces) of them. Searle (1969) defines speech acts as follows:

“The unit of linguistic communication is not, as has generally been supposed, the symbol, word or sentence, but rather the production or issuance of the

symbol or word or sentence in the performance of the speech act. (...) More precisely, the production or issuance of a sentence token under certain conditions is a speech act, and speech acts are basic or minimal units of linguistic communication.” (p. 16)

Austin (1969) further made a distinction between three different senses or dimensions of speech acts in ‘the use of a sentence’ or ‘the use of language’. In this respect, these senses are as follows, in Levinson’s (1983: 236) words:

- (i) **Locutionary act:** the utterance of a sentence with determinate sense and reference
- (ii) **Illocutionary act:** the making of a statement, offer, promise, etc. in uttering a sentence, by virtue of the conventional force associated with it
- (iii) **Perlocutionary act:** the bringing about of effects on the audience by means of uttering the sentence, such effects being special to the circumstances of utterance.

Austin (1962:101-102) illustrates the case using the utterance (a) Shoot her! and describes it as having **the Locutionary act** of *shooting her*; **the illocutionary force** of urging, advising, ordering etc. the addressee to shoot; and **the perlocutionary effect** of persuading or forcing the addressee to shoot. The continuing utterance of the addressor (b) ‘You can’t do that’ has **the illocutionary force** of protesting, and **the perlocutionary effects** of checking the addressee, stopping him, bringing him to his senses or annoying him. (We call them illocutionary **force** and perlocutionary **effect** because, as Austin (1962:120) puts it, the illocutionary act has a certain *force* in saying something and the perlocutionary act is *the achieving of certain effects* by saying something). Levinson (1983) reviews the case that:

... the illocutionary act is what is directly achieved by the conventional force associated with the issuance of a certain kind of utterance in accord with a conventional procedure, and is consequently determinate (in principle at least). In contrast, a perlocutionary act is specific to the circumstances of issuance,

and is therefore not conventionally achieved just by uttering that particular utterance, and includes all those effects, intended or unintended... (p. 237).

In addition, according to Austin (1962: 109), we must distinguish the illocutionary from the perlocutionary act: for example we must distinguish ‘**in** saying it I **was warning** him’ from ‘**by** saying it I **convinced** him, or **surprised** him, or **got** him to stop’”.

Searle (1969: 49-50) first explains the phenomenon of ‘meaning’ in Gricean (1957) terms and then revises his analysis. In Grice’s original analysis, Speaker S means something by X:

- a) S intends (I) the utterance U of X to produce a certain perlocutionary effect PE in hearer H.
- b) S intends U to produce PE by means of the recognition of (I).

And in revised analysis of Searle, S utters sentence T and means it (means literally what he says): S utters T and;

- a) S intends I the utterance U of T to produce in H the knowledge (recognition, awareness) that the states of affairs (specified by the rules of T) obtain. (He call this effect illocutionary effect, IE).
- b) S intends U to produce IE by means of the recognition of (I).
- c) S intends that (I) will be recognized by means of H’s knowledge of the rules governing T.

Here, what Grice’s analysis of meaning lacks is the point of ‘understanding.’ Searle (1969: 47-48) explains:

“The characteristic intended effect of meaning is understanding, but understanding is not the sort of effect that is included in Grice’s examples of effects. It is not a perlocutionary effect. (...) Meaning and understanding are too closely tied for the latter to be the basis for an analysis of the former. So

what I shall do in my analysis of illocutionary acts is unpack what constitutes understanding a literal utterance in terms of the rules concerning the elements of the uttered sentence and in terms of the hearer's recognition the sentence as subject to those rules."

Hence, Searle's (1969) objection to Grice's analysis produces the case that:

On the speaker's side, saying something and meaning it are closely connected with intending to produce certain effects on the hearer. On the hearer's side, understanding the speaker's utterance is closely connected with recognizing his intentions. In the case of literal utterances the bridge between the speaker's side and the hearer's side is provided by their common language (p. 48).

Additionally, Mey (1993:133-134) attracts attention to a different point - to **Speech Act Verbs (SAVs)**, which are "certain, well defined exemplars of the species (speech acts; *my parenthesis*)" namely "specific linguistic expressions on such acts". He asserts that "there is a certain asymmetry in the relationship between SAVs and Speech Acts (SAs) that not all SAs are represented by a specific SAV, but may be represented by several others". For instance, the SA of ordering may be expressed in various, often indirect ways – by a direct ordering verb, by a normal verb in the imperative or even by circumlocution, where all the utterances express the same order, as in the examples below:

- (i) I order you to shut the door.
- (ii) Shut the door!
- (iii) You will shut the door.

In fact, the case of Speech Act Verbs, which Mey mentions above, has a lot in parallel with Austin's (1962) claim about **explicit & implicit performative sentences**. He argues that, a request or order to turn out the lights for example, can be communicated directly, not only by using explicit performative sentences like (1) but also by employing implicit performative sentences such as (2).

- (1) I order you to turn out the lights.
- (2) Turn out the lights.

As obviously noticed from the examples, the ideas asserted by Austin (1962) and Mey (1993) are very similar, except the terms used. In reconsidering the examples, it can be seen that sentences (i) and (1) are both explicit performative sentences as Austin (1962) calls and they have direct ordering verbs (Speech Act Verbs) as Mey calls. Similarly, the sentences (ii) and (2) are both implicit performative sentences as Austin calls and they have normal verbs in the imperative (that is, they have no SAVs) as Mey explains.

In addition, Geis's (2006; 33) **definition of meaning** can be touched upon in terms of its similarity to the speech acts theory. He suggests that the word 'meaning' has three different senses. The first one is L-Meaning (illustrated in sentence (a) below) which "corresponds to the notion of literal or conventional meaning and is captured in part by the truth conditional approach to meaning" (p. 34). The second sense "involves the notion of speaker intention, I-Meaning" (illustrated in sentence (b)). Geis (2006) matches I-Meaning with the goals of speakers, "that is, with the intended effects of what they say and do." Here Geis (2006) also quotes Grice's words "there must be an intention on the part of the speaker in saying what was said to cause some response in the addressee, where this response is at least partially determined by the addressee's recognition of the speaker's intention to produce this response in saying what was said" (p. 34). The third sense "involves the notion of utterance significance, S-Meaning". The case is illustrated in sentence (c), which shows that the speaker ascribes no significance to the addressee's declaration of love. At this point Geis (2006) explains that "... just as we seek out the meaning (significance) of physical events we, as language users, seek out the meaning (significance) of people's uttering sentences to us" (p. 37).

- (a) What is the meaning of "Ich liebe dich"?
- (b) I didn't mean to upset you when I said I love you.
- (c) When you say you love me it doesn't mean anything to me.

These two concepts (The Speech Acts Theory and the definition of meaning by Geis) may be considered to intersect in such a way: L-meaning refers to a similar point with the Locutionary act. L-meaning, as explained above, is the literal or conventional meaning of an utterance and Locutionary act is the determinate sense of an utterance. That is, L-meaning is limited to the literal meaning and Locutionary act is limited to the pure meaning of the utterances without any interpretation or implies of the interlocutors. The second sense, I-meaning, is identical to the illocutionary act since both in I-meaning and in the illocutionary acts the intended effects of what is said are in issue. In illocutionary acts, for instance, the intended effect is called making an offer or promising, suggesting, refusing something and so on. There is a parallel between the third sense, S-meaning and the perlocutionary act since both deals with the effect an utterance produces on the addressee. Let's consider the case from both points of view. For instance, an addressor utters the following sentence "Get up early tomorrow morning!" This utterance has the Locutionary act and L-meaning of 'getting up early'; the illocutionary force of 'ordering (the addressee) to get up early' and similarly I-meaning of 'the intension of getting the addressee to get up early'; and lastly the perlocutionary effect of 'forcing the addressee to get up early.' Similarly, in terms of the S-meaning, if the addressee ascribes any significance to the addressor's order of getting up early, s/he will be persuaded and get up early; and if not, s/he won't. That's to say, the utterance won't be said to have an effect on the addressee.

As the last point, Cohen (1996; 23) has found that large-scale empirical studies and comprehensive reviews of the literature suggest that "successful planning and production of speech act utterances depend on the sociocultural and sociolinguistic abilities of the speaker". According to Cohen (1996):

Sociocultural ability refers to the respondent's skill at selecting speech act strategies which are appropriate given (1) the culture involved, (2) the age and sex of the speakers, (3) their social class and occupations, and (4) their roles and status in the interaction... Thus the sociocultural ability is what determines whether a speech act set is used and which members of the set are selected for

use. [And] sociolinguistic ability refers to the respondents' skill at selecting appropriate linguistic forms to express the particular strategy used to realize the speech act... [in other words] sociolinguistic ability is the speakers' control over the actual language forms used to realize the speech act, as well as their control over register or formality of the utterance from most intimate to most formal language (p. 23).

It can be summed up that "any utterance has to be situated within the context of the speaker's and hearer's status in society in order to be properly understood and this general principle of pragmatics is applicable to speech acts as well" (Mey, 1993; 157), which leads us to the issuance of felicity conditions.

2.4.1. Felicity Conditions

Austin (1961) drew attention to the dissimilarity between performatives and statements and contrasted them in terms of their truth values. Because performatives are special sentences, Levinson (1983: 230), points out that uttering them *does* things and they can't be assessed in terms of truth and falsity. Austin (1961) noted that "... to be true or false is traditionally the characteristic mark of a statement" (p. 12) because statements are sentences which "merely say things, report states or affairs" (Levinson, 1983: 230). For example, the sentence 'I order you to turn out the lights' can't have truth values and therefore can't be subject to truth conditions (Geis, 2006: 4). But, the statement 'I moved to a new flat' can be assessed with regards to truth or falsity. However, Austin (1962) discovered types of cases in which utterances can *misfire* or *go wrong* with a result of not being false but *unhappy* or *infelicitous* as he put it. "And" he continued "we call the doctrine of *the things that can be and go wrong* on the occasion of such utterances, the doctrine of the *Infelicities*" (p.14). And since then "conditions on the successful and appropriate performance of an act have usually been referred to as felicity conditions" (Geis, 2006; 4). Austin (1962: 14-15) also produced a typology of these conditions which he suggested performatives must meet if they are to be 'happy' or 'felicitous' and Levinson (1983: 229) summarized them in three main categories:

- A. (i) There must be a conventional procedure having a conventional effect
(ii) The circumstances and persons must be appropriate, as specified in the procedure
- B. The procedure must be executed (i) correctly and (ii) completely
- C. Often, (i) the persons must have the requisite thoughts, feelings and intentions, as specified in the procedure, and (ii) if consequent conduct is specified, then the relevant parties must so do.

Many authors in the field (e.g. Levinson, 1983; Gass, 1996; etc...) cited Searle for his influential systematization of Austin's work of felicity conditions and mention it as one of his most important contributions to speech act theory. In his systematization, Searle (1969: 66-67) suggested four types of felicity conditions that speech acts ('illocutionary acts' as Austin called) must meet: propositional content conditions, preparatory conditions, sincerity conditions, and essential conditions. Let's consider 'giving an order' out of Searle's exemplifications for the case. Here, propositional content refers to the content of utterance in question, whether it is an order as in the example or something else. The preparatory condition asks for the speaker's position that whether it is appropriate for ordering something to the hearer, for instance in terms of authority. The sincerity condition is related to the desire of the speaker for the ordered act to be done. And the essential condition refers to what the speaker attempts to do by uttering a certain sentence; here, in giving an order, the speaker attempts to get the hearer to do an act (1969: 64).

In this context, the contradiction of the two linguists' felicity conditions starts at the point that Austin is concerned with the procedure and the framing of a speech act with reference to his felicity conditions, on the other hand Searle is more concerned with the content of different kinds of conditions - 'propositional content', 'preparatory', 'sincerity', and 'essential' conditions – each necessary for realization of a speech act (Akinci-Akkurt 2007).

2.4.2. Indirect Speech Acts

“The meaning of a sentence does not in all cases uniquely determine what speech act is performed in a given utterance of that sentence, for a speaker may mean more than what he actually says...” (Searle, 1969:18) Thus, the case of indirect speech acts arises. In indirect speech acts “one illocutionary act is performed indirectly by way of performing another” (Searle, 1979:31). Searle extends the definition that, in indirect speech acts the speaker communicates to the hearer more than he actually says by way of relying on their mutually shared background information, both linguistic and nonlinguistic, together with the general powers of rationality and inference on the part of the hearer (p:30-32).

An example dialogue by Searle sets the case:

Student A: Let’s go to the movies tonight.

Student B: I have to study for an exam.

The utterance of Student A is a proposal due to its literal meaning constituted with the form ‘let’s’ and the utterance of Student B is a rejection of the proposal in this context. However, in its literal meaning it’s only a statement about B and doesn’t contain any negation or rejection. Then, Searle (1979:33) inserts the questions that “How does A know that the utterance is a rejection of the proposal?” and “How is it possible for B to intend or mean his utterance as a rejection of the proposal?” To describe the case, Searle (1979) regards the Indirect Speech Acts phenomenon as a combination of a *primary illocutionary act* (B’s rejection of the proposal made by A, in this example) and a *secondary illocutionary act* (B’s making a statement about preparing for an exam). In other words, the secondary illocutionary act is literal; the primary illocutionary act is not literal.

Mey (1993:144-45) unfolds the case by reviewing 10 steps which are originated by Searle (1979):

- Step 1: A (the proposer) has uttered a suggestion (to go to the movies); B (the rejecter) has uttered a statement (about studying for an exam). These are the bare facts of the case.
- Step 2: A assumes B to be cooperative in the conversation situation, that is, his answer is taken to be relevant, in accordance with the maxim of relevance under the Cooperative Principle (by Grice).
- Step 3: Relevant answers in the situation at hand (where a suggestion/request is being made) are found among the following: acceptance, rejection, counter-suggestion (Why don't we make it tomorrow?), suggestion for further discussion (That entirely depends on what's on) – and perhaps a few more, depending on the circumstances.
- Step 4: None of the relevant answers in step 3 matches the actual answer given, so that the latter, taken at face value, must be said not to be one of these.
- Step 5: We must, therefore, assume that B means more (or something entirely different) by uttering his statement than what it says at face value. That's to say his primary intention is different from his secondary one.
- Step 6: Everybody knows that one needs time to study for an exam, and that going to the movies may result in precious study-time being lost – something many students cannot afford. This is factual, shared information about the world, carrying the same weight as the facts mentioned above, under step 1.
- Step 7: Hence, it is likely that B cannot (or doesn't want to) combine the two things, go to the cinema and study; this is an immediate consequence of the preceding step.
- Step 8: Speech act theory has taught us that among the preparatory conditions for any speech act having to do with proposals are the ability, and willingness, to carry out such a proposed act.
- Step 9: From this, A can infer that B's utterance in all likelihood is meant to tell him that he cannot accept his proposal.
- Step 10: We must conclude that B's primary intention in mentioning his exam preparation has been to reject A's proposal.

Parallel to this, Geis (2006; 123) well illustrates the case with the example sentences below:

- (1) Could you turn out the lights?
- (2) I'd like for you to turn out the lights.
- (3) I will be in my office at noon.

Here, the sentence (1) contains the illocutionary force indicator of a question, but is used to make a request. The sentence (2) contains the illocutionary force indicator of an assertion, but is used to make a request. And sentence (3) contains the illocutionary force indicator of an assertion, but is used to make a promise.

As the last point to be mentioned here, Levinson (1983: 270) puts some essential properties shared by indirect speech acts phenomenon:

- (i) The literal meaning and the literal force of an utterance is computed by, and available to, participants
- (ii) For an utterance to be an *indirect* speech act, there must be an inference-trigger, i.e. some indication that the literal meaning and/or literal force is conversationally inadequate in the context and must be 'repaired' by some inference
- (iii) There must be specific principles or rules of inference that will derive, from the literal meaning and force and the context, the relevant indirect force
- (iv) There must be pragmatically sensitive linguistic rules or constraints, which will govern the occurrence of, for example, pre-verbal *please* in both the direct (Please shut the door) and indirect requests (Can you please shut the door?).

2.4.3. Taxonomy of Speech Acts

Speech acts have been classified according to a variety of dimensions by various scholars. To start with the earliest one, Austin (1962:150-151) attempts to make a general preliminary classification according to the illocutionary force of the utterances:

- (1) Verdictives
- (2) Exercitives
- (3) Commissives
- (4) Behabitives
- (5) Expositives

Verdictives are judicial acts seen in the delivering of a finding, official or unofficial, upon evidence or reasons as to value or fact. Examples of verdictives are acquitting, convicting, reckoning, etc. **Exercitives** are the exercising of powers, rights or influence. Examples for exercitives are appointing, voting, ordering, urging, advising, warning, etc. **Commissives** commit the speaker to a certain course of action such as promising, undertaking, intending, espousing, contracting, etc. **Behabitives** are related to attitudes and social behavior. Examples are apologizing, congratulating, commanding, condoling, challenging, etc. And finally, **expositives** are related to how our utterances fit into the course of an argument or conversation, how we are using words or expository. Examples are ‘I reply’, ‘I argue’, ‘I concede’, ‘I illustrate’, etc.

Searle (1979: 8) regards Austin’s taxonomy as an excellent basis for discussion but he also thinks that the taxonomy needs to be seriously revised because it contains several weaknesses, which are briefly as follows:

1. there is a persistent confusion between verbs and acts,
2. not all the verbs are illocutionary verbs,
3. there is too much overlap of the categories,

4. there is too much heterogeneity within the categories,
5. many of the verbs listed in the categories don't satisfy the definition given for the category,
6. and, most important, there is no consistent principle of classification.

On the other hand, Searle (1979: 2-8) –in order to have a greater clarity and force about Austin's taxonomy- developed a set of criteria for the classification of speech acts. These twelve principles to differentiate speech acts are briefly discussed by Mey (1993: 152-62):

1. Illocutionary point: Searle takes the essential conditions as the basis for taxonomy and explains that the point of an order is to get the hearer to do something; the point of a promise is an undertaking of an obligation by the speaker to do something, etc... Searle also warns that illocutionary point should be distinguished from illocutionary force for the notion of illocutionary force is the resultant of several elements of which illocutionary point is only one.
2. Direction of fit: In this dimension Searle conceptualized a relation between the 'word' (language) and the 'world' (reality), which can be construed either from language to reality, or from reality to language: we either 'word the world' (as in statements, descriptions, assertions and explanations) or 'world the word' (as in requests, commands, vows, or promises).
3. Expressed psychological state: The psychological state expressed in the performance of the illocutionary act is the sincerity condition of the act. Thus a man who states, explains, asserts or claims that *P* expresses the belief that *P*; a man who promises, vows, threatens or pledges to do *A* expresses an intention to do *A*; etc. Even if he is insincere, he nonetheless expresses a belief, intention, etc in the performance of the speech act.

4. Force: The varying degree of force or strength is taken as the basis of distinction. For example in the sentences “I suggest we go to the movies” and “I insist that we go to the movies” the illocutionary point is the same but the difference is in the illocutionary force.
5. Social status: Any utterance has to be situated within the context of the speaker’s and hearer’s status in society in order to be properly understood, a criterion which corresponds to preparatory conditions in a sense.
6. Interest: It’s a type of preparatory condition in which the speakers should take into account the interests, worries of the hearers. The difference between congratulations and condolences is one example.
7. Discourse-related functions: Here the care is on performative expressions which serve to relate the utterances to the rest of the discourse and to the surrounding context such as ‘I reply’, ‘I deduce’, ‘I conclude’, etc.
8. Content: It deals with separating out speech acts in accordance with what they are “about”. For example, difference in the dimension of time between a report (past) and a prediction (future).
9. Speech acts or speech act verbs: For stating, estimating, ordering, concluding ... something, we don’t need to use the speech act verbs ‘to state’, ‘to estimate’, ‘to order’, ‘to conclude’, etc.
10. Societal institutions and speech acts: Certain institutions require certain speech acts such as to excommunicate, to christen, to pronounce (guilty), to declare (war), etc.
11. Speech acts and performatives: Not all illocutionary verbs are performative verbs. One can perform the act of stating by saying ‘I hereby state’ but cannot perform the act of boasting by saying ‘I hereby boast’.

12. Style: This criterion is related to the way we say things. For example, although the illocutionary point or propositional content of ‘announcing’ and ‘confiding’ something is the same, the style of performance of the illocutionary acts involve the difference.

By using four of the twelve criteria - illocutionary point, direction of fit, psychological state, and content- as the basis, Searle (1979: 12-20) constructed an alternative classification. As a reason for not using other criteria, he concludes that “In such a classification, other features – the role of authority, discourse relations, etc. – will fall into their appropriate places.” His five-part classification of speech acts is as follows:

1. Assertives: the illocutionary point of the assertive class is to commit the speaker in varying degrees to the truth of the expressed proposition. Thus the expressed psychological state is ‘belief’ for the speaker. The direction of fit is from words to the world, i.e. they should match the world in order to be true. ‘Boast’, ‘complain’, ‘conclude’, and ‘deduce’ are examples for assertives.
2. Directives: The illocutionary point of directives is the attempts of varying degrees by the speaker to get the hearer to do something. The direction of fit is from world to words; the sincerity condition is want, wish or desire; and the content is that the hearer does some future action of A. Examples for this class are ‘ask’, ‘order’, ‘command’, ‘insist’, ‘beg’, ‘invite’, ‘request’, ‘suggest’, and ‘advise’.
3. Commissives: The illocutionary point is to commit the speaker to some future course of action. The direction of fit is from world to words; and the sincerity condition is intention. The content is that the speaker does some future action A. As Mey (1993: 164) points out in commissives the obligation is created in the speaker, not in the hearer, as in the case of directives. The examples for commissives can be ‘promises’ and ‘offers’.

4. Expressives: The illocutionary point is to express the psychological state about a state of affairs. There is no direction of fit since it says nothing about the world. As Searle (1979: 15) explains “the speaker is neither trying to get the world to match the words nor the words to match the world”. Some expressive verbs are ‘thank, congratulate, apologize, condole, deplore, and welcome’.
5. Declarations: The direction of fit is both from words to world and from world to words. In the two example sentences by Mey (1993: 167) “I just resigned” and “You’re (hereby) fired” the speaker chooses his words such that they fit the world, whereas in the latter the speaker fits the world to his words. There is no sincerity condition and as Searle (1979: 17) puts it “Declarations bring about some alteration in the status or condition of the referred to object or objects solely in virtue of the fact that the declaration has been successfully performed”. ‘I resign’, ‘I excommunicate’, ‘I christen’, and ‘I appoint’ are examples for declarations.

Bach and Harnish (1979: 41) developed a different classification of speech acts. His classification includes constatives (expressing the speaker’s belief and intention that the hearer have a like belief), directives (expressing the speaker’s attitude toward some future action by the hearer), commissives (expressing the speaker’s intention and belief that his utterance obligates him to do something), and acknowledgements (expressing feelings regarding the hearer).

Mey (1993: 131) put forward two different criteria to obtain a rough-and-ready typology of speech acts: following the traditional syntactic classification of verbal mood (as indicative, subjunctive, imperative, optative, etc) or relying on broad, semantic distinctions (such as Searle’s five- part classification).

Consequently, there are some taxonomies developed by different linguists, each of which has some similar and distinct points.

2.4.4. Speech Acts of Refusals

Refusing somebody ('s suggestion, request, offer, or invitation) is a serious action which can cause breakdowns in interpersonal relations if not handled delicately. It can cause problems even in the native language of interlocutors, and much bigger problems through the communication of interlocutors from different languages. As it is known, it is a culture-dependent issue. A way of refusing can be very rude and improper for a specific culture whereas it is very normal for another one and that's a point which can harm relations. Sharing the same view, Gass (1996) explains that:

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

That's why we've chosen investigating the competency of ELT students in speech acts of refusals since they are futuristic teachers of English and should have a certain degree of mastery in that major point.

According to Houck and Gass (1996; 49), "refusals are a highly complex speech act primarily because they may involve lengthy negotiations as well as face-saving maneuvers to accommodate the noncompliant nature of the speech act." Furthermore, the fact that refusals are among the speech act sets which depend on extralinguistic contextual factors such as social distance and dominance, and on factors pertaining to the act itself, for example the degree of imposition and offense involved in the act have been shown in the studies of interlanguage pragmatics .

When it comes to distinguish among the types of utterances to be refused, we can define them in Geis's words. According to Geis (2006), the desire of an initiator (addressor) that the responder (addressee) do something for the initiator is a request; the desire of him/her to do something with the responder is an invitation; and do something that will benefit the addressee is a suggestion (2006; 133). And as the last one, offer is defined as "to present in order to satisfy a requirement; a presenting of something for acceptance; an undertaking to do an act or give something on condition that the party to whom the proposal is made do some specified act or make a return promise" (Merriam-Webster's on-line dictionary).

2.5. Studies on Refusals

Houck and Gass (1996) studied non-native refusals in a methodological perspective with the notion that the modified role-play, a typical means of gathering data, is insufficient to an understanding of the complete speech event of refusing. For this being the reason, they used video-taped data and full role-play situations with the eliciting instrument based on Scarcella's (1978) conceptualization of socio-drama. The data base consists of an interaction involving a native speaker of English and Japanese English as a second language students at two levels of proficiency. Research findings showed that data collected using an open role-play differ from data collected using a written or tape-recorded elicitation instrument in a number of ways, the most obvious of which is that a real face-to-face encounter results in a dynamic interaction. In quantitative analysis results, turn length and number of turns were considered and the total number of turns was found as 7-18 and subjects required 9.8 turns on average. The qualitative analysis results showed that refusal strategies such as conventional Nonperformative refusals (I can't, No), statement of regret, excuses/reasons/explanations and proposals of alternatives accounted for 2/3 of the responses.

In another study by Nelson, Carson, Al Batal and El Bakary carried out in 2002 and published in *Applied Linguistics* was about strategy use in Egyptian Arabic and

American English Refusals. The subjects included 30 English speaking Americans in the USA and 25 Arabic speaking Egyptians in Egypt and the data elicitation instrument was a modified version of the Discourse Completion Test developed by Beebe et al. (1990). Results of the analysis indicated that both groups use similar strategies with similar frequency in making refusals.

The next study carried out by Tanck in 2002-2003 aimed to find out speech act sets of refusal and complaint, in which a comparison was made between native and non-native English speakers production. The data was elicited by a DCT, and the participants were 25 graduate students at American University in Washington, DC of whom 12 were native speakers of English and 13 were non-native speakers of different native language backgrounds. The findings revealed that frequency of use of three refusal strategies: Expression of Regret, Excuse, and Offering alternative were significantly higher.

Al-Eryani (2007) investigated the refusal strategies by Yemeni EFL Learners in his article. In his study he included 20 Yemeni learners of English, and compared their English performances to those of Yemeni Arabic native speakers and American English native speakers. The data collection tool was a DCT composed of 6 refusal situations. He reports that the results indicated that although a similar range of refusal strategies were available to the two language groups, cross-cultural variation was evident in the frequency and content of semantic formulas used by each language group.

The last point to be mentioned in this study is about pragmatic transfer in ESL refusals, by Beebe, Takashashi, and Uliss-Weltz (1990). The subjects included in the research were 20 Japanese speaking Japanese, 20 Japanese speaking English, and 20 Americans speaking English. The data collection tool was a DCT developed by the researchers themselves and the obtained data was analyzed according to the semantic formulas classified again by the researchers themselves. Both the DCT and the classification of Semantic Formulas were used for data elicitation and analysis by many researchers. The results of their study indicated that pragmatic transfer from

Japanese influences the English of Japanese speakers in the United States on three levels: the order, frequency, and content of the semantic formulas they select to make their refusals.

CHAPTER 3

METHODOLOGY

3.1. Method

In the present study, descriptive method has been used. At first, Content analysis has been carried out for the analysis of the data obtained from the participants, and then Cross Tabulations have been run to display the joint distribution of variables.

3.2. Participants

The data for this study has been obtained from three different groups of participants. The first group includes twenty (20) Turkish EFL learners, who are students at English Language Teaching (ELT) Department of Faculty of Education, Muğla University. The second group includes twenty (20) Native Speakers of Turkish, who are students at Turkish Language Teaching Department of Faculty of Education, Muğla University. And finally, the third group involved in the study consists of 20 Native speakers of American English, some of whom live in Turkey and some in the United States. Average age for Turkish EFL learners is 20.4; for Native Speakers of Turkish is 20.8; and for Native Speakers of American English is 34.9.

The first and second groups of participants are students who are of similar educational backgrounds. The participants in the first group have the same language learning backgrounds and their proficiency level is expected to be advanced since they are students of English Language Teaching Department and have taken several exams in the field. The proficiency level of the second group doesn't matter as we are dealing with their speech acts production in Turkish. As for the third group of participants, three of them were English Teaching Fellows in Turkey assigned by the American Consulate to work in different Turkish Universities (2 in Gaziantep

University and 1 in Selçuk University). And the rest (17 of them) were MA and Phd students studying in different American Universities and living in the USA. All the American participants were reached via internet.

The reason why we have chosen these groups of participants is based on the nature of this investigation. The first group has been identified as advanced level learners of English and they have been engaged in learning how to teach English for three years and will one more year at university and after graduation they will have the teaching of English as a job throughout their whole lives. The reason behind the selection of the second group is that they are native speakers of Turkish, who will be experts of that language throughout their university education and on. A Turkish version of the data collection tool (Discourse Completion Test) was delivered to this group in order to look for any pragmatic transfer from the native language (L1) to the target language (L2). And the data obtained from the third group was used to compare and contrast between the native and non-native productions of English refusals. This is suggested to be the ideal way of collecting data for the investigation of the speech acts in learner language by Ellis (1994):

Ideally, the study of illocutionary acts in learner language should involve the collection of three sets of data: (1) samples of the illocutionary act performed in the target language by L2 learners, (2) samples performed by native speakers of the target language, and (3) samples of the same illocutionary act performed by the learners in their L1. Only in this way is it possible to determine to what extent learner performance differs from native-speaker performance and whether the differences are traceable to transfer from the L1 (p.162).

The same kind of subject pool has been preferred by other researchers investigating speech act realizations in English by speakers of various other languages, such as Gass (1996), Beebe et. al. (1990), Nelson, Carson, Al Batal, and El Bakary (2002), Al-Eryani (2007), Tanck (2002), Houck and Gass (1996), etc...

3.3. Instrumentation and Data Collection Procedures

The data elicitation instrument for this study is a Discourse Completion Test (DCT), which is expected to provide information on the pragmatic performances of the Native Speakers of Turkish (NST), Turkish EFL Learners (TEFL), and Native Speakers of American English (NSAE) in speech acts of refusals.

Nelson, Carson, Al Batal and El Bakary (2002) define a DCT as follows:

DCT is a highly constrained instrument that elicits pragmalinguistic production data. It consists of a structured written discourse that provides the context/impetus for the speech act being studied with rejoinders that are cues for eliciting the desired speech act. The respondents write down what they think would be said in the context given (p.165).

Ellis (1994) suggests that in many pragmalinguistic studies and by many researchers in the field have DCTs been used; for example in “The Cross-Cultural Speech Act Realization Project, CCASRP, which investigated requests and apologies in thirteen languages.

In addition, the participants were involved in a Demographic Survey, by which they will be expected to provide basic personal information (age, gender, educational background, etc.). It was aimed to make reliable comparisons between the participants, and their productions by means of this survey.

The Discourse Completion Test (DCT) used in this study has been adapted from Beebe & Takahashi, and Uliss-Weltz (1990). Since the questionnaire (DCT) was adapted from the previous study of the researchers, the Turkish version of the DCT was prepared by first translating the English DCT into Turkish and then back into English. Adjustments to the Turkish version were made based on a comparison of the original and translated English versions. Proper names, such as name of the places, were also changed by similar names in Turkish, with a view to provide a full

understanding with the participants who took the test in Turkish. Views of experts from the field were also taken on the appropriacy and equivalency of the two versions of the tests. In addition, a pilot study was carried out to see whether there would be any misunderstandings throughout the writing out process. The pilot study was carried out with Native Speakers of Turkish in Turkish version and with Turkish EFL Learners in English version. It was identified that there were some misunderstandings in the instructions part. Finally necessary changes were made in that part, and the DCT was applied to the real target groups. The data was obtained through on-line exchanges from the Native Speakers of American English.

3.4. Justification of the Use of the Instrument

The methodological issue is a major point dealt with in the research area of speech act production. There are different data elicitation techniques advantages/disadvantages of which are examined by many researchers (Cohen, 1996; Kasper and Dahl, 1991; Houck and Gass, 1996; etc). These techniques are classified as **verbal** and **written** ones. Ethnographic observation and role-plays are two major techniques for verbal data elicitation. Ethnographic observation, as Cohen (1996; 24) defines “involves the collecting of naturally occurring data ... [which] has proven effective in collecting data on certain speech acts, such as compliments”. Role-plays can be observed in two types, one of which is closed role-plays and the other is open role-plays. As Houck and Gass (1996; 46) describe, “in a closed role-play, subjects are given a situation and are asked how they would respond, [which] is an oral version of the Discourse Completion Test” whereas “open role-plays are the closest to what we might expect to reflect naturally occurring speech events, [in which] an entire dialogue is observed and recorded”.

On the other hand, Cohen (1996: 25) notes there are two types of written completion tasks. In both cases an appropriate situation is created and described in writing. In the first type a written prompt followed by a space for the respondent to provide a written response is given. The second type is referred to as the Discourse Completion Test (DCT) (term by Blum-Kulka, 1982; in Cohen, 1996); that has a

structured discourse -a part of which is left open and a part closed – providing both for the speech act and a rejoinder. According to Gass (1996: 3), all these data elicitation techniques - role-plays, written tests, verbal report data- are all relevant, “but all come their own baggage of advantages/disadvantages and appropriate and inappropriate uses.”

Beebe and Cummings (1996: 65-66) summarize the studies by different researchers comparing data collection techniques: Rintell and Mitchell (1989) found that Discourse Completion Tests and closed role plays gathered very similar data. On the other hand, Bodman and Eisenstein (1988), having made a comparison between the data gathered via Discourse Completion Tests, open-ended role plays and field notes on naturalistic data, found that the data differed in length and complexity. It was revealed that Discourse Completion Tests provided for the shortest and least complex data, whereas naturalistic data the most complex one. In spite of the different views and research findings, as Beebe and Cummings (1996) note “written role play questionnaires (called Discourse Completion Tests) had been and continue to be used extensively to elicit speech act data across different languages” (p. 65) and they present their study “...in support, with certain caveats, of the continuation of Discourse Completion Test data collection ... [for] each approach to data collection has strengths and weaknesses” (p.67). For instance, Discourse Completion Tests are suggested to be advantageous in Beebe and Cummings (1996: 80) 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.

On the other hand, Discourse Completion responses are reported as not adequately representing:

- 1) the actual wording used in real interaction;
- 2) the range of formulas and strategies used (some, like avoidance, tend to be left out);
- 3) the length of response or the number of turns it takes to fulfill the function;
- 4) the depth of emotion that in turn qualitatively affects the tone, content, and form of linguistic performance;
- 5) the number of repetitions and elaborations that occur;
- 6) the actual rate of occurrence of a speech act – e.g., whether or not someone would naturalistically refuse at all in a given situation (Beebe and Cummings, 1996: 80).

As a result of their research comparing natural speech act data and written questionnaire data Beebe and Cummings (1996: 73) claimed that “the Discourse Completion Test as a data collection method disfavors the long negotiated sequences which occur in natural conversation”. The evidence showed that “the total amount of talk [in naturally occurring data] far exceeded the amount on the [written] questionnaire” in terms of words and sentences spoken, semantic formulas used, and turns taken” (p. 70). On the other hand, in spite of this evidence, the similarities of the data gathered by both measures were reported as being striking. “The adjunct of positive feeling, the expression of regret, the statement of negative ability or willingness, and the excuse” were the semantic formulas very frequently used by (reported as 1/3 or more of the subjects) both groups of subjects providing the written questionnaire data and natural speech act data. “Thus, the similarities between natural spoken refusals and written questionnaire refusals are quite strong – strong enough to suggest that Discourse Completion Tests are a good way to discover what semantic formulas are frequently used in performance of a speech act” (p. 73).

3.5. Data Analysis

In the present study the content analysis technique has been employed to analyse the obtained data. According to Gray, Williamson, Karp, and Dalphin (2007: 283), “Content analysis is a systematic attempt to examine some form of verbal or image communication such as newspapers, diaries, letters, speeches, movies or television shows.” The researcher wants to discover the implications of existing communication for the study of human behavior. Content analysis is primarily quantitative because the examination of communication usually occurs through counting its content. According to Yıldırım and Şimşek (2008: 227) the principle aim of content analysis is to reach the notions and relations to be able to explain the obtained data. The basic procedure carried out in the content analysis is gathering the similar data around identified notions and themes, and interpreting them by making some arrangements to be understood by the reader (p. 227). Gray, Williamson, Karp and Dalphin (2007) emphasized that the technique is designed to be objective, that it is systematic and quantitative, and that it considers both manifest content (what explicitly appears in a text) and latent content (meanings implied by the written content that do not actually appear in the text) of communication.

Yıldırım and Şimşek (2008) introduced the stages to be followed in content analysis:

1. Coding of the data
2. Identifying the themes
3. Arranging and defining the data according to the codes and themes
4. Interpreting the data (pp. 228-238).

The stages mentioned above have been followed successively by the researcher. However, for the second stage, the themes were not identified by the researcher herself but an already identified one, classification of refusals by Beebe et. al. (1990) has been used.

3.5.1. Coding of the Data

Refusals made by the participants were coded according to the semantic formulas adapted from Beebe et. al. (1990). The semantic formulas classified by Beebe et. al. (1990) have been rearranged and some parts, which were not encountered in the speech act realizations of the participants, have been omitted from the classification. ‘Pause fillers’ which exist as a part of ‘adjuncts’ in the classification by Beebe et. al. (1990) were not coded and taken into consideration for “they did not seem to have any pragmatic meaning other than just buying time” (term by Nakatani, 2005: 81) in the communication process. The researcher coded the data independently and the views of experts were taken on the coded data.

Table 1: Categorization of Refusal Strategies adapted for the study

Type	Semantic Formulas	Examples from the Data
I. Direct Refusals	Explicitly refusing the suggestion/offer/invitation/request by the speaker.	
a. Performative	Usually expressed by “I refuse.”	“I will have to refuse your offer.”
b. Nonperformative Statement	Usually expressed by direct “No” or negative willingness/ability: “I can’t, I won’t, I don’t think so” ...	“I don’t think we will be able to make it”; “I can’t make it on Sunday.”
II. Indirect Refusals	Implicitly refusing the suggestion/offer/invitation/request by the speaker.	
a. Statement of Regret	Usually expressed by “I’m sorry”, “I feel terrible”...	“Sorry”; “I’m really sorry”; “Unfortunately”;

		“I’m afraid”
b. Wish	Usually expressed by “I wish I could”	“I wish I could but I need them myself.”
c. Excuse/Reason/Explanation	Usually expressed by “I have a headache”; “My children will be home that night”	“I actually have already made plans for Saturday night”; We’re in tough economic times right now.”
d. Statement of Alternative	Usually expressed by “I can do X instead of Y”; “I’d rather, prefer”; “Why don’t you do X instead of Y?”	“I’ve considered the offer and I’d rather stay here”; “I was thinking instead buying an organizer”
e. Condition for Future/Past Acceptance	Usually expressed by if clauses: “If you had asked earlier, I would have...”	“If you sell more, I’ll pay you more”; “If it was any other night I would definitely stay”
f. Promise or Future Acceptance	Usually expressed by using “will of promise” or “promise”.	“I promise I will in the following times”; “In the next term I will let you practice a lot.”
g. Statement of Principle	Usually expressed by “I never...”; “I always...”	“I’ll never try a diet again.”
h. Statement of Philosophy	Usually expressed by generalizations: “One can’t be too careful.”	“Accidents happen”; “Anyone can have an accident”
i. Statement of	Usually expressed by using “would”	“I’d probably

NegativeConsequences	or past simple to exemplify the past actions.	loosed the notes as well”; “I’ve tried a note system but it doesn’t seem to work for me”; “Diets make me feel dizzy and angry.”
j. Criticize the Request/Requester	Usually expressed by a negative feeling or idea.	“You should have come to the classes”; “I have the feeling that you’re taking advantage.”
k. Let Interlocutor off the Hook	Usually expressed by disembarassing and relieving messages to the speaker.	“Don’t worry about it, it wasn’t expensive”; “It’s just a vase, you don’t have to pay for it.”
l. Self Defense	Usually expressed by advocating one’s self.	“I never forget anything”; “I organize my notes regularly, this is just an extraordinary situation.”
m. Verbal Avoidance	Usually expressed by unclear responses such as <u>repetition of part of request</u> , <u>postponement</u> or <u>hedging</u> .	“Sunday night?”; “I’ll consider the possibilities”; “Maybe another time”; “I’m not sure if I would fit in a place called Hicktown.”

III. Adjuncts	Expressions used for completing the refusals.	
A1. Statement of Positive Opinion	Usually expressed by “That’s a good idea...”; “I’d love to...”	“It’s a very good offer”; “I’d love to take you up on the offer”; “It’s very kind of you...”
A2. Statement of Empathy	Usually expressed by “I realize you are in a difficult situation”	“I know you really need an increase”; “I can imagine that you feel conversation is more important.”
A3. Pause Fillers	Uuh... well... ohn...uhm...	“Oh...”; “Well...”; “I see”; “Oh, well...”
A4. Gratitude/ Appreciation		“Thank you”; “I appreciate the suggestion”; “I really appreciate the offer.”

Table 1 summarizes the classification of semantic formulas for refusals and presents example expressions used by the participants.

CHAPTER 4

RESULTS

4.1. Findings and Results

The findings of the analyzed data were arranged and interpreted according to different variables in order to find answers to the research questions identified in the Introduction Chapter (Chapter 1). First of all, the competence of Turkish EFL Learners in producing The Speech Act of Refusals were evaluated by considering their use of refusal strategies in terms of appropriacy, and whether they correspond to the semantic formulas classified before for refusals. Next, a content analysis of refusal strategies by three groups of participants were carried out in order to find out the ability of Turkish EFL Learners in refusing requests, invitations, offers, and suggestions appropriately according to the social distance between the addressor and the addressee. In addition, Cross Tabulations were run in order to display the different usages of refusal strategies in frequency and per cent rates by each three participant groups. As the last point, the findings of the quantitative analysis were interpreted in order to find out whether there is pragmatic transfer in the productions of Turkish EFL Learners from native to target language.

Research Question 1: How competent are Turkish EFL Learners in producing the speech act of refusals in English?

In order to find an answer to this research question, the data obtained from Turkish EFL Learners were interpreted in terms of their correspondence to the semantic formulas and to the native speaker responses. In this respect, the Table 2 below summarizes the content analysis results of Turkish EFL Learners' production in the speech act of refusals.

Table 2: Refusal Strategies used by Turkish EFL Learners (TEFLL)

<i>DCT Item</i>	<i>Situation of Refusals</i>	<i>Semantic Formula Used by TEFLL</i>
1	Pay rise	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Regret + Ex/Reas/Exp • Excuse + Negative will/ab • Ex/Reas/Exp • Condition for future/past accep • Criticize • Request for empathy
2	Borrow class notes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Direct No + Criticize • Regret + Criticize • Ex/Reas/Exp + Regret • Criticize • Ex/Reas/Exp • Statement of principle
3	Expensive restaurant bribe	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Regret + Ex/Reas/Exp • Excuse + Negative will/ab • Ex/Reas/Exp • Negative will/ab
4	Boss' party	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Regret + Ex/Reas/Exp • Negative will/ab + Ex/Reas/Exp • Ex/Reas/Exp • Criticize
5	Trying a diet	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Statement of principle • Negative consequences • Statement of alternative
6	Writing little notes	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Negative consequences • Self defense • Negative will/ab
7	Paying for broken vase	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Let off hook • Let off hook + Philosophy • Criticize
8	More practice in conversation	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Philosophy • Criticize • Ex/Reas/Exp • Self defense • Negative will/ab
9	One more piece of cake	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Direct No • Ex/Reas/Exp • Condition for future/past accep • Criticize
10	Dinner party on Sunday night	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Regret + Ex/Reas/Exp • Ex/Reas/Exp

11	Promotion with move to small town	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Negative will/ab • Direct No • Ex/Reas/Exp + Negative will/ab • Ex/Reas/Exp • Negative will/ab • Statement of alternative • Hedging
12	Spend extra hour at office	<ul style="list-style-type: none"> • Ex/Reas/Exp + Regret • Negative will/ab + Ex/Reas/Exp • Positive op. + Ex/Reas/Exp • Ex/Reas/Exp • Negative will/ab

Table 2 shows that refusal strategies used by Turkish EFL Learners are valid, which shows their cross-cultural appropriacy because these strategies correspond to both the classification of semantic formulas (by Beebe et. al., 1990) and to native speaker responses to the same refusal situations. Only the frequency of occurrence of each formula differs across the two groups. Therefore, the existence of a range of formulas and by two different groups (Turkish EFL Learners and Native Speakers of American English) is dealt with in this part and the differences in terms of frequency of occurrence of formulas and their similarities and differences according to different variables (type of refusal situation such as suggestion, offer, invitation, and request; status of the interlocutors) will be dealt with in the research questions 2 and 3.

Research Question 2: What are the differences between refusals used by Native Speakers of Turkish, Turkish EFL Learners and Native Speakers of American English in terms of strategies and social distance of the interlocutors?

According to the content analysis results of the data obtained from three groups of participants, it can be said that, refusal strategies used by participants of each group are very similar in general. There are only slight differences in the percentage of usages of the formulas between the groups. The other difference arises from the choice of some formulas. For instance, in refusing the 4th situation, 15% of Native

Speakers of Turkish have used one strategy, let say criticizing the request/requestor, while Turkish EFL Learners and Native Speakers of American English haven't used the strategy at all.

Tables 3 – 6 summarize the choice of strategies by each group of participants according to the refusal types (suggestions, offers, invitations, and requests) and their frequency and percentage rates.

Table 3: Content Analysis Results and Frequency and Percentage Rates of Refusal Strategies to **Suggestions** by Native Speakers of Turkish (NST), Turkish EFL Learners (TEFLL), and Native Speakers of American English (NSAE) in Terms of Social Distance of the Interlocutors

<i>DCT</i> <i>ITEM</i>	<i>Refuser</i> <i>Status</i>	<i>Situation of</i> <i>Suggestions</i>	<i>Semantic Formula</i>	<i>NST</i>		<i>TEFLL</i>		<i>NSAE</i>	
				<i>f</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>f</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>f</i>	<i>%</i>
5	Equal	Trying a diet	• Principle	9	45	3	15	2	10
			• Negative consequences	8	40	11	55	7	35
			• Alternative	1	5	2	10	7	35
			• Others	2	10	4	20	4	20
6	Lower	Writing little notes	• Negative consequences	1	5	7	35	13	65
			• Self defense	13	65	6	30	1	5
			• Alternative	-	0	6	30	3	15
			• Negative will/ab	6	30	-	0	-	0
			• Others	-	0	1	5	3	15
8	Higher	More practice in conversation	• Philosophy	7	35	7	35	5	25
			• Criticize	4	20	4	20	1	5
			• Ex/Reas/Exp	3	15	4	20	1	5
			• Self defense	1	5	3	15	-	0
			• Negative will/ab	4	20	-	0	-	0
			• Others	1	5	3	15	2	10

In the fifth situation, in which the suggestion was about trying a diet by a friend who has an equal status with the refuser, 45% of NST have used *statement of principle* while 15% and 10% of TEFLL and NSAE have used the same strategy successively. In the same suggestion, the use of *statement of negative consequences*

has similar percentage rates of 40%, 55%, and 35% by NST, TEFLL, and NSAE respectively.

The sixth situation was a lower suggestion by the boss about writing little notes to find things in the mess to a worker. The results show that, 65% of NSAE have used *statement of negative consequences* such as “I’d probably loosed the notes as well”; “I’ve tried a note system but it doesn’t seem to work for me” to refuse the boss’ suggestion. TEFLL followed it with 35% and NST with 5%. Therefore, NSAE can said to be more open to a higher status person than NST. On the other hand, the rates show a similar oppositeness in percentages of the use of *self defense*. Here, 65% of NST have used this strategy while it has been used by 30% of TEFLL and 5% of NSAE. In refusing the suggestion by the boss, NST used expressions such as “I never forget anything”; “I organize my notes regularly, this is just an extraordinary situation.” This tendency to defend one’s self by NST can be interpreted as trying to be faultless towards a higher status person. On the other hand, the decrease in percentage of the same strategy by TEFLL can be interpreted as the effect of target language mentality on the learners. The other strategy, *statement of alternative* has been used by 30% of TEFLL and 15% of NSAE, while it has not been used by NST. And, *negative willingness/ability* has been used by 30% of NST while it hasn’t been used by TEFLL and NSAE at all. The case of last two strategies in which NST showed difference from the other two groups can also be interpreted as the effect of target language on the learners.

In the eighth situation, the suggestion of more practice in conversation, the student was refused by the strategies of *statement of philosophy*, *criticize*, *excuse/explanation/reason* commonly by three participant groups. on the other hand, *self defense* was used by NST (5%) and TEFLL (15%) and *negative willingness/ability* by only NST (20%).

Table 4: Content Analysis Results and Frequency and Percentage Rates of Refusal Strategies to **Offers** by Native Speakers of Turkish (NST), Turkish EFL Learners (TEFLL), and Native Speakers of American English (NSAE) in Terms of Social Distance of the Interlocutors

DCT ITEM	Refuser Status	Situation of Offers	Semantic Formula	NST		TEFLL		NSAE	
				f	%	f	%	f	%
7	Higher	Paying for broken vase	• Let off hook	7	35	12	60	12	60
			• Let off hook + Philosophy	11	55	8	40	7	35
			• Philosophy	-	0	-	0	1	5
			• Criticize	2	10	-	0	-	0
9	Equal	One more piece of cake	• Direct No	12	60	9	45	10	50
			• Ex/Reas/Exp	5	25	7	35	9	45
			• Others	3	15	4	20	1	5
11	Lower	Promotion with move to small town	• Ex/Reas/Exp + Negative will/ab	7	35	12	60	11	55
			• Ex/Reas/Exp	6	30	5	25	4	20
			• Negative will/ab	6	30	5	25	4	20
			• Alternative	1	5	2	10	2	10
			• Hedging	-	0	-	0	1	5

The seventh situation was about paying for a broken vase by the cleaning lady and it was a higher offer. In refusing this offer, each group of participants used the strategies *let off hook* (NST 35%, TEFLL 60%, NSAE 60%); and *let off hook + philosophy* (NST 55%, TEFLL 40%, NSAE 35%) commonly.

In the ninth situation which was an equal status offer of one more piece of cake, commonly used strategies were *Direct No* (NST 60%, TEFLL 45%, NSAE 50%), and

excuse/reason/explanation (NST 25%, TEFL 35%, NSAE 45%). In each of the groups most of the refusers directly refused the offerer possibly with the reason of equality of status.

The eleventh situation included a lower offer of promotion with move to a small town and refusers of each group used *Excuse/Reason/Explanation + Negative willingness/ability* mostly with 35%, 60% and 55% respectively. The second mostly used strategy was *Excuse/Reason/Explanation* (30%, 25%, 20%).

Table 5: Content Analysis Results and Frequency and Percentage Rates of Refusal Strategies to **Invitations** by Native Speakers of Turkish (NST), Turkish EFL Learners (TEFLL), and Native Speakers of American English (NSAE) in Terms of Social Distance of the Interlocutors

<i>DCT</i> <i>ITEM</i>	<i>Refuser</i> <i>Status</i>	<i>Situation of</i> <i>Invitation</i>	<i>Semantic Formula</i>	<i>NST</i>		<i>TEFLL</i>		<i>NSAE</i>	
				<i>f</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>f</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>f</i>	<i>%</i>
10	Equal	Dinner party on Sunday night	• Regret + Ex/Reas/Exp	10	50	8	40	8	40
			• Ex/Reas/Exp	7	35	10	50	10	50
			• Negative will/ab	1	5	2	10	1	5
			• Others	2	10	-	0	1	5
4	Lower	Boss' party	• Regret + Ex/Reas/Exp	9	45	11	55	13	65
			• Negative will/ab + Ex/Reas/Exp	3	15	2	10	3	15
			• Ex/Reas/Exp	5	25	7	35	4	20
			• Criticize	3	15	-	0	-	0
3	Higher	Expensive restaurant bribe	• Regret + Ex/Reas/Exp	9	45	1	5	5	25
			• Ex/Reas/Exp + Negative will/ab	4	20	2	10	4	20
			• Positive op + Ex/Reas/Exp	-	0	12	60	2	10
			• Ex/Reas/Exp	5	25	2	10	7	35
			• Negative will/ab	1	5	-	0	1	5
			• Others	1	5	3	15	1	5

In the refusal of invitations, the choice of strategies shows similarity between the three groups. For instance, in the tenth situation, in which the participant has to refuse an equal invitation to a dinner party by a friend, most common strategies were

regret + excuse/reason/explanation with a 50% of NST, 40% of TEFLL, 40% of NSAE and *excuse/reason/explanation* with a 35% of NST, 50% of TEFLL and 50% of NSAE.

The fourth situation was a lower invitation to the boss' party and strategy choice did not show a big diversity. 45% of NST, 55% of TEFLL, and 65% of NSAE preferred *regret + excuse/reason/explanation*. The other strategy, *excuse/reason/explanation* was used by 25% of NST, 35% of TEFLL and 20% of NSAE.

The next situation (the 3rd one) was a higher invitation including an expensive restaurant bribe. *Regret + excuse/reason/explanation* was the mostly used strategy by NST with a 45%. *Positive opinion + excuse/reason/explanation* was mostly used by TEFLL with a 60%, and *excuse/reason/explanation* was mostly preferred by NSAE with a 35%.

Table 6: Content Analysis Results and Frequency and Percentage Rates of Refusal Strategies to **Requests** by Native Speakers of Turkish (NST), Turkish EFL Learners (TEFLL), and Native Speakers of American English (NSAE) in Terms of Social Distance of the Interlocutors

<i>DCT ITEM</i>	<i>Refuser Status</i>	<i>Situation of Request</i>	<i>Semantic Formula</i>	<i>NST</i>		<i>TEFLL</i>		<i>NSAE</i>	
				<i>f</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>f</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>f</i>	<i>%</i>
12	Lower	Spend extra hour at office	• Ex/Reas/Exp + Regret	11	55	5	25	8	40
			• Negative will/ab + Ex/Reas/Exp	2	10	4	20	4	20
			• Positive op + Ex/Reas/Exp	2	10	3	15	2	10
			• Ex/Reas/Exp	3	15	5	25	4	40
			• Negative will/ab	2	10	1	5	-	0
			• Request for emphaty	-	0	1	5	1	5
			• Others	-	0	1	5	1	5
2	Equal	Borrow class notes	• Direct No + Criticize	2	10	1	5	2	10
			• Regret + Criticize	4	20	8	40	5	25
			• Ex/Reas/Exp + Regret	1	5	2	10	6	30
			• Criticize	5	25	5	25	3	15
			• Ex/Reas/Exp	3	15	2	10	4	20
			• Principle	1	5	1	5	-	0
			• Others	3	15	-	0	-	0
1	Higher	Pay rise	• Regret + Ex/Reas/Exp	8	40	4	20	5	25
			• Ex/Reas/Exp + Negative will/ab	3	15	12	60	2	10
			• Ex/Reas/Exp	5	25	1	5	4	20
			• Condition	1	5	-	0	3	15
			• Others	3	15	3	15	6	30

The last type of refusal situations was requests. The twelfth situation was a lower request of spending extra hour at office. In refusing this request, the strategy NST mostly produced was *excuse/reason/explanation + regret* with a 55%. It's also produced mostly by TEFLL with a 25% and by NSAE with a 40%. The other strategy TEFLL and NSAE mostly used was *excuse/reason/explanation* with a 25% and 40% respectively.

The equal request was the second one in the Discourse Completion Test and it was about borrowing class notes. In this one, 25% of NST refused by using the strategy of *criticizing* mostly; 40% of TEFLL preferred *regret + criticize*, and 30% of NSAE used *excuse/reason/explanation + regret*.

In the first situation, which was a higher request of pay rise, *regret + excuse/reason/explanation* strategy was used by NST with the highest percentage of 40%. It was also the mostly used strategy by NSAE with a 25%. *Excuse/reason/explanation + negative willingness/ability* was produced mostly by TEFLL with a 60% rate.

In addition to the content analysis results, tables 7 – 18 indicate the Crosstabulation results, which show the semantic formulas used by the three participant groups according to each situation from DCT item 1 to 12.

Table 7: Crosstabulation Results for DCT Item 1

<i>Participant Groups (N=20 each)</i>	<i>Negative willingness/ ability</i>		<i>Regret</i>		<i>Excuse/ Reason/ Explanation</i>		<i>Condition for future/ past acceptance</i>		<i>Promise</i>		<i>Philosophy</i>		<i>Criticize</i>		<i>Request for empathy</i>		<i>Postponement</i>	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
NST	3	14.2	8	38	16	36.3	1	25	-	0	-	0	1	100	2	100	-	0
TEFLL	12	57.1	4	19	17	38.6	-	0	2	100	1	100	-	0	-	0	-	0
NSAE	6	28.5	9	42.8	11	25	3	75	-	0	-	0	-	0	-	0	2	100
TOTAL	21	100	21	100	44	100	4	100	2	100	1	100	1	100	2	100	2	100

Table 8: Crosstabulation Results for DCT Item 2

<i>Participant Groups (N=20 each)</i>	<i>Direct No</i>		<i>Regret</i>		<i>Excuse/ Reason/ Explanation</i>		<i>Condition for future/ past acceptance</i>		<i>Principle</i>		<i>Philosophy</i>		<i>Negative consequences</i>		<i>Criticize</i>	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
NST	2	40	5	19.2	4	22.2	1	100	1	50	1	100	3	75	10	29.4
TEFLL	1	20	10	38.4	4	22.2	-	0	1	50	-	0	1	25	14	41.1
NSAE	2	40	11	42.3	10	55.5	-	0	-	0	-	0	-	0	10	29.4
TOTAL	5	100	26	100	18	100	1	100	2	100	1	100	4	100	34	100

Table 9: Crosstabulation Results for DCT Item 3

<i>Participant Groups (N=20 each)</i>	<i>Performative</i>		<i>Negative willingness/ ability</i>		<i>Regret</i>		<i>Excuse/ Reason/ Explanation</i>		<i>Condition for future/ past acceptance</i>		<i>Promise</i>		<i>Postponement</i>		<i>Positive opinion</i>	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
NST	-	0	5	41.6	9	60	18	33.9	1	50	-	0	-	0	-	0
TEFL	-	0	2	16.6	1	6.6	17	32	1	50	1	100	5	71.4	8	100
NSAE	1	100	5	41.6	5	33.3	18	22.9	-	0	-	0	2	28.5	-	0
TOTAL	1	100	12	100	15	100	53	100	2	100	1	100	7	100	8	100

Table 10: Crosstabulation Results for DCT Item 4

<i>Participant Groups (N=20 each)</i>	<i>Negative willingness/ ability</i>		<i>Regret</i>		<i>Excuse/ Reason/ Explanation</i>		<i>Criticize</i>	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
NST	3	37.5	9	27.2	17	29.8	3	100
TEFL	2	25	11	33.3	20	35	-	0
NSAE	3	37.5	13	39.3	20	35	-	0
TOTAL	8	100	33	100	57	100	3	100

Table 11: Crosstabulation Results for DCT Item 5

<i>Participant Groups (N=20 each)</i>	<i>Direct No</i>		<i>Negative willingness/ability</i>		<i>Excuse/Reason/Explanation</i>		<i>Statement of alternative</i>		<i>Principle</i>		<i>Negative consequences</i>		<i>Hedging</i>	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
NST	-	0	2	40	-	0	1	10	9	69.2	7	28	1	33.3
TEFLL	1	100	2	40	-	0	2	20	2	15.3	11	44	2	66.6
NSAE	-	0	1	20	3	100	7	70	2	15.3	7	28	-	0
TOTAL	1	100	5	100	3	100	10	100	13	100	25	100	3	100

Table 12: Crosstabulation Results for DCT Item 6

<i>Participant Groups (N=20 each)</i>	<i>Negative willingness/ability</i>		<i>Statement of alternative</i>		<i>Promise</i>		<i>Negative consequences</i>		<i>Criticize</i>		<i>Request for empathy</i>		<i>Self defense</i>	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
NST	6	100	-	0	-	0	1	4.7	-	0	-	0	13	65
TEFLL	-	0	6	66.6	1	100	7	33.3	-	0	-	0	6	30
NSAE	-	0	3	33.3	-	0	13	61.9	2	100	1	100	1	5
TOTAL	6	100	9	100	1	100	21	100	2	100	1	100	20	100

Table 13: Crosstabulation Results for DCT Item 7

<i>Participant Groups</i> (<i>N=20 each</i>)	<i>Philosophy</i>		<i>Criticize</i>		Let off hook	
	f	%	f	%	f	%
NST	12	42.8	2	100	19	32.7
TEFL	8	28.5	-	0	20	34.4
NSAE	8	28.5	-	0	19	32.7
TOTAL	28	100	2	100	58	100

Table 14: Crosstabulation Results for DCT Item 8

<i>Participant Groups</i> (<i>N=20 each</i>)	<i>Negative willingness/ability</i>		<i>Excuse/Reason/Explanation</i>		<i>Condition for future/past acceptance</i>		<i>Philosophy</i>		<i>Negative consequences</i>		<i>Criticize</i>		<i>Self defense</i>	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
NST	4	100	3	16.6	-	0	7	36.8	1	33.3	4	44.4	1	25
TEFL	-	0	3	16.6	1	33.3	7	36.8	2	66.6	4	44.4	3	75
NSAE	-	0	12	66.6	2	66.6	5	26.3	-	0	1	11.1	-	0
TOTAL	4	100	18	100	3	100	19	100	3	100	9	100	4	100

Table 15: Crosstabulation Results for DCT Item 9

<i>Participant Groups (N=20 each)</i>	<i>Direct No</i>		<i>Negative willingness/ ability</i>		<i>Excuse/ Reason/ Explanation</i>		<i>Condition for future/ past acceptance</i>		<i>Negative consequences</i>		<i>Criticize</i>		<i>Positive opinion</i>	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
NST	12	38.7	-	0	5	23.8	2	100	-	0	1	100	-	0
TEFL	9	29	3	100	7	33.3	-	0	1	100	-	0	-	0
NSAE	10	32.2	-	0	9	42.8	-	0	-	0	-	0	1	100
TOTAL	31	100	3	100	21	100	2	100	1	100	1	100	1	100

Table 16: Crosstabulation Results for DCT Item 10

<i>Participant Groups (N=20 each)</i>	<i>Direct No</i>		<i>Negative willingness/ ability</i>		<i>Regret</i>		<i>Excuse/ Reason/ Explanation</i>	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
NST	2	100	1	25	10	37	17	32
TEFL	-	0	2	50	8	29.6	18	33.9
NSAE	-	0	1	25	9	33.3	18	33.9
TOTAL	2	100	4	100	27	100	53	100

Table 17: Crosstabulation Results for DCT Item 11

<i>Participant Groups (N=20 each)</i>	<i>Negative willingness/ability</i>		<i>Excuse/Reason/Explanation</i>		<i>Statement of Alternative</i>		<i>Hedging</i>	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
NST	13	34.2	13	28.2	1	10	-	0
TEFLL	13	34.2	17	36.9	2	40	-	0
NSAE	12	31.5	16	34.7	2	40	1	100
TOTAL	38	100	46	100	5	100	1	100

Table 18: Crosstabulation Results for DCT Item 12

<i>Participant Groups (N=20 each)</i>	<i>Negative willingness/ability</i>		<i>Regret</i>		<i>Excuse/Reason/Explanation</i>		<i>Philosophy</i>		<i>Criticize</i>		<i>Request for empathy</i>		<i>Positive opinion</i>	
	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%	f	%
NST	4	30.7	11	44	18	33.9	-	0	-	0	-	0	2	28.5
TEFLL	5	38.4	6	24	17	32	1	100	-	0	1	50	3	42.8
NSAE	4	30.7	8	32	18	33.9	-	0	1	100	1	50	2	28.5
TOTAL	13	100	25	100	53	100	1	100	1	100	2	100	7	100

Research Question 3: Do Turkish EFL Learners make pragmatic transfer from their native language to the target language?

The results of refusal strategies used by three different participant groups were compared and the findings on pragmatic transfer have been classified in 3 points:

I. Turkish EFL Learners deviated from native speaker norms because of negative transfer:

Negative transfer, here in this study, can be defined as differences stemming from the formulas used in the native language of the learners (Turkish) but not used in the target language by the native speakers of American English. With this point of view, the cases of negative transfer are as follows:

In the eighth situation, NST and TEFLL used the strategy of *self defense*. However, this strategy was not found to be used by NSAE. Therefore, the use of this strategy by TEFLL was a result of negative transfer from the native language. The same instance was encountered in the seventh, second, and eleventh situations and with strategies of *statement of philosophy*, *statement of principle*, and *hedging*.

As a result, some of the Turkish EFL Learners responded to their interlocutors according to Turkish language norms while the medium of communication was English and so the learners made pragmatic transfer in these situations from Turkish to English in the choice of strategies while refusing an interlocutor.

II. Turkish EFL Learners deviated from native speaker norms although Turkish and English showed similarities:

Turkish and English showed some similarities which can be understood from the formulas used by NST and NSAE. The occurrence of some formulas are seen both in

responses of NST and NSAE but not in responses of TEFLL or the percentage rates of occurrence of some formulas are high in responses of NST and NSAE but not in responses of TEFLL. The numbers of the situations exemplifying this case are as follows:

The *negative willingness/ability* strategy in the third situation and the *condition for future/past acceptance* strategy in the first situation exemplify the case in which the occurrence of a formula is seen in NST and NSAE responses while Turkish EFL Learners did not use these in their refusals. On the other hand, in the third situation the use of *regret + excuse/reason/explanation* was 45% by NST and 25% by NSAE however, use of the same strategy was only 5% by TEFLL. Similarly, the use of *excuse/reason/explanation* was 25% by NST and 35% by NSAE whereas TEFLL used the same strategy only with 10%.

III. Turkish EFL Learners did not deviate from native speaker norms although Turkish and English showed differences:

Turkish EFL Learners made no deviation despite the differences between the production of NST and NSAE, which means that native language norms are different from target language native speaker norms. The situations resulting in this type of case are as follows:

In the sixth situation the strategy of *negative willingness/ability* was used with 30% by NST while it was not used by TEFLL and NSAE at all. In the fourth situation the strategy of *criticizing* was used by NST with 15% whereas it was not a strategy chosen by TEFLL and NSAE. The next situation was the seventh one in which the strategy of *criticizing* was used with a 10% by NST to refuse the offer while it was not preferred by TEFLL and NSAE. On the other hand, *positive opinion + excuse/reason/explanation* strategy in the third situation was of a 60% use by TEFLL and 10% use by NSAE. However, this time the group which did not choose this strategy was NST.

As a result, in these types of productions of refusals, Turkish EFL Learners did not make any pragmatic transfer from their native language, Turkish, to their target language, English.

And what's more, it's helpful to note that the findings on pragmatic transfer in the realization of refusals in this study (in research question 3) have paralelties with the findings of a study on pragmatic transfer in the realization of apologies, which is a case of Turkish EFL learners by Erçetin (1995). In both of the studies, it is noticed that Turkish EFL learners tend to make similar kinds of pragmatic transfer.

CHAPTER 5 CONCLUSION

5.1. Discussions, Implications, and Suggestions

The kernel of this study was to find about the speech act realizations of Turkish and American participants in refusals. The study also provided data for the Turkish learners' sociocultural and sociolinguistic abilities in the target culture and language since "the selection of the appropriate speech act strategy is conditioned by a host of social, cultural, situational and personal factors" (Cohen, 1996: 39). In the 8th situation, where the student suggests more practice in conversation to the teacher, Turkish participant groups (both in Turkish and in English) used the strategy of 'self defence' whereas American participants didn't use it at all. Similarly in the 2nd situation, where a classmate requests to borrow classnotes from the other one, Turkish participants used 'statement of principle' to refuse while American participants did not at all. Conversely, in the 11th item, where the worker refuses the boss' offer for promotion with move to a small town, American participants used 'hedging' while Turkish participants did not opt for this strategy. Regarding these differences as a cross-cultural issue, it can be said that the different selection of different refusal strategies by Turkish and American participants is a matter of social and cultural difference reflected here, in the speech act realizations.

Additionally, as a conclusion, it is highly necessary that we reflect our findings from both the analysis of the refusal productions by the participants and review of the related literature to the teaching of English as a foreign language. For the teaching of speech acts, which constitute one of the main bodies in pragmatics and so in language teaching, we again encounter context as an indispensable part. In Turkish EFL settings, teaching the speech acts under the titles of "making suggestions, polite requests, etc" with a structure-based approach is a widely used way by language teachers and in coursebooks (e.g. New Bridge To Success 2007/Elementary For Grade 9, unit 7: Asking for and

giving permission pages: 52-55; unit 8: Making a suggestion/Accepting and refusing suggestions: pages 64-64; unit 10: Making a request: pages 73-80) However, we believe that by this way of teaching, learners can't go beyond memorizing the language structures which are presented to them without the use of context created for a better and sustainable learning. Mey (1993) supports this in his words: "...even if one observes a speech act verb in some supposedly linguistic connection, one should not believe a speech act to be taking place, before one has considered, or possibly created, the appropriate context" (p. 139). As in Mey's point of view here, because a speech act can't take place without an appropriate context being considered or created, the learners of a foreign/second language won't be able to grasp the logic behind the utterances and consequently may memorize the forms of language rather than understand the sense in using them in terms of form and style. This case may most probably result in more serious problems for EFL learners than the ESL learners. Because as known well, EFL settings are notorious for their being the only place where learners are exposed to the target language and EFL teachers are the only models. However, ESL learners have the opportunity to be exposed to the target language outside of the class and observe native speakers as models. Therefore, they have the chance of compensating the inefficiencies of the learning/teaching process outside of the class as well. But the same chance is not available or, very difficult to obtain at least, for EFL learners.

As implications for teaching, Çelik (2007) suggests the following objectives of teaching of pragmatics:

- to raise learners' pragmatic awareness and give them choices about their interactions in the target language, and
- to facilitate the learners' ability to select socially appropriate language for various situations they encounter (p. 250).

Çelik (2007) also touches on the lack of pragmatic competence in the target language. According to him:

The consequences of pragmatic failure (...) are generally interpreted as lacking social and personal skills rather than a failure in the language learning process. [Therefore] a pragmatic error may hinder good communication between speakers, may make the speaker appear abrupt in social interactions, or may make the speaker appear rude or uncaring (p. 250).

These points constitute only one part of reasons for including pragmatics in language teaching/learning process. Therefore, pragmatics is one of the aspects of language which language teachers should take into consideration and in which learners should develop awareness in order to carry out successful communication processes.

5.2. Suggestions for Further Research

This study investigated the cross-linguistic and cross-subject realization of speech acts of refusals. The data elicitation instrument was preferred to be a Discourse Completion Test for various reasons mentioned in the methods chapter.

However further studies can be conducted by using different data elicitation techniques such as open role-plays to be recorded and then analyzed in order to be able to obtain more naturally occurring data. In addition, after the participants have completed the DCTs, interview sessions may be held on why they have chosen that refusal strategy while they were refusing the offers, invitations, requests, and suggestions of the speakers. By this way, the participants' points of view would be included to the results of the study.

Moreover, further research can be conducted on different types of speech acts such as requests, complaints, apology, etc. to find out the competence of Turkish EFL Learners and differences between the two languages.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX 1

TURKISH VERSION OF THE DISCOURSE COMPLETION TEST

KİŞİSEL BİLGİLER

1. Yaşınız :
2. Cinsiyetiniz :
3. Bölümünüz :

Söylen Tamamlama Testi

Yönerge: Aşağıdaki 12 durumu ve diyalogu okuyunuz. Her diyalogda konuşmacıdan sonra “Siz” şeklinde belirtilen boşluğa konuşmacıya vereceğiniz cevabı yazınız. Cevaplarınızın gerçek bir diyalogda vereceğiniz cevaplar olmasına dikkat ediniz. Teşekkürler.

1. Bir kitap evi sahibisiniz ve en iyi çalışanlarınızdan biri sizinle özel görüşmek istediğini belirtir.

Çalışan: Bildiğiniz gibi, bir yılı biraz aşkın bir süredir burada çalışmaktayım ve çalışma performansından memnun olduğunuzu görmekteyim. Burada çalışıyor olmaktan çok memnunum fakat dürüst olmak gerekirse, gerçekten maaşımda bir artışa ihtiyacım var.

Siz:.....

Çalışan: O halde sanırım yeni bir iş aramam gerek.

2. Üniversite birinci sınıf öğrencisisiniz. Derslere düzenli olarak devam ediyor ve ders notları tutuyorsunuz. Bir sınıf arkadaşınız sık sık derslere gelmiyor ve sizden ders notlarınızı ister.

Sınıf arkadaşınız: Aman Allah'ım! Yarın sınav var ve geçen haftanın notları bende yok. Bunu sorduğum için üzgünüm ama bir kez daha bana notlarını verebilir misin?

Siz:.....

Sınıf arkadaşınız: Peki o zaman sanırım başkasına sormam gerek.

3. Bir matbaa şirketinin genel müdürsünüz. Bir baskı makinesi şirketinin pazarlama elemanı sizi İstanbul'daki en pahalı restoranlardan birine davet eder.

Siz:

Pazarlama elemanı: Belki başka bir sefere.

4. Çok büyük bir muhasebe şirketinde üst düzey yöneticisiniz. Bir gün patronunuz sizi odasına çağırır.

Patronunuz: Önümüzdeki pazartesi eşim ve ben küçük bir parti veriyoruz. Geç haber verdiğimin farkındayım fakat bütün üst düzey yöneticilerimi eşleriyle beraber orada görmeyi umuyorum. Ne dersin?

Siz:.....

Patronunuz: Bu çok kötü oldu. Herkesin orada olmasını umuyordum.

5. Bir arkadaşınızın evinde televizyon izlemektesiniz. Size aperatif bir şeyler ikram eder.

Siz: Teşekkür ederim ama almayayım. Bu aralar deli gibi yiyorum ve kendimi kötü hissediyorum. Kıyafetlerim bile üzerime olmuyor.

Arkadaşınız: Ya! Sana bahsettiğim diyeti niye denemiyorsun?

Siz:.....

Arkadaşınız: Bence yine de denemelisin.

6. Masanızdasınız ve patronunuzun istediği bir raporu bulmaya çalışıyorsunuz. Masanızdaki dağınıklığın içinde raporu ararken patronunuz gelir.

Patronunuz: Sanırım kendini daha iyi organize etmen gerekiyor. Ben her zaman hatırlatıcı notlar alırım. Belki sen de denemelisin!

Siz:.....
.....
.....

Patronunuz: Tamam, sadece bir fikirdi.

7. Eve gelirsiniz ve evdeki temizlikçi bayanın çok üzgün olduğunu görürsünüz. Koşa koşa yanınıza gelir.

Temizlikçi Bayan: Allah'ım! Çok özür dilerim! Çok kötü bir kaza oldu. Temizlik yaparken masaya takıldım ve Çin vazanız düşüp kırıldı. Çok üzgünüm. Ama bunu ödeyeceğim.

Siz: (Temizlikçi bayanın 3 çocuğa baktığını bilerek)

.....
.....
.....

Temizlikçi Bayan: Hayır, eğer ödersem daha iyi hissedeceğim.

8. Bir üniversitede dil öğretmenisiniz. Dönemin neredeyse ortasıdır ve bir öğrenci sizinle konuşmak ister.

Öğrenci: Dersten sonra bazı arkadaşlarla konuştuk ve dilbilgisinde daha az, konuşmada daha çok çalışma yaparsak daha iyi olacağımızı düşündük.

Siz:.....
.....
.....

Öğrenci: Tamam, sadece bir öneriydi.

9. Öğle yemeği için bir arkadaşınızın evindesiniz.

Arkadaşınız: bir dilim daha keke ne dersin?

Siz:.....

.....

Arkadaşınız: Hadi, küçük bir dilim daha?

Siz:.....

10. Bir arkadaşınız sizi akşam yemeğine davet eder, fakat siz arkadaşınızın eşine gerçekten katlanamıyorsunuz.

Arkadaşınız: Pazar akşamı yemeğe gelmeye ne dersin? Küçük bir davet veriyoruz.

Siz:

Arkadaşınız: Tamam, belki başka sefere.

11. Bir süredir bir reklam ajansında çalışmaktasınız. Patronunuz maaş artışı ve terfi teklifinde bulunur, fakat bu taşınmayı gerektiriyordur. Siz gitmek istemiyorsunuz. Bugün patronunuz sizi ofisine çağırır.

Patronunuz: Sana Denizli/Tavas'taki yeni ofislerimizde yöneticilik pozisyonu teklif ediyorum. Çok güzel bir yer – buraya uçakla sadece üç saat uzaklıkta. Ve pozisyonla birlikte harika bir maaş artışı da gelecek.

Siz:.....

Patronunuz: Belki reddetmeden önce biraz daha düşünmelisin.

12. Ofiste patronunuzla bir toplantıdasınız. Gün bitmek üzere ve işten çıkmak istiyorsunuz.

Patronunuz: Eğer sakıncası yoksa senden bir veya iki saat daha kalmanı istiyorum ki bu işi bitirebilelim.

Siz:.....
.....
.....

Patronunuz: Bu çok kötü. Kalabileceğini umuyordum.

APPENDIX 2

ENGLISH VERSION OF THE DISCOURSE COMPLETION TEST

BACKGROUND INFORMATION:

1. Your Age:
2. Gender:
3. Name of the university & Department:

Discourse Completion Test

Instructions: Please read the following 12 situations. After each situation you will be asked to write a response in the blank after “you.” Respond as you would in actual conversation.

1. You are the owner of a bookstore. One of your best workers asks to speak to you in private.

Worker: As you know, I’ve been here just a little over a year now, and I know you’ve been pleased with my work. I really enjoy working here, but to be quite honest, I really need an increase in pay.

You:.....

Worker: Then I guess I’ll have to look for another job.

2. You are a junior in college. You attend classes regularly and take good notes. Your classmate often misses a class and asks you for the lecture notes.

Classmate: Oh God! We have an exam tomorrow but I don’t have notes from last week. I am sorry to ask you this, but could you please lend me your notes once again?

You:.....
.....
.....

Classmate: O.K., then I guess I'll have to ask somebody else.

- 3. You are the president of a printing company. A salesman from a printing machine company invites you to one of the most expensive restaurants in New York.

Salesman: We have met several times to discuss your purchase of my company's products. I was wondering if you would like to be my guest at Lutece in order to firm up a contract?

You:.....
.....
.....

Salesman: Perhaps another time.

- 4. You are a top executive at a very large accounting firm. One day the boss calls you into his office.

Boss: Next Sunday my wife and I are having a little party. I know it's short notice but I'm hoping all my top executives will be there with their wives. What do you say?

You:.....
.....
.....

Boss: That's too bad. I was hoping everyone would be there.

- 5. You're at a friend's house watching T.V. He/She offers you a snack.

You: Thanks, but no thanks. I've been eating like a pig and I feel just terrible. My clothes don't even fit me.

Friend: Hey, why don't you try this new diet I've been telling you about?

You:.....
.....
.....

Friend: You should try it anyway.

- 6. You're at your desk trying to find a report that your boss just asked for. While you're searching through the mess on your desk, your boss walks over. Boss: You know, maybe you should try and organize yourself better. I always write myself little notes to remind me of things. Perhaps you should give it a try!

You:.....
.....
.....

Boss: Well, it's an idea anyway.

- 7. You arrive home and notice that your cleaning lady is extremely upset. She comes rushing up to you. Cleaning lady: Oh God, I'm so sorry! I had an awful accident. While I was cleaning I bumped into the table and your china vase fell and broke. I feel just terrible about it. I'll pay for it.

You: (Knowing that the cleaning lady is supporting three children)

You:.....
.....
.....

Cleaning lady: No, I'd feel better if I paid for it.

- 8. You're a language teacher at a university. It's just about the middle of the term now and one of your students asks to speak to you. Student: Ah, excuse me, some of the students were talking after class recently and we kind of feel that the class would be better if you could give us more practice in conversation and less on grammar.

You:.....
.....
.....

Student: O.K., it was only a suggestion.

9. You are at a friend’s house for lunch.

Friend: How about another piece of cake?

You:.....
.....
.....

Friend: Come on, just a little piece?

You:.....
.....

10. A friend invites you to dinner, but you really can’t stand this friend’s husband/wife.

Friend: How about coming over for dinner Sunday night? We’re having a small dinner party.

You:.....
.....
.....

Friend: O.K., maybe another time.

11. You’ve been working in an advertising agency now for some time. The boss offers you a raise and promotion, but it involves moving. You don’t want to go. Today, the boss calls you into his office.

Boss: I’d like to offer you an executive position in our new offices in Hicktown. It’s a great town – only 3 hours from here by plane. And, a nice raise comes with the position.

You:.....
.....
.....

Boss: Well, maybe you should give it some more thought before turning it down.

12. You are at the office in a meeting with your boss. It is getting close to the end of the day and you want to leave work.

Boss: If you don't mind, I'd like you to spend an extra hour or two tonight so that we can finish up with this work.

You:.....
.....
.....

Boss: That's too bad. I was hoping you could stay.

APPENDIX 3

CLASSIFICATION OF REFUSALS

I. Direct

- A. Performative (e.g., “I refuse”)
- B. Nonperformative statement
 - 1. “No”
 - 2. Negative willingness/ability (“I can’t” “I won’t” “I don’t think so”)

II. Indirect

- A. Statement of regret (e.g., “I’m sorry...”; “I feel terrible...”)
- B. Wish (e.g., “I wish I could help you...”)
- C. Excuse, reason, explanation (e.g., “My children will be home that night.”; “I have a headache.”)
- D. Statement of alternative
 - 1. I can do X instead of Y (e.g., “I’d rather...” “I’d prefer...”)
 - 2. Why don’t you do X instead of Y (e.g., “Why don’t you ask someone else?”)
- E. Set condition for future and past acceptance (e.g., “If you had asked me earlier, I would have..”)
- F. Promise of future acceptance (e.g., “I’ll do it next time”; “I promise I will...” or “Next time I’ll...” – using “will” of promise or “promise”)
- G. Statement of principle (e.g., “I never do business with friends.”)
- H. Statement of philosophy (e.g., “One can’t be too careful.”)
- I. Attempt to dissuade interlocutor
 - 1. Threat or statement of negative consequences to the requester (e.g., “I won’t be any fun tonight” to refuse an invitation)
 - 2. Guilt trip (e.g., waitress to customers who want to sit a while: “I can’t make a living off people who just order coffee.”)
 - 3. Criticize the request/requester, etc. (statement of negative feeling or opinion); insult/attack /e.g., “Who do you think you are?”; “That’s a terrible idea!”)

4. Request for help, empathy, and assistance by dropping or holding the request.
 5. Let interlocutor off the hook (e.g., “Don’t worry about it.” “That’s okay” “You don’t have to”)
 6. Self-defense (e.g., “I’m trying my best” “I’m doing all I can do”)
- J. Acceptance that functions as a refusal
1. Unspecific or indefinite reply
 2. Lack of enthusiasm
- K. Avoidance
1. Nonverbal
 - a. Silence
 - b. Hesitation
 - c. Do nothing
 - d. Physical departure
 2. Verbal
 - a. Topic switch
 - b. Joke
 - c. Repetition of part of request, etc. (e.g., “Monday?”)
 - d. Postponement (e.g., “I’ll think about it”)
 - e. Hedging (e.g., “Gee, I don’t know” “I’m not sure”)

Adjuncts to Refusals

1. Statement of positive opinion/feeling or agreement (“That’s a good idea...” “I’d love to...”)
2. Statement of empathy (e.g., “I realize you’re in a difficult situation”)
3. Pause fillers (“uhh” “oh” “uhm”)
4. Gratitude/appreciation