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A COMPARATIVE STUDY INTO ACQUISITION OF POLITENESS
IN ENGLISH AS A FOREIGN LANGUAGE

MA THESIS

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Abstract

This study investigated the acquisition of pragmatics of the learners learning English as a second language through politeness level achieved in the production of request speech act. It also aimed to find different ways that may contribute to language teaching in teaching politeness.

To achieve this, a discourse completion task, which consists of two types of situations: familiar and unfamiliar, was designed and implemented to 21 upper intermediate and 31 advanced students. The data were analysed qualitatively and quantitatively using the analysis of speech act data, CCSARP coding system by Blum-Kulka, House and Kasper (1989).

The study revealed that the foreign language learners tended to use conventional indirect speech act rather than direct and nonconventional speech acts and that students' awareness of familiarity in the situations made them change the grammatical form.

It was also found that upper intermediate learners employed more modification to mitigate their utterances. In addition, they used less direct but more conventional indirect strategies.

Another conclusion was that native and non-native speakers of English perceived politeness in quite a different way and even the native speakers' perception of politeness differed.

Considering the ratings of the native and non-native speakers of English, the learners were found to be moderately polite in their utterances.

ÖZET

Bu çalışma ikinci dil olarak İngilizce öğrenenlerin rica cümlesi üretmede ulaşılan nezaket seviyesiyle kullanıma ilişkin edinimlerini incelemiştir. Ayrıca, nezaket öğretilirken dil öğretimine katkıda bulunacak farklı yolları ortaya çıkarmayı amaçlamıştır.

Bu amaca ulaşmak için tanıdık ve tanımadık iki tür durumdan oluşan metin tamamlama aktivitesi (discourse completion task) hazırlandı ve 21 orta üstü, 31 ileri seviye öğrenciye uygulandı. Veriler Blum-Kulka, House and Kasper (1989) tarafından oluşturulan CCSARP kullanım bilgi analizi kodlama sistemi ile analiz edildi.

Çalışma yabancı dil öğrenenlerin dolaysız veya konvansiyonel olmayan söylem oluşturmaktan çok konvansiyonel dolaylı söylemi kullanma eğilimde olduklarını ortaya çıkardı.

Ayrıca, orta üstü öğrencilerin sözcelerini yumuşatma stratejilerini daha çok başvurdukları ve aynı zamanda daha az dolaylı fakat daha çok konvansiyonel dolaysız yapı kullandıkları bulundu.

Diğer bir sonuç ta anadil ve yabancı dil konuşurlarının nezaketi farklı algıladıkları ve hatta anadil konuşurlarının nezaketi algılamasının farklılık gösterdiğiydi.

Anadil ve yabancı dil İngilizce konuşurlarının üretilen sözcelere verdikleri puanlar göz önüne alınca araştırmaya katılanların uygun ölçüde kibar oldukları bulundu.

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Figure1: A schematic representation of Brown and Levinson's (1978) politeness model



CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.0. INTRODUCTION

This chapter aims to present background of the study. It further describes aims of the study and research questions. Following this, the chapter states assumptions of the study and limitations. Finally, it describes the organisation of the thesis.

1.1. BACKGROUND TO THE STUDY

It is a natural phenomena that a speaker uses his/her language in social context as the use and the form of the language have been acquired or internalised as a natural process that functions as he/she develops (Cook, 1992). He\she cannot prevent this from happening. Similarly, a human being cannot stop himself\herself from learning the language spoken around him\her. It comes into you whether one wants or not as long as the biological factors are met. What makes such an exposure inevitable is the psychological need to speak or the dependency on language to survive and to express oneself. Such factors make a perfect native speaker. Chomsky (1980) notes that knowledge of language needs experience to mature; without it nothing would happen; but the entire potential is there from the start.

In recent years there has been a spate of interest in studies of performance, (Cohen and Olshtain: 1981, Cohen and Olshtain: 1993, Cohen and Olshtain: 1994, Cohen: 1996, Cohen: 1997, Kasper: 1997, Bordovi-Harlig and Dörnyei: 1998) that is, how the learners can be made to use the language proficiently and appropriately in social settings. Native-like use has always been the target that all the learners feel they have to reach.

In the distinction that Chomsky (1965) made as competence and performance we can see the twofoldedness of the knowledge. What he attempted to do was to deal with competence and in his theory he disregarded the factors that influence the use of language in communication. His main aim was to explore what constitutes this knowledge so that he could reveal how the human mind works. His approach was totally cognitive. On the other hand, there is another point that should be considered when the matter is language. We cannot only say that language is made up of formal and abstract rules that are processed in the mind but we must also mention how this knowledge is put to use. What makes it possible for people to apply these rules is not only within the linguistic frame. In acquiring language it is not only the principle, rules and parameters that a baby acquires but it is also what makes the structures usable in certain contexts in an appropriate way. The structures the baby hears are absorbed into the mind of the baby as part of its social or pragmatic knowledge. Hence, we should make it clear what pragmatic or sociolinguistic competence is. Without such a competence internalised by babies, it would not be impossible to use socially appropriate language.

Interaction between a child and a parent has often been seen in recent years as the mainspring of language acquisition and this interaction is set up by social exchanges such as correction, approval or imitation (Cook and Newson, 1996: 100). Bruner (1983) mentions a standardized initially microcosmic interaction pattern between an adult and an infant, which can be exemplified as follows:

F: Are you a mucky pup?

C: No

F: Yes you are

C: No

F: Yes you are

C: No

F: Yes you are

(Cook, 1994: 100).

Chomsky (1965) notes that such exchanges are vital for building up the use of language, pragmatic competence; 'it would not be at all surprising to find that normal language learning requires use of language in real-life situations, in some way'.

In the first language acquisition, one cannot say that 'linguistic competence develops apart from communicative competence as communicating ideas provides the triggering function in the development of such competence' (Chomsky 1965: 33), but Bordovi- Harlig and Dörnyei (1998: 233) propose 'L2 learners often develop grammatical competence in the absence of concomitant pragmatic competence'. Thus, in foreign language teaching, the case is different, as one may learn the grammatical rules or usage without the concomitant ability to use it in real communication. There are lots of learners who can deal with the hardships of descriptive grammar but not that of its application pragmatically. One might also believe that there are other factors that constitute obstacles before the learners, which are usually psychological and which result from the personality of the individual.

Most studies done in the area of foreign language teaching and learning focus primarily on how they can enable the learners to reach the desired level where they can use the language effectively to carry out the true goals. In this respect, we must consider what the knowledge of language is. It is composed of two inseparable parts, one of which is competence and the other of which is performance. In Chomsky's point of view, the former is the speaker-hearer's knowledge of his language and the latter the actual use of language in concrete situations (Chomsky, 1965). On the other hand, Hymes (1972) points to the rules of language use disregarded in the Chomskyan point of view concerning language. He underlines the other indispensable side of the coin, the performance, that is, the communicative competence. A speaker of a language, whether native or not, is supposed to have this competence in order to be able use the formal knowledge of language in the real-life situations. Correspondingly, it can be suggested that the appropriate use of language be more important than linguistic competence, the formal and abstract knowledge in

mind, as it is the essence of what is going to be constructed as a linguistic output (Hymes, 1972)

1.2. PURPOSE OF THE STUDY AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This study aimed to investigate the acquisition and the use of request forms by Turkish students. It focused on ELT department students. The study had one broad objective. This was

- to investigate how request speech acts are performed by Turkish learners of English
- to shed light on the request forms of the speech act utterances

To realize this, answers to the following specific research questions were sought:

RQ1. What request forms do Turkish learners perform?

RQ2. What is the impact of language proficiency on the production of request utterances?

RQ3. To what extent do the learners use modification in request speech acts?

RQ4. What is the impact of the familiarity to the speaker on the level of politeness?

RQ5. What is the politeness level achieved by the foreign language learners?

1.3. SIGNIFICANCE OF THE STUDY

This study is the one that deals with one Ural-Altaic and one Indo-European language. It will be from the perspective of the Turkish learners of those languages. It will shed light on the acquisition of pragmatic knowledge through politeness. The study will answer the question whether the Turkish learners have problems in acquiring communicative competence with regard to politeness or whether they

experience any hardship in implementing this knowledge. In this respect, the data to be collected will include many factors concerning the Turkish learners of foreign languages and will provide a good picture of the pragmatic abilities. Such studies are not done so often in Turkey, so this one will cover a gap in this area.

As is known, using language politely indicates the user's quality in certain linguistic settings. Foreign language users generally are confined to the instructed knowledge concerning its use and its politeness. To make the students efficient in communicating accurately and approximately the teachers should also be trained. Hence, another significance of the study lies in the fact that the findings can be evaluated in teacher training in the field of foreign language teaching. The way the students perform pragmalinguistic and sociolinguistic knowledge regarding foreign language may provide clues about how they should or should not be taught.

1.4. ASSUMPTIONS OF THE STUDY

The questionnaire was administered in preparatory and third classes of the ELT and ELL departments where students are trained to be proficient enough in English. They are regarded as upper intermediate and low advanced level students. From the structural point of view there may be small differences between these two groups, but the strategies they follow might be different. The high-level learners are expected to use more supportive moves like grounder or showing reason or reasons for the request, with which they can display the linguistic abilities. They may also follow different ways to convey the request using less direct forms to increase the politeness level. Hence, they are supposed to be more polite in their requests. The politeness level they achieve might also be different for several other reasons, for instance, the linguistic level.

It is possible to claim that non-native speakers have more explicit grammatical knowledge of language as the first tool they deal with is mostly grammar and it is the only way for them to perceive a language. This is the starting

point of the topic in that whether such accuracy is sufficient in performing communication act or not. For many it is not, as there are other components that make it possible to communicate in an appropriate way. Among them is politeness level of the utterances that are performed. Why is such accuracy needed? For me it is one of the conditions about whether communication is achieved or not. Asking someone in a polite way will contribute to the possibility of its performability by the hearer regardless of the imposition of the request. On the other hand, uttering inappropriate language can cause the speech act not to be carried out and the speaker to be reprimanded by the communicatee.

We assume that they will write what they imagine saying in the described setting and that they will do their best to complete the task. That reliance comes from the fact that they are our students and there is at least a student-teacher relation between. Another thing we assume is that there will be no difference in gender in terms of performance.

1.5. LIMITATIONS OF THE STUDY

One of the main aims of the study is to find out how non-native speakers use politeness strategies in their communication context using CCSARP (cross-cultural speech act realisation patterns). Only one speech act, request, was studied so that the scope of the study will remain manageable.

The experiences that one has gone through just before the conversation with the hearer will be effective on the choice of the polite forms. On the other hand, every individual has different social distance with their relatives, close friends, roommates, and the neighbours. The speakers who have been employed in the study will perform their speech act, request imagining one of their friends or teachers.e.t.c with the one from their real life. Whereas one student has a very formal relation with

his friend the other might have an informal one. Hence, they respond to the situation using different pattern with regard to politeness and politeness strategies.

We can never reach an absolute pattern for certain meanings in communication. It is something dynamic that is never constant. One more shortcoming here is that the learners are getting matured in many aspects. They may not acquire the polite forms even in their language, which will cause them not to be accurate in the request forms of L2.

Entire collection of English data were rated with regard to how much polite they are. For this purpose, two native speakers and two non-native speakers graded the responses from one to five. This limited number of raters may also affect the results, as the results that were obtained cannot be connected to only two native speakers' perspective.

One problem arises here as Alptekin (2000) mentions: 'communicative competence is as utopic as Chomsky's (1972) idealized native speaker-listener', which is nonexistent abstraction. There will always be deviations from the social norms while speaking, which are simultaneously corrected. Never can one find one who has the complete knowledge of communicative competence although it is possible to form one in theoretical sense.

1.6. ORGANIZATION OF THE THESIS

This thesis consists of seven chapters. The first chapter introduces the subject studied and explains the aims of the study as well as the significance and the limitations of the study.

The foreign chapter, Literature Review chapter, discusses the subject by telling one part the theoretical background of the study, knowledge and communicative competence discussed in the literature.

The third chapter discusses Pragmatics and theories about it to clarify some certain key points in the later chapters.

The fourth chapter discusses the notion “politeness” in language with regard to request speech acts.

The fifth chapter reviews the method through which the study was carried out. It also includes the steps taken during the study.

The sixth chapter evaluates the findings referring to the literature review and includes discussions about the findings.

The last chapter deals with the conclusions drawn from the study and focuses on the possible implications concerning the field of language teaching.

1.7. SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER.

This chapter consists of the sections laying emphasis on literature review and the significance and the research questions of the study. It also indicates the limitations and assumptions of the study.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

2.0. INTRODUCTION

This chapter reviews the notion of communicative competence. To do that, firstly the knowledge of language will be discussed. Following this, communicative competence and the place of pragmatic knowledge will be dealt with. It follows an academic framework from general to specific.

2.1. KNOWLEDGE OF LANGUAGE

When you know a language, you can speak and be understood by others who know that language. This means you have the capacity to produce sounds that signify certain meanings and to understand or interpret the sounds produced by others. What is clear from this is that a speaker of a language, whether native or non-native, must have such knowledge. Otherwise, the communication cannot occur. From this point of view, it can be said that there are two folds concerning language knowledge, one of which is the competence, that makes us organize our thoughts into a structure on which every listener is conventional; the other of which is performance, which varies from speaker to speaker owing to various reasons, for instance psychological, physiological or biological (Fromkin and Rodman, 1988).

Chomsky sees competence as independent of situation and as distinct from the use of language, which depends on the context of situation, intentions of the participants and other factors (Chomsky, 1980). The definition of competence, as it can be seen clearly, does not account for how language is used. This gap in the definition of communicative competence is covered by the term communicative competence suggested by Hymes (1972).

2.2. WHAT IS COMMUNICATIVE COMPETENCE?

The term “communicative competence” was first suggested by Hymes (1972) referring to everything that makes it possible for a speaker to communicate with others: knowledge of what is possible, feasible, appropriate and actually done. Hymes drew the attention to the narrowness of Chomskyan Linguistics, and its inability to account for many aspects of language use and therefore, he offered the term because he found Chomsky’s (1980) notion of competence limited. Chomsky (1965:4) distinguished between competence, which is the speaker-hearer’s knowledge of his language, and performance, which is the actual use of language in concrete situations. He tried to display the grammar that emerges in children in the early ages but never mentioned the social and functional rules of language which govern appropriate communication and which cannot also develop without practice with other participants. Chomsky argues that competence, conceived as an idealized static knowledge of phonological and syntactic rules, is the subject matter of linguistics. On the other hand, Hymes’ main point is that there must be other kinds of knowledge ‘rules of use’ which enable actual speakers to use the language effectively. Brown (1994) suggests that communicative competence is that aspect of our competence that enables us to convey and interpret messages and to negotiate meanings interpersonally within specific contexts. Savignon (1983:9) notes that ‘communicative competence’ is relative, not absolute, and depends on the cooperation of all the participants involved. To him, without such interaction, communicative competence cannot be said to exist, as what constitutes it is the characteristics within the exchange of the utterances between the participants.

As the results of the research carried out in the 1970s, the distinction between linguistic competence and communicative competence was made according to (Hymes 1967; Paulston, 1974). This distinction indicates the difference between knowledge about language forms and knowledge that enables a person to communicate functionally and interactively (Brown, 1994). Here two crucial parts of language “form and function” are emphasized. One cannot be separated from another

in the process of communication as only form will mean nothing and also function cannot be said to exist without form.

A more recent distinction model came from Canale and Swain (1980) and then the modified version by Canale's definition of communicative competence (1983) was made a critique of Hymes due to his socially oriented theories. Having discounted any psycholinguistic component, they present a three-part competence consisting of grammatical competence, sociolinguistic competence, and strategic competence and further broken down into sociocultural competence and discourse competence. In this definition four components, or subcategories, constitute the communicative competence. The first two subcategories reflect the use of the linguistic system itself. These are grammatical competence, discourse competence, sociolinguistic and strategic competence.

2.3.1. GRAMMATICAL COMPETENCE

Grammatical competence corresponds to "knowledge of lexical items and of the rules of morphology, syntax, sentence grammar semantics, and phonology" (Canale and Swain 1980: 29). We now can say that it is the competence that enables a speaker of a language to form a sentence which is defined as "any utterance or written sequence of words which is regarded as capable of standing alone to express a coherent thought" (Trask, 1993: 250).

2.3.2 DISCOURSE COMPETENCE

The foreign subcategory of communicative competence is the *discourse* competence, which can be defined as the competence or ability (Brown, 1994: 228) to connect sentences in stretches of discourse and to form a meaningful whole out of a series of utterances. Discourse is generally defined as "language in use" (Brown and Yule, (1983), or "units of language and language use consisting of more than a single

sentence, but connected by some system of related topics” (Akmajian, Demers, Framer and Harnish, 1995). Discourse, then, contains everything from simple spoken conversation to lengthy written texts (articles, books, and the like) (Brown, 1994). From this perspective, it is now possible to say that grammatical competence focuses on sentence-level grammar whereas discourse competence is concerned with intersentential relationships. The other two subcategories, which are based on Canale and Swain’s model, are the more functional aspects of communication.

2.3.4. SOCIOLINGUISTIC COMPETENCE

Sociolinguistic competence is the knowledge of sociocultural rules of language and discourse. This competence includes social context where language is used: roles of participants, information they share, which can be defined as background knowledge specific to participants, which is never said but known implicitly, and function of the interaction. The appropriacy of utterances depends on the understanding of the social context under which the utterance is produced (Savignon, 1983).

2.3.5. STRATEGIC COMPETENCE

The fourth subcategory of communicative competence is *strategic* competence. Canale and Swain (1983: 37) define it as ‘the verbal and nonverbal communication strategies that may be called into action to compensate for breakdowns in communication due to the performance variables or due to the insufficient competence’. Savignon (1983) describes strategic competence as ‘the strategies that one uses to compensate for imperfect knowledge of rules- or limiting factors in their application such as fatigue, distraction, and inattention’. While performing a language, whether foreign or foreign language, learners usually have difficulties in communicating their ideas fully and native-like because of some linguistic factors.

As a result of such factors they usually get stuck in conversation when they feel they cannot utter the sentence which they think will convey the meaning appropriately. They may be discouraged or persevere the attempts to say what they want. If they can continue without any break when they have difficulty in performing the language, this indicates that they display their strategic competence successfully. Brown (1994: 228) makes a short definition concerning this ability, which is that 'it is the competence underlying our ability to make repairs, to cope with imperfect knowledge, and to sustain communication through 'paraphrase, circumlocution, repetition, hesitation, avoidance, and guessing, as well as shifts in register and style' (Savignon, 1983: 40-41). Swain (1984 and 1989) as an addition to the earlier notion of strategic competence discussed in Canale and Swain (1980), discusses that strategic competence also includes communication strategies to enhance the *effectiveness of communication* or to compensate for breakdowns.

Likewise, Yule and Tarone (1990:181) refer to strategic competence as 'an ability to select an effective means of performing a communicative act that enables the listener/reader to identify the intended referent'. In fact, strategic competence is the way we manipulate language in order to meet communicative goals (Brown: 1994).

Strategic competence is crucial for those who engage in people with their language. That who needs someone to do something for him/her must use this strategy so that s/he can get his/her interlocutor to perform the request speech act.

2.4. BACHMAN'S MODEL OF COMMUNICATIVE MODEL

Bachman (1990) made some modifications on Canale and Swain's definition of communicative competence with the schematisation, called *Language Competence*. He divided language competence into two main parts as organizational and pragmatic competence. Under the former, he places the grammatical competence

including vocabulary, morphology, syntax and phonology and textual competence containing cohesion and rhetorical organization. Under the pragmatic competence we see illocutionary competence, which involves ideational, manipulative, heuristic, and imaginative functions, and sociolinguistic competence, which involves sensitivity to dialect or variety, sensitivity to register, sensitivity to naturalness and cultural references and figures of speech.

While Bachman's model views competence as language competence, Canale and Swain view it as communicative competence as they consider the basic function of language to be communicative. Hence, they categorize all that is needed for communicative purposes.

It is interesting that Bachman (1990) does not include strategic competence in his model. Does that indicate that he disregard such a competence? Or does he see it as competence which develops naturally even in foreign language learners? But, when we consider the whole schematisation we can easily see that it includes the skills that may contribute to the development of strategic competence. Beyond all these cannot we see emotional competence as a part of communication, as people in communication aim to achieve and sustain the conversation and try to tell the things in a right way despite possible tension increase during the talk. Without losing the temper one should sustain the chat and this is only possible for those having such a competence. If communicative competence is what enables us to communicate with others and communicate our ideas, then emotional competence is also needed.

2.5. THE SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

This chapter reviewed the notion of communicative competence. The knowledge of language was discussed. Following this, the subcategories of communicative competence were presented.

CHAPTER THREE LITERATURE REVIEW 2

3.0. INTRODUCTION

This chapter reviews pragmatics and discusses speech act theory by Austin. Following this, the categorization of speech act by Searle is also discussed.

3.1. PRAGMATICS

3.1.1. DEFINITION OF PRAGMATICS

In Yule's definition 'pragmatics is the study of speaker meaning, of contextual meaning, of how more gets communicated than is said, of the expression of relative distance'. (Yule, 1996:3). It is widely known that people usually communicate through what they have not said. The hearers are usually expected to fill the gaps in the utterances produced, as it might be impolite to say it directly to the face of the hearer. The speakers also speak in a way that the hearers, when involved in a communication, take into all the non-linguistic factors that will contribute to the better or precise understanding of the utterance such as setting, the communicatee's age, gender, social state and the purpose of the communication. We can now say that these are the issues that *Pragmatics* deals with.

'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 of the use of language has on other participants in the act of communication' (Kasper, 1997:14).

'Pragmatics is the study of the signs to interpreters'. (Levinson: 1983:1)
Here Levinson emphasizes that pragmatics addresses language use and deals with the appropriateness of utterances given specific situations, speakers, and content.

3.3. SPEECH ACT THEORY

Saaed (1997) discusses that learning to communicate in a language requires different strategies than learning grammar or pronunciation. The learners need to learn to ask questions, make suggestions, greet and thank and apologize etc. These functions of language are called speech acts.

3.3.1. AUSTIN'S SPEECH ACT THEORY

Austin (1962) made two important observations, one of which is that not all the sentences are statements and that much of conversation is made up of questions, exclamations, commands, and expressions of wishes and the second of which is that not all sentences are produced to make statements. Accordingly, she identified a subset of declaratives that are not used to make true or false statements, such as the examples:

- a. I promise to take a taxi home.
- b. I declare this meeting open.
- c. I warn you that legal action will ensue (Saaed, 1997: 207)

Such statements are declaratives but they are not used to make true or false statements. Austin (1962) suggested that these are a kind of action. Hence, uttering the sentence (a), the speaker makes a promise rather than just describing the state. Such utterances are called performative utterances. There are also non-performative utterances in which the sentences describe the actions independent of the linguistic act. Using "hereby" with the following sentences can show how odd they sound.

I cook this cake.

? I hereby cook this cake.

I start this car.

? I hereby start this car. (Saaed, 1997: 208)

A speaker will not have done the action in the utterance just by uttering it. On the contrary, when a speaker performs an utterance and at the same time performs the action. For example, when the judge says 'I sentence you to ten years in jail' the action is said to be performed just by saying, but by saying 'I turn on the computer' the action of turning on computer cannot be said to be performed (Saaed: 1997).

We can think about the possibility to connect this theory to politeness level of request speech act, as we perform this speech act forming different sentence types such questions, exclamations, commands, and expressions of wishes. When we utter the following sentences, they might have the function of making someone do something for us directly or indirectly, explicitly or implicitly, politely or impolitely. For example, '*I wish you could help me now*' express our wish to be helped by the hearer explicitly and it might force the hearer to try to do it. '*Isn't it hot here?*' is an interrogative, which can also function as a request. In this case, the speaker is intent on having the hearer infer from the utterance that s/he should do the act. We see here a mild hint, which implies that the hearer should open the door or window depending on the situation. In the same vein, 'what a nice pen' might serve as a request to give or a desire to take it from the hearer. Sometimes a simple question like '*Is my book over there*' can express our desire to ask for the book, which is possibly near the hearer. Another example is 'there is something burning in the kitchen', which is basically a warning but also a request for the hearer to go and look what is going on the kitchen. Therefore, not only do we make questions, exclamations, commands, and expressions of wishes but we express our request with such kind of sentences as well.

Such ways of expressing requests may not be rude or polite. They may result from the close relationship or sincerity between the speaker and the hearer.

3.3.2 CATEGORIZING SPEECH ACTS

Searle proposed that there are five main types of acts (1975: 10-16):

1. Representatives, which commit the speaker to the truth of the expressed proposition (paradigm cases: asserting, concluding)
2. Directives, which are attempts by the speaker to get the addressee to do something (paradigm cases: requesting, questioning);
3. Commisives, which commit the speaker to some future course of action (paradigm cases: promising, threatening, offering);
4. Expressives, which express a psychological state (paradigm cases: thanking, apologising, welcoming, congratulating);
5. Declarations, which effect immediate changes in the institutional state of affairs and which tend to rely on elaborate extra linguistic institutions (paradigm cases: excommunicating, declaring war, christening, marrying, firing from employment).

3.2. ACQUISITION OF PRAGMATIC DEVICES IN L1 AND L2

Pragmatic devices are those used to make the utterances pragmatically appropriate (Bardovi and Harlig, 1990). For them to be appropriate a speaker should consider the status of whom they are talking to so that they can address in the right way. Native and non-native speakers differ in this ability. NNSs are generally less successful in doing out-status ("noncongruent") things during conversation because they do not use "status- preserving strategies" such as downgraders to soften the effect of the noncongruent speech acts (Bardovi-Harlig, Kathleen, and Beverly S.

Hartford, 1990). For the foreign language learners to acquire the pragmatic devices seems difficult as they do not have the necessary linguistic setting in which they can understand the natural process of the conversations between the participants. For the native speakers such an obstacle is out of question, which makes them so efficient and their utterances so appropriate in using their language. Non-native speakers have to be instructed to acquire such devices as downgraders or upgraders to make their utterances polite enough or not to lose hearer's face or to learn the face-saving strategies. That a non-native speaker learns how to and where to use 'please' might be culture-bounded. This will also be seen in the results of the study. On the other hand, as using intensifiers such as really, so very, etc. will decrease the imposition that the requests naturally have, the use of such devices makes the utterances polite and acceptable enough to be carried out by the listener. All the native speakers of languages know this. However, are they aware of this fact while performing the foreign language they are learning?

3.4. SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

This chapter reviewed pragmatics briefly. Subsequent to this, it discussed speech act theory and its categorization. It further discussed acquisition of pragmatic devices in L1 and L2.

CHAPTER FOUR

LITERATURE REVIEW 3

4.0. INTRODUCTION

In this chapter the notion 'Politeness' will be presented with politeness strategies and theories. Then the politeness model by Brown and Levinson and the studies on politeness will be summarized. Later the request speech act will be explained.

4.1. POLITENESS

Brown and Levinson (1987) propose that politeness is a notion that is understood as a regulative procedure in communicative behaviour between individuals. Societies differ in their preferred ways of organizing the interpersonal relations of their members. The two dominant patterns, according to Brown and Levinson (1987:36), are based on (1) maintaining involvement, ingroupness and the desire of self to be liked by others (positive politeness), and (2) maintaining deference and the desire of self to have his or her actions unimpeded (negative politeness). Although all societies will manifest both positive and negative politeness strategies in communication, they will differ in the frequency or concentration of one type of strategy over others.

Greece and England are examples of countries with different dominant politeness strategies and orientations (Sifianou 1992). Greece is a predominantly positive politeness culture where interpersonal ties with in group members are strong, manifestation of solidarity tends to override freedom from imposition and the appropriate behaviours within in-groups are characterized by cooperation, protection, and help. In England privacy and intimacy are likely to be valued more than in

Greece. Even intimates may employ many strategies indicating tentativeness, lack of imposition and respect for the other.

Speech act of requesting is perceived as less of an imposition in Greece than in England (Sifianou, 1992). Requesting a favour from another person is likely to be interpreted as a sign of intimacy and in-groupness. In England, requests tend to be perceived more in terms of the violation of another person's rights to remain free to do what s/he wants. Therefore, one will find more examples of mitigatory strategies (negative politeness strategies) such as *interrogative mood*, *modal verbs*, *hedging* and so on in English requests than in Greek equivalents, which tend to be more direct and use *imperative mood* to a greater extent. For example, an English husband may ask his wife for a small favour in the following way: would you mind making me a cup of coffee? This is an indirect requests, realized in the interrogative mood with an extra degree of tentativeness marked by the modal verb would. The Greek, unmarked version of such a request will be realized as "make me a little cup of coffee". Here the imperative mood is used, and the only overt politeness strategy present is a positive politeness-oriented use of diminutive little cup of coffee, which signals to the listener affection and familiarity (Sifianou, 1992).

An important implication of cross cultural politeness research is that different speech communities will display preferences for different politeness orientations and L2 speakers ought to realize that what may seem rude and imposing in one language may be a display of positive politeness of involvement, whereas what may seem snooty and aloof behaviour in another culture may be an expression of concern for the well-being of another person by mitigating imposition Sifianou, 1992: 299).

4.2. DIRECT AND INDIRECT SPEECH ACTS

The conventionally expected function is known as the direct speech act and the extra actual function is termed as the indirect speech act (Saaed: 1997). The

following utterances show that an utterance may have the nature of being question or statement directly although it has another quality of one the speech acts such as request, order, complain.. etc. the following classification exemplifies direct and indirect act of an utterance.

Utterance	Indirect act	Direct act
Would you mind opening the door?	request	Question
Why don't you turn off the lights and sleep?	request	Question
I must ask you to sign the paper?	order/request	Statement
You are always messing up the kitchen.	complain	Statement

According to Searle (1975), producing an indirect act is inherited from the first language acquisition nature. For a native speaker to make an indirect act because it is in the nature of the language use to speak indirectly, but how they are recognized might be a problem. Direct use is the literal use of the speech act and the indirect use is the nonliteral use. He argues that the two speech acts are available in the following sentences:

Can you pass the salt?
 I wish you wouldn't do that
 Aren't you going to eat your cereal?
 Isn't it harmful for you to smoke?

The speaker may recognize either the literal or nonliteral depending on the illocutionary point that the speaker wants to do and the circumstances under which the speech act is produced. On the other hand not all nonliteral acts will work in the

same way. For example, *Acquiring a language occurs in a critical period* will not work as a request like *Can you pass the salt?* For such statements to be recognized as requests they must rely on the system of felicity conditions. Searle (1975:71) lists such conditions for requests as follows.

- a. Preparatory conditions: H is able to perform A.
- b. Sincerity condition: S wants H to do A.
- c. Propositional condition: S predicates a future act A of H.
- d. Essential condition: counts as an attempt by S to get H to do A.

[Where S =speaker, H=hearer, A= the future action]

According to Searle (1975), *return that book to the library!* is an imperative that falls into the category of *directive* and its propositional content involves predicating the future act: *you will return that book to the library*. Searle's point is that a corresponding indirect directive can be made by questioning this, i.e. *Aren't you going to return that book to the library? Or are you going to return that book to the library?*

As for how the hearer recognizes indirect speech acts, it is another question that needs to be answered. The hearer combines the knowledge of three elements to infer from the speech act: the felicity conditions of direct speech acts, the context of the utterance, and the principles of conversational cooperation, such as the Gricean maxims of relevance, quality, etc. The context of the question '*Can you pass the salt?*' in everyday situation, will tell the hearer that the speaker should already know that he can pass the salt, and thus he recognizes that the question violates the felicity conditions for a question. The assumption of cooperative principles however leads the hearer to search for some other point for the utterance. This is basically the search for an indirect speech act. The hearer asks himself, if it cannot be a question, 'what is the purpose of the utterance?' The hearer knows that a condition for requests is that the hearer can actually carry out the desired act and also recognizes that to say *yes* here is to confirm that a preparatory condition for doing A has been met. The hearer also knows as a part of general background knowledge that passing the salt

around is a usual part of meals. From this piece of knowledge the hearer infers that the speaker's utterance is likely to be a request (Saaed: 1997).

Requests are the speech acts that require the speaker to make effort to carry out what is desired. This could, and does in many situations, threaten the addressee's face value (Goffman, 1967). Accordingly people who need to make request usually act to maintain or gain face and to avoid losing face (Gibbs, 1986). However, a request often imposes on the addressees and potentially threatens the hearer's face. Brown and Levinson 1978 have suggested that people are polite to the extent that they enhance and lessen the threat to another's face. Hence the speakers usually formulate their requests indirectly to eliminate the threat to the addressee's face by a request (Gibbs, 1986).

Eliminating the threat means providing options for the addressees so that they can have the possibility to either comply with the request or give some good reasons why they can or will not respectfully do so without losing face (Lakoff, 1973). Indirect speech acts can actually be made in a number of ways such as questioning ability, willingness or stating the wish that the addressee will do the action. *Can you turn on TV*, *Will you turn on TV* and *I would like you to turn on TV* respectively can be examples of that purpose. Lewis (1969) notes that people use some sentence forms to make indirect speech acts and not others for arbitrary reasons, but tacitly agree to use only those particular forms as a matter of *convention*.

The speakers choose different forms in different context to convey their request. In native speakers this choice is realized at an unbelievable speed. They do not hesitate which request form to utter. As for foreign language learners, in my opinion their choice capacity is confined to their linguistic knowledge or the way they have been instructed by the teacher. In classes what is usually taught is some forms that perform the speech act of request and they are given as polite or more polite and most polite, yet directness or politeness and indirectness is never mentioned. That is why, most foreign language learners deprived of the chance to practise language in a target language community setting will display his

insufficiency to decide on the most appropriate form or polite form to the linguistic context.

4.3. INDIRECT ACTS AND POLITENESS

The relationship between indirect speech acts and politeness is predominated as in what Searle (1975:64) writes:

“In the field of indirect illocutionary acts, the area of directives is the most useful to study because ordinary conversational requirements of politeness normally make it awkward to issue a flat imperative statements (e.g., leave the room) or explicit performatives (e.g., I order you to leave), and we therefore seek to find indirect means to our illocutionary ends (e.g., I wonder if you would mind leaving the room). In directives, politeness is the chief motivation for indirectness”.

What Searle tries to focus on here is that politeness can be achieved through the indirect expressions because communicators feel they need to use language in a way they may not break the communicatee in order to keep the social bond between. Using flat imperatives or direct expressions, which indicates that they are dominant and bossy. These properties in society cannot be approved, for it is the sign of rudeness. There must be one reason why people use indirect utterances, which is the need to be polite. In directives, it is natural to get someone to do the desired action but using direct expressions, but this may not be achieved unless there exists the power difference or social distance that gives you a natural right to utter in such a way. What may lead to indirectness in the speech act of request is social distance, imposition of the request, social power of the hearer.

Speech act theory originates in Austin's (1962) observation that while sentences can often be used to report states of affairs, the utterance of some sentences must be treated as the performance of an act. Speech act theory sees language not merely as saying, but also as doing. Accordingly, there must be someone who does

the action (speech act) and also someone to whom and for whom the action is done. The form of words used in the utterance and who the speaker and hearer are and how they are related and where the communication occurs are the factors through which we can determine which speech act should be carried out. For example, an utterance like ‘ Can you turn on the computer?’ is likely to be interpreted as a request if H is able to do so, and speaker is in a position to ask H to, and also if there is a computer around to be turned on. If these conditions were not met, the utterance would be interpreted as a question. We see that the form of an utterance cannot be precisely interpreted when the knowledge about under which conditions they have been uttered.

4.4. POLITENESS STRATEGIES

Before starting to define the politeness strategies, it is necessary to clarify the notion of face or self-image termed by Goffman (1967 and 1974). To him, all the language users have two competing face needs. Goffman (1967) argues negative or positive face. These terms later are used by Brown and Levinson (1987) who equated negative face to the need for self-determination and independence, that is, the need not to have one's will imposed on (Brown and Levinson 1987:62). On the other hand, they equate positive face to the need to be liked by and connected to others, that is, the need for social approval (Brown and Levinson, 1987:101). Hence, being polite is then means meeting the negative and positive face needs of the people with whom we interact. To be polite, speakers attempt to give options, avoid intrusion, and make their interlocutor feel good (Lakoff, 1973 and Leech 1983).

Holmes notes ‘politeness is always context dependent’ (1995, 21). The previous relationship between the speaker and the hearer will play a role in the degree to which face-threatening acts need to be mitigated to keep the social bonds at the desirable level. However close the relationship may be the strategy to be followed by the speaker in requesting will differ according to the weight of what is going to be asked to or from whom it is going to be asked or the personality of the

person who is spoken to. In the same context one may use different strategies in requesting from another as s/he has a different pre-existing relationship with the person spoken to. We also usually take into account how easy or hard it is for the person to carry out our request and accordingly we prefer one of the strategies to convey our message.

4.5. POLITENESS THEORIES

The notion 'politeness' has been paid attention to mainly by Lakoff (1973 and 1975), Leech (1983), and Brown and Levinson (1987). They all focus on this notion from the pragmatic ground. What follows is their discussion of politeness through the definition they made. Lakoff defines it as forms of behaviour that have been 'developed in societies in order to reduce friction in personal interaction' (1975:64). The language we use in daily life is what makes it possible for us to have a position in life and it is also what makes us admired or hated by others. The individuals who speak calmly, clearly and politely are generally loved whereas those who use language in a bad manner are not loved and are avoided talking to.

As we live in a society and we come face to face so often, we should always take care of the language we use to maintain the social bonds. When we want others to do something for us we say it in a way the hearer cannot refuse to fulfil. For that purpose we try to choose the most appropriate words and language forms. Lakoff here looks at the matter from such a point as he places the friction reduction in personal interaction into his definition. Similarly, Leech defines it as the forms of behaviour which are aimed at the establishment and maintenance of comity, i.e., the ability of participants in a socio-communicative interaction to engage in interaction in an atmosphere of relative harmony (1983: 104). Brown and Levinson (1987) define politeness as 'readdressive action taken to counter-balance the disruptive effect of face-threatening acts (FTAs)'. In this theory, communication is seen as a fundamentally dangerous and antagonistic endeavour.

In everyday talk, people often design their messages with multiple goals in mind. For example, a person asking a favour of a friend may choose words designed to accomplish not only the primary influence goal but a secondary goal of maintaining the friendship (Berger, 1997; Dillard, Segrin, & Harden, 1989; Wilson, Aleman, and Leatham, 1998). Secondary goals pursued in requests also include implying that one does not wish to impose (i.e., performing negative face work), acting in accordance with one's ethical standards, and conveying approval or acceptance of the hearer (Brown & Levinson, 1987).

To determine whether a particular secondary goal should be pursued when designing a request, speakers likely draw on knowledge stored in long-term memory. Though the exact form of such knowledge is not known, it would need to specify in some form that, when one is making a request and particular contextual conditions are present, it would be desirable to pursue the secondary goal (Meyer, 1996). Such knowledge would be acquired from past experiences of making requests in different kinds of request situations.

Politeness theory (Brown and Levinson, 1987) also implies that situational features guide the pursuit of secondary goals in requests. According to that theory, the amount of face work (politeness) appropriate in a request increases with (a) the power held by the hearer with respect to the speaker, (b) the social distance between speaker and hearer, and (c) the degree of imposition. In research stimulated by the theory, social distance is often treated as relational intimacy. Numerous studies suggest that the willingness to use particular compliance-gaining strategies or the amount of politeness in requests depends upon situation features (Dillard and Burgoon, 1985). However, these studies have sometimes yielded contradictory findings.

The fundamental issue in Brown and Levinson's (1987: 61) model is 'face', which is defined as 'the public self-image that every member wants to claim for himself'. In this framework, face is composed of two interrelated aspects. One is

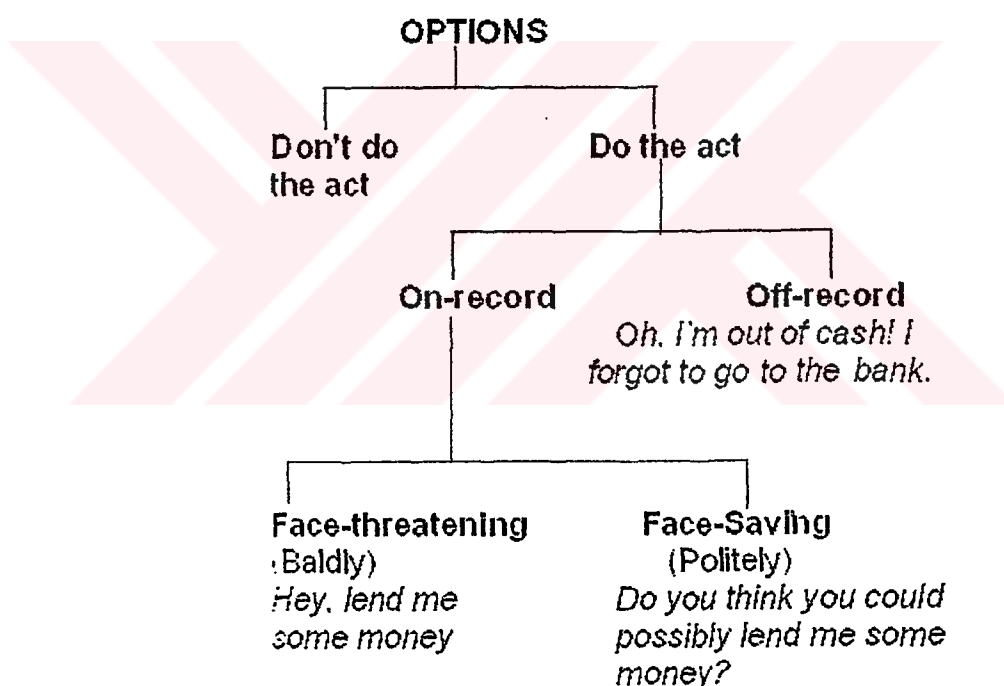
‘negative face’, or the rights to territories, freedom of action and freedom from imposition. The other is ‘positive face’, the positive consistent self-image that people have and want to be appreciated and approved of by at least some other people (Brown and Levinson 1987: 61). These two aspects of face lead to two types of politeness, one of which is negative politeness. People try to be polite in daily life and to maintain this they save their face in making offer, apology and request (e.g. ‘I hate to bother you like this, but ’) or being pessimistic in requests for help (e.g. ‘I do not suppose there is any way you could...’), being indirect, softening requests (e.g. ‘I wonder if you could...’). These are strategies that the speakers follow to display that they do want to impose on others, whereas positive strategy is redress directed to the addressee’s positive face, his perennial desire that his wants (or the actions/acquisitions/value resulting from them) should be thought of as desirable (Brown and Levinson 1987: 121). Positive politeness strategies are communicative ways of building solidarity, showing the other is liked and seen as desirable. This includes noticing changes in another (e.g. ‘you look good with this new hair style’), showing sympathy to the problems of the other (e.g. ‘I am sorry to hear that.... ’), giving gifts, selecting safe topics, seeking agreement and avoiding disagreement, joking, etc.

4.6. THE MODEL OF POLITENESS BY BROWN AND LEVINSON

Brown and Levinson (1978) make distinctions between acts that threaten positive and negative face. The first one lies in the kinds of face that are threatened. Negative face is threatened by future acts which impose on the addressee, illustrated in acts such as orders, requests, suggestions, advice, reminders, threats, warnings, dares, offers, promises, compliments, expressions of envy, and expressions of strong emotions (Brown and Levinson, 1978: 65). Positive face is threatened by negative or neutral evaluation of the speaker’s face wants, acts such as expressions of disapproval, criticism, contempt, ridicule, complaints, accusations, insults, disagreements, raising inappropriate topics, and use of address terms and other status-marked identifications create this tension (Brown and Levinson (1978: 66).

The second one includes threats to the speaker's face pitted against the threats to the addressee's face. These occur when the addressee's face is offended via expressing/accepting of thanks, excuses, offers, and unwilling promises/offers. Additionally, some acts directly damage the addressee's face, which include acts such as apologies, accepting a compliment, self-humiliation, confessions, and "emotion leakage" (Brown and Levinson, 1978:88). The following model summarizes their ideas about this negative and positive face.

Figure 1: A schematic representation of Brown and Levinson's (1978) politeness model



(taken as it is from Brown and Levinson, 1978)

From these categories, Brown and Levinson describe several means speakers have for protecting their face: (1) On-Record strategies are acts, which make the intention of the speaker understandable. (2) Off-Record strategies are acts which are ambiguous or where the speaker's intentions are unclear such as when a speaker utilizes "all kinds of hints as to what a speaker wants or means to communicate,

without doing so directly, so that the meaning is to some degree negotiable” (Brown and Levinson, 1978:69). (3) Baldly with no redress occurs when a speaker approaches an addressee in a blunt, straightforward manner. (4) Redressive actions “‘give face’ to the addressee . . . attempts to counteract the potential face damage” (Brown and Levinson, 1978:69).

4.7. HEDGING

House and Kasper (1981) consider hedges to be one of the mitigating devices in their politeness marker category, “downgraders”. These devices are called hedges, play-downs, and understaters, down toners. They note that hedging can be realized in many different linguistic forms, and gives examples of the use of conditional statements, modifiers, verb choice, framing the statements that indicate the weight a statement should have or the degree of doubt involved and even statements of personal opinion. These different forms are exemplified and classified again in the study that Wishnoff (2000) carried out as follows:

1. the use of conditional statements

“In other words, tradition *could be used* as a means of intensifying their power in the society.”

2. modifiers

“.... It is *not likely* to be easy to abolish and change their long-term customs.”

3. Framing statements

“*Even though* Papua New Guinea is an island which is relatively small, ... it is not likely to be easy to abolish and change their long-tern customs.”

4. verb choice

“ But, it *seems to me* , your opinion is vague.”

“..it *depends on* the kind of activity.”

5. Quantifiers

“*Many* supported him at the time.”

“In *some* cultures, human life may not be as important as ..”

House and Kasper (1981) also claim that leaving alternative interpretations open is a politeness strategy aimed at “softening” a potential face-threatening activity.

4.8. STUDIES ON THE ACQUISITION OF POLITENESS

Olshtain and Blum-Kulka (1985) found in a cross-sectional study in which they aimed to see the perception of politeness that learners showed increased preference for direct requests strategies and positive politeness (i.e NS norms) according to length of stay in target community; learners are capable of achieving NS acceptability patterns. The subjects were asked to rate each of 6 strategies for politeness on a three-point scale.

Blum-Kulka and Olshtain (1986) carried out a cross-sectional study on L2 learners of Hebrew with native speaker (NS) control using discourse completion questionnaire and found that high intermediate learners used longer requests than low-intermediate or advanced learners.

House and Kasper (1987) carried out a cross-sectional study with advanced learners of L2 English using discourse completion questionnaires to see to what extent they can produce requests in certain situation and found that learners showed similar choice of directness levels but used less varied syntactic and lexical downgraders less frequently. Also learners produced longer requests.

Iwata and Fukushima (1987) conducted a pencil-and-paper questionnaire in the native language with the eighteen native Japanese and fourteen native English speakers in the United States and among fourteen native English speakers in Japan. They determined that the sequence of semantic formulas in request utterances was generally similar in Japanese and English: apology – reason - request, address term – request - reason, or address term and / or apology-reason (where the reason functions as a request). The respondents were found out to use similar strategies in the two languages with regard to the reasons for the request, cost minimization, and address

terms. On the other hand, it was found that the Japanese displayed distinctive sociocultural strategies and sociolinguistic expressions depending on the closeness of friendship, whereas American English-speaking respondents did not.

Faerch and Kasper (1989) carried out a cross-sectional study which involved 200 learners of English and 200 learners of German using discourse completion questionnaire and found that learners tend to be more verbose e.g. tend to use double-markings ('could you possibly....?') 'Please' is overused, but 'possibly' is underused.

Rintell and Mitchell (1989) also carried out a cross-sectional study with 34 ESL learners (low-advance level, mixed L1s): 37 NSs using discourse completion questionnaire and role play and found that learners' requests are longer than native speakers and no major differences in the choice of forms and strategies.

Goldschmidt (1989) conducted an ethnographic study in which he collected and analysed the data according to the status, gender, age, and social relationships of the participants. He looked at favour as a form of request. The strategies were found to be minimally offensive, showing the importance of the need for a favour, hinting at reciprocation, and building solidarity. Moreover, three types of favours were identified: veiled obligation, a veiled favour, and a true favour.

Ellis (1992) carried out an ethnographic study of two child foreign language learners in the acquisition of requesting functions. In this study the development of one illocutionary speech act - request- is observed in the classroom setting to find out how and to what extent the classroom interaction shapes the process of L2 acquisition. Within the limitations of the classroom setting the children developed a considerable competence in the use of requests. The study also found that they failed to acquire a full range of request types and forms and it also showed that they developed only a limited ability to vary their choice of request strategy in accordance with situational factors. This is because the learners are exposed to a limited number of situations in which they can enrich their abilities to use the strategies in

requesting. Another point which is pointed out in the conclusion section of the study is the communicative need, which arises in the classroom setting. This also can confine the varieties in the use of request strategies.

In a study carried out in Turkey, Çakır (2000) investigated pragmatic awareness of EFL students. A questionnaire, which was originally developed by Bardovi-Harlig and Dörnyei (1998), was administered to 150 students all taking an intensive English course at the Preparatory School of Gazi University. The aim of the study is to inquire what kind of errors EFL learners notice most and how grave they consider them to be. The first result obtained was that more advanced learners are pragmatically aware than those who are at lower levels. The second one was learners at a higher level of proficiency detect pragmatic inappropriateness better than grammatical errors. The last one was that learners of all levels are comparatively more sensitive to pragmatically awkward situations.

4.9. REQUESTS

Requests are the attempts to get the hearer to perform or not on the speakers' part (Ellis, 1994).

4.9.1. INITIAL FEATURES OF REQUESTS

1. serve an initiating function in discourse
2. performed in a single term or if they involve some kind of preparatory act or pre-request over several terms as in the following example:

T: Have you understood it?

S: No.

T: Read it again then.

4.9.2. ILLOCUTIONARY ASPECTS OF REQUESTS

3. The speaker believes that the hearer is able to perform the act and does not believe the act will be performed in the absence of the request (Fraser 1983)
4. A request can be more or less direct (Searle 1976). Blum Kulka and House and Kasper 1989) identify eight 'strategy types', which they order according to directness as in the following table:

Table 1: Requests strategies

Level of directness	Strategy	example
direct	1. mood-derivable	you shut up
Direct	1. mood-derivable	you shut up
	2. performative	I am telling you to shut up
	3. Hedged perf.	I'd like to ask you to shut up
	4. Locu-derivable	I want you to shut up
Conventionally	5. suggestion formula	Let's play a game
Indirect	6. Query prep	Can you draw a horse for me?
Non-conventionally direct	7. strong hint	This game is boring
	8. Mild hint	We've been playing for hours

(summarized in Ellis, 1996 taken from Blum-Kulka, House, and Kasper 1989)

5. Requests are also subject to internal and external modification. The former takes the form of downgraders, intended to mitigate the force of the act, and upgraders, intended to increase the degree of coerciveness of the act. The latter consists of moves occurring either before or after the head act (i.e the act that actually performs the request)

6. Requests can be encoded from the speaker's perspective; *Give me the book*

the hearer's perspective; *Could you give me the book?*

a joint perspective; *Let's read a book.*

an impersonal perspective: *It would be nice to read a book*

7. The choice of linguistic realization of requests depends on a variety of social factors to do with the relationship between the speaker and the addressee. (Blum-Kulka, House, and Kasper 1989)

8. As well as different sociopragmatic categories of requests, there are also pragmatic differences relating to the preferred form of a request used in a particular situation. (Ellis, 1994)

4.10. L2 LEARNERS' USE AND ACQUISITION OF REQUESTS

4.10.1. INTERMEDIATE AND ADVANCED LEARNERS

(HIGH-LEVEL LEARNERS)

- (i) develop a greater sensitivity to the use of politeness strategies than native speakers
- (ii) tend to perceive more distinct levels of politeness than native speakers
- (iii) are able to perceive the sociolinguistic distinction encoded by native speakers when sufficiently exposed to the L2.
- (iv) do not acquire fully native-like ways of requesting. Instead, they tend to produce longer requests as they want to make the message exact and transparent. This **verbosity** (oversuppliance of politeness markers) is possibly because they want to display their linguistic competence.
- (v) to overuse the politeness marker (please, could you possibly present your paper this week?) (Ellis, 1994)

4.10.2. LOW-LEVEL LEARNERS

- (i) rely on more situational rather than linguistic clues as they are likely to have problems in selecting request strategy appropriate to the different situation
- (ii) convey politeness in a limited way
- (iii) use imperative requests to all, regardless of social distance, power differences.

4.10.3. SOME GENERALIZATIONS REGARDING PERFORMANCE OF ILLOCUTIONARY ACTS IN LEARNER LANGUAGE

1. Just as learners make linguistic errors, so too they make pragmatic ones.
2. There are three generalizations concerning the phases of the development of pragmatic competence:

Phase 1: message-oriented and unsystematic

Situational clues help learners interpret the illocutionary force of different acts and simplification strategies to produce them.

Phase 2: interlanguage-oriented and potentially systematic

When the learners come to this stage they are able to realize the different social meanings of the illocutionary acts and they use a variety of strategies in their own production. However, L2 learners' productions differ from the native speakers' in two ways: it is more verbose because to feel safer and to be sure to be able to convey the meaning exactly they overuse the politeness markers. And it shows evidence of pragmatic transfer from native language (Ellis 1994).

Phase3: interculturally-oriented and potentially systematic

This is the stage where learners start to use native-like politeness strategies. However they may continue to display the residual transfer of cultural elements. Before reaching phase 3 many learners will have to expose to the L2 for a number of years and also a setting where he can practise his performance of illocutionary acts in accordance with the addressee and other factors (Ellis 1994).

4.10.4. SOME ADDITIONAL FACTORS

1. learners' little lexical or grammatical knowledge (**learners' linguistic competence**)
2. **transfer** from sociolinguistic rules of their own native language.
3. **social status of the learner** (learners do not usually participate in communicative events as equals- especially when the person they are talking to is a native speaker.)

4.10.5. SOME OTHER FACTORS IN THE LEARNERS

1. try to appear learner-like as they think this will bring them communicative advantage.
2. overgeneralization of a strategy and overextend it from a situation in which it is appropriate to which it is not.
3. lack of attention in getting the propositional content of the utterances.

4.11. SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

This chapter started with the review of the notion of politeness. It further discussed the direct and indirect speech acts. Then, the chapter described indirect acts and politeness. Following this, politeness strategies and theories were reviewed. Next, the model of politeness by Brown and Levinson were discussed. Finally the previous studies were introduced and it was followed by the explanation of the features of the request produced by different types of learners.



CHAPTER V METHODOLOGY

5.0. INTRODUCTION

This chapter first presents the distinction between qualitative and quantitative research methods. Secondly, alternative methods of investigating requests are discussed. Thirdly research design is introduced, in which pilot study is presented with its aims, settings and procedures for data collection and analysis. It also includes the main finding section of pilot study. Fourthly, the chapter introduces how main study is done and the findings

5.1. QUALITATIVE VS QUANTITATIVE RESEARCH METHODS

Research is defined as “a systematic approach to finding answers to questions” (Hatch and Farhady 1981:1). A very basic aim of research is obviously to find answer to the questions in mind concerning foreign language acquisition in terms of language teaching and learning. Nunan (1995) lists some characteristics of research. He suggests that research is about an inquiry. It has two components: process and product. The process is about an area of inquiry and how it is pursued. The product is the knowledge generated from the process as well as the initial area to be presented. As for the question concerning why it is carried out, it is suggested that the objective is to get a result with scientific methods objectively.

There are two broad paradigms of research, which are qualitative and quantitative research. Each has its own features.

Reichardt and Cook (1979: 232) who prefer quantitative research suggest that quantitative research is obtrusive and controlled, objective, generalisable, outcome-oriented and assumes the existence of “facts” which are somehow external to and

independent of the observer or researcher. However, qualitative research assumes that all knowledge is relative that there is a subjective element to all knowledge and research.

Qualitative research, on the other hand, advocates the use of qualitative methods and is concerned with understanding human behaviour from the subject's own frame of reference. It is naturalistic and uncontrolled observation. It is subjective in that the researcher is close to the data. It can also be described as grounded, discovery-oriented, explanatory, expansionist, descriptive, and inductive. On the other hand, quantitative research advocates the use of quantitative methods and seeks facts or causes of social phenomena without regard to the subjective states of the individuals. The researcher is removed from the data. It is ungrounded, verification-oriented, confirmatory, reductionist, inferential and hypothetical-deductive (Reichardt and Cook, 1979).

In this study, both qualitative and quantitative research methods are employed, as the collected data include information that can be rationalized with the percentages and interpreted. In other terms this study involves "quantified qualitative data" (Erten, 1998: 153).

5.2. ALTERNATIVE METHODS OF INVESTIGATING REQUESTS

The request speech acts can be investigated using different methods of data collection. The choice of a specific way depends on the facilities that the researcher has. What follows is a brief discussion of different data collection methods (i.e. naturally occurring data; discourse completion tasks; and role plays).

5.3. NATURALLY OCCURRING DATA

In this method of collecting speech act data, a broad range of respondents can be studied (Cohen, 2001). The respondents will not be allowed to use their linguistic

ability as they cannot assert what they think will be the most appropriate response. With this in mind, they tend to depend on the perception of grammatical and sociologic understanding of the language that s/he has been learning. Such tasks will constrain the speakers' competence with regard to language, as there may happen some external factors that can impede the production of speech. As a result of this, the strategic competence that a learner is likely to display may not be observed. However, there are some other advantages, as well as the opportunity to deal with a large number of respondents (Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford, 1990).

The following list displays the characteristics of naturally occurring data, which is taken as it is from Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford (1990: 48).

1. The data are spontaneous
2. The data reflect what the speakers say rather than what they think they would say
3. The speakers are reacting to a natural situation rather than to a contrived and possibly unfamiliar situation
4. The communicative event has real-world consequences
5. The event may be a source of rich pragmatic structures.

Bardovi-Harlig and Hartford (1990:50) note that there may also arise some difficulties in collecting data with this method, which can be shown as follows:

1. The speech act being studied may not occur naturally very often.
2. Proficiency and gender may be difficult to control.
3. Collecting and analysing the data are time-consuming
4. The data may not yield enough or any examples of target items
5. The use of recording equipment may be intrusive
6. The use of note taking as a complement to or in lieu of taping relies on memory.

5.4. DISCOURSE COMPLETION TASK

Blum-Kulka, House, and Kasper (1989) describes discourse completion tasks as a questionnaire consisting of contexts, which are briefly described and may then be followed by a short dialogue with an empty slot, which the learners are asked to fill in by writing down the request or apology they would make. What follows is an example of such a situation. It is designed to elicit an apology.

A student has borrowed a book from her teacher, which she promises to return today. When meeting her teacher, however, she realizes that she forgot to bring it along.

Teacher: Miriam, I hope you brought the book I lent you.

Miriam:

Ok, but please remember it next week.

(Blum-Kulka, House and Kasper 1989: 14)

Ellis, (1994) notes that in such data collection methods a sample situation is designed in a way the participant can understand the situational context features. For this purpose, the information given to the participant in the questionnaire include where the dialogue takes place, to whom the speaker is speaking, what impositions the situation puts on the speaker.

Ellis, (1994) for example, lists some advantages of discourse completion task. One of them that is the large amounts of data can be collected quickly. Another one is that it can provides semantic formulas used by the learners to perform different illocutionary acts. In such data one can also see the social factors in the utterances that learners think are important for the speech act performance is another.

Discourse completion task also has some disadvantages as Ellis (1994) suggests. One of them is the narrow range of semantic formulas, fewer status-preserving strategies it can provide. This task also does not promote the turn taking

and negotiation strategies found in natural conversations. A speaker may have difficulties or depletion in the performance level as s/he is speaking possibly because of the linguistic inability or insufficient knowledge of real world. Such factors cannot be observed in such a method of data collection. Yet, one can bear in mind that this method is only for evaluating the production of a given speech act and the strategies that are followed. Thus, we are not questioning the ability of the learners' persevering a dialogue.

Another disadvantage that appears in collecting the data with this method, as Bonikowska (1988) discusses, is that due to the lack of face-to-face interaction, the respondents may be less polite (i.e. to use fewer status-preserving strategies) and to employ more outlandish statements than did the natural situation. The students may have a lower status in the situations in the discourse completion task but still they may not perform the most appropriate expressions that the situation calls for. Finally, the respondents are able to opt out with the discourse completion task, which is not the case in the natural situation.

5.5. ROLE PLAY

Role-play, like discourse completion task and naturally occurring data, also provides the learners with a description of a context calling for performance of a particular illocutionary act (Ellis, 1994). In such a context, the learners are asked to respond orally. The data collected from role-plays provide information about learner's ability to construct a discourse context for the specific act under investigation.

5.6. RATIONALE FOR THE USE OF DISCOURSE COMPLETION TASK FOR THE STUDY

In this study, discourse completion method was employed, as the need is to understand the strategies and find out politeness markers that are usually found in the dialogues that are occurring between the people familiar and unfamiliar with each other.

Each of these methods has its advantages and disadvantages as Ellis (1994) notes as follows. The discourse completion method allow for large amounts of data to be collected quickly. It also provide information about the kinds of semantic formulas that learners use to realize different illocutionary acts and reveal social factors that learners think are important for speech act performance.

Furthermore, it would be easier for learners to perform linguistically with such a data collection method than, say naturally occurring data, which require the learners to perform orally. This can be regarded as being hard for a foreign language learner. Discourse completion method usually obliges learners to provide his/her utterance while naturally occurring data collection method provides the learners with the “opting out” (Bonikowska 1988). Hence, as one of the targets of the study is to find out what the general tendency of the learners’ utterances is in performing request speech act, the need to employ discourse completion method arose.

With regard to the production of speech acts, investigators have used observation of naturally occurring data, role-play, discourse completion tasks, and verbal report interviews. In terms of the perception of speech acts, recent research has looked at group reactions to be videotaped role-play or screenplay using questionnaires and verbal report interviews based on review of naturally occurring data (Cohen, 2001). The data can be collected initially in L1 and then in L2 or both simultaneously. These may lead to the transfer from L1 factor to exist in the data collected. Similarly, even if the data are collected through a discourse completion task it may reflect the mother tongue factor. Through a discourse completion task,

investigators can focus on specific speech act realization and manipulate the social and situational variables. In this study request speech acts are examined without the perlocutionary aspect of it, so we do not need to see the answer given to the requests made by the foreign language learners.

5.7. RESEARCH DESIGN

The study involved a pilot study and a main study. I will firstly introduce the pilot study, and then how this study was carried out and what was eventually observed and found was underlined. Afterwards, the main study was introduced including why this study is being carried out and how the study proceeded. Also, how the data was collected and analysed was pointed out in detail.

5.7.1. PILOT STUDY

5.7.1.1. AIMS OF THE PILOT STUDY

There were three aims for applying a pilot study before the main study. These are:

- i. to monitor how the questionnaire could be administered,
- ii. to determine what possible obstacles that could impede the main study might arise.
- iii. to find out what clues as to the analysis of the data might be obtained.

5.7.1.2. SETTING OF THE PILOT STUDY

The pilot study was carried out at Çanakkale Fen Lisesi. For the questionnaire to be applied at this school, the necessary permission was asked from the school principle and the questionnaire was applied in coordination with the teacher who had classes at that time. The reason why the pilot study was carried out at Çanakkale Fen Lisesi is that the researcher was in contact with some teachers. The class where the

questionnaire was implemented was an appropriate class, as the students' level of proficiency was compatible with the task that was administered depending on the course schedule. Another reason is that the school and the students were easy to reach. Hence, if a problem arises in the data or if any further surveying or meeting was needed, it would be easily accessible.

5.7.1.3. PARTICIPANTS OF THE PILOT STUDY

The participants of the pilot study were students studying at the prep-class at Çanakkale Fen Lisesi. There were 20 students. All of them were Turkish native speakers and had never been instructed by native English teachers. The experience the students had till that time was only to listen to the dialogues from the course books as well as the talk of their non-native teachers. They were having intensive English courses for one year. Thus, they were quite motivated to learn English.

5.7.1.4. MATERIALS & INSTRUMENTATION

A questionnaire (see Appendix A) was developed in the form of discourse completion method. It contained 26 simple daily requests. The unfamiliar part of questionnaire included the requests to be made to the people whom they had not known before, while the second half included requests to be made to people unknown. A key point in this questionnaire was that it had no impositions on the speaker in the given situations.

5.8. PROCEDURES

5.8.1. PROCEDURES FOR DATA COLLECTION

The materials used during the study were only the questionnaire papers. The questionnaire was applied in the first hour of the schedule of the school and they had not been informed about this.

The students were given the questionnaire and asked to read the explanations on the first page, which informs them about the questionnaire and how they should do and what they are actually expected to do. They were reminded that their contribution will be crucial for the study and also requested to be realistic and sincere in answering the questions. The time allotted to them was long enough to complete the questionnaire.

One set of discourse completion task data was collected involving non-native foreign language learners of English foreign language learners. The tasks were designed to elicit requests from the foreign language learners. They were partly explicit in that learners were asked to request the imaginary person to do the act given, that is, the opting out was possible. The students were left free to do it or not as we need a set of data on which we can depend.

5.8.2. PROCEDURES FOR DATA ANALYSIS

The data collected from these students were analysed from the point of whether they are direct in performing the speech acts and how the answers differ in terms of the person being talked to as well as how they differ in the choice of the forms used. The linguistic insufficiency were not taken into consideration much but the way how they request and what strategies they follow and how polite they are in performing the speech act of requesting was much more important for us. Furthermore, the politeness markers they use were observed to find out the strategies they follow.

5.9. MAIN OBSERVATIONS AND FINDINGS OF THE PILOT STUDY

5.9.1 OBSERVATIONS

One of the main observations of the study was that the students appeared to be excited about such a task although they were reminded that their answers would not be graded or evaluated for their actual performance in class. To ensure this, they were not asked to write their names. What was also observed in them was that they were very careful with the linguistic accuracy. Some hesitated too much while writing out the answers, whereas some could imagine what they would say and wrote it easily.

Some students were willing to answer. However, some seemed to have no interest in such activities. Therefore, such students were not forced to perform the task.

Some students had difficulty completing the whole task, as it was too long for them. These tended to lose their track in the questionnaire and may not have reflected their actual performance in the utterances so that they could finish it at once.

There were familiar situations on one face of the paper and unfamiliar ones at the back of the page. That's why they were seen to have a look at what they had written at the other page and possibly transferred it for the other situation.

The questionnaire was applied in a class hour. That is why; we could find the students ready and nearly without any absentee. They were generally willing to perform such a task and contribute to this study.

Some students asked whether they would like to learn the findings and what this study is performed for. That might be because they have not known how a scientific study concerning language operates or how data are collected.

5.9.2. MAIN FINDINGS

In the pilot study what is systematically observed is that the students depended more on the conventional indirect speech acts and less on direct speech acts. Another characteristics that could be derived from the data was that they employed no or few strategies that would mitigate the request they uttered. That was due largely to the level of their language proficiency or to the fact that they had been instructed to do so.

The pilot study implied certain changes in the methodology of the main study:

1. The questionnaire should firstly be completed in the target language as they may translate what they have written in the mother tongue exactly into target language. However, this may not warrant that they will not transfer.
2. Using too many situations may be a demotivating factor, which may hamper responses to the situations, so the number of the situations needs to be reduced.
3. The students should be told to be free and not to feel stressed by the possible grammatical mistakes and by the hesitation whether they have written something wrong or right.

5.10. MAIN STUDY

5.10.1. OBJECTIVES

This study aimed to investigate the acquisition and the use of request forms by Turkish students. It focused on ELT department students. The study had one broad objective. This was:

- to investigate how request speech acts are performed by Turkish learners of English
- to shed light on the request forms of the speech act utterances

To realize this, answers to the following specific research questions were sought:

RQ1. What request forms are performed by Turkish learners?

RQ2. What is the impact of language proficiency on the production of request utterances?

RQ3. What is the impact of the familiarity and unfamiliarity to the speaker on the level of politeness?

RQ4. What is the politeness level achieved by the foreign language learners?

RQ5. To what extent do the learners use modification?

5.10.2. SETTING

The main study for the thesis was carried out at Çanakkale Onsekiz Mart University. The students were in preparatory class and in the third classes of ELT and ELL. The questionnaire was implemented during the spring term of the 2002-2003 academic years. These classes were chosen for the questionnaire to be applied because it was easy to reach the students and the classrooms.

5.10.3. PARTICIPANTS

The participants were upper intermediate students of about 18-19 years old and advanced students of about 20-21 years old. All had Turkish as their native language. There were a large proportion of female students in both classes. The participants were both from prep class and from third class. There were 21 prep class students and 31 third class students. The prep class participants were a mix class including both ELT and ELL students who are having prep class degree in the same class. On the other hand, the third class participants were from Language and Literature department and teaching department. As for language proficiency of the participants, the prep class participants can be considered to be upper intermediate and third class participants to be advanced. The table 2 below illustrates the distribution of students according to their language level and classes.

Table 2: Distribution of students according to their gender in ELT department

DEPARTMENT		Prep-class	Third class
ELT Dept.	Female	19	24
	Male	2	7
TOTAL		21	31

5.11. MATERIALS AND INSTRUMENTATION

5.11.1. QUESTIONNAIRE

A questionnaire in the form of discourse completion task (Appendix B) was administered to the participants. They were asked to write out what they think they would say if they encountered such natural situations. They were also asked to answer some questions such as gender, department, nationality or travel abroad.

The questionnaire consists of ten situations in Turkish and their English equivalence on the other page. Each situation has characteristics of social distance, imposition and social power. For example, in the first question the situation focus on social distance, as they are speaking to their teacher and the urgency of the request. In the second question, there is an urgent business, which is to get student certificate from the faculty and they are talking to someone in secretarial department of the faculty. In the third one the case is to ask for permission from a group of people waiting in the line to jump the queue, whom they have never met before. In the fourth one, they need to change the jacket they have bought as they later found that they did not like it and the store is not the one they go shopping to regularly. Lastly, in the fifth one they need to borrow a book urgently and the teacher they need to ask, for it is a very particular one about lending books. What follows are two sample situations.

You could not hand in your assignment on time. By the way unless you hand in the assignment, you may fail the course. You need to ask you teacher for a few days more. What would you say?

Although you promised, you could not return the book you borrowed from your friend. And you also know that she or he is very hectic about the books. You ask for a few days from him / her. What would you say? (See Appendix A)

In contrast to the unfamiliar situations, the familiar situations are nearly the same as the unfamiliar five ones except that the hearers are their friends and a storeowner that they know.

The first five situations occurred at the formal settings where the participants imaginatively talk to the people who have higher power but they know or with whom they are socially distant and they do not know; for example, the situation between the teacher and the student. They know each other but one side; the teacher has a higher social power. On the other hand, the situation between two friends; they know each

other and one is not socially high than the other. These scenarios were designed in a way the students could see the imposition that the requests had on them, so they would feel the need of being polite in their requests.

The results of the questionnaire were analysed firstly to determine whether students' perceptions coincided with results of the data analysis and secondly to find out further insights into the effects of various activities during the teaching sessions.

There were some factors such as power difference, social distance and imposition in the situations. Considering these some students started with the compliments, others with the urgency of the act while some others give priority to the address terms before performing a speech act of request as they impose on the hearer or the participant who is being talked to. The questionnaire was designed in the order of the unfamiliar five situations, which require the speakers to consider that they are speaking to someone who has higher social position or someone with whom they have power difference. Whereas, the familiar five situations provide situations where they have no power difference or social distance unlike the unfamiliar five ones.

For the Turkish students whose pragmatic knowledge is being assessed, the questionnaire was not written in the target language, as there may arise something difficult to understand what the situation really calls for because we only deal with how language is used. Their understanding the situation is crucially needed so that they can reflect the whole knowledge concerning the competence at question. In the first pilot study administered with the low-level students, what was also observed was the difficulty the students had in understanding the situations exactly.

5.12. PROCEDURES

5.12.1. PROCEDURES FOR COLLECTING SPEECH ACT DATA

To administer the questionnaire, permission was asked from the teacher who was teaching the class at that time. The administration of the task was performed in the morning hours. I, myself, as the performer of the study, conducted the questionnaire in the classrooms. The students were informed of the objectives of the study and what their contribution will be to the study. The time allocated by the students in completing the task was nearly one lesson hour. However this duration differed from student to student.

Table 3: Time Distribution of departments

DEPARTMENT		Prep-class	Third class
ELT Dept.	Turkish	10-15 min.	10-15 min.
	English	25-30 min.	20-25 min.

5.12.2. PROCEDURES FOR DATA ANALYSIS

The analysis of speech act data was carried out using CCSARP coding system (Blum-Kulka, House and Kasper 1989) as was explicitly shown below. Requests can be realized linguistically in a variety of ways. Blum-Kulka, House, and Kasper (1989) identified three dimensions of request modification:

The data were investigated chiefly in two dimensions; modification and level of directness. Modification is the term used to explain the appropriateness and politeness level of the request utterance. In this study the number of the internal and external downgraders was determined and compared in terms of the native and non-native language and also in terms of the situation.

5.12.3. DIRECTNESS LEVEL

With regard to politeness level of directness of the requests made by the learners will at least shed light on their pragmatic awareness as whenever a speaker requests something from someone, it costs addressee some effort to carry out what is desired this could, and does in many situations, threaten the addressee's face value (Goffman, 1967). Hence, people, while making requests, try to maintain or gain face and to avoid losing face. It is inevitable that a request imposes on addressees and can potentially threaten the hearer's face. That might be one of the reasons why people generally choose to say their request indirectly or implicitly. Brown and Levinson (1978) have suggested that people are polite to the extent that they enhance or lessen the threat to the addressee's face caused by the request. Lakoff (1973) notes that making indirect speech acts provides addressees with options which enable them to either comply with requests, or give some good reasons why they can or will not respectfully do so without losing face.

The CCSARP identifies the three types of requests, according to their level of directness. *Direct strategy* is the one with the speaker explicitly utter what s/he is asking like "close the door". Direct strategy is unambiguous in meaning because they retain the obligation inherent in the underlying directive (MacKiewicz and Riley, 2003). On the other hand, the utterances like "Can you close the door?" or "Will you close the door?" or "I would like you to close the door?" are viewed as conventional ways of performing indirect directives, that's, *conventionally indirect strategy* (Bach and Harnish, 1979; Erwin-Tripp, 1976; Gordon and Lakoff, 1971; Morgan, 1978; Searle, 1975). They are less clear in meaning when compared to the direct strategies. They introduce ambiguity by introducing another potential meaning: the speaker could mean either a mandate (that the hearer must carry out the action) or a possibility (that the hearer has the option of carrying out the action) (Mackiewicz and Riley, 2003). The third one is non-conventionally indirect strategy, which is also called hints. It is the least clear of all three categories. These strategies change the surface meaning, or the semantic content, of the utterance to such an extent that the

hearer can interpret it in multiple ways. As they create pragmatic vagueness, they have multiple potential meanings (Mackiewicz and Riley, 2003). Hence, the extent to which a hearer must travel through a speaker's indirectness and the ambiguity or vagueness it generates to infer a speaker's meaning is called the length of inferential path of the utterance (Blum-Kulka, 1987). Indirectness, especially non-conventional strategy, increase the distance that hearer must travel along the inferential path from what the speaker is saying to what s/he means (Mackiewicz and Riley, 2003). Because the participants do not know exactly whom they are talking to, it will not be easy for them to use such a strategy.

In understanding the level of directness, the following procedures were followed in identifying what kind of directness exists in the utterance made.

1. Direct

Direct strategies convey a hearer's obligation to carry out an action. The inferential path that the hearer must take to the directive is short (Mackiewicz and Riley, 2003). Direct strategies can be grouped as follows:

a. Mood derivable: if the case is to make the hearer realize the illocutionary force of the message, it can be done in different ways. One of them is using one of the direct strategies, mood derivable form, whose verb signals illocutionary force of the verb. Such forms can be said to be unmitigated imperative. It is also a bald-on-record utterance. It is called 'bald' because it is unmitigated and it is on record because it is explicitly stated. These utterances are the clearest of all strategies although they are one of the rudest. By using bald-on-record directives the freedom of the hearer is imposed on (Mackiewicz and Riley, 2003). Hence such directives are viewed as forceful threats to the hearer's face (Brown and Levinson, 1987: 69) with the use of such directive utterances, we can also realize the greater power of the speaker in the relationship. These directive utterances can be mitigated with various downgraders such as *please*, *maybe* to make it polite.

You *shut* up (Ellis, 1994: 168)

Maybe *include* a table in this section (Mackiewicz and Riley, 2003: 8).

b. Performative: illocutionary force is explicitly named with the verbs such as ask, tell, order, want e.t.c.

I am *telling* you to shut up (Ellis, 1994: 168).

c. Hedged performative: the naming of the illocutionary force is modified by hedging expressions.

I *would* like to ask you to shut up (Ellis, 1994: 168).

d. Locution derivable: the illocutionary force is derivable directly from the semantic content of the request. Inherent obligation of the underlying directive can be derived by the hearer. The obligation of the underlying directive is conveyed with high-value modal verb that expresses obligation- should, will, ought to, want, need (Mackiewicz and Riley, 2003).

I want you to shut up (Ellis, 1994: 168).

Locution derivable strategies can be carried out in two ways, in active voice, with which the hearer is directly invoked through the pronoun you as in 'You should include a table in this section' or passive, with which the hearer is no longer invoked as in 'A table should be included in this section' (Mackiewicz and Riley, 2003). Brown and Levinson (1987, p.194) notes that because locution derivable utterances stated in the agentless passive voice obscure who is doing the action, they are less direct and consequently more polite than their active counterparts.

2. Conventionally indirect: Conventionally indirect strategies are characterized by ambiguity in the illocutionary force of the utterance.

a. Suggestory formulas: a suggestion is made for the action to be done with the suggest structures for the sake of politeness.

Let's play a game (Ellis, 1994: 168).

b. Query preparatory: In such utterances there are references to preparatory conditions such as ability or willingness. In request utterances formed by this strategy, pragmatic ambiguity exists because the speaker could intend to convey possibility rather than obligation. The potential for possibility is conveyed through low-value modal verbs – can and could. These low-value modals use in preparatory strategies creates ambiguity between obligation and possibility about the intent of the speaker. Interrogative form of request utterances require the answer yes or no (Mackiewicz and Riley, 2003). That's, it gives the hearer a choice to decide or freedom to do it or a feeling that his or her ideas are considered by the speaker.

Can you draw a horse for me? (Ellis, 1994: 168).

2. Non-conventionally indirect

a. Strong hint: (i.e.. partial reference to the object of element need for implementation of the act). The semantic content of the directive or request is not apparent in the utterance so it requires the hearer to travel a long inferential path to the underlying directive (Mackiewicz and Riley, 2003).

This section has a lot of numerical data in the text (Mackiewicz and Riley, 2003:13)

b. Mild hint (i.e. no reference to the request properly). Weak hints also require a hearer to travel a long inferential path.

Graphic aids can help the reader understand data. (Mackiewicz and Riley, 2003:13)

5.12.4. MODIFICATION

Modification: The CCSARP (CF. Blum-Kulka et al., 1989) identified a number of ways in which the head act of a request can be modified. The following categories represent a simplification of their scheme:

a. Internal (i.e., part of the head act)

i. Downgrade: the speaker when requesting the hearer to carry out something for her or him tries to mitigate the force of the request by means of either a syntactic or lexical modifier such as please, only, really, terribly as in the examples taken from the questionnaire:

ii. Upgrade: the speaker may also attempt to increase the force of the request e.g. by repetition

b. external: the moves before or after the head act to increase the force of the request

i. downgrade: supplying a reason for the request

ii. upgrade: adding an insult

In order to analyse the data according to these dimensions all the responses given to each questions were typed on page on computer and then the analysis of speech act data was carried out using CCSARP coding system proposed by Blum-Kulka, House and Kasper (1989) as explicitly described above. CCSARP is an established coding system that has been used in studies in speech act theory and cross-cultural processes. The first step in this system is to recognize the head act. The head act is the "... part of the sequence which might serve to realise the act

independently of other elements” (Blum-Kulka 1987:17). After the head act is recognised other utterances are then identified and appropriately coded.

All the responses were typed according to their number on the computer. They were then investigated to find out the level of directness and modification along with the request forms employed in the utterance. We got a full list of the request forms in the data with this classification.

English responses of the prep class participants were typed together with the advanced ones so that the difference could be realized easily. The forms employed were counted separated from each other and their politeness level was easily identified.

The questionnaire was designed in two parts parallel to each other in nearly all senses but the familiarity degree to the hearer. In the unfamiliar part which includes 5 situations are the unfamiliar hearers, whereas in the second part are familiar hearers. This made it possible to view the data as two parts and the differences in the politeness level depending on the hearer’s characteristics could be observed.

To understand the politeness level, the utterances were rated by native and non-native teachers of English according to how polite the utterances sounded to them. By this, an average politeness level was obtained.

The responses were typed on the computer and the modification terms are classified depending on the internal and external downgrades and upgrades. Thus a total number of the terms were obtained.

5.13. SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

In this chapter, with regard to the methodology of the study, the distinction between qualitative and quantitative research methods was discussed along with the alternative ways of investigating request speech acts. Then, the pilot study was presented with its aims, settings, participants and material and instrumentation. The procedures for data collection and data analysis were followed by main findings and observation



CHAPTER SIX

RESULTS OF THE QUANTATIVE AND QUALITATIVE ANALYSIS

6.0. INTRODUCTION

In this chapter results from qualitative and quantitative analysis will be presented. Aims and research questions, for the ease of reading will be given and then findings with regard to each research question will be presented.

6.1. AIMS AND RESEARCH QUESTION

This study aimed to investigate the acquisition and the use of request forms by Turkish students. It focused on ELT department students. The study had one broad objective. This was

- to investigate how request speech acts are performed by Turkish learners of English
- to shed light on the request forms of the speech act utterances

To realize this, answers to the following specific research questions were sought:

RQ1. What request forms are used by Turkish learners?

RQ2. What is the impact of language proficiency on the production of request utterances?

RQ3. To what extent do the learners use modification?

RQ4. What is the impact of the familiarity and unfamiliarity to the speaker on the level of politeness?

RQ5. What is the politeness level achieved by the foreign language learners?

Table 4: Distribution of the request forms in English responses in Question 1

	Imp	Could you	Can you	I want you to	Would you	If	Would you mind	May I	I wonder If	Is it poss	Total
Prep	2	11	3	1	1	0	0	0	0	2	20
Third cl	2	8	4	1	0	3	3	2	1	3	27

In the situation 1, the participants of upper intermediate employed six different forms of requests, while the advanced participants employed nine. The context of this situation requires making a request to the teacher. That is why; both prep and advanced students largely depended on the request form *could you* rather than *can you or imperative* form as they feel the need to be polite in their utterances. What seems strange here is that the upper intermediate participants, who are supposed to be less proficient at language used the form *could you* more than the advanced participants, who have a higher level of language proficiency. It also seems that the advanced participants chose to employ different kinds of structures such as *would you mind*, *if clause* or *is it possible*, which may indicate the level of proficiency.

Table 5: Distribution of the request forms in English responses in Question 2

	Can't you	Could you	couldn't you	Can you	could I	can I	If	I need to	you/I have to	Imp	Is it poss	I'd like to	Total
Prep	0	9	2	2	2	0	0	0	1	1	3	0	20
Third	4	7	0	4	0	2	1	1	4	1	4	1	29

This situation requires making a request to the clerk working in the students affairs department of the faculty to get a student identity card on the same day, which is usually highly impossible. In such an imposing situation the participants of upper intermediate employed seven different forms of requests, whereas those of the advanced participants employed ten. The same thing occurred here, which was that the low level students used more *could you* (9) than the high level of participants (7). However, the advanced participants employed less polite forms such as *I have to*, *can*

you, can't you, but upper intermediate participants paid more attention to the forms in their utterances. What is easily observed here is the upper intermediate students are confined to some instructed forms of requests.

Table 6: Distribution of the request forms in English responses in Question 3

	Imp	Could you	Can you	do you mind	can I	could I	If	Would you mind	May I	I wonder if	Is it Poss	Total
Prep	2	7	2	0	3	0	2	1	2	0	1	20
third cl	0	3	3	1	2	2	2	3	8	1	2	27

The third situation requires the participants to make a request to the people waiting in the line to withdraw money urgently. In such a situation the participants of upper intermediate employed *could you* (7) but this number is three in those of the advanced participants. However, another polite form of asking for permission *may I* was employed more by the advanced students (8), less by upper intermediate participants (2).

Table 7: Distribution of the request forms in English responses in Question 4

	Could you	Can you	I want to	I'd Like	Will you	can I	I want you to	May I	I wonder if	Is it Poss	T
Prep	3	0	7	1	0	4	0	1	0	4	19
Third	2	4	10	0	1	2	1	3	1	2	26

In the third situation the participants need to take a jacket back to the store and ask for an exchange. advanced participants seems to use *I want to* (10) and *can you* (4) more than the other forms, but the upper intermediate participants employed *I want to*, (7) *can I*, (4) *could you*, (3) *is it possible* (4) more than the others. What is interesting is that both groups dominantly use the statement *I want to* to make the request.

Table 8: Distribution of the request forms in English responses in Question 5

	would you	Could you	Can you	I want to	I shall	can I	If	I need	May I	I have to	Is it poss	could I	promise	Total
Prep	0	2	2	1	1	4	1	3	1	1	3	1	0	20
third	1	4	2	1	0	4	0	9	1	1	1	0	2	26

This context includes a scenario where a student needs to borrow a book from the teacher who is very careful with her/his books. The upper intermediate participants depend equally on the structures such as *Can I (4)*, *Is it possible (3)*, *I need to (3)*. In the same way, the advanced participants employed the forms such as *I need to (9)*, *could you (4)*, *Can I (4)*. In addition, two advanced participants performed the act of request by employing a sentence, which includes promising to overcome the imposition in the situation.

Table 9: Distribution of the request forms in English responses in Question 6

	Imp	Could you	Can you	Can I	I Need	I want to	If	Would you mind	I will	can we	Is it poss	would you	Total
Prep	2	1	5	2	2	0	0	2	3	0	1	0	18
third cl	2	2	6	4	4	1	3	1	0	1	1	1	26

The sixth situation requires the participants to ask a friend of theirs to ask for a few days to return the book, which already had to be returned. When the hearer was a friend the speakers shifted the forms employed. They depended more on less form structures of request. The upper intermediate participants employed *can you (5)* and *I will (3)*, however, advance participants employed *can you (6)*, *Can I (4)*, and *I need (4)* more than the other forms for the sake of sincerity.

Table 10: Distribution of the request forms in English responses in Question 7

	Imp	Could You	Can you	will you	I Need	Would you	if
Prep	4	2	11	2	1	0	0
third cl	3	2	8		4	1	6

In the seventh situation the participant asks for help from a friend who is really busy at that time. The participants of both groups employed dominantly the form *Can you* (11) in this situation. However, the advanced participants also used a complex form, *if* (6), and *I need* (4) structures in requesting.

Table 11: Distribution of the request forms in English responses in Question 8

	Imp	Could you	Can you	I need to	Would you	Would you mind	May I	I have to	can I	Total
Prep	2	2	10	0	0	1	0	2	3	20
third cl	1	3	6	1	2	2	4	0	6	25

In the eighth situation the participants are required to ask for a permission to withdraw money before the person who has already been known by the speaker. The participants employed *Can you* (16) and *Can I* (9) forms to convey the request. One of the reasons for this is that the students are instructed as *Can* is the less formal structure of request forms.

Table 12: Distribution of the request forms in English responses in Question 9

	I should	Could you	Can you	I want To	I must	could I	Would you mind	May I	can I	Is it poss	Total
Prep	0	4	2	6	1	0	1	0	4	1	19
third cl	1	0	2	6	0	1	1	1	4	1	17

In the ninth situation the participants are requested to take back the jacket they have bought from a friend's shop without breaking him or her. The participants of both groups employed the forms such as *I want to*, *can I*, more than the other

forms. However, the upper intermediate students used *could you* (4) in such a familiar situation for the sake of politeness.

Table 13: Distribution of the request forms in English responses in Question 10

	Imp	Could you	Can you	I must	I want You	Would you	If	Can I	I need	I wonder if	Is it poss	may I	I'd like	total
Prep	2	2	5	1	1	0	0	3	2	1	1	3	0	21
third	0	3	3	0	0	1	1	4	6	0	0	0	1	19

In the last situation the context includes borrowing lecture notes from a friend who rarely does so, but you need them urgently. In such an imposing context with a familiar person, the participants of upper intermediate use different forms of requests such as *can you* (5), *can I* (3), *may I* (3), *could you* (2), *imperative* (2). On the other hand, those of the advanced participants employed *I need* (6), *can I* (4), *can you* (3), *could you* (3) to make the utterance more acceptable.

Table 14: Total number of the most common forms of request for the unfamiliar situations

	would you	Could you	Can you	can I	May I	Is it poss	could I	If	IMP
Prep	1	32	9	11	4	13	3	3	5
third cl	1	24	17	10	14	12	2	6	3
Total	2	56	26	21	18	25	5	9	8

The total number of the unfamiliar situations shows that the participants employed the form of request *could you* (56) to perform the request under the conditions which are imposing and where there is a distance between the participants. However, although the form *can you* (26) is considered to be a less formal form it was also employed in the utterances made to the unfamiliar people. The form *is it possible* (25) was also employed at a considerable number. *Can I* (2) and *May I* (18) were also used.

The definition of politeness made by Lakoff (1973) and Leech (1983) that it is the attempt to give options, avoid intrusion, and make their interlocutor feel good can be felt in the examples of unfamiliar situations. In employing indirect strategies the participants gave options by using *could you.. ? Can I.. ? May I..?* and *is it possible..?* in their utterances.

Table 15: Total number of the most common forms of request for the familiar situations

	would you	Could you	Can you	can I	May I	Is it poss	could I	If	IMP
Prep	0	11	33	12	3	3	0	0	10
third cl	0	10	25	18	5	2	0	10	6
total	0	21	58	30	8	5	0	10	16

As responses to the familiar situations the participants employed mostly *Can you*, which indicates that the learners are, regardless of whom they are talking to, tended to use it. Again they employed *can I* (30) form to perform the request speech act, which also show that they are well aware of the forms and their politeness level. What is strange is that the participants, in some cases, used *could you* (21) form, which is known to be a politer and more formal form of requesting. However, the learners chose to use it for the sake of politeness although the people they speak to were familiar. That indicates that to be socially or relatively close to someone does not impede politeness. They employ significantly the conventional indirect form to maintain politeness.

In the familiar situations it can be said that even if the participants were talking to their friends they tried to be polite in general to accomplish the secondary goal of maintaining as it was mentioned by Berger, 1997; Dillard, Segrin, and Harden, 1989; Wilson, Aleman, and Leatham, 1998.

The English data, with regard to the number of the forms employed, have been discussed and the Turkish data will be investigated in the same way.

6.2.1.3 THE REQUEST FORMS IN THE TURKISH DATA

The participants also elicited requests in their own language for the situations in the questionnaire. Their responses were classified and counted as in the following tables.

Table 16: Distribution of the request forms in Turkish responses in Question 1

	emir	ebilir misiniz	ebilir miyim	ebilir misin	misiniz	dilek	şart	rica ediyorum	isti- yorum	mümkün mü	misin
Prep	1	4	2	2	5	1	0	2	1	2	0
third	0	7	3	0	5	3	3	0	1	2	1

In the first situation, the participants are asked to write their responses to the context in Turkish to find out the politeness level they have in their language. What is observed is that they tend to use *ebilir misiniz* (11) and *misiniz* (10) in their utterances to be polite. Those forms are mostly performed when speaking to people who have higher power and who are socially distant.

Table 17: Distribution of the request forms in Turkish responses in Question 2

	emir	ebilir misiniz	ebilir miyim	misin	misiniz	şart	emez misiniz	gere- kiyor	mümkün mü	isti yorum
Prep	2	4	2	0	2	1	4	0	3	0
third cl	1	3	5	1	4	1	0	1	4	1

In the second setting the participants employed mostly the forms *ebilir misiniz* (11), *ebilir miyim* (7), *mümkün mü* (7) to show their politeness. The situation requires talking to a clerk at the faculty to ask him/ her to give student identity on the same day, which seems improbable.

Table 18: Distribution of the request forms in Turkish responses in Question 3

	emir	ebilir misiniz	Ebilir miyim	misiniz	şart	rica ediyorum	mümkün mü	misin
Prep	1	3	6	7	0	0	2	0
third cl	1	2	9	5	1	2	3	1

The third situation requires talking to an unfamiliar person to ask for permission to withdraw money. The participants mostly used *ebilir miyim* (15) and *misiniz* (12) to perform the request speech act, which seems appropriate for the situation.

Table 19: Distribution of the request forms in Turkish responses in Question 4

	ebilir misiniz	ebilir miyim	miyiz	isti- yorum	mümkün mü	sakıncası var mı?
Prep	1	7	1	5	6	0
third cl	3	6	0	5	9	1

The fourth setting requires the learner to take back something bought before and ask for and exchange. They mostly used the forms *ebilir miyim* (13), *istiyorum* (10), *mümkün mü* (15) to perform the speech act.

Table 20: Distribution of the request forms in Turkish responses in Question 5

	mümk mü?	ebilir misiniz	ebilir miyim	emez misiniz	misiniz	şart	ihtiyacı var	gere- kiyor	zorun luluk	sakınca var mı?	rica edecektim
Prep	1	9	2	1	4	1	1	0	0	0	1
third	0	4	7	0	0	2	5	1	1	1	0

In the fifth situation where they need to make a request to the teacher, they participants employed different ways and structures to perform the request. They chose to use *ebilir misiniz* (13), *ebilir miyim* (12), *misiniz* (4). This indicates that they do not disregard the person whom they are talking to and the appropriate structures.

Table 21: The total number of request forms for the unfamiliar situations in the Turkish data

	emir	ebilir misiniz	ebilir miyim	misiniz	ebilir misin	dilek	şart	rica ediyorum	isti- yorum	mümkün mü	misin
Prep	4	21	19	18	0	0	2	3	6	14	0
third	2	19	30	14	0	0	4	2	7	18	3
total	6	40	49	32	0	0	6	5	13	32	3

Considering all the responses, regarding the unfamiliar situations it can now be said that the participants employed more formal forms in making a request, which results from the imposition and social distance that the context of situation requires. The forms that are mostly used were *ebilir misiniz* (4), *ebilir miyim* (49), *misiniz* (32), and *mümkün mü* (32), which are mostly conventional indirect ways of speaking.

It is surprising that some participants used *misin* (6), which actually requires a familiar situation or a situation where two socially identical persons are speaking. A reason for this might be that the participants assumed to speak to a person who have socially distant but nearly the same age.

Table 23: Distribution of the request forms in Turkish responses in Question 6

	emir	ebilir mi?	ebilir miyim	ebilir misin	misin	şart	prom	emez miyiz	rica ediyorum	mümkün mü?	Total
Prep	1	6	1	0	7	2	2	0	0	0	19
Third	1	3	0	3	7	4	0	1	1	1	21

In the sixth situation the students should make a request to a friend. That is why; they seem to avoid formal forms. The forms employed include *misin* (14), *ebilir miyim* (1), or *ebilir mi* (9), which seems polite but do not include the marker that indicates the listener has a higher power.

Table 24: Distribution of the request forms in Turkish responses in Question 7

	emir	ebilir misin	ecek misin	emez misin	misin	şart	ihtiyacım var	Total
Prep	0	7	1	1	9	1	0	19
third	1	8	0	0	3	5	4	21

In this situation again the participants used *ebilir misin* (15) and *misin* (12) when asking a friend who seems busy for some help for the project. This pattern can be said to be polite enough to use in such setting.

Table 25: Distribution of the request forms in Turkish responses in Question 8

	emir	ebilir misin	ebilir miyim	Misin	şart	gerekıyor	Total
Prep	1	12	2	4	2	0	21
third	1	9	3	3	1	3	20

In this situation the participants need to ask the person in the line to allow him/her get the money first for some urgent reasons. They mostly employed *ebilir misin* (21) and *misin* (7) to perform the speech act.

Table 26: Distribution of the request forms in Turkish responses in Question 9

	ebilir misin	mümkün mü?	ebilir miyim	ecektim	şart	istiyorum	gerekıyor	sakıncası var mı	Total
Prep	1	1	5	0	4	9	0	0	20
third	2	0	3	1	2	4	3	1	16

In this situation, the person needs to take back a jacket bought to a friend's store without breaking him or her. Most of the students used the form *geri vermek istiyorum* (13), which seems very direct or which does not consider the hearer politely or *ebilir miyim*.

Table 27: Distribution of the request forms in Turkish responses in Question 10

	emir	ebilir misin	mümkün mü?	ebilir miyim	ecek misin	şart	misin	ihtiyacım var	ebilir miydin?	Total
Prep	1	4	1	5	1	0	4	2	0	18
Third	1	2	0	6	0	4	4	2	1	20

In the last situation the participants need to get lecture notes from a friend who normally does not tend to do so. The forms employed *ebilir miyim* (11), *misin* (8), *ebilir misin*(6) , which are polite enough to use in such a context.

Table 22: The total number of request forms for the familiar situations in the Turkish data

	emir	ebilir misiniz	ebilir miyim	Misiniz	ebilir misin	dilek	şart	rica ediyorum	mümkün mü	misin
Prep	4	0	13	0	24	0	9	0	2	24
third cl	6	0	12	0	24	0	16	0	1	17
total	10	0	25	0	48	0	25	0	3	41

In the familiar data the participants employed *ebilir misin* (48) most and then *misin* (41) and *ebilir miyim* (25). And also they employed if clauses (25). They often maintained politeness in the utterances even when they speak to familiar people. They did not employ any forms, which may indicate that the person spoken to is an unfamiliar. *abilir misiniz* and *misiniz* and *rica ediyorum* were never employed.

Table 28: Could you vs Can you

	could you	
	Unfamiliar	Familiar
prep	32	11
third	24	10
Total	66	21

	can you	
	Unfamiliar	Familiar
prep	9	33
third	17	25
Total	26	58

The total number of the forms given in the two tables creates a general result, which is that the participants in the English data tend to use **could you ..?** in the unfamiliar situations and they tend to employ **can you ...?** in the familiar questions.

Table: 29 can I vs May I

	Can I	
	Unfamiliar	Familiar
prep	11	12
third	8	18
total	19	30

	may I	
	Unfamiliar	Familiar
prep	4	3
third	14	5
Total	18	8

May I is regarded as the more polite form of **Can I** as is written in the descriptive grammar books (Azar, 1981:146). This is here also proved as the students used more **May I..?** in the unfamiliar situations and more than **Can I..?** in the familiar situations being aware of this difference as was instructed by the teachers.

Table 30: ebilir misiniz misiniz and ebilir miyim

	ebilir misiniz	
	Unfamiliar	Familiar
prep	21	0
third	19	0
total	40	0

	Misiniz	
	Unfamiliar	Familiar
prep	19	0
third	14	0
Total	33	0

	ebilir miyim	
	Unfamiliar	Familiar
prep	19	13
third	30	12
total	49	25

In the unfamiliar situations in the Turkish data *ebilir misiniz?* (40), which corresponds to could you..? and *ebilir miyim?* (49), which corresponds to Can I or May I in English are used dominantly. Such responses may be said to be as a result of the instructions given by the teachers in the classroom. Otherwise, the participants who have never had the chance of practising their English in a natural setting or who hardly find the opportunity to be linguistically in contact with the native speakers will not be able to develop their pragmatic knowledge of language.

Table 31: Misin vs ebilir misin

	Misin	
	Unfamiliar	familiar
prep	0	24
third	1	17

	ebilir misin	
	Unfamiliar	familiar
prep	0	24
third	0	24

In the unfamiliar situations *-ebilir misin* and *-misin* outnumber the other forms which are those in the familiar situation by far. *Misin* (41) and *ebiklir misin* (48) are employed in the data. That is because these forms address to the second singular person in communication. They feel not needed to use the second plural person as they are speaking to the people they already know. In fact, I, as a native speaker, do not say “*süreyi uzatır misin*” to somebody who has higher power than me; say one of the teachers of mine. Rather, I utter “*süreyi uzatır mısınız?*” to show the respect that I have for him or her.

In this research question the forms found in the data were classified and compared to one another statistically both in English and Turkish. Firstly, each situation was investigated with respect to the number of the request forms both in English and in Turkish with some explanations afterwards. Then the structures were compared in relation to the situation group such as familiar and unfamiliar.

6.3.2. RESEARCH QUESTION 2:

WHAT IS THE IMPACT OF LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY ON THE PRODUCTION OF REQUEST UTTERANCES?

The questionnaire was applied to the upper intermediate and advanced students of ELT departments. The former is upper intermediate students while the latter is advanced students. They differ in terms of language proficiency. Considering their proficiency level of the participants, the following interpretations can be made depending on the numbers counted in the data.

Table 32: Total number of the most common forms of request for the unfamiliar situations

	Would you		Could you		Can you		Can I		May I		Is it poss		Could I		If		im		tot
Prep	1	1	32	40	9	11	11	14	4	5	13	16	3	4	3	4	5	6	81
		%		%		%		%		%		%		%		%		%	
third cl	1	1	24	28	17	19	10	11	14	16	12	14	2	2	6	7	3	3	88
		%		%		%		%		%		%		%		%		%	
total	2	1	56	33	26	15	21	12	18	11	25	15	5	3	9	5	8	5	169
		%		%		%		%		%		%		%		%		%	

As is seen in the table 32, as far as the number of the participants is concerned, the total number of the utterances produced by the two groups in unfamiliar situations differs insignificantly in producing request utterances in target language. 21 upper intermediate participants totally produced 81 forms of requests ranging from direct to conventionally indirect forms; whereas the 31 advanced participants produced 88 utterances. It seems that the upper intermediate participants produced averagely more than the latter. This indicates that the level of proficiency played no important role on the production of request utterances. The participants employed *could you* at the rate of 33 % in unfamiliar situations, whereas *can you* was employed at the rate of 15 %. Similarly, they used *is it possible* in this situations at the rate of 15 % again, which indicates that they see both *can you* and *is it possible* forms similar in terms of politeness.

Table 33: Total number of the most common forms of request for the familiar situations

	would you	Could you	Can you	can I	May I	Is it poss l	could I	If	IMP	total
Prep	0	11 15 %	33 46 %	12 17 %	3 4 %	3 4 %	0	10 14 %	10 14 %	72 49 %
third	0	10 13 %	25 33 %	18 24 %	5 7 %	2 3 %	0	0	6 8 %	76 51 %
total	0	21 14 %	58 39 %	30 20 %	8 5 %	5 3 %	0	10 7 %	16 11 %	148 100 %

The data concerning the unfamiliar situations show that upper intermediate students displayed better performance than the advanced students when we take the percentage of the utterances produced. 72 utterances were produced by 21 upper intermediate participants; whereas 76 utterances were performed by 31 students.

The participants employed *can you* at the rate of 39 % in the familiar situations. they also used *Can I* at the rate of 20 %. It was also interesting that 14 % of the participants used *could you* in their utterances for the sake politeness even though they were speaking to the people whom they have known before. The result is that intermediate participants outperformed the advanced participants in terms of appropriacy of the utterances, which indicates again that proficiency level of the participants played no role on the production of request utterances.

Table 34: The total number of request forms for the unfamiliar situations in the Turkish data

	emir		ebilir misiniz		ebilir miyim		misiniz		ebilir misin		dilek		şart		rica ediyorum		isti-yorum		mümkün mü		misin		Total	
Prep	4	5	21	24	19	22	18	21	0	0	2	2	3	3	6	7	14	16	0		87	47		
		%		%		%		%				%		%		%		%						%
third	2	2	19	19	30	30	14	14	0	0	4	4	2	2	7	7	18	18	3	3	99	53		
		%		%		%		%				%		%		%		%		%			%	
	6	3	40	22	49	26	32	17	0	0	6	3	5	3	13	7	32	17	3	2	186	10		
		%		%		%		%				%		%		%		%		%			%	

As for the utterances produced by the Turkish participants in their native language, the participants used *ebilir miyim* (26 %) and *ebilir misin* (22 %) in most number. These forms are polite when uttered to familiar people. However, *ebilir miyim* may also be used when spoken to unfamiliar people. This percentage indicates that the participants chose to be polite even to their friends

Table 35: The total number of request forms for the familiar situations in the Turkish data

	emir		ebilir misiniz		ebilir miyim		misi niz		ebilir misin		şart		Mümkün mü		misin		Total	
Prep	4	5	0		13	17	0	2	32	9	12	2	3	24	32	76		
		%				%		4	%		%		%		%			
third	6	8	0		12	16	0	2	32	16	21	1	1	17	22	76		
		%				%		4	%		%		%		%			
Total	10	7	0		25	16	0	4	32	25	16	3	2	41		152		
		%				%		8	%		%		%					

In the data regarding utterances in the familiar situations in the Turkish data, they also displayed nearly the same performance. The reason for this is that they are proficient in using their native language whatever the situation. They need no instruction about what to say, where, when and under what circumstances.

The second research question yielded the result that the impact of language proficiency on the production of request utterances were not so important for these two groups of participants. That might be because the advanced participants, after upper intermediate, took the courses for professional abilities rather than English language proficiency. That is why the advanced learners made almost no progress in their linguistic ability.

6.3.3. RQ3. TO WHAT EXTENT DO THE LEARNERS USE MODIFICATION?

The third research question was to find how the learners use modification for the sake of politeness in the utterances. With this in mind, all the modifiers were counted and clustered according to their situation number and the modification types: internal and external. The numbers obtained show to what extent the modification was employed in the utterances by the intermediate and advanced learners.

Table 36: Total number of the modification categories in English responses

	Modification	Upper Int		Advanced	
		Unfamiliar	Familiar	Unfamiliar	Familiar
Internal Mod.	Number	63	64	94	85
	Percentage	68 %	59 %	72 %	62 %
External Mod.	Number	30	45	36	52
	Percentage	32 %	41 %	28 %	40 %
Total		93	109	130	137

The language users pay attention to level of the politeness in their utterances depending on whom they are talking to in general. The participants, in terms of internal modification, employed the same number of internal downgraders and

upgraders regardless of their proficiency level. They displayed the same politeness for familiar and unfamiliar people they are talking to.

Advanced learners seem to use a little more internal modification than upper intermediate learners in both familiar (62 %) and unfamiliar (72 %) situations. However, it seems that upper intermediate learners used little more external modification than the advanced learners in both familiar (41 %) and unfamiliar (32 %) situations.

Surprisingly, although the participants differ in proficiency level, upper intermediate and advanced learners displayed the politeness level, which indicates that there is no significant difference between them in their pragmatic knowledge as to the politeness in the target language utterances.

Table 37: Total number of the modification categories in Turkish responses

	Modification	Upper Int		Advanced	
		Unfamiliar	familiar	Unfamiliar	Familiar
Internal	Number	49	29	66	41
	Percentage	56 %	35 %	56 %	45 %
External	Number	39	53	51	51
	Percentage	44 %	65 %	44 %	55 %
	Total	88	82	117	92

The participants used modification in their Turkish utterances as well. The rates indicate that, in terms of internal and external modification, upper intermediate learners produced the same performance (56 %) as the advanced learners in the unfamiliar situations. However, the performance in the familiar situations changed. The upper intermediate learners used less internal modification (35 %), but the advanced learners' performance was 45 %. Upper intermediate learners used external modification at the rate of 65 %, whereas advanced used at the rate of 55 %.

It seems that in familiar situations the learners depended more on external modification while in the unfamiliar situations internal modification was chosen. This indicates that the learners tended to use more lexical items to attain politeness rather than external modification.

6.3.4. RQ4: WHAT IS THE IMPACT OF THE FAMILIARITY AND UNFAMILIARITY TO THE SPEAKER ON THE LEVEL OF POLITENESS?

To find the impact of the familiarity and unfamiliarity to the speaker on the level of politeness, the directness level of the utterances made was investigated.

The questionnaire contains two types of situations; familiar situations, where the hearer is familiar and unfamiliar situations, where the hearer is unfamiliar. One of the objectives of the study was to find out whether the speakers are aware of the person they are speaking to. In the familiar situation the forms of requests employed are *can you, can I, I want to, or imperative form*.

Sorry, I haven't finished to read your book. Please give me some more time to finish reading. (3-En. 19)

I am sorry; I couldn't give your book back. Because I need it some more time. Can I use your book? (P-En. 23)

On the other hand in unfamiliar situation the forms of requests are *could you, could I, may I, would you, will you, I wonder if*. This shows that the participants are generally aware of the fact that forms employed must change according to the hearer. What follows are examples to the unfamiliar situations

Excuse me. **I wonder** if you could let me take your turn as my bus is about to leave. (P-En. 12)

Excuse me. I must withdraw money urgently to pay for my ticket. Please, **could you** give me permission to withdraw quickly? (3-Eng. 15)

I am sorry but I couldn't finish my assignment before the deadline, so I need some more additional time. **Could you** please give me a few more days if it is possible? (3. En. 34)

As for the modifiers used in the utterances, the uses of *please*, *sorry*, *really*, *excuse me* are employed in the unfamiliar utterances,

Sir I **really** need one of your books. I know I am a messy one, but I promise it will be in good condition of use when I have brought back. (3-En. 35)

whereas *hi*, *darling* *honey*, are employed in the familiar situations.

Honey, I know you are serious about your books but you know me. I will bring it back to you in one piece. Can I use it for a few days more? (3-En. 24)

Dear, I couldn't completely read the book. If possible 2 days later is okey for you. (P-En. 4)

Hey look at me; at this point I need you too much. I know that you are busy. After finishing mine, I will be able to help you (3-En.16)

Table 38: The total number of direct conventional indirect and non conventional indirect speech act of English responses

Speech Act		Prep	Third	Total
Direct speech act	Utt. Num.	65	89	154
	Percentage	42 %	58 %	100 %
Con. Ind. Speech act	Utt. Num.	131	147	278
	Percentage	47 %	53 %	100 %
Non-Con. Indirect	Utt. Num.	2	6	8
	Percentage	-	-	-

The upper intermediate participants, in terms of directness, used direct speech act averagely at the rate of 42 %. However, this rate is 58 % with the advanced level

of participants. It is realized that the upper intermediate participants tend to be a little less direct in their utterances in comparison with the advanced participants.

Direct strategy appears to be employed more by advanced learners than the upper intermediate learners in the study.

On the other hand, the upper intermediate participants produced conventional indirect speech act at the rate of 47 %, but the advanced participants used this at the rate of 53 %, which indicates that the former tended to use less conventional indirect speech act.

The speech act data concerning the non-conventional indirect strategy reveals that the participants used few or no such a strategy that arises from the characteristics of discourse completion task.

Table 41: The total number of direct speech act utterances in Turkish Responses

Speech Act		Prep	Third	Total
Direct speech act	Utt. Num.	44	56	100
	Percentage	44 %	56 %	1.92
Con. Indirect	Utt. Num.	134	126	260
	Percentage	52 %	48 %	5
Non-Con. Indirect	Utt. Num.	3	1	4
	Percentage	-	-	-

In terms of directness the upper intermediate participants used direct speech act (44 %) less than the advanced participants (56 %) did in their Turkish responses. This result is similar to that of English responses in that the upper intermediate learners were less direct than the advanced ones.

The upper intermediate participants also produced more conventional utterances (52 %) than the advanced learners (48 %). Given the percentages the upper intermediate learners seemed to outperform the advanced learners.

The percentages about the non-conventional indirect speech act indicate that the learners almost never chose to use non-conventional indirect strategy in their utterances.

In all types of directness strategies the upper intermediate learners produced more utterances and used the direct less and indirect strategies more in number. This indicated that they were possibly more prepared to perform the questionnaire and more concentrated and more willing in the activity. Another reason for the upper intermediate learners to perform the task better may be the responsibility they have for the activity they have done.

The qualitative results, in terms of level of directness, showed that requests tended to be conventional indirect rather than direct or non-conventional indirect in both Turkish and English data and the participants chose to convey their requests using *could you...?* in the unfamiliar situations and *can you ...?* in the familiar situations in the English data. The upper intermediate and advanced participants both used these forms of request more often than the other two.

As for the Turkish data, the participants used different forms of requests. In the unfamiliar situations *-ebilir misiniz* and *-ebilir miyim* forms were dominantly used whereas in the familiar situations the three forms such as *-ebilir misin*, *-misin* - *ebilir miyim* were dominantly used. The Turkish students were naturally well aware of the request form differences in their mother tongue in terms of directness.

In the study it was aimed to find to what extent L2 learners would take familiarity in to consideration in producing utterances. This is best shown by the percentages that were obtained. According to them the participants used strategies

depending on whom they were talking and familiarity was an important factor for them to use politer forms in their utterances.

6.3.5. RQ5. WHAT IS THE POLITENESS LEVEL ACHIEVED BY THE FOREIGN LANGUAGE LEARNERS?

To find the politeness level achieved by the foreign language learners, two English native speakers and two non-native Turkish teachers of English rated the utterances of the participants from very rude to very polite with regard to the level of politeness. The results obtained from such a rating were expected to suggest the politeness level possibly achieved by the participants.

Five-point scale used in the assessment of the utterances in the data by the native and non native speakers was designed as follows:

Very rude	Rude	neutral	polite	Very polite
1	2	3	4	5

Some statistical analysis were made with the data and the findings are as follows:

Table 44: Descriptive statistics of native and non-native raters

	N	Mean
Native 1	42	3,9693
Native 2	42	3,5696
Non1	42	3,1976
Non 2	43	3,1884

The data obtained from the native and non-native speakers of English were analysed. The mean of the first native speaker was 3,9693, whereas that of the

second was 3,5696. On the other hand, the two non-native speakers of English rated the utterances of the participants in the same way and what emerges from this is that the first non-native speaker' mean (3,1884) was nearly the same as that of the second (3,1976). On the whole, the scores of native speakers were much higher than those of the non-native speakers, which indicates that native speakers are more tolerant to the possible inappropriateness or inaccuracy that may be found in the utterances of the participants. Alternatively, the non-native speakers may have developed a different sense of politeness from the native speakers.

Subsequently, group statistics were made. The findings are as follows:

Table 45: Group Statistics of raters for prep and third year classes

V1	N	Mean	Std. Deviation
Native1	prep	20	3,9950 , 2837
	Third year	22	3,9458 , 3760
Native2	prep	20	3,6400 , 3885
	Third year	22	3,5056 , 5306
Non 1	prep	21	3,0571 , 1964
	Third year	22	3,3136 , 3270
Non 2	prep	21	3,3381 , 3413
	Third year	21	3,0571 , 3982
Nattotal	prep	20	3,8175 , 2984
	Third year	22	3,7257 , 4054
Nontotal	prep	21	3,1976 , 2411
	Third year	21	3,1857 , 3362

The scores showed that native 1 rated the utterances of both prep and third year participants similarly. The performance of both groups according to the first native speaker seems equal. On the other hand, the score obtained from the second native speaker appeared to be equal like the first native speaker, but this time the

level of politeness were found lower in both groups than that which was scored by the first native speaker.

However, the rates of the non-native speakers were much lower than both of the native speakers. What was strange was that the first non-native speaker found level of politeness of the third year participants higher than the prep participants by 3,3136 and 3,0571 respectively. On the other hand, the second non-native speaker found level of politeness higher in prep participants than third year participants by 3,3381 and 3,0571 respectively. The two non-native speakers found significant differences between the level of politeness of the prep and third year learners.

Considering the total of the two native speakers there was not significant difference. In the same way the two non-native participants displayed no difference in terms of level of politeness in the data of both prep and third year participants.

Table 46: Paired Samples Statistics of natives and non-native

	Mean	Std. Dev.	t	df	Sig.(2tailed)
Pair1 Na1-Na2	,3997	,3844	6,738	41	,000
Pair2 non1 non2	1,19E-02	,3946	-,196	41	,846
Pair3 nattotal	7450	,2391	19,709	39	,000

Paired sample test revealed that there was highly significant difference between the rates of both native speakers, but there was not any difference between non-native 1 and non-native 2. When the native total and non-native total were paired, what emerged was that there was highly significant difference between the two-paired groups. This also indicates that the native speakers view level of politeness of utterances in different ways from non-native speakers.

This difference arose from the mean values, which can be shown in Table 47:

Table 47: Paired Sample Statistics of

	Mean	N	Std. deviation
Pair 1 Native 1	3,9693	42	,3322
Native 2	3,5696	42	,4677
Pair 2 Non1	3,1857	42	,3009
Non 2	3,1976	42	,3929
Pair 3 Nattotal	3,7825	40	,3598
Nontotal	3,0375	40	,2724

Native speaker 1 rated the politeness level higher for all the participants, whereas native speaker 2 rated it lower for all the participants. However, the difference between the non-native speakers' judgements was nearly equal. The value between the native total and non-native total is 3,7825 and 3,0375 respectively.

6.4. SUMMARY OF THE CHAPTER

In this chapter results from qualitative and quantitative analysis was presented. Aims and research questions were identified and then the findings with regard to each research question were clarified.

CHAPTER SEVEN

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS

7.0. INTRODUCTION

In this chapter the findings obtained from the study will be clarified and the conclusions will be drawn. Furthermore, the implications for a further study will be shown.

7.1. SUMMARY OF THE STUDY

7.1.1. AIM OF THE STUDY

This study aimed to investigate the politeness level achieved by the upper intermediate and advanced learners through request speech acts in which discourse completion task were employed.

7.1.2. SUMMARY OF MAIN FINDINGS

What follows are the main findings of the study performed.

This study aimed to find what request forms were used by the participants. It was observed that the participants seemed to employ usually conventional indirect strategy in their utterances rather than direct speech act strategy.

The second objective was to find whether the language proficiency had an impact on the quality of speech act in terms of politeness. What was found was that upper intermediate learners outperformed the advanced learners in relation to the number of the request utterances and in terms of the modifiers used in the utterances.

The third finding related to the third objective of the study was that the upper intermediate learners employed more modifiers in their utterances to mitigate the

request made with the purpose of achieving the politeness level when compared to advanced learners.

The fourth objective was to find whether familiarity had an impact on the level of politeness. The finding was that the learners were well aware of the person with whom they were talking. They shifted request pattern from polite ones to less formal ones depending on this contextual clue given in the situations.

The fifth objective was to find the politeness level achieved by the participants depending on the ratings of the utterances by native and non-native participants. What revealed was that the native speakers displayed a difference in level of politeness regarding the percentage of the scores. Non-native speakers rated the utterances differently but on the whole the percentage they scored was lower than that of the two native speakers.

7.2. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

In this section the findings of the study are discussed considering those of other related studies given in the literature. The discussion is organised in two sub-sections. In the first place it discusses the directness and indirectness strategies that the participants achieved. In the second place it discusses the use of modification employed in the utterances.

7.2.1. THE DIRECTNESS AND INDIRECTNESS STRATEGIES

The discussion of the requests suggest that most of the participants are aware of the fact that the directness level of the utterances greatly influence the politeness level of the request. With this in mind, they used conventionally indirect requests with high frequency. It can also been observed that they employed direct request in some cases. Non-conventional requests hardly occurred at all.

The fact that the participants substantially used conventional indirect speech act in their utterances results from the fact that, as Searle (1975) notes, indirect act is inherited from the first language acquisition nature. That makes it clear that foreign language learners are naturally inclined to produce an indirect act as it is in the nature of the language use to speak directly. (see section 3.3)

Another justification that can be made as to why learners' preference in the data was substantially for the indirect speech act request can be born out by the report by CCSARP, which showed that both native speakers of English and advanced L2 learners displayed a preference for indirect request forms.

In the data collected there are few examples of nonconventional requests in the utterances made. Weizman (1989) suggests that this is a feature of requests in naturalistic settings. Hence, as this study is carried out with a productive discourse completion task it would be hard for the learners to imagine themselves making hints in their utterances without the actual occurrence of the speech event.

Ellis (1994) suggests that performatives and hedged performatives are rare in naturalistic settings. However, in this study which is a productive discourse completion task such request forms are found on a small scale. This may be partly due to the lack of linguistic insufficiency. Thus, the pragmalinguistic knowledge they have acquired may not include such knowledge.

Brown and Levinson (1978) define requests as an act imposing on the addressees and potentially threatening the hearer's face. Accordingly, they suggest that the tendency for the learners to use indirect speech act rather than direct act lies at how much they can enhance and lessen the threat to another's face. This finding in this study about the learners' tendency to use indirect speech act can be confirmed by the view of Brown and Levinson (1978).

Olshtain and Blum-Kulka 1985 carried out a study in which the learners displayed an increased preference for direct requests according to length of stay in target community. However, in this study we found that the majority of both upper intermediate and advanced learners displayed increased preference for conventional indirect speech. This arises the question whether target community experience influences the choice of politeness level and strategies of the learners.

7.2.2. MODIFICATION

CCSARP provides a great deal of information about how L2 learners with different language backgrounds perform requests. Blum-Kulka et al. (1989) summarized the main finding of a number of different studies that have investigated elicited requests produced primarily by advanced L2 learners. What is found is that the requests of these learners contain a number of non-target like features such as being verbose in comparison to those of native speakers as a result of more supportive moves such as long explanations and justifications.

House and Casper (1987) found that Danish and German learners of English opt for high level of directness in their requests than native speakers and use fewer mitigating devices such as syntactic downgraders such as hedging.

Faerch and Kasper (1989) reported that Danish learners of L2 English tend to use lexical rather than syntactic mitigating devices. Their requests display more double markings than native speakers (e.g., could you possibly present your paper this week?), which Faerch and Kasper suggested is the result of a “play it safe” strategy.

Ellis (1994) notes that in general, external modification is preferred to internal modification. However, in this study the L2 learners of English preferred internal modification to external modification both by upper intermediate and advanced learners. This might be due to the lack of self-confidence in their language skills. The

might have possibly avoided any linguistic mistake. Another reason may be that they might not know that such a strategy- adding a concrete reason to the request utterance- will be likely to increase the politeness level of the act. (See 5.13.4 See Table 35).

However, there is little attempt at either internal or external modification. In addition, the modifying devices are restricted with “please” and a few grounders. This contrasts with the results reported in CCSARP (Faerch and Kasper, 1989), which showed that the requests elicited from advanced adults L2 learners displayed considerable modification.

7.2.3. The quality of politeness by upper intermediate and advanced learners

Ellis (1994) suggests that there is considerable evidence that advanced L2 learners fall short of native-speaker competence in that they show a tendency to verbosity. This is perhaps because they are aware of the dangers that are inherent in making requests. The same justification may be true for this study as well because it was found that, compared to advanced L2 learners, upper intermediate L2 English learners were relatively good not only in terms of the production amount but also in terms of the quality of the utterances.

It was also interesting that the level of politeness was rated to be a little bit higher- whatsoever it is not so significant- in upper intermediate learners than advanced learners, which indicates that the request utterances of upper intermediate L2 learner were more qualified, as more utterances were produced and higher level of politeness was observed in the responses and more lexical devices were employed in the utterances of requests.

In general, some conclusions can be made concerning the developmental limitations found in the data. One of the most significant one is that limited

communicative setting in L2, available for the foreign language learners. The learners have been confined to an environment where they have little or no chance to exercise their pragmatic knowledge since they began learning the target language.

7.3. IMPLICATIONS

The implications of the study can be gathered under two sub-headings. These are the implications for how politeness in requests can be instructed in classroom setting and for the further studies that may be carried out in this field.

7.3.1. IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHING REQUESTS IN CLASSROOM SETTING

This study has shown that lack of target community experience impedes native like pragmatic knowledge improvement in L2 learners. For the learners to produce L2 request speech act may be of significant and relatively hard in terms of politeness in target language without experiencing it in the original setting. In the classrooms what is generally done is to show the formal and informal forms of requests to the students. With this knowledge the learners decide which one to use only depending on whether the setting is formal or informal.

However, this study has also shown that there are strategies that make a request speech act polite and appropriate as well. For example, providing concrete reasons before or after the head act may increase the force of the request being made. The result in this study that the L2 learners resorted to internal rather than external modification may lie in the fact that the students in the classroom setting may have not been instructed to do so.

The L2 learners can be made aware of strategies that they may follow in producing request speech act utterances and also some examples of native speakers' request utterances can be studied in the classroom setting. Further, they can be made

to pay attention to the setting in which the act is being produced and to whom the request is being made and the imposition that the request puts on the hearer.

The L2 learners should be made exposed to natural settings where native speakers are communicating so that they can develop pragmatic and sociolinguistic knowledge successfully concerning speech acts.

7.3.2. IMPLICATIONS FOR THE FURTHER STUDIES

7.3.2.1. METHODOLOGICAL IMPLICATIONS

This study was conducted with a small number of students but in the further studies a larger number of students can be investigated so that a reliable result can be obtained, providing much more clues about how the Turkish students achieve politeness. This will give us the opportunity to build a general concept about the question.

Another implication gathered from the study is that the students who participated in the study could have been given a seminar about what politeness is and how it works in terms of languages. Also, the strategies found in requesting speech act could be made clear and then the utterances of the students could have been assessed. That would possibly have been a better way of measuring their pragmatic competence.

7.3.2.2. SUGGESTIONS FOR FURTHER RESEARCH

This study was carried out on a small scale and with a limited range of students. Therefore, the findings need to be born out. Further research can replicate study, with a few changes in the methodology in different languages such as Japanese or German.

Alternatively, pragmatic knowledge of the learners with regard to politeness level can be measured with different speech acts such as apology, complimenting or complaining using the same methodology.

In this study the design of the questionnaire was discourse completion task based on production. A replicate study might be done into how the learners perceive politeness in the target language with a questionnaire that provides the learners with some alternative utterances from which they can choose that suits the context and the situation best.

In this study, the productive speech act skills of L2 learners were assessed with a productive discourse completion task and this assessment was combined with the knowledge about how the native and non-native speakers perceive politeness level of the learner utterances in the data. However, to get an opportunity to compare and contrast the speech act utterances of L2 language learners with those of native speakers, the same questionnaire can be applied to both of them in the form of productive discourse completion task.

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APPENDICES



QUESTIONNAIRE FOR MAIN STUDY

Situations

1. The assignment you had to hand in your teacher is overdue. If you do not hand in, you may fail the course. You need to ask for a few days in which to complete it.

2. You need to get a student identity from the secretarial department of the school. But you know that it is hardly possible for them to prepare it on the same day. However, you want to make a request.

3. There is a long queue in front of the bank and you need to withdraw money to pay for the ticket urgently because the bus is about to leave. You want the people there to let you do it first.

4. You want to change the jacket you bought from a store a week ago because you realized that you did not like it at all. You will ask for the change form the store manager.,

5. You want to borrow a book from a teacher of yours, who is particular about his books. You need the book urgently. You need to persuade him to do so.

6. You could not take the book back to your friend although you promised to do so and you know that s/he is particular about such things. You will ask for a few days in which to give it back.

7. You want your friend to help you with the project you are working on although you know s/he is too busy.

8. You have seen a friend of yours in the queue of the bank mat and you need to withdraw money urgently. You will ask him/her to let you his/her turn.

9. You want to take back the jacket you bought from the store of your friend but you want to do this without breaking him /her.

10. You want to borrow the lecture notes from a friend of yours, who seldom agrees to do so. You also need to get a high mark form this lesson and you need to study hard. It is important to borrow these notes.

DURUMLAR

1. Ödevinizi verilen sürede hocanıza teslim edemediniz. Bu arada ödevi vermediğiniz takdirde o dersten kalma ihtimaliniz var. Hocanızdan size birkaç gün müsaade vermesini isteyeceksiniz. Ne söylediniz?
 2. Okulun öğrenci işlerinden a\m gün öğrenci belgesi almak durumundasınız. Fakat kurumun o gün vermesinin zor olduğunu biliyorsunuz. Yinede rica etmek istiyorsunuz. Ne söylediniz?
 3. Bankada uzun bir kuyruk var ve bilet parasını ödemek için sizinde acilen para çekmeniz gerekiyor çünkü otobüsünüz kalmak üzere. Oradaki insanlardan size izin vermesini isteyeceksiniz. Ne söylediniz?
 4. Bir mağazadan 1 hafta önce aldığınız ceketini değiştirmek istiyorsunuz çünkü birden ondan hoşlanmadığınızı fark ettiniz ve mağaza müdüründen değişim için ricada bulunacaksınız. Ne söylediniz?
 5. Kitap konusunda çok titiz bir hocanızdan değerli bir kitabını ödünç almak istiyorsunuz. İstedığınız kitaba çok acil ihtiyacınız var. Onu ikna etmek zorundasınız. Ne söylediniz?
 6. Söz verdiğiniz halde arkadaşınızdan aldığınız kitabı zamanında geri götüremediniz ve bu konuda çok titiz olduğunu da biliyorsunuz. Ondan birkaç gün daha size birkaç gün izin vermesini istiyorsunuz. Ne söylediniz?
 7. Arkadaşınızdan yaptığınız projede yardımcı olmasını istiyorsunuz; öte yandan da onun çok meşgul olduğunu da biliyorsunuz. Ne söylersiniz?
-
8. Bankamatik kuyruğunda bekleyen bir arkadaşınızı gördünüz ve acilen para çekmeniz gerekli ve sırasını size vermesini istiyorsunuz. Ne söylediniz?
 9. Bir arkadaşınızın mağazasından aldığınız ceketini daha sonra geri vermek fakat onu kırmadan bunu anlatmak istiyorsunuz. söylediniz?
 10. Ders notlarını genelde kimseye vermeyen bir sınıf arkadaşınızdan almak istiyorsunuz. O dersten yüksek bir nota ihtiyacınız var ve çok iyi çalışmanız gerekli. O notları almanız çok önemli. Ne söylediniz?
-

QUESTIONNAIRE FOR PILOT STUDY

Okul/Fakülte:

Bölüm:

Sınıf:

Yaş:

Cinsiyet:

Öğrenim gördüğünüz yabancı dil:

Öğreniyor olduğunuz dilin konuşulduğu ülkede bulunma süresi:

AÇIKLAMALAR

Bu anket bilimsel bir araştırmanın temel dayanağı olacaktır. Bu yüzden, vereceğiniz cevaplarda samimi olunuz. Verilen durumlarda söyleyeceğinizi düşündüğünüz ifadelerle olduğu gibi eksiksiz yazınız. Günlük hayattaki iletişimde çevremizdeki kişilerle sürekli konuşur, küçük diyaloglar oluştururuz. Söylediğimiz şeyler genelde o an için gerekli ve gerçekleşmesi önemli şeylerdir. Bu ankette de tıpkı günlük hayatta birisiyle konuşuyor gibi doğal olup ifadelerinizi yazıya aktarınız ne eksik ne fazla.

Questionnaire for unfamiliar situation

1. You are sitting around a table with your close friends and you want the butter from one of them.
2. You want to ask your teacher a question.
3. You are at a new friend's apartment and you want to use the phone.
4. You knock on your professor's half open door. He is sitting at his desk. You want to come in.
5. You want to make an appointment to see Dr. North. You are speaking to her secretary.
6. You call your friend Mary and someone else answers the phone.
7. You are speaking to your boss and want him to let you leave a bit earlier.
8. You do not like the program you are watching with someone you do not know in a hotel lobby and you want to change the channel
9. You do not like being smoked where you are but a stranger is, so you want him to put it out.
10. You are at a restaurant and you want to leave as you have finished your meal and you want to pay.
11. You are giving a party. Your guests have just arrived. You want to get them something to drink.

12. You are the teacher and want a student to shut the door.
13. You are walking in the school building. You need to know what time it is. You ask a student you have never met.
14. You are in the middle of the city and you are lost. You are trying to find the bus station. You stop someone on the street to ask for direction.
15. You are trying to study. Your roommate is playing his record player very loudly and this is bothering you.
16. The taxi driver is driving the car and you want him to stop at the mailbox, so you can mail a letter.

Questionnaire for familiar situation

1. You are sitting around a table with your new friends and you want the butter from one of them.
2. You want to ask your classmate a question.
3. You are at a close friend's apartment and you want to use the phone.
4. You knock on your uncle's half open door. He is sitting at his desk. You want to come in.
5. You want to make an appointment to see you old friend who is now a doctor over the phone.
6. You call your friend Mary and his sister answers the phone.
7. You are speaking to your workmate and ask him to come early the other day as you are not going to be able to come.
8. You do not like the program you are watching with you frind you do not know ina hotel lobby and you want to change the channel
9. You do not like being smoked where you are but a close friend is, so you want him to put it out.
10. You are at a small local restaurant and you want to leave as you have finished your meal and you want to pay.

11. You are giving a reception. Your guests have just arrived. You want to get them something to drink.
 12. You are the guest and want a hostess to shut the door.
 13. You are walking in the school building. You need to know what time it is. You ask a student you have known for years.
 14. You are in the middle of the city and you are lost. You are trying to find the bus station. You stop someone on the street to ask for direction.
 15. You are trying to study. Your neighbour is playing his record player very loudly and this is bothering you.
 16. A friend of yours is driving the car and you want him to stop at the mailbox, so you can mail a letter.
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